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RESEARCH

THE CATEGORY OF VOICE IN VIETNAMESE: A SYSTEMIC FUNCTIONAL DESCRIPTION

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Abstract: This article is a functional description of the category of voice – arguably, one of the most slippery notions in the grammar of Vietnamese that seems to resist any satisfactory treatment. The theoretical framework employed for describing and interpreting the category is Systemic Functional Linguistics (SFL). Three questions which form the basis of this study are: (1) "Does the system of **VOICE** exist in Vietnamese?"; if so, (2) "What are the delicate options available in the environment of **VOICE** in Vietnamese?"; and (3) "How can these delicate options be distinguished from the SFL perspective?" The answers to these questions show that unlike formal grammatical descriptions, **VOICE** exists in Vietnamese as a system; the environment of **VOICE** opens up a number of delicate options; and these delicate options can be distinguished along the three metafunctions: experiential, interpersonal, and textual. The answers to these questions also show that SFL is a highly relevant framework for describing and interpreting the system of **VOICE** in Vietnamese: SFL helps us investigate the category from a number of dimensions, enabling us to have a more comprehensive view of it. The study contributes to the application of SFL to the description of Vietnamese grammar - a non-Indo-European language, opening up new potentials for a comprehensive approach to the description of a Systemic Functional Grammar of Vietnamese for research, application, and teaching purposes.

Key words: voice in Vietnamese, ergativity, transitivity, mood, theme

1. Introduction

The study of Vietnamese, since the introduction of traditional and formal Western-styles of linguistics, has been hampered by the perception that "In Vietnamese, there are no articles, nouns, pronouns, verbs; there are no genders and numbers either, only words; these words are all mono-syllabic and in general invariable; their meanings are changed by the positions of the words which precede or follow them, i.e. by their functions or positions in the sentence"[1] (Grammont & Le, 1911, pp. 201-2; as cited in Nguyen, 1977, p. 14). With regard to

voice, although the issue has been occasionally raised at seminars and conferences on Vietnamese linguistics and Vietnamese language teaching about whether or not this category exists in Vietnamese, it is under-researched. In reviewing the literature, it is evident that almost no systematic research on voice has ever been conducted. It is either mentioned in passing in some Vietnamese textbooks for foreigners (e.g. Bouchet, 1912; Nguyen, 1979) or briefly described in some grammar books, implicitly using some single aspect of formal grammars as the theoretical framework (e.g. Nguyen, 1977; Diep, 1987, 2013). One of the consequences is that their descriptions of voice in Vietnamese appear to be superficial and inadequate; and, to make matters worse, an exhaustive and coherent application of a particular linguistic model to the description of voice in Vietnamese has not been possible. This is the reason why in this article we will attempt a description and interpretation of the category of voice in Vietnamese, using SFL as the theoretical framework. Our study consists of five main sections. Section one introduces the topic.

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[1] Ibid., p. 14. This passage, which I have translated here for presentation, appears in the Vietnamese original as follows:

Trong tiếng Việt không có mạo từ, danh từ, đại từ, động từ, cũng không có giống, số, mà chỉ có những từ không thôi; những từ này đều là đơn âm tiết, nói chung không biến đổi, ý nghĩa của chúng được thay đổi hay được xác định nhờ những từ đặt trước hay theo sau, nghĩa là, nhờ chức năng, vị trí của chúng trong câu.

Section two provides an overview of some formal conflicting views on voice in Vietnamese. Section three is concerned with data collection procedure and presentation of illustrative examples. Section four, drawing on insights from the studies by Halliday (1985, 1998, 2012, and elsewhere) and Halliday and Matthiessen (2014), describes and interprets in some detail the system of **VOICE** and its delicate options in Vietnamese. Finally, Section five summarises what has been explored and recommends the relevance of the SFL theory to description of Vietnamese grammar.

2. Voice in Vietnamese: Conflicting views

Formal grammarians of Vietnamese are not unanimous in looking at the category of voice in Vietnamese. To date, there have been three contradicting views about whether or not the category is applicable to the language. Some grammarians such as Truong (1867), Bui

(1952), Diep (1987, 2013) hold that the category of voice does exist in Vietnamese. They mention (in passing) that the distinction between what has been traditionally referred to as the active and passive voice rests on two conditions which generally coincide: (a) the difference in the structure corresponding to the active and passive voice in the clause and (b) the occurrence of the two traditionally called common passive verbs *bị* (suffer, sustain, undergo) and *được* (get, obtain, receive). Simplifying somewhat, the different structures corresponding to the active and passive voice in Vietnamese, using the terminology of formal grammar, can be represented respectively as follows (note: NP = noun phrase; V = verb):

NP1 + V (main) + NP2   [active]
NP2 + V1 (passive) + NP1 + V2 (main) [passive]

These contrasting constructions can be exemplified again in formal terms by the following clauses taken from Nguyen (1977, p. 132).

(1a) [active]

Giáp	*đánh*	*con*	*ngựa*
Giap	beat	generic classifier	horse
NP1	V(main)	NP2	

Giap beat(s) the horse.

(1b) [passive]

Con	*ngựa*	*bị*	*Giáp*	*đánh*
generic classifier	horse		Giap	beat
NP2		V1(passive)	NP1	V2(main)

The horse is/was beaten by Giap.

However, there are some grammarians (e.g., Bouchet, 1912; Cordier,1932, Tran et al., 1960; Emeneau, 1951; Le, 1980; Thompson, 1985) who, drawing mostly on the classical Western view, have expressed doubts about the existence of voice in Vietnamese. They argue against the need to recognise this category. To quote Emeneau (1951, pp. 63-4):

> Of the Vietnamese verb in general, it may be said, as Yuen Ren Chao said for Chinese (*Mandarin Primer*, p. 35): "there is no distinction of voice in Chinese." Besides what looks like syntactically expressed voice ("direction of action") in the familiar Indo-European sense ("active" : "passive", Vietnamese has the type of direction […], with object but no subject, and the types of construction […] in which a verb is followed by and object and that in which it is followed by another verb in series. None of these involve formal change in verb, and

it must be said that the Vietnamese verb is without the category of voice.

Emeneau (ibid., p. 73) continues to state:

> Tense, mode, and voice, [...] are not the categories of the Vietnamese verb; nor are aspect, number and person of the subject and object. The verb has its class meaning: it occurs and can occur as the nucleus of a predicate and cannot occur as the subject of a predicate or as object of a verb, except when the verb of the predicate is *là* (be).

In a similar vein, Thompson (1985, p. 217) claims:

> An important way in which Vietnamese verbs differ from English verbs is that they do not in themselves imply a clear notion of "voice" in the grammatical sense. In English a (transitive) verb must be either active or passive. No such distinction is necessary in Vietnamese. As a matter of fact, the actor or the goal or object of

Vietnamese verbs are regularly not formally marked; these relationships are generally clear from the context, and if they are not there are ways in which they can be made clear; the point is that they need not be, and in the vast majority of Vietnamese sentences such classifying devices are not used. The device which indicates that a preceding focal complement is actually a goal or object of the action […].

Thus, the rejection of the category of voice in Vietnamese is said to be justified by the fact that voice is the category of the verb, and that because Vietnamese is an isolating/analytic or

(2)

Bác	*Hai*	*bị*	*một*	*phát*	*súng lục*
uncle	Hai	suffer	one	generic classifier	pistol
NP1		VP		NP2	

Uncle Hai got a gun shot.

(3)

Quân	*được*	*điểm*	*tốt*
Quan	get/receive	mark	good
NP1	VP	NP2	

Quan got a good mark.

The fact that *bị* and *được* can and do function as fully notional verbs has resulted in the third position which holds that although Vietnamese does not employ functional or morphological means, it uses syntactic means

(4)

Pha (...)	*bưng*	*mâm*	*lên*
Pha (…)	bring	tray	up
NP1	VP	NP2	A
Subject	Predicate	Object	Adverbial modifier

Pha brought the food tray into the house.

(5)

(...)	*mâm*	*cơm*	*bưng*	*lên,*
	tray	rice	bring	up
	NP2		VP	A
	Object		Predicate	Adverbial modifier

(…) the food tray was brought into the house,

According to Nguyen (Ibid.), in clause (4) *Pha* is the actor, *bưng* (brought) is the verb expressing an action, and *mâm* (the food tray) is the object which is affected by the action expressed by the verb *bưng*. From the point of view of syntactic structure, this would be represented by the formal grammarian as Subject + Predicate + Object + Adverbial modifier of place. There is, however, an inversion of syntactic order in (5). In (4) *mâm* (the food tray), which is NP2, follows the verb *bưng* (brought) and functions as the Object; however, in (5) *mâm cơm* (the food tray) which is still said to be NP2 functions as the Subject

non-inflectional language, verbs in Vietnamese do not change in form to distinguish between the active and passive voices as those in many Indo-European languages. Further, it has been argued that the two most common forms *bị* and *được* (see examples (1a) and (1b) above), which have been referred to as the 'passive particles' (Emeneau, 1951; Thompson, 1985), are, to use the traditional terminology, 'fully notional verbs' (Nguyen, 1977, p. 196). In many respects, they can still be used as transitive verbs (Nguyen, 1979, p. xii) in the sentence. Examples (2) and (3) serve to illustrate the point (note: NP = noun phrase; VP = verb phrase; A = Adverb):

(structure) to express the passive meaning (Nguyen, 1977; Diep, 2013). Below I shall reproduce two more examples taken from Nguyen (1977, p. 207) to show how the voice contrast in Vietnamese is explained as seen from the point of view of the third position:

and precedes the verb *bưng*. Nguyen claims that the inversion of the order of the NP expressing the Object in clause (4) so that it acts as the Subject and precedes the verb in clause (5) indicates that the clause is passive. Nguyen (1977, p. 208) states:

In sentence 1 (= clause 4 here) the actor (of the action) and the subject (of the sentence) are conflated; this permits us to say that the verb *bưng* expresses the active meaning. In sentence 2 (= clause 5 here), however, the noun *mâm cơm*, which expresses the object (in clause 4), functions as the subject. So it would be justified to say that this sentence

is a passive one. The passive meaning, which is expressed by the whole syntactic structure as such, is not confined to the form of the verb but to the whole structure of the sentence.[2]

Nguyen's consideration of the active/passive distinction in terms of the different functions the subject plays in the sentence is crucial. It suggests that voice in Vietnamese is a feature of the clause, not of the verb, thus reflecting the specificity of Vietnamese as a non-inflectional language where verb form does not show whether a verb is active or passive. Further, what seems to be of theoretical importance is that his view represents a shift in focus from looking at the category of voice in Vietnamese totally from the point of view of the internal morphological structure of the verbal group (leading as a result to the claim that voice does not exist in Vietnamese) to viewing it from the point of view of the syntactic structure of the clause (leading as a result to the claim that voice exists in Vietnamese): in other words, the emphasis has shifted from (verb) morphology to (clause) syntax.

As can be seen from the above overview, scholars studying Vietnamese grammar have different views on the category of voice; some say that voice does exist in the language, while others hold that voice does not. What should be noted here is that those who recognize the existence of the voice base their interpretations only on one-faceted formal criterion. One of the consequences is that the picture of voice in Vietnamese appears to be inadequate. What is really needed is a comprehensive and coherent functional, social model of language that can help describe and interpret this important grammatical category in Vietnamese. This remark takes us to the next section where we will be concerned with the description and interpretation of voice in Vietnamese from the SFL perspective.

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[2] Ibid., p. 208. This passage, which I have translated here for presentation, appears in the Vietnamese original as follows:

Trong câu 1, chủ thể của hoạt động và chủ ngữ của câu trùng với nhau, và điều đó cho phép ta khẳng định được rằng động từ *bưng lên* có ý nghĩa chủ động. Còn ở câu 2, danh từ biểu thị đối tượng lại làm chủ ngữ của câu. Vì vậy có thể khẳng định rằng câu này có ý nghĩa bị động. Những ý nghĩa bị động biểu thị bằng cả một cấu trúc cú pháp như vậy không phải là dạng bị động của riêng động từ mà là ý nghĩa bị động của cả câu.

3. Data collection and descriptive strategies

3.1. Data collection

Voice is a grammatical category construed at the rank of the clause. A clause, as always, is part of a text. It follows that the illustrating material in this study should be text-based, with examples taken from natural texts (both written and spoken). Ideally, every example should be the whole text; but in practice this ideal is unattainable. So in order to exemplify, I scour short extracts or passages from complete texts which are understandable even apart from their contexts; and from these extracts, I choose the target clauses as examples for illustration.

In this study, the majority of examples are authentic. They are taken from a variety of genres: folk poetry, poems, short stories, and grammar books of Vietnamese. I have decided not to base the study on a particular corpus, because a grammatical aspect of the clause is concerned not just with the actual or observed examples but with the possible examples as well (cf. Chomsky, 1965).

Some other examples are my own; they are provided based on my knowledge as a competent native speaker of Vietnamese. This was made necessary for two reasons. First, when a number of grammatical points need to be illustrated in one and the same example (clause), often it is difficult to find an instance in a given collection of texts. This does not mean that the imaginary example cannot occur, but simply because of 'the vast complexity of language' (cf. Palmer, 1980, p. 8), it would take a grammarian a lifetime to scour the texts for it while as a native speaker of the language he or she knows very well that the example in question is a 'good' clause in his or her language. And secondly, when I wish to compare an example with a possible variant, such agnate pair(s) is/are also unlikely to occur in the language, but it seems that to search for such a minimally contrasting pair would be taking the use of authentic examples to unnecessary extremes.

As the majority of examples are taken from natural texts, they sometimes contain elements which are irrelevant to the point under discussion. In some instances, in order to avoid overload of information not needed immediately, what we have done is (i) to 'tidy

up' the original example by removing the irrelevant elements, and (ii) to expand the elements of an elliptical example, so as to remove ellipsis. It is hoped that these 'editing' steps, taken minimally, in no way invalidate the suitability of the examples, especially where the grammar of voice is concerned.

3.2. Presentation of illustrative examples

As this study is concerned only with a category of the clause of Vietnamese grammar, two notes of caution should be introduced before we could start. First, in the the SFL model (Halliday, 1967a, 1967b, 1968, 1970, 1978, 1985, 1998; Halliday & Matthiessen, 2014; and many others), the clause is recognized as a simultaneous representation of three different strands of meaning: experiential, interpersonal and textual, realized at once in the system of transitivity (experiential), mood (interpersonal), and theme (textual). This suggests that in starting to examine the category of voice from the transitivity system, we have to presuppose the existence of other two systems such as mood and theme[3] in Vietnamese. However, at some point when there is a need to bring out more clearly an issue concerning the category of voice some reference will be made to them and other aspects of the grammar of Vietnamese. Further, as mood and theme have not been extensively described in Vietnamese from the SFL perspective, while recognizing the shortcomings of taking these for granted, we have generally assumed that functions such as Subject, Predicator, Complement, Adjunct, Theme, Rheme, Given, and New at least at the primary level of delicacy resemble those in English. And secondly, because the description of the category of voice in Vietnamese presented in this study is written in English, it should be presented in a way so that not only Vietnamese but also English readers can understand it. To fulfil this goal, glosses and symbols used in the article are presented as follows: in the descriptive and explanatory text, the initial letter of the names of functions is capitalized; e.g., Actor, Goal, Beneficiary, etc. When they are introduced for the first time, they appear in bold type and are usually followed by abbreviations enclosed in round

brackets (…): **Actor** (**Ac**), **Agent** (**Ag**), Medium (**Med**), and so on. In contrast, names of systems are capitalised throughout: **TRANSITIVITY** for the system of **TRANSITIVITY**, **MOOD** for the system of **MOOD**, and so on.

The presentation of an illustrative example is organised as follows: each individual example is numbered in Arabic numeral which is enclosed in round brackets, followed by the source of data or the origin of the example which is enclosed in square brackets […] (see Appendix); the first line, which is italicised, provides the Vietnamese wording; the second line gives English inter-glosses; the third line provides the configuration of functions of the elements in the clause and appear in bold type (where there is limited space, these functional labels are presented in abbreviated forms, but where there is enough space, they are presented in full); and the fourth represents an idiomatic translation into English. For non-Vietnamese speakers so far as the grammar is concerned, it is the inter-glosses that are more relevant and not the idiomatic translation, as the idiomatic translation is an attempt to convey the meaning and not the grammatical relations within the Vietnamese clause. Below is an instance of how an example is presented (note: [TĐ] = Tản Đà):

(0) [TĐ]

Lá	*thu*	*rơi rụng*	*đầu*	*ghềnh*
leaf	autumn	fall	head	chute
Actor/Medium		**Process: material**	**Circumstance: location**	

Autumn leaves fell on top of the chute.

3. Voice in Vietnamese: A systemic functional description and interpretation

3.1. The notions of transitivity and ergativity

We begin to explore the category of voice in Vietnamese with the examination of the notions of transitivity and ergativity because these notions have been the central topic of discussion of both formal and functional scholars (e.g. Svartvik, 1966; Fillmore, 1968; Lyons, 1979; Palmer, 1980; Kaplan, 1995; Collins Cobuild, 1996; Diep, 1987, 2013; Nguyen, 1977; Nguyen, 1979; Halliday, 1976, 1985, 1998; Halliday & Matthiessen, 2014; Matthiessen, 1995; Davidse, 1992; Hoang, 1997, 2012, and many others). Of the two notions of transitivity and ergativity in Vietnamese, ergativity has not yet been explored in the SFL model. Therefore, as a basis for exploring ergativity, it would be useful to start with the notion of transitivity. Consider the following examples taken from Hoang (2012).

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[3] The Vietnamese transitivity system and its delicate subsystems such as material, behavioural, mental, verbal, relational, and existential have been described by Hoang (1997, 2012).

(6) [NM]

Hắn	đến
He	come
Actor	**Process: material**

He came.

(7) [NM]

Hắn	đánh	Tuyết
he	beat	Tuyet
Actor	**Process: material**	**Goal**

He beat Tuyet.

(8) [TDP]

Ông	già	thở dài
Mr	old	sigh
Behaver		**Process: behavioural**

The old man sighed.

(9)

Mẹ	nhìn	con
mother	look	son
Behaver	**Process: behavioural**	**Phenomenon**

The mother looked at her son.

(10)

Nga	nghĩ	miên man
Nga	think	interminably
Senser	**Process: mental**	**Circumstance**

Nga thought interminably.

(11) [NM]

Tuyết	yêu	tôi
Tuyet	love	I
Senser	**Process: mental**	**Phenomenon**

Tuyet loved me.

(12)

Họ	thắc mắc	về	chính sách
they	complain	about	policy
Sayer	**Process: verbal**	**Circumstance**	

They complained about the policy.

(13) [NMC]

Toà án	kết tội	kẻ giết người
court	accuse	murderer
Sayer	**Process: verbal**	**Target**

The court accused the murderer.

(14) [TH]

Con	chim	gáy	(verbless)[4]	hiền lành
generic classifier	bird	crowing		gentle
Carrier				**Attribute**

The turtle-dove is gentle.

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[4] Several features of verbs in Vietnamese are quite different from those of verbs in English. The class does include a great majority of words which may be translated by English verbs. A large number of forms which are most conveniently rendered by English adjectives following some form of the verb 'be': thus *Con chim gáy hiền lành* means (The turtle-dove is gentle), *Tôi vui* (I am happy), *Cô ấy buồn* (She was sad), and so forth. The meaning 'be' seems to represent an integral part of the semantic range of this sort of verb (for more detail, see Thompson, 1985).

(15) [NHT]

Tôi	là	Nhâm
I	be	Nham
Identified/Token	**Process: relational**	**Identifier/Value**

I'm Nham.

(16) [CD]

Trên	giời	có	đám mây	xanh
on	sky	have	cloud	blue
Circumstance		**Process: existential**	**Existent**	

There is a blue cloud in the sky.

The above examples are intended to demonstrate two important points. First, they are the process types which have been recognized in the experiential grammar of Vietnamese (see Hoang, 1997, 2012), of which (6) and (7) are material processes; (8) and (9) behavioural processes; (10) and (11) mental processes, (12) and (13) verbal processes, (14) and (15) relational processes, and (16) is an existential process. Secondly, of these processes, (6), (8), (10), (12), (14), and (16) involve one participant referred to respectively as **Actor** in (6), **Behaver** in (8), **Senser** in (10), **Sayer** in (12), **Carrier** in (14) and **Existent** in (16); and (7), (9), (11), (13), and (15) involve two participants referred to respectively as **Actor** and **Goal** in (7), **Behaver** and **Phenomenon** in (9), **Senser** and **Phenomenon** in (11), **Sayer** and **Target** in (13), and **Identified/Token** and **Identifier/Value** in (15). The fact that a process may involve one or two participants has constituted a basis for the distinction which is traditionally captured in grammars by the terms 'intransitive' and 'transitive'. The traditional claim that an intransitive clause has one participant, and a transitive clause has two poses some problem, since the second half of the generalisation does not hold because of the parameter of **VOICE**. Consider the following set of material clauses:

(17a)

Cửa	mở
door	open
Actor	**Process: material**

The door opened.

(17b)

Cường	mở	cửa
Cuong	open	door
Actor	**Process: material**	**Goal**

Cuong opened the door.

(17c)

Cửa	được	(Cường)	mở
door	passive particle	(Cuong)	open
Goal		**Actor**	**Process: material**

The door was opened (by Cuong).

(17a) is traditionally known as an intransitive clause; (17b) is a transitive and active clause; and (17c) is a transitive and passive clause. Thus, according to the analysis the transitive clause has two possible patterns: active and passive. However, it should be noted that the Actor, *Cường* in (17b) is still introduced as the Actor in (17c) though is now preceded by the form *được*, traditionally known in Vietnamese linguistic scholarship as 'passive particle'. The active/passive contrast is applicable only if the clause is transitive, and while it is possible for the Actor to occur overtly in either case as (17b) and (17c) show, when the clause is passive, the participant that is obligatory is Goal, not Actor, a situation that is indicated in (17b) and (17c) by putting the Actor, *Cường*, in round brackets. Let us refer to the perspective presented above as the transitive analysis. Halliday (1967a, 1967b, 1968, 1976, 1998, 2012), Halliday and Matthiessen (2014), and Matthiessen (1995) have pointed out that there does exist an alternative perspective on clause organization. They refer to it as the ergative perspective. What is ergativity and what distinguishes it from transitivity?

"The root of the grammar of the nuclear **TRANSITIVITY** of processes and participants are two simultaneous systems, **PROCESS TYPE** and **AGENCY**" (Matthiessen, 1995, p. 206). The former is specifically related to the transitive model and the latter, to the ergative one. Halliday (1970, p. 157, 1998, p. 167) and Halliday and Matthiessen (2014, p. 347) claim that these two alternative perspectives on clause organization are very widely distributed; possibly all languages display both, in different mixtures, with perhaps one or the other as the more dominant.

The transitive system realises a '**PROCESS AND EXTENSION** model' (Davidse, 1992, p. 108; see also Halliday, 1977, 1998, 2012; Halliday & Matthiessen, 2014; Hoang, 1997, 2012). Its point of departure (taking the material process as representative) is that the Actor is engaged in the process. If the action ends with the Actor as in *Cây rung* (The tree shook), then we have an intransitive clause realised by a structural configuration of **Actor^Process**, where Actor

can also be interpreted as the participant being 'affected' (Halliday, 1970, p. 157) by the action. However, the action does not have to stop at the Actor^Process combination. It can be extended to or directs itself on to a Goal as *cây* (tree) in *Gió rung cây* (The wind shook the tree). In such an instance, we have a transitive clause realised by a structural configuration of **Actor^Process^Goal**, where Goal now is that which is to be interpreted as the participant being affected by the process. Whether the structure is Actor^Process as *Cây rung* (The tree shook) or Actor^Process^Goal as *Gió rung cây* (The wind shook the tree), *cây* (the tree) still functions as something at which the action *rung* (shook) directs. Thus, if asked: *Cái gì thế?* (What happened?) or *Cái cây làm sao thế?* (What happened to the tree?), it would be reasonable to be told in response either that *Nó (cái cây) rung* (It [the tree] shook) or that *Gió rung nó* (The wind shook it [the tree]). In the first case, the action of shaking is represented as confined to the tree; in the second case, the action of shaking extends from the wind to the tree. Thus the transitivity model is based on 'extension'. Its basic question is 'whether the action extends beyond the actor or not' (cf. Halliday, 1968, p. 185; Halliday, 1976, 1998; Halliday & Matthiessen, 2014).

With the ergative system, the picture is quite different. The ergative system is said to be typically generalised and cuts across the various process types (Halliday, 1998, p. 164; Matthiessen, 1995, p. 206). To use Davidse's (1992, p. 109) expression, the ergativity system realizes an '**INSTIGATION OF PROCESS** model'. In this model, there is one participant that is the key figure in the process - the **Medium** (**Med**), defined by Halliday (1998, p. 163) as 'one through which the process is actualised, and without which there would be no process at all'. A clause is middle (mid) if the process is presented as 'internally instigated' (Davidse, 1992, p. 109) or 'self-engendering' (Halliday, 1998, p. 164; Halliday & Matthiessen, 2014, p. 342): only the key participant and the process are expressed in it. Thus, *Cửa mở* (The door opened), *Cây đổ* (The tree fell), and *Cây rung* (The tree shook) are all middle clauses and have

the same structural configuration of **Medium^Process**. In contrast, a clause is effective (eff) if the process is represented as 'externally instigated' (Davidse, ibid., p. 109); it is represented as if there were an external **Agent** (**Ag**), or Instigator, causing the process to happen. Thus *Gió rung cây* (The wind shook the tree), *Cường mở cửa* (Cuong opened the door), and *Hắn đánh Tuyết* (He beat Tuyet) are all effective clauses and have

the same structural configuration of **Agent/Instigator^Process^Medium**. So unlike the transitive model, the ergative model is based on 'causation'. Its basic question is 'whether the cause/instigation is external to the action or not' (Halliday 1968, 1970, 1998; see also Matthiessen, 1995; Halliday & Matthiessen, 2014; Hoang, 1997, 2012). Below is a schema representing the two alternative models of transitivity and ergativity in Vietnamese.

Figure 1

Transitive and Ergative Patterning in Vietnamese

Transitive patterning

Examples:

Intransitive:	**Actor^Process**		*Cây rung* (The tree shook)
Transitive:	**Actor^Process**	**^± Goal**	*Gió rung cây* (The wind shook the tree)

Ergative patterning

Middle:	**Medium^Process**	*Cây rung* (The tree shook)
Effective: **± Agent^**	**Process^Medium**	*Gió rung cây* (The wind shook the tree)
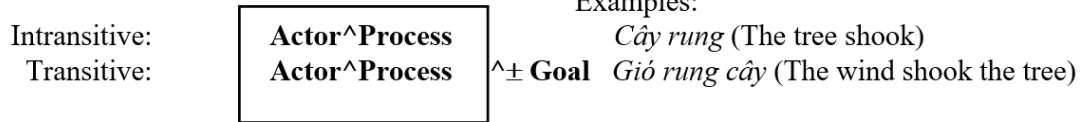
As can be seen in Figure 1, each model has its own form of organisation. In the transitive model, the process is inherently accompanied by the obligatory Actor and the optional Goal which is indicated by the notation ±. In the ergative model, on the other hand, the obligatory participant that is centrally involved in the Process is the Medium and the optional one is the Agent. Halliday (1998, pp. 165-66) and Halliday and Matthiessen (2014, pp. 343-44) have shown, in relation to English which can also be applicable to Vietnamese, that the ergative function of Medium - 'the nodal participant throughout the system' (Halliday, 1998, p. 165; Halliday and Matthiesen, 2014, p. 343) - turns up in all types of process. It is equivalent to:

Actor in middle material process; e.g.

(18)

Thằng bé	*ngã*
little boy	fall
Medium/ Actor	**Process: material**

The little boy fell.

Goal in effective material clause; e.g.

(19)

Thằng bé	*đá*	***quả bóng***
little boy	kick	ball
Agent/ Actor		**Medium/ Goal**

The boy kicked the ball.

Behaver in behavioural process; e.g.

(20) [TDP]

Họ	*uống*	*cả ngày*
they	drink	whole day
Medium/ Behaver	**Process: behavioural**	**Circumstance**

They drank the whole day.

Senser in mental process; e.g.

(21)

Người	*già*	*thích*	*thoải mái*
people	old	like	comfort
Medium/ Senser		**Process: mental**	**Phenomenon**

Old people like comfort.

Sayer in middle verbal process; e.g.

(22)

Ông ấy	*nói*	*về*	*lịch sử*
he	talk	about	history
Medium/ Sayer		**Process: verbal**	**Circumstance**

He talked about history.

Target in effective verbal process; e.g.

(23)

Nhiều	*người*	*ca ngợi*	***ông***
many	people	praise	he
Agent/ Sayer		**Process: verbal**	**Medium/Target**

Many people praised him.

Carrier in attributive relational process; e.g.

(24)

Hổ	*dữ*
Tiger	fierce
Medium/ Carrier	**Attribute**

A tiger is fierce.

Identified in identifying relational process; e.g.

(25)

Cô	*Chi*	*là*	*giáo viên*
Ms	Chi	be	teacher
Medium/ Identified		**Process: relational**	**Identifier**

Ms Chi is the teacher.

Existent in existential process; e.g.

(26) [CD]

Trên	*giời*	*có*	*đám mây*	*xanh*
on	sky	have	cloud	blue
Circumstance		**Process: existential**	**Medium/ Existent**	

There is a blue cloud in the sky.

In contrast, Agent appears as a function only where the process is instigated by an external agency. It is equivalent to:

Actor in effective material process; e.g.

(27)

Thằng	*Trứ*	*đốt*	*đền*
generic classifier	Tru	burn	temple
Agent/ Actor		**Process: material**	**Medium/Goal**

Tru burned the temple.

Initiator when the Actor is present in effective material process; e.g.

(28)

Gió	*làm*	*cây*	*rung*
wind	make	tree	shake
Agent/ Initiator		**Actor**	**Process: material**

The wind made the tree shake.

Phenomenon in effective mental process of the encoded type (from Phenomenon to consciousness); e.g.

(29)

Lời nói	*của*	*cô ta*	*làm*	*hài lòng*	*cha*	*mẹ*
word	of	she	make	please	father	mother
Agent/ Phenomenon			**Process: mental**		**Medium/ Senser**	

Her words pleased her parents.

Sayer in effective verbal process; e.g.

(30) [NHT]

Sư Thiều	*hỏi*	*Quyên*
Monk Thieu	ask	Quyen
Agent/ Sayer	**Process: verbal**	**Medium/ Receiver**

Monk Thieu asked Quyen.

Carrier in attributive relational process; e.g.

(31) [HT]

Con	*chim*	*gáy*	*hiền lành*
generic classifier	bird	crowing	gentle
Agent/ Carrier			**Medium/ Attribute**

The turtle-dove is gentle.

Attributor when the Carrier is present in attributive relational process; e.g.

(32)

Trời	*nóng*	*làm*	*hoa quả*	*chóng*	*chín*
sky	hot	make	fruit	quick	ripe
Agent/ Attributor			**Carrier**	**Circumstance**	**Attribute**

Hot weather made fruits ripe quickly.

Identifier/Token in identifying relational process; e.g.

(33) [NHT]

Tôi	*là*	*Nhâm*
I	be	Nham
Agent/ Identified/ Token	**Process: relational**	**Identifier/ Value**

I am Nham.

Assigner in identifying relational process; e.g.

(34)

Họ	*bầu*	*thày*	*Năm*	*là*	*nhà giáo*	*ưu tú*
they	elect	teacher	Nam	be	teacher	meritorious
Agent/ Assigner		**Identified/ Token**		**Process: relational**	**Identifier/ Value**	

They elected Mr Nam meritorious teacher.

Two other additional participants recognised in the transitive model are also recognised in the ergative model and are given the same labels: **Range** and **Beneficiary**. Range, defined as "scope or domain of the process" (Matthiessen et al., 2010, p. 170) or a restatement of the process itself (Halliday, 1967a, 1968, 1998), often enters into the clause as a nominal group. It can be assigned a different label in a different clause type. Thus, Range is equivalent to:

Range in middle material process; e.g.

(35)

Thày	*Năm*	*chơi*	***cờ***
father	Nam	play	chess
Agent/Actor		**Process: material**	**Range**

Father Nam plays chess.

(36)

Họ	*nhảy*	***một***	***điệu nhảy***	***rất***	***lạ***
they	dance	one	dance	very	strange
Agent/ Actor	**Process: material**	**Range**			

They danced/performed a very strange dance.

Behaviour in behavioural process; e.g.

(37)

Bọn trẻ	*đang*	*nghe*	***nhạc***
children	aspectual marker	listen	music
Agent/ Behaver	**Process: behavioural**		**Range/ Behaviour**

The children are listening to music.

Phenomenon of the 'thích (like) type' in mental process; e.g.

(38)

Tuyết	*thích*	***tôi***
Tuyet	like	I
Agent/ Senser	**Process: mental**	**Range/ Phenomenon**

Tuyet liked me.

Verbiage - "the content or kind of saying" (Halliday, 1998, p. 167) - in verbal process; e.g.

(39)

Anh	*gọi*	***hai***	***li***	***rượu***
he	call	two	glass	wine
Agent/ Sayer	**Process: verbal**	**Verbiage**		

He ordered two glasses of wine.

Attribute in attributive relational process; e.g.

(40)

Cô	*Chi*	*là*	***một***	***cô giáo***	***tốt***
Ms.	Chi	be	one	Ms teacher	good
Agent/ Carrier		**Process: relational**	**Attribute**		

Ms. Chi is a good teacher.

Identifier/Value in identifying relational process; e.g.

(41)

Cô	*Chi*	*là*	***giáo viên***
Ms	Chi	be	teacher
Identified/ Token		**Process: relational**	**Identifier/ Value**

Ms Chi is the teacher.

In contrast, Beneficiary, defined as "one that stands to gain" (Halliday, 1998, p. 167), may enter into the clause either directly as a nominal group or indirectly as a prepositional phrase. It can be equivalent to:

Recipient in material process; e.g.

(42) [Recipient as direct participant]

Tôi	*gửi*	***mẹ***	***tôi***	*một*	*món*	*quà*
I	send	mother	I	one	generic classifier	present
Agent/ Actor	**Process: material**	**Recipient**		**Medium/Goal**		

I sent my mother a present.

(43) [Recipient as indirect participant]

Tôi	*gửi*	*một*	*món*	*quà*	***cho***	***mẹ***	***tôi***
I	send	one	generic classifier	present	to	mother	I
Agent/ Actor	**Process: material**	**Medium/Goal**			**Recipient**		

I sent a present to my mother.

Client in material process; e.g.

(44)

Hắn	*vẽ*	*bức*	*tranh*	***cho***	***mẹ***
he	paint	generic classifier	picture	for	mother
Agent/ Actor	**Process: material**	**Medium/ Goal**		**Client**	

He painted a picture for his mother.

Receiver in verbal process; e.g.

(45) [NHT]

Sư	*Thiều*	*hỏi*	***Quyên***
monk	Thieu	ask	Quyen
Agent/ Sayer		**Process: verbal**	**Receiver**

Monk Thieu asked Quyen.

Beneficiary in relational attributive process; e.g.
(46)

Phần thưởng	*này*	*là*	*dành*	*cho*	*anh*
reward	this	be	reserve	for	brother
Medium/ Carrier	**Process: relational**		**Beneficiary**		

This reward is for you.

4.2. Voice in Vietnamese: A multifunctional interpretation

The above discussion demonstrated that Vietnamese shows up in both the transitive and ergative systems, and each of these systems allows a more delicate systemic contrast. Figure 2 below shows the ergative and transitive as two concurrent systems with the system of process type for the Vietnamese clause: the **ERGATIVE** system is the entry condition for the options of middle v. effective, and the **TRANSITIVE** system is the entry condition for the options of intransitive v. transitive. The rationale for including both in the network is that they represent two complementary, not mutually exclusive, perspectives on clause organisation.

Figure 2

Ergative and Transitive Systems: Primary Choices

Conventions: # : intransitive; * : transitive
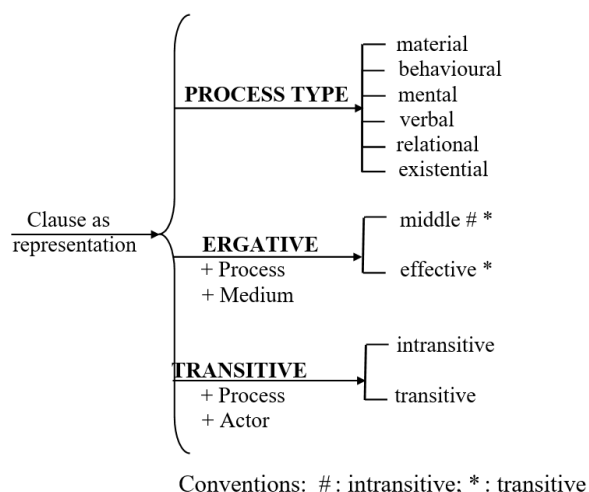
Figure 2 is intended to show three points. First, the system of **PROCESS TYPE** is the entry condition for the six clause options of material, behavioural, mental, verbal, relational, and existential; the **ERGATIVE** system is the entry condition for the options of middle v. effective; and the **TRANSITIVE** system is the entry condition for the options of intransitive v. transitive. Secondly, a middle clause can be either intransitive (indicated by the notation #) or transitive (indicated by the notation *), while

an effective clause can be only transitive. And thirdly, voice can be interpreted either from the **TRANSITIVE** or the **ERGATIVE** system. Transitively, a clause is intransitive when it has one participant (the Actor in a material process, for instance), and the voice is active as ***Thày Năm*** in ***Thày Năm*** *đi vào* (Father Nam came in). In contrast, a clause is transitive when it has two participants - an Actor and a Goal, and the voice may be active as ***Cậu bé*** and ***quả bóng*** in ***Cậu bé*** *đá* ***quả bóng*** (The boy kicked the ball) or passive as ***Quả bóng*** and ***cậu bé*** in ***Quả bóng*** *được* ***cậu bé*** *đá* (The ball was kicked by the boy). And ergatively, a clause is middle when it has no feature of agency; the clause is active; and it may have one participant - the Medium as ***Cậu bé*** in ***Cậu bé*** *ngã* (The little boy fell), or two participants - the Medium and an 'additional entity' which is not Goal because it "exists independently of the process and indicates the domain over which the process takes place" (Halliday, 1998, p. 146) referred to as Range as ***đàn ghi ta*** (guitar) in ***Anh ta*** *chơi* ***đàn ghi ta*** (He played the guitar). In contrast, a clause is effective when it has the feature of agency, and the clause can be either active (or operative) as in *Con chó đuổi con mèo* (The dog chased the cat) or passive (or receptive) as in *Con mèo bị con chó đuổi* (The cat was chased by the dog).

However, looked at from a wider environment, it can be seen that the choice of voice is not just a matter of the experiential metafunction; it is a matter of the interpersonal and textual metafunctions as well (cf. Halliday, 1998, p. 167; Halliday & Matthiessen, 2014). In what follows, we will argue that the explanation of voice requires reference to all the three metafunctions.

The active v. passive choice is, in effect, a textual resource in the sense that it allows certain thematic possibilities, which in its absence would not be available. This remark concerns in particular the question of unmarked v. marked theme where unmarked theme refers to unusual or normal theme and marked theme implies unusual or abnormal theme. Taking the major material declarative clause as the starting

point, the constituent functioning as Subject will also have the function of unmarked Theme,

(47a) [active voice]

Anh ấy	*sẽ*	*hoàn thành*	*luận án*	*năm*	*sau*
he	aspectual marker	complete	dissertation	year	after
Actor	**Process: material**		**Goal**	**Circumstance**	
Subject	**Predicator**		**Complement**	**Adjunct**	
Theme (unmarked)	**Rheme**				
Given ————————————————————→ **New**					

He will complete his dissertation next year.

The conflated realisation of these three functions - Actor/Subject/unmarked Theme - by the same constituent construes a specific kind of point of departure. An unmarked Theme construes a point of departure which is not in contrast to any other, and typically does not

(47b) [active voice]

Luận án	*anh ấy*	*sẽ*	*hoàn thành*	*năm*	*sau*
dissertation	he	aspectual marker	complete	year	after
Goal	**Actor**	**Process: material**		**Circumstance**	
Complement	**Subject**	**Predicator**		**Adjunct**	
Theme (marked)	**Rheme**				
New ←———————————————————— **Given**					

His dissertation he will complete next year.

(47c) [active voice]

Năm	*sau*	*anh ấy*	*sẽ*	*hoàn thành*	*luận án*
year	after	he	aspectual marker	complete	dissertation
Circumstance		**Actor**	**Process: material**		**Goal**
Adjunct		**Subject**	**Predicator**		**Complement**
Theme (marked)		**Rheme**			
Given ————————————————————→ **New**					

Next year he will complete his dissertation.

Note that the voice in all three clauses above is active. However, it is possible to choose as an unmarked Theme in a declarative clause something other than the constituent with the conflated function of Actor/Subject. In this case, however, the voice of the clause must be passive, for voice is a resource for re-

(47d) [passive voice]

Luận án	*sẽ*	*được*	*(anh ấy)*	*hoàn thành*	*năm*	*sau*
dissertation	asp. marker	pass. marker	he	complete	year	after
Goal			**Actor**	**Process: material**	**Circumstance**	
Complement			**Subject**	**Predicator**	**Adjunct**	
Theme (unmarked)	**Rheme**					
Given ————————————————————→ **New**						

His dissertation will be completed next year.

At this point, a question raised for exploration here is: How can the active and passive voice be distinguished? To facilitate the

so long as it is the first constituent with an experiential and interpersonal function as in:

function as New information. The conflation of Theme in a declarative clause with any element other than Actor/Subject will make the Theme marked, in the sense that it will construe a point of departure that is in some sense contrastive and/or presents New information as for example in:

ordering of the experiential functions, with the result that with different voice choices, different experiential functions will conflate with different interpersonal ones. In particular, Subject in the passive clause will be conflated with Goal, and Actor may or may not be present as in:

discussion, let us produce below two examples and analyse them in terms of **TRANSITIVITY**, **MOOD**, and **THEME**:

(48a)

Cường	*nấu*	*cơm*	*này*	*ngon*
Cuong	cook	rice	this	delicious
Actor/Agent	**Process: material; effective**	**Goal/Medium**		**Circumstance**
Subject	**Predicator**	**Complement**		**Adjunct**
Theme (unmarked)	**Rheme**			

Cuong cooked this rice well.

(48b)

Cơm	*này*	*được*	*(Cường)*	*nấu*	*ngon*
rice	this	passive maker	Cuong	cook	delicious
Goal/Medium			**Actor/Agent**	**Process: material; effective**	**Circumstance**
Subject			**Adjunct**	**Predicator**	**Adjunct**
Theme (unmarked)		**Rheme**			

This rice was well cooked (by Cuong).

Clause (48a) is transitive and active, and clause (48b) is transitive and passive. If these clauses are compared, it will be noted that they differ from each other in a number of respects.

From the point of view of recognition, there is a re-ordering of the participants in the passive version. *Cường*, which is Actor/Agent and stands at the head of clause (48a), is still Actor/Agent but has moved to precede the Process in (48b); and *cơm này* (this rice), which is Goal/Medium and is preceded by the Process in clause (48a), is still Goal/Medium but has moved to the head of (48b). This re-ordering of participants in the passive clause has opened up the different possibilities of conflation with lexicogrammatical functions that are realisationally related to the interpersonal and textual metafunctions. Thus, instead of Actor/Agent as Subject/Theme where Theme is unmarked in clause (48a), we have Goal/Medium as Subject/Theme so that Theme is still unmarked in (48b). This is in contrast to an agnate clause such as

(48c)

Cơm	*này,*	*Cường*	*nấu*	*ngon*
rice	this	Cuong	cook	delicious
Goal/Medium		**Actor/Agent**	**Process: material; effective**	**Circumstance**
Complement		**Subject**	**Predicator**	**Adjunct**
Theme (marked)		**Rheme**		

This rice, Cuong cooked well.

where Goal/Medium/Complement are brought to the head of the clause, and Theme is conflated with them: when Goal/Medium/Complement are conflated with Theme, Theme is no longer unmarked: it construes a point of departure which in some sense highlights it. The fact that there is a re-ordering of participants in the passive voice and this re-ordering opens up the different possibilities of conflation with Subject and Theme, leaving the thematic choices of the clause unmarked, is important: the definition criterion for the passive voice in Vietnamese is precisely the construal of Goal as the speaker's point of departure without implying any highlighting for the information to which the element refers.

From the point of view of grammatical structure, (48b) can be distinguished from (48a) in two respects. First, like (48a), Actor/Agent *Cường* is present as a direct participant in (48b); however, unlike (48a), it is not conflated with Subject/Theme but is mapped on to Actor/Agent which is part of Rheme. Further, the presence of Actor/Agent in (48a) seems to be obligatory while the presence of Actor/Agent in (48b) may be optional. Thus, it is possible to say either as (48b) or as the following:

(48d)

Cơm	*này*	*được*	*nấu*	*ngon*
rice	this	passive marker	cook	delicious
Goal/Medium			**Process: material; effective**	**Circumstance**
Subject			**Predicator**	**Adjunct**
Theme		**Rheme**		

This rice was well cooked.

The second distinction between a passive clause and an active one has to do with the difference in the internal structure of the verbal group realising the Process in the passive

clause. In (48a) the Process is realised by the verb *nấu* (cooked); in (48b), however, the Process is realised by a verbal group which consists of the same verb form *nấu* (cooked) and the traditionally known 'passive particle', or 'passive verb' *được*.

Figure 3

*The System of **VOICE** in Vietnamese: Active and Passive*
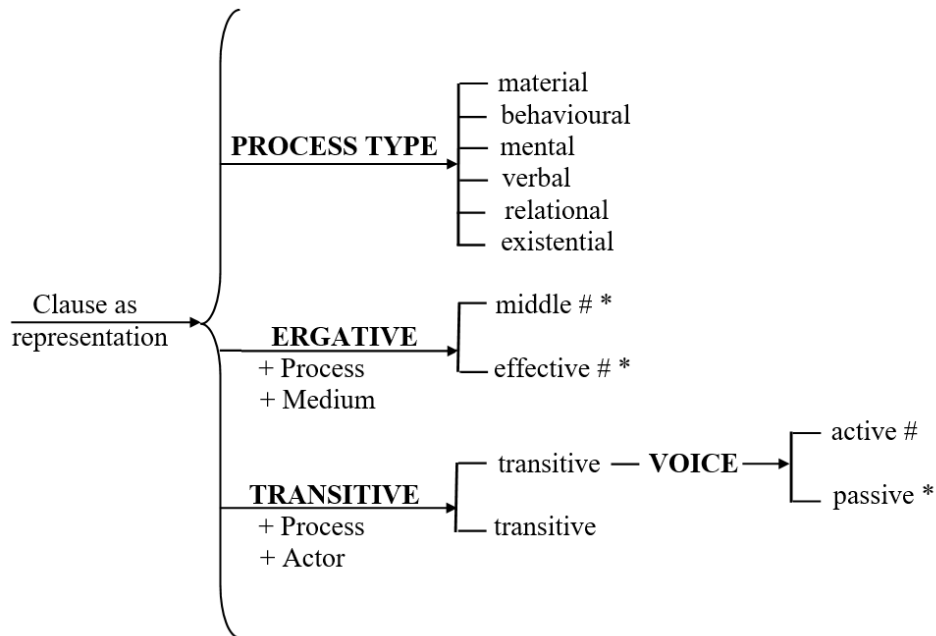
Conventions: # = active; * = passive

4.3. *được and bị: passive particles?*

In English, the construction of *be* + V-en constitutes the main choice of passive, which seems to be attitudinally neutral. Thus we can have *I am given*; *You are given*, *She is given*, *I was given*, *You were given*, *She was given*, which are all attitudinally neutral seen from the point of view of the speaker, and it seems no further distinction can be made. In Vietnamese, however, the choice of passive constitutes the entry condition for two more delicate systemic options having the feature of [+attitude: judgement] (Martin & White, 2005, p. 35), which can be referred to as 'desirable' v. 'undesirable'. These options can be exemplified in (49) and (50):

(49)

Cơm	***được***	*Cường*	*nấu*	*ngon*
rice	benefit	Cuong	cook	deliciously

The rice was well cooked by Cuong.

The above discussion suggests that there are both semantic and lexicogrammatical grounds for distinguishing the active from the passive voice in Vietnamese. The active/passive distinction can be represented in Figure 3.

(50)

Tuyết	***bị***	*hắn*	*đánh*
Tuyet	suffer	he	beat

Tuyet was beaten by him.

'Desirable' and 'undesirable' can be distinguished on both semantic and lexicogrammatical grounds. Semantically, desirable refers to the meaning of 'benefiting' which has the feature of [+pleasant]. In contrast, undesirable refers to the meaning of 'suffering' which has the feature of [-pleasant]. Lexicogrammatically, each of these options is realised by a different form: desirable is realised by the form ***được*** which means 'benefit', 'gain', 'obtain', or 'receive', and undesirable is realised by the form ***bị*** which means 'suffer', 'sustain', or 'undergo'. The desirable/undesirable contrast can be represented in the following system network:

Figure 4

*The System of **VOICE** in Vietnamese: Desirable and Undesirable*
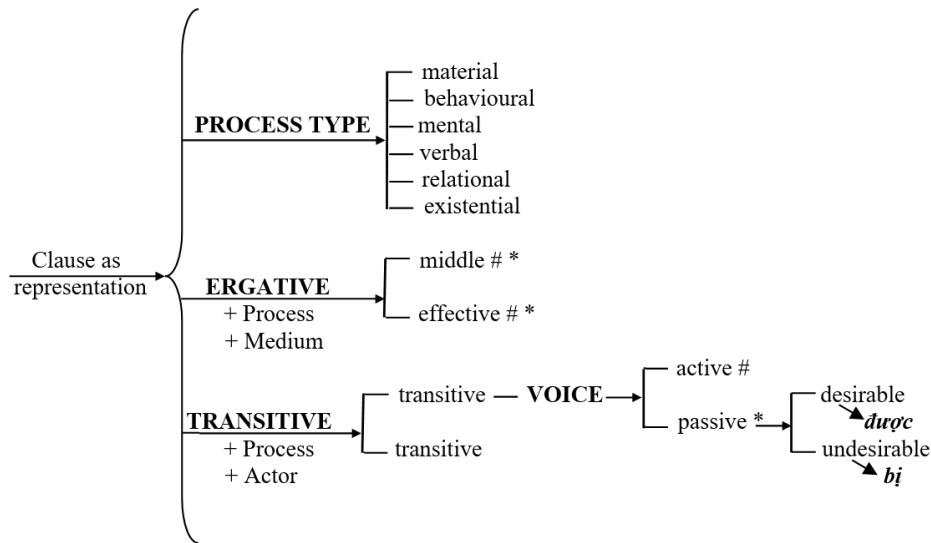
Convention: ◢ = realization

Figure 4 claims that in Vietnamese the choice between desirable v. undesirable (realised by *được* and *bị* respectively) is applicable if and only if the clause has feature [+passive]. This is obviously not true in the light of examples (2) and (3) above. There is however a difference between the use of *được* and *bị* in an active clause as opposed to a passive. This can be clarified by a consideration of the following examples:

(51) intransitive/middle

Thằng bé	*bị*	*ngã*
little boy	suffer	fall

The little boy fell.

(52) transitive/middle/active

Mình	*được*	*ăn*	*một*	*bữa*	*sáng*	*ngon*
self/I	benefit	eat	one	generic classifier	morning	delicious

I had a delicious breakfast.

(53) transitive/effective/active

Anh	*bị*	*mất*	*một*	*chiếc*	*ô*	*trắng*
he	suffer	lose	one	generic classifier	umbrella	white

He lost a white umbrella.

Compare now (51) - (53) with the following:

(51a) intransitive/middle

Thằng bé	*ngã*
boy	fall

The boy fell.

(51a) transitive/middle/active

Mình	*ăn*	*một*	*bữa*	*sáng*	*ngon*
self/I	eat	one	generic classifier	morning	delicious

I had a delicious breakfast.

(51c) transitive/effective/active

Anh	*mất*	*một*	*chiếc*	*ô*	*trắng*
he	lose	one	generic classifier	umbrella	white

He lost a white umbrella.

It will appear clear that (51a), (52a) and (53a) are neutral while (51), (52), and (53) sound somewhat marked. This difference in marking can be attributed to the presence or absence of *được* and *bị*: in the active clause the presence of *được* or *bị* has the effect of making it marked.

The fact that desirable/undesirable may be present in all types of clause and that, except in the case of passive, their presence in clauses with the [+active] feature makes them sound marked suggests two points: (i) *được* and *bị* are not passive particles *per se* but function in that capacity, and (ii) it may be possible to establish a separate system to account for the markedness of the presence of desirable/undesirable in clauses with the [+active] feature in Vietnamese. This system may be called **MARKEDNESS**, and the terms of the system are 'neutral' and 'marked'. The features 'marked' and 'passive' act as disjunctive entry conditions for the systemic choice between 'desirable' and 'undesirable': that is to say, the

choice between the last two systemic features is applicable either in the environment of 'passive' or in the environment of 'marked' (for detail about semantic system network in SFL, see Hasan, 1996). The system of **MARKEDNESS** with its more delicate choices in concurrence with the systems of **PROCESS TYPE**, **ERGATIVE**, and **TRANSITIVE** is represented in Figure 5.

Figure 5

*The System of **MARKEDNESS** and its More Delicate Choices*
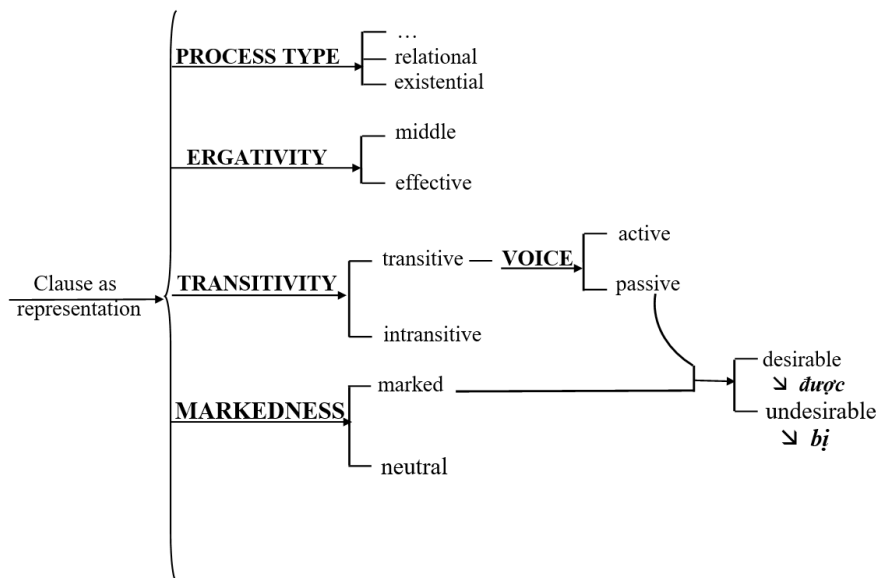
5. Concluding remarks

In this article, we have made an attempt to outline a description of one of the most important categories in the grammar of Vietnamese which does not seem to have received adequate attention from the Vietnamese linguistic scholarship: the category of voice. We began our discussion by presenting three formal contradicting views about whether or not voice is applicable to the language. Then drawing on insights from SFL, we have described and interpreted this category of voice in Vietnamese. We first examined voice in relation to the two alternative experiential perspectives: transitivity and ergativity. Then, using these perspectives as the basis, we took a step further, interpreting voice from a multifunctional approach, intertwining the experiential function with the interpersonal and the textual ones in the clause. In answering the first question "Does voice exist in Vietnamese?", we share the idea of some formal grammarians (e.g. Truong, 1867; Bui, 1952; Nguyen, 1977; Nguyen, 1979; and Diep, 1987, 2013; and others) that voice does exist in Vietnamese, and that it is a feature of the clause, rather than that of the verb. But, in answering the second and the third questions, "What are the delicate options available in the environment of **VOICE** in Vietnamese?", and "How can these delicate options be distinguished from the SFL perspective?", we differ markedly from formal grammarians. Offering a new approach to the description and interpretation of the Vietnamese voice – the SF approach, we have thus achieved new findings: first, **VOICE** in Vietnamese constitutes a system that runs across all types of ranking clause, and this system opens up a number of delicate choices: middle v. effective, if effective is chosen, it will allow two more delicate choices: active v. passive (voice), and if passive is chosen, it will further allow two more delicate choices: desirable v. undesirable. And secondly, these delicate choices can be distinguished along the three metafunctions of language: experiential (realized in transitivity and ergativity), interpersonal (realized in mood), and textual (realized in theme). It is clear from our research that to have a comprehensive picture of any grammatical category, we really need a multifunctional approach. And it is precisely this

multifunctional approach that has justified the relevance of SFL to our study: by describing and interpreting the system of **VOICE** in Vietnamese from the SFL perspective, we are able to understand many features which otherwise remain arbitrary or obscure.

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Appendix

Sources of Data for Illustration

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[NKT]	=	Nguyễn Kim Thản (1977). *Động từ trong tiếng Việt*. Nxb Khoa học Xã hội.
[NMC]	=	Nguyễn Minh Chính (1993). Mẹ chồng tôi. Trong *Truyện ngắn hay* (tr. 199-223). Nxb Văn học.
[NM]	=	Nguyễn Một (1996). Tha Hương. *Văn nghệ trẻ*, (18).
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[TH]	=	Tô Hoài (1995). *Tuyển tập Tô Hoài*. Nxb Văn học.
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PHẠM TRÙ DẠNG TRONG TIẾNG VIỆT:
MÔ TẢ THEO LÍ THUYẾT CHỨC NĂNG HỆ THỐNG

Hoàng Văn Vân

Trung tâm Nghiên cứu giáo dục ngoại ngữ, ngôn ngữ và quốc tế học,
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Tóm tắt: Bài viết này mô tả phạm trù dạng - một trong những khái niệm ngữ pháp khó nắm bắt nhất trong ngữ pháp tiếng Việt dường như chống lại bất kì cách xử lí thoả đáng nào. Khung lí thuyết được sử dụng để mô tả và giải thích phạm trù này là Ngôn ngữ học chức năng hệ thống. Ba câu hỏi hình thành nên cơ sở của bài viết này là: (1) "Hệ thống **DẠNG** có tồn tại trong tiếng Việt không?"; nếu có thì (2) "Các sự lựa chọn tinh tế có sẵn trong môi trường của phạm trù **DẠNG** trong tiếng Việt là gì?"; và (3) "Các sự lựa chọn tinh tế này được phân biệt như thế nào nhìn từ quan điểm Ngôn ngữ học chức năng hệ thống?" Câu trả lời cho ba câu hỏi này cho thấy, khác với các các mô tả của ngữ pháp hình thức, **DẠNG** tồn tại trong tiếng Việt như là một hệ thống; môi trường hệ thống **DẠNG** mở ra một số sự lựa chọn tinh tế; và những sự lựa chọn tinh tế này có thể được phân biệt theo ba siêu chức năng ngôn ngữ: siêu chức năng trải nghiệm, siêu chức năng liên nhân, và siêu chức năng văn bản. Nghiên cứu cũng chỉ ra rằng Ngôn ngữ học chức năng hệ thống là khung lí thuyết rất phù hợp để mô tả và giải thích phạm trù **DẠNG** trong tiếng Việt: Lí thuyết chức năng hệ thống giúp chúng ta nghiên cứu phạm trù ngữ pháp từ nhiều chiều kích khác nhau, giúp chúng ta có một cái nhìn toàn diện hơn về phạm trù đó. Nghiên cứu này góp phần vào việc ứng dụng lí thuyết Ngôn ngữ học chức năng hệ thống vào mô tả ngữ pháp tiếng Việt - một ngôn ngữ phi Ấn-Âu, mở ra tiềm năng mới cho một cách tiếp cận toàn diện đối với việc mô tả ngữ pháp tiếng Việt theo lí thuyết Ngôn ngữ học chức năng hệ thống, phục vụ cho các mục đích nghiên cứu, ứng dụng và giảng dạy.

Từ khoá: hệ thống **DẠNG** trong tiếng Việt, khiến tác, chuyển tác, thức, đề ngữ

PROBLEM AS OPPORTUNITY:
METACOGNITIVE LEARNING FOR DOCTORAL STUDENTS
DURING THE PANDEMIC

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Abstract: Our pre-pandemic hubris of touting our times as an advanced digital age has given way to misgivings and scepticism as we slowly realise the limits of technological advances and how our teaching and learning practices have not been able to completely sever from age-old traditions. With unprecedented changes triggered by the global pandemic which saw schools close and move on to online spaces within the span of a few weeks all the world over, there has been a flurry of academic research into student disengagement, better integration of technology and best practices in adaptation of teaching and learning. However, much less attention has been paid to the needs of educators *themselves* as learners, such as those engaged in the essentially solitary experience of doctoral studies, often characterised by writer's block, procrastination or lack of motivation.

Yet the COVID-19 scenario has opened up splendid and unprecedented opportunities for reflection into our own practices. This paper critically considers the value of metacognition and self-regulated learning which current circumstances can nurture in unique ways. Studies have shown that the use of metacognitive strategies - which help learners understand their own learning - can amount to several months of progress. Much more than just learning to learn, such strategies also activate prior knowledge and make learners become higher-order agents overlooking their own learning while also being part of it, thereby leading to independent and transferrable practice. Drawing on anecdotal case studies of the presenter's doctoral students, the paper will offer insights into ways in which early-career researchers can become effective and self-regulated learners who can take control of their own cognitive and motivational processes in planning, monitoring and evaluating skills and practices. In particular, the paper will propose guidelines through which a "securitization" can be achieved for a "post-pandemic pedagogy" (Murphy, 2020) for doctoral studies.

Key words: metacognitive learning, self-regulated learning, autoethnography, COVID-19, self-evaluation, doctoral studies, PhD, graduate research

1. Introduction

As any doctoral student would be well aware, PhD studies are much more than a few years' journey at the end of which the student submits a thesis as evidence of the creation of new knowledge. It is also a long-term training which involves the learning of new, more generic and transferrable skills - from time management and self-discipline to personal development and intercultural competence, and perhaps most importantly, the acquisition and development of a distinct academic identity and agency. A doctorate, after all, is not just a scholar or an intellectual expert on a particular topic or disciplinary knowledge, but someone who has, at least ideally, committed to bringing positive changes to society. Their personal growth as independent scholars is therefore of

paramount importance, as much as the creation of new knowledge.

Yet it is common for doctoral students to prioritise the end product - their theses - over their own learning and development as intellectual beings who grow and continue to grow. It is in this sense that Golde and Dore (2001, as cited in Cahusac de Caux, 2019, p. 10) point out that doctoral students often do not "clearly understand what doctoral study entails". The thought that their research is 'most important' often forces them to neglect their personal growth and wellbeing (Pretorius, 2019) and makes them espouse an approach whereby the end *product* (the thesis) becomes the sole measure of success, at the cost of neglecting the messy *process* that eventuates it.

The current impact of the whirlwind of the global COVID-19 pandemic and the lockdowns that have characterised the daily lives of millions of researchers worldwide has only

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highlighted this problem in unprecedented ways. In these times, the position of graduate and early career researchers has become particularly precarious (Murphy, 2020). In fact, a recent study in the UK (Byrom, 2020) found that more than three-quarters of graduate researchers experienced a negative impact on their data collection, discussion, writing, and dissemination of ideas due to the lockdown. More than half of the participants in this study expressed concerns about data analysis, while a third of the respondents complained about having insufficient access to software or technology required for research. Perhaps most tellingly, half of the respondents reported being very stressed, while two thirds were concerned about their future plans. So serious is this situation, that in Australia, where I work, universities' response to the pandemic has been said to represent "one of the most significant and rapid shifts in the delivery of schooling for the whole country since the Second World War" (Deeble, 2020).

All this indicates the tremendous bite of the vastly different environments in which we find ourselves in, working towards our already stressful research commitments, and the need for adaptation. In the face of the compounding challenges involving the pressure to publish or perish, work-life balance, isolation, career insecurity and interpersonal conflicts, students often resort to over- or under-commitment to other tasks, procrastination, perfectionism, and affected by what has come to be known as the 'imposter syndrome'.

As the virus began to spread across the world and people around the world slowly began realising the unprecedented effects that this would have on their work, scholarly research on its effects correspondingly saw a sharp rise, especially on use of technology and best practices in running online classrooms. While a lot of these were based on personal experiences and anecdotal evidence (for example, Aydemir & Ulusu, 2020), a number of empirical studies have also been done (for example, Byrom, 2020; Murphy, 2020). What is clearly lacking is research on educators *themselves*, and the challenges they were facing in their *own* learning. While this would typically refer to ongoing professional development, in the case of PhD students, this is also *learning about their own learning*, or,

rather *learning on their own*, where the focus is not so much on technology or coping with it, but self-mediated and self-regulated strategies that can enhance their learning.

In plain, jargon-free terms, this paper is about the importance of self-awareness, of looking inside rather than outside, and understanding the mostly fallacious attribution to technology our failures and the slowness in the pace of our work as researchers in the current situation. How can we minimise our risk of disengagement as learners to ensure a securitisation of higher education in the times to come? I propose that one of the ways in which this can be done is by accepting, understanding and putting into practice the belief that the *processes* of producing work, such as writing a PhD thesis, is as important as the end *product*, the thesis. Raising our metacognitive awareness by engaging in self-dialogue and reflection can help us better understand these processes.

The current paper is based on my reflections as a doctoral supervisor with ten supervised completions to date and current supervision of eight doctoral students at a major Australian university. Anecdotal observations from the past six months tell me that the present and ongoing lockdown situation has affected and is affecting doctoral students in vastly different ways, and not all of these in negative ways. While some students have complained of feeling enormous pressure in continuing their research under the lockdown, away from real-life interactions with their supervisors and doctoral mates, others have said that the new situation has made them more aware of how they can optimise their habits for more fruitful outcomes in the times to come. This convinces me that it is possible to create meaningful and original research while working independently without regular and direct contact with supervisors, and without the need of much technology.

In the light of these experiences I offer insights into ways in which early-career researchers, especially doctoral students, can become effective and self-regulated learners who are able to take control of their own cognitive and motivational processes in planning, monitoring and evaluating their knowledge, skills and practices. After all, theory aside, metacognition is essentially a personal practice where learners intuitively

learn from their past experiences. In this paper I would also like to highlight the real-life and pragmatic aspects of metacognition and the benefits of integrating these into the day to day academic activities of doctoral students, especially at times when supervisory and social contact with fellow researchers are minimal.

I will first present a brief overview of metacognition and its associated concept of self-regulated learning. I will then reflect on my observations as a doctoral supervisor and suggest two specific and practical ways through which metacognition and self-regulated learning can be achieved. The paper concludes by looking into the future where a post-pandemic reality awaits us with newer demands that we can prepare for within the current realities of our research work.

2. Knowing thyself - Metacognition

Although scholars have tried to pin it down within specific disciplines, the rapidly growing field of metacognition has traditionally involved interdisciplinary research. In identifying contemporary strands in research on metacognition, Azevedo (2020), chief editor of the *Metacognition and Learning* journal for nearly a decade, draws on interdisciplinary research from educational psychology, cognitive and developmental psychology, learning and computational sciences and STEM education. He laments the current lack of "attempt at integrating them into a unified theory" (p. 92) and calls for more theoretical research to be done towards attaining a unified definition of metacognition. Perhaps such lack explains why educational researchers often shy away from research into metacognition, assuming that it lies beyond the stretch of their cognate areas.

Most commonly attributed to American developmental psychologist John Flavell, metacognition refers to his work on children's learning in the 1970s which looked into how they controlled their own memory processes. Although the works of Vygotsky did not address metacognition per se, his theories can be considered as a precursor (Bråten, 1991). In particular, his theories of cognitive development address the role of self-regulation in learning, and the relationship between self-awareness and self-regulation. Most previous research has one finding in common - that a strategic and premeditated, or 'designed-in' (Hammond &

Gibbons, 2005), rather than incidental (or casual) use of cognitive processes - such as memory and attention, and activation of prior knowledge - are fundamental parts of learning. It is only through *conscious* awareness - that is, metacognition - and ongoing monitoring, that a learner can utilise their prior knowledge and cognition most productively.

Metacognition involves the processes of planning, monitoring and evaluation and then making changes based on these in one's own learning behaviours. Planning involves thinking about learning goals and considering which strategies or tools to use to achieve them; while monitoring involves the active implementation of the plan as well as tracking own progress. In the final phase - that of evaluation - learners consider the success (or failure) of their strategy in terms of achieving their goals. Throughout these three phases, the recursive elements of reflection and self questioning are essential. Given the recursive nature of PhD thesis writing, this becomes especially significant for doctoral researchers.

Often used interchangeably, metacognition usually involves two dimensions (Tarricone, 2011). The first is metacognitive knowledge (declarative), or what learners *know* about their own learning, their cognitive abilities, their perception of the task, and the resources, tools and strategies available to them to execute the tasks. The second dimension is metacognitive regulation or skills (procedural) - what learners *do* about learning, based on the first - metacognitive knowledge. This includes how they monitor and control cognition, such as choosing the appropriate strategy when others do not work. While metacognitive knowledge helps learners make necessary adjustments to learning contexts, metacognitive skills (or strategies) involve the practicalities of planning, monitoring, and evaluating (Flavell et al. 2002) that help the learner regulate their strategies. In essence, understanding of metacognition has implications on how we situate learning itself through reasoning, problem solving, and conceptual understanding for learners from all disciplines and age groups, regardless of their topic or stage of learning.

This is especially true for doctoral students because of the independent nature of their work, and the length of time needed to write the doctoral thesis, often punctuated with other commitments, including family and personal

responsibilities, full or part-time work and, perhaps most commonly, teaching. Azevedo (2020) explains that the nature of metacognition is dependent on such contexts and the nature of the task (in this case, doctoral writing), and involves reflection of personal experiences, judgments and evaluations of one's own knowledge and skills. Together they shape how one arrives at decision-making. Our idiosyncratic ways of learning and personalities play a part in this too; so too contextual variables, such as institutional expectations of the PhD student, personality traits and the home environment. The latter no doubt is of crucial importance in the current circumstances of the global pandemic.

Finally, it is important to understand the differences, but more so, the relationship between cognition and metacognition. Winne (2018) shows that these two are part of a shared and interdependent process, effectively meaning that such strategies, while activating one's prior knowledge and making them a higher-order agent overlooking their own learning, *also* positions them as being part of it, thereby leading to independent practice. Together cognition and metacognition constitute what we refer to as self-regulated learning, which I discuss next.

3. Self-regulated Learning

As the two elements of self-regulation, cognition and metacognition are synthesised when learners understand, then complete a task, and finally are able to *transfer* their learning to similar tasks in the future through the cycle of planning, monitoring and evaluation (Evidence for Learning, 2020). Whereas cognitive skills are task-specific (Schuster, Stebner, Leutner & Wirth, 2020), metacognitive skills are transferable to a wide variety of learning tasks, including thesis writing.

This of course does not mean that the transfer happens automatically. Self-regulated learning is a deliberate process in which three components - cognition, motivation and metacognition - merge and govern learning (Schraw et al. 2006, as cited in Schuster et al., 2020). In this, "learners set goals for their learning and then attempt to monitor, regulate and control their cognition, motivation and behaviour, guided and constrained by their

goals and the contextual features of the environment" (Pintrich 2000, as cited in Schuster et al., 2020). Triggering metacognitive activities therefore require conscious effort and decisive action. In fact, studies have shown that consciously paying attention to one's metacognitive processes can enhance its benefits. In the tradition of classical behaviourist theories of learning, then, this means that through repeated practice, it is possible for one to 'condition' themselves into making metacognitive learning with less effort and to greater benefit.

Effective self-regulated learners are characterised by being good at setting goals (these could be daily or even hourly), being able to distinguish between effective and ineffective strategies in attaining these goals, carefully monitoring self progress, being adaptable to physical environments (currently this would mean working from home), and being good at time-management and prioritisation of tasks. It is important to understand that these phases constitute a cycle rather than a checklist to be ticked off in any order. Although still not automatic, as learners become increasingly confident in their application of metacognitive strategies, the process becomes spontaneous and effortless, as I will note below in relation to the experiences of my doctoral students.

4. Reflections: Supervisor Learning from Students

In 'normal' times, doctoral students in my faculty have access to a large open space working area on the top floor of the faculty building. This spacious, well-lit, 24-hour access hub is self-sufficient with various amenities such as computer dock and monitor equipped individual workstations, a fully equipped kitchen, resting and group discussion areas, as well as photocopiers, lockers and stationery rooms. The open nature of the workstations gives students a community feeling as they interact and have conversations with their colleagues all day long.

The COVID-19 lockdown meant that these doctoral students lost access to this area and for the last seven months were mostly confined to their rooms, with only occasional online meetings with their supervisors and almost no contact with their fellow PhD colleagues. The second, Stage 4 lockdown in Melbourne was

stricter, with restrictions on travelling beyond a 5 km radius from home and limited hours of outdoor activities. One would think that by this stage students would have lost their patience and verging on breaking down, both mentally and physically. Although this might have been true in some cases, it was surprising what anecdotal evidence suggests. Through PhD supervisory meetings, I came to realise a strange, unprecedented development - that my doctoral students were faring better this time, complaining less, and generally being more productive. They told me that lessons learnt from the first lockdown had made them less susceptible to the restrictions of working from home.

In itself this might be hardly surprising, as we all learn to adapt to new circumstances in the face of pressure or lack of choices. However, what was unique about their adaptation was that they reported that they were more in harmony with themselves and that they knew better what worked for them as they continued engaging in the writing of their thesis. With no other choice, these students reported that the isolating experiences opened up opportunities for them to look 'inside' rather than 'outside' and to better learn about their own learning. Such metacognitive awareness, then, was facilitated by the forced isolation that they found themselves in and enhanced their learning at a time when no other options were available. I noticed too, that in my own work, perhaps for the first time in such a sustained manner, I became more introspective about my learning behaviours. Generally, I felt more aware of how I could optimise the time and physical spaces that were available to me during the lockdown. I realised with greater clarity the spatiotemporal conditions that were most conducive to my studies and research. In many ways similar to my students, I felt that the more I consciously attempted to and learnt about my own learning, the more effective I could become as a learner.

Now that we have looked at the benefits of metacognition and how these can lead to self-regulated learning, especially for doctoral students, and within the current realities of the pandemic, I will discuss two practical ways of triggering, activating and exercising metacognitive awareness leading to a more optimised self-regulated learning. I acknowledge that these would not equally be practicable for all doctoral students, however an awareness of our own

idiosyncratic learning habits has benefits that can be carried on as a life-long orientation to how one can be most productive in the face of adversity and strife. Two of the activities my doctoral students engaged in during this time included Shut up and Write (SUNW) groups and autoethnographic writing. Needless to say, these were spontaneous choices that the students made, rather than conscious and deliberate choices that were a priori informed by the aforementioned theories of metacognition.

5. Critical Friendships through SUNW

Group writing sessions, such as the 'Shut Up and Write!' (SUNW) movement have gained increased popularity among graduate researchers and doctoral researchers (O'Dwyer et al., 2017) in recent years, and in particular this year as the pandemic has restricted our physical movement around the world. These self-regulated sessions, where writing 'rounds' are punctuated by short break sessions, have provided enormous opportunities for peer feedback and scaffolding, critical friendship, and metacognitive learning. As Mewburn, Osbourne and Caldwell (2014, p. 400) note, SUNW sessions can create "informal learning opportunities to support doctoral writing" in ways that rarely happen through and within formal and structured learning environments, such as in classrooms, workshops, or even one-on-one supervisory meetings.

Developed first in the early 2000s to promote good practices for non-academic writing (such as for journalists and media writers), SUNW was meant to offer a community of practice (Wenger, 1998) through writing sessions in public places, such as cafes. Typically, a session would involve a solid one-hour writing 'cycle', followed by a short coffee break and then another writing cycle. Through the cycles the writers can move in and out without disrupting others, while in the in-between discussion sessions, they would briefly provide a summary of what they have done and are planning to do next. Importantly, unless someone asks for specific feedback, these discussions do not solicit or provide feedback, but are based on non-judgemental and respectful discussions and negotiation of meaning (Viete & Ha, 2007; Viete & Peeler 2007; Ryan & Viete, 2009), achieved through peer scaffolding. The learning occurring in

these spaces can be understood through Vygotskian theories of the mediated nature of learning through dialogue and interaction. Mewburn et al. (2014) argue that compared to the more formal and structured sessions (such as workshops or even supervisory meetings), SUNW sessions can promote informal, flexible and productive self-regulated writing practices. Such learning, they argue, can also be more empowering because of the way it allows a greater sense of ownership of learning.

A recent study by Chakma, Li and Kabuhung (2020, upcoming) shows how a group of three graduate research students formed highly efficient collaborative practices of writing during the COVID-19 lockdown in Melbourne through an ongoing daily SUNW group over a period of five months. These collaborative online sessions facilitated them into sharing their work and soliciting critical feedback on a daily basis. Over a period of time, as they learnt more about their own learning styles, they were able to optimise the writing cycles to better suit them to their individual needs. Through "passive accountability" (n.p.), they ensured that they were keeping up to their plans, something they reported was harder to do when they worked on their own, in pre-pandemic times.

Over a period of five months, the three participants of this session progressed from formulating their research questions to writing their literature reviews and designing their methodologies. For those at a more advanced stage, the sessions saw them writing their analysis and discussion chapters. Notably, while all students where from the same faculty, they each worked on a different topic, and because of the lockdown, these writing sessions were held entirely online using the Internet-based video conferencing tool Zoom, the university's digital repositories and workspaces such as Google Drive and Google Doc.

Purposive (rather than random or conversational) and rich metacognitive talk in such online environments facilitates unique opportunities to learn from the self and others and practice reasoning, discussion, arguing and explanation. In fact, virtual spaces work better because they push the learner towards the outer bounds of the zone of proximal development (Wass, Harland, & Mercer, 2011) through peer scaffolding using techniques such as the think-aloud protocol (Berne, 2004), whereby learners vocalise their thinking in real time during conversations so that their speech becomes an audible extension of their minds and thinking. In summary, used in a sustained manner over a period of time, SUNW can offer the graduate researcher opportunities to ask challenging questions to peers, build critical friends and enhance metacognitive awareness of their own learning, all the while within the privacy of their own homes.

6. The Power of Autoethnographies

As doctoral students write their theses, they are also on a journey to understand themselves; they are "people in the process of figuring out what to do, how to live, and the meaning of their struggles" (Bochner & Ellis, 2006, as cited in Pretorius & Cutri, 2019, p. 30). Within the realm of social sciences research, personal reflections can well be part of a thesis by allowing a nuanced discovery and understanding of the more complex layers of how we 'make sense' of social realities (our topic of investigation) around us (I discussed the role of criticality in the social sciences in IGRS 2018). Autoethnographic accounts, in which the researcher voice is privileged, can be integrated into the thesis whereby the doctoral student provides narratives of their cognitive growth and enables a more sophisticated understanding and development of their own identity as scholars (Nelson, 2018). For doctoral students, as Pretorius and Cutri (2019, p. 30) put it - "the doctoral experience cannot be fully explored or written about from an outsider's objective experience. It is complex and multifaceted, incorporating various influences, opinions, thoughts, feelings, and experiences".

Writing is as much a cognitive process as it is a social one. Yet institutional expectations often involve an overemphasis on the end *product* – the thesis, with a corresponding devaluation of the writing *process*. The recursive and 'messy' nature of academic writing is ignored. When we read a journal article or a book chapter, we only ever see the end product, which is often written by accomplished writers and is in their final accepted form. This leads to frustration for doctoral students when they compare their half-baked, incomplete and haphazard writing with

these finely written and polished articles. However, the neatness of this writing belies the messiness of the process which made the final product possible. By drawing upon personal experiences of growth and challenges, autoethnographies allow a frank and honest acknowledgement of the messiness that is almost always attendant to social sciences research, especially as we are choosing and integrating theories and making methodological choices.

Autoethnographic research therefore "humanizes research by focusing on life as 'lived through' in its complexities" (Adams, Ellis, & Jones, 2017, p. 8), and gives a better understanding of the realities in which they are immersed (Pretorius & Cutri, 2019, p. 33). Researcher reflexivity, expressed through autoethnographic writing, "acknowledges and accommodates subjectivity, emotionality, and the researcher's influence on research" (Ellis et al., as cited in Pretorius & Cutri, 2019) and this includes metacognitive learning.

While autoethnography has been taken up prominently in mainstream research in the West in recent years, in many countries social sciences research is still characterised by an emphasis on a more objectivist, 'scientific' and disinterested stance based on a positivist paradigm. This leaves little room for reflective writing, including autoethnographies. The current situation offers us opportunities to think about and integrate the personal struggles that are attendant to our theoretical and methodological choices as we navigate through them while working towards the final version of our theses. The inclusion and acknowledgement of these personal stories in the thesis can provide powerful epistemological insights into the mind of the researcher and better situate their growth as intellectual beings. As Pretorius and Cutri (2019, p. 30) put it, "the doctoral environment can be seen as a different cultural world – something made clear as the reader enters the world of the authors' autoethnographies".

7. COVID-19: Problem as Opportunity

Our pre-pandemic hubris of touting our times as an 'advanced' digital age has given way to misgivings and scepticism as we slowly realise the limits of technological advances and how our teaching and learning practices have not been able to completely sever from age-old

traditions. It is now well known that incidental or non-judicious use of technology cannot promote learning; to be effective and to improve our learning, technology has to be informed by effective pedagogy, as explained by Koehler and Mishra's (2009) now well-known TPACK model.

In addition, the exponential speed at which modern technologies are evolving and the corresponding rapid obsolescence of 'old' technology are impacting not just how we teach our students and adapt to the situation, but how we ourselves cope as teachers. When teachers themselves are also learners, such as in the case of doctoral students, this becomes more complicated. It is hoped that through groups such as SUNWs and methodological choices such as autoethnographies, doctoral students would be able to turn the current crisis into a unique opportunity of self-discovery and reflective contemplation, attuned to positive learning outcomes as budding researchers. The slower than usual pace at which we are currently working is the perfect condition for reflective and introspective practices such as metacognitive and self-regulated learning.

8. Conclusion

We write in private. We learn in public lectures. Get books from public libraries. We discuss our ideas in public tutorials and seminar groups. But reading and writing happen in private. In silence. And therefore often in shame (Firth, 2013).

Currently, as I write this paper, Murphy (2020) argues that in our hope for an "emancipatory post-pandemic pedagogy", there is need for a "desecuritization of face-to-face schooling" and an "open discourse" which cannot be fully realised when securitisation is in process, such as now. Broadly, the theory of securitisation concerns the processes through which the state enables and rationalises decisions in the name of security and national economic stability. Such decisions in turn enable social commitments that are premised on collective public acceptance of what is good for the state. In this case, we refer to decisions states around the world have taken or are taking in the name of keeping the education sector afloat in the face of an uncertain future. It is important for us educators to have a voice in

planning contingencies for the desecuritisation of learning when the pandemic is over.

Preventative measures and non-pharmaceutical interventions such as "social" or "physical distancing" in otherwise dense communities such as university campuses to minimise community contact have dramatically reduced interpersonal contact and the widespread closure of schools. The physicality of the classroom experience is now a distant memory in many parts of the world. The costs of moving to online spaces for such extended periods of time are still not fully known. Our goal needs to be to ensure the securitisation of the back to classroom face-to-face instruction. Murphy (2020, p. 492) is concerned that the full extent of the challenges associated with the "securitization of higher education for post-pandemic pedagogy" will not be realised for some time, given the unprecedented nature of the current global pandemic.

In such unprecedented times, in the absence of physical seminars and workshops, supervisory contact, the importance of looking beyond our immediate research tasks – such as writing a doctoral thesis – has never been more important. Studying during isolation gives us opportunities to pause and think, and not only create self-initiated communities of practice, such as SUNW, but also learn and practise new methodologies, such as the autoethnography. Combining these two facilitates the conditions that make it possible to understand the practicalities and limitations of our chosen study design, data analysis and even genre knowledge of the various ways of communicating and disseminating our research including presenting at conferences and effectively writing for journals.

As an educational intervention, just like differentiated instruction (my IGRS 2019 presentation), metacognition is not expensive to implement; nor does it require special training or specialist equipment, or indeed broad institutional infrastructure. Metacognitive awareness is more of a cultural shift of the mind and introspective outlook that allows an openness of working in newer, more productive ways that can ensure greater professional growth in a post-COVID19 environment. Metacognitive practices create a teacher of oneself, in oneself - an inner voice that guides the self through a spontaneous internal process

of perpetual evaluation of performance. A metacognitive approach to learning allows learners to understand and then take control of their own learning and acquire transferrable skills – transferrable not only to new learning contexts but to new tasks and to the yet unknown specifics of the post-COVID reality that awaits us, hopefully in the near future.

An academic or scholarly life and a lifelong commitment to pursuing intellectual curiosity can be a highly enriching and fulfilling experience. However, it is important for us to know and accept that this involves both joys and sorrows in the production of work. Through metacognitive practices and self-regulated learning, we can securitise the future of our education through fine-tuning our own beliefs, behaviours and practices as educators of the future.

Perhaps, then, it is time for us to move away from an overreliance on technology during these isolating times. Perhaps it is wiser to explore deeply into ways in which we learn best. Perhaps the best use we can make of these times is by resorting to what had worked best to us before technology took over; by looking into and questioning our own practices and ways of learning.

Perhaps, the best way to learn is by unlearning what we have learnt and by learning how to learn anew.

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BIẾN NGUY THÀNH CƠ:
NGHIÊN CỨU SINH HỌC TẬP THẾ NÀO THỜI COVID?

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Tóm tắt: Trước khi bùng phát đại dịch Covid-19, thời đại kỹ thuật số tiên tiến mà ta luôn tự hào ngợi ca nay phải nhường chỗ cho những băn khoăn nghi ngờ khi ta dần vỡ lẽ về những giới hạn của tiến bộ công nghệ và nhận ra cách dạy-học của chúng ta không phải lúc nào cũng thoát được khỏi những truyền thống lâu đời. Trước những biến đổi không tiền khoáng hậu mà đại dịch toàn cầu này gây ra, một đại dịch khiến trường học khắp nơi phải đóng cửa, chuyển sang dạy-học trực tuyến, hàng loạt nghiên cứu đã được tiến hành để hiểu rõ tình trạng phân ly của người học, để tích hợp công nghệ và cách dạy-học tốt hơn vào công việc hàng ngày của ngành giáo dục nhằm thích nghi với tình trạng 'bình thường mới'. Tuy nhiên, các nghiên cứu còn rất ít quan tâm tới chính nhu cầu của nhà giáo dục và cũng đồng thời là người đi học, chẳng hạn như những nghiên cứu sinh đang trong thời gian 'cấm túc trong trại sáng tác' luận án, thời gian mà họ phải cách ly, hoãn hủy bao công việc hoặc thiếu hứng khởi.

Tuy nhiên, đại dịch Covid-19 đã mở ra nhiều cơ hội cũng không tiền khoáng hậu để ta chiêm nghiệm lại chính công việc của mình. Bài viết này xem xét giá trị, lợi ích có thể nói là độc đáo của siêu nhận thức và tự điều chỉnh đối với việc học tập mà hoàn cảnh hiện nay có thể đem lại. Nhiều nghiên cứu chỉ ra rằng việc sử dụng các chiến lược siêu nhận thức giúp người học hiểu thêm về chính việc học của mình, và có thể đẩy nhanh tiến độ học tập thêm nhiều tháng. Không chỉ học cách học, những chiến lược đó còn kích hoạt kiến thức đã có và nâng tầm tư duy của người học để họ có thể quan sát quá trình học tập đồng thời với việc học tập của mình; nhờ đó, họ có thể có được những cách học độc lập và đa dụng trong nhiều hoàn cảnh. Dựa trên những trường hợp cụ thể của nghiên cứu sinh do tác giả bài viết này hướng dẫn, bài viết đưa ra cái nhìn sâu về quá trình những nghiên cứu sinh – những người mới bước vào con đường học thuật – có thể tự điều chỉnh học tập một cách hiệu quả như thế nào, có thể kiểm soát quá trình nhận thức và động cơ của mình như thế nào để hoạch định, theo dõi và đánh giá những kỹ năng, thói quen mà họ rèn giũa được. Đặc biệt, bài viết cũng đề xuất định hướng nhằm 'phổ cập' phương pháp sư phạm 'hậu đại dịch' (Murphy, 2000) đối với nghiên cứu sinh.

Từ khóa: siêu nhận thức, tự điều chỉnh học tập, Covid-19, tự đánh giá, nghiên cứu sinh, nghiên cứu tự ngã

AN INVESTIGATION INTO INTERCULTURAL COMPONENTS IN THREE PILOTED ENGLISH TEXTBOOKS FOR VIETNAMESE HIGH SCHOOLS UNDER THE NATIONAL FOREIGN LANGUAGES PROJECT

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Abstract: Textbooks, as the main source of teaching material, provide learners with not only language input and practice but also intercultural knowledge and skills to build up learners' intercultural communication competence (ICC). This study aimed at finding out whether the English textbooks under the National Foreign Languages Project (commonly known as Project 2020, or NFL) implemented in high schools include intercultural elements and help students in improving students' ICC. The framework by Chao (2011) was used to analyze and categorize the content of the textbooks into different cultural categories. The results of the study indicate that textbook compilers integrated cultural information from various sources including intercultural interactions in the textbook series.

Key words: intercultural communication competence, textbooks, cultural categories, Project 2020

1. Introduction

In today's world, globalization has brought nations, cultures, and people closer. English becomes the language for international trade, commerce, and communication and its teaching and learning become growing needs (Farzaneh, Konhandami, & Nejadannsari, 2014). Language does not exist in a vacuum but it is a part of society and culture. Therefore, teaching and learning a language also means learning about the culture of that language. The relationship between language and culture in English language classrooms has been the focus of many studies (Kramsch,1993; Byram,1989).

Communication among people from different cultural backgrounds may cause misunderstanding in intercultural situations as people may base on their cultures for interpretations (Kramsch, 1993). Therefore, there is a hidden risk of false impression and conflict if one uses a language without the understanding of cultural background (Woflson, 1989). To avoid misinterpretation in international situations, learners of foreign languages should draw attention to cultural differences when communicating. Apart from that, they should be equipped with knowledge and skills to deal with conveying their messages in an intercultural environment while learning foreign languages.

Teaching materials have a powerful influence on the process of teaching and learning a language. According to Tomlinson (1998), materials can be instructional, experiential, elicititative, and exploratory for learners to discover the language. Textbooks are one of the main sources of inputs for learners and the language practice that takes place in classrooms. Since the contents of textbooks have a significant association with the learning of the students, it is supposed that textbooks should include intercultural knowledge which can help learners communicate successfully in intercultural contexts. In other words, apart from language skills, textbooks also provide intercultural knowledge and provide chances for learners to improve intercultural communication skills so that they can build up their intercultural communication competence.

In Vietnam, a new English textbook series has been implemented in some Vietnamese

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high schools under the National Foreign Languages Project for 5 years. The new English textbook series shows their improvements in many aspects as compared with the previous ones such as book structure, unit structure, component heading, and time allocated. Since the English textbook series was piloted in high schools, there exists a question about whether the textbooks can serve the objectives of teaching and learning English in the school context. There are some studies to investigate some aspects when implementing the series in some schools. Hoang (2017) looked into teachers' and students' attitudes toward the piloted textbook in a high school in Nam Dinh. In 2018, Nguyen dug into how source culture, target culture, and international culture were represented in the textbook series for high schools in visual forms, texts or listening, and speaking tasks. There has also been much research related to analyzing cultural and intercultural elements and components in textbooks. For example, Farzaneh et al. (2014) sought social-cultural contexts in Top Notch series. However, there has not been any study on intercultural components and learning tasks in the piloted English textbooks under the Project. The above-mentioned reasons motivated me to investigate intercultural components presented in the new pilot textbooks implemented at high schools to find out whether those textbooks could foster intercultural communication in students.

In order to seek the answer to whether English textbooks under the Project launched by the Ministry of Education and Training foster ICC, the study sets out to investigate intercultural components presented in the textbooks. With a view to enhancing students' ICC, it is important that textbooks should provide inputs for students to develop all dimensions of ICC knowledge, attitudes, and skills. The research sought the answer to find out what proportions of intercultural components can be found in the analyzed textbooks. The results of the study can be a reference for teachers for appropriate adaptation and adjustment of the material to suit their teaching contexts as well as to meet their students' needs.

The ten-year English Textbook Series for Vietnamese Secondary Schools under the National Foreign Languages Project 2020 consists of primary textbooks, lower secondary textbooks, upper secondary ones. As a series, there is complete integration and articulation among the textbooks for three levels. Therefore, it is far better to investigate the entire textbook series from grade 3 to grade 12 so that a general overview of intercultural content and learning tasks can be evaluated. Nevertheless, this research study only Student's books for high school level for reasons of space and time.

Particularly, the study only focused on exploiting intercultural elements in relation to other sources of cultural information presented in students' books for grades 10, 11, 12 in all forms of information such as reading texts, listening recordings, conversations, learning tasks, pictures.

2. Literature review

2.1. Role of textbooks as a source of cultural inputs

Textbooks, among the essential components in language classrooms, serve as basic input of the language learners receive and the language practice that occurs in classrooms. They may provide the basis for the content of the lessons and for students, textbooks are major sources of contact that they have with the target language apart from teachers. For language teachers, textbooks serve as a guide which supplies systematic and comprehensive cultural perspectives. With the shift in linguistic theories, people have tended to focus on teaching language in contexts. Social contexts, everyday life, and the natural environment of the target culture have been gradually paid attention to in the textbooks as linguistic inputs. Therefore, foreign language classes should include cultural components incorporated within classroom materials or real-life experiences.

To be effective in promoting intercultural communication competence, it is suggested that textbooks be designed accordingly in a way that both linguistic and cultural objectives should be incorporated. Students should be equipped with the knowledge of not only their own culture but also the target culture as well as other countries' cultures. Apart from that, the intercultural approach in foreign language teaching promotes linguistic competence as well as intercultural communicative competence and aims at developing the awareness of the cultural differences, which may interfere with

communication and understanding between the learners' own culture and the target culture (Byram, 1997). Nowadays, it is assumed that the knowledge of one's own and foreign cultures broadens one's worldview and in general and enriches one's life by providing access to new cultures.

Language expresses the thoughts, beliefs, and assumptions of a community hence language reflects the way of looking at the world and understanding reality. Byram (1989) believed that language is a tool to express the speaker's knowledge and perception of the real world, thus it reflects their cultural concepts and values. He continued that one cannot learn a language and neglect its culture because speaking a language means expressing its culture, exchanging a language embodies a particular way of thinking and living. Moreover, according to Byram (1989) cultural awareness is very important in language teaching because it contributes to language proficiency. He insisted that any language curriculum should include either implicitly or explicitly elements of its culture because language reflects the speaker's values and perception of the world. Therefore, textbooks, as considered a curriculum guideline, are effective instruments for educational practice, language resources, and sets of cultural values.

In 1997, Byram pointed out three dimensions of intercultural competence knowledge, skills, and attitudes. Having an intercultural attitude means being curious and open towards foreign cultures and being able to understand that one's own attitudes are not the only possible way to perceive the world and reality. Secondly, having intercultural knowledge includes not only knowing about how social groups and identities of foreign culture function and one's own culture function but also understanding the norms and values in every culture. Thirdly, there are intercultural skills that should be taught to learners that are comparing, interpreting, and relating their own culture as well as the foreign cultures. Therefore, it is necessary to include these aspects in textbooks to provide students with models and inputs to practice the language in social contexts. Apart from that, textbooks are also a guideline to teach language learners to search for information

on their own since teachers cannot anticipate all the knowledge that they might need in the future.

In language classrooms under the intercultural perspective, students are encouraged to learn languages for cultural understanding to be able to cognitively analyze foreign cultures, people, and cultural artifacts. Integrating linguistic and cultural learning enables the critical assessment of the mainstream culture into which the pupils are socialized. According to Elomaa (2009), textbooks have a critical role in promoting the principles of intercultural learning and teaching as they have a significant influence on pupils' attitudes towards foreign cultures. Ideally, the textbooks would get students interested in the target culture by presenting the culture, language, and mentality of the target countries in an interesting and motivating way. Additionally, the textbook contents should also be meaningful in order to support the intercultural approach. For example, learners should be able to use the learned information in real life. The aim of the intercultural approach is that students would realize that there are no better or worse cultures but just culture-specific features, which direct the use of language and behaviors. Therefore, the teaching of one's own culture and comparing it with other foreign cultures are also a very important aspect of intercultural learning.

2.2. Cultural and intercultural components in textbooks.

Textbooks are regarded as important inputs to create cultural contact for learners (Ihm, 1996). Textbooks can vary in terms of the amount and nature of the culture they are conveyed. From an ICC perspective, cultural values must be integrated into textbooks along with the linguistic form. Many models for determining cultural contents in English textbooks have been offered.

Regarding sources of culture, Cortazzi and Jin (1999) propose three types of sources in which culture can be investigated. From their perfectives, cultural content can come from either source culture – learns' native culture or target culture which refers to countries where English is used as the first language, or international culture referring to different varieties of Non-English speaking countries. In

2011, Chao added two more to the list to form a five-category framework to sort cultural contents in the textbooks which are Intercultural interaction and Universality across culture.

When it comes to cultural dimensions, Moran and Lu (2001) introduce five dimensions of culture in which products, practices, perspectives, persons, and communities interact with each other. A brief summary of Moran and Lu's dimensions of culture is presented in Table 1.

Table 1

The Summary of Five Dimensions of Culture (Moran & Lu, 2001, as cited in Kim & Paek, 2015)

Dimensions	Examples
Products	*Artifacts*: food, documents, language, money, tools *Places*: buildings, cities, houses *Institutions*: family, law, economy, religion, education, politics *Art forms*: music, clothes, dancing, painting, movie, architecture *Operations*: manipulation of cultural products
Practices	*Acts*: ritualized communicative practices *Scenarios*: extended communicative practices *Lives*: stories of members of the future
Perspectives	They represent the perceptions, beliefs, values and attitudes that underlie the products and guide people's behavior in the practice of culture. They can be explicit but often they are implicit, outside conscious awareness.
Communities	They include the specific social contexts (e.g. national cultures), circumstances (e.g. religious ceremonies), and groups (e.g. different social clubs) in which members carry out cultural practices.
Persons	They refer to individual members who embody the culture and its communities in unique ways. Personal identity and life history play key roles in the development of a cultural person.

In this study, the data which reflect at least one aspect of culture according to Moran's model would be collected as cultural elements and classified into different sources of cultures. Intercultural components would be referred to as knowledge about practices and products of cultures such as customs, beliefs, values, taboos, skills to communicate effectively in different social settings, attitudes, and awareness towards similarities and differences among cultures.

2.3. Sources of cultural information

The basis for classifying cultural information presented in a textbook is based on Cortazzi and Jin's work. They distinguish cultural information used in foreign language textbooks into three types.

Firstly, source culture materials are understood as the learner's own culture. In the case of Vietnam, this involves using materials based on Vietnamese society and Vietnamese culture, thus it gets learners familiar with the content in textbooks. The main purpose of this category of textbooks is to enable learners to talk about their own country to people from different countries. Secondly, target culture information includes the culture of countries where English is spoken as the first language such as countries in the inner circles of Kachru's circles of English. These textbooks of this category provide learners with cultural information about English speaking countries. Integrating target cultural data into textbooks is supposed to enhance learners' motivation and develop their attitude toward language learning (McKay, 2002).

International cultural information relates to cultures that do not belong to source culture nor target culture. It refers to the culture of countries where English is used as a foreign or international language. In other words, it refers to the cultures of the countries in the outer circle in Kachru's model. English is frequently used in international situations.

Apart from the three categories of cultural information proposed by Cortazzi and Jin, some other types can be found in foreign language textbooks. McKay (2004) reveals that using international target culture content in English as an international language classroom brings benefits to some extents. According to her research, learning cultural information from international cultures allows learners to expose to a variety of cultures and develop cross-cultural sociolinguistic competence. They have more chances to build up their own ideas about how to communicate appropriately with English

speakers in international contexts. Additionally, more exposure to international culture materials will support learners in internalizing the cultural norms of non-native speaker's cultures rather than native English speakers when communicating and exchanging information, which will result in the development of ICC. Therefore, English textbooks should supply learners with a plethora of opportunities to effectively enhance their ICC through the contents and learning tasks.

Based on categories of culture by Cortazzi and Jin (1999) and McKay (2004), Chao (2011) employs more domains which are intercultural interaction and universality cross-culture. The framework, which was designed to assist university English learners to have comparisons or reflections on the differences or similarities between their local and target/international cultures, was coded under Intercultural Interaction (ICI). Generally, the content, which is mainly in correlation to linguistic knowledge

and practice without focusing on any particular culture or country, was coded under Universality across Culture (UC). Compared to the previous frameworks, Chao's covers more aspects of culture contents presented in textbooks in general. It draws people to the aspect of communication between different cultures, differences and similarities as well as focus on the matter of intercultural communication and intercultural communication competence when classifying cultural contents Besides, this research also has the same context in which the framework was developed. English in Vietnam plays the role of a foreign language, it is one of the media of communicating with people from different countries. Therefore, in the context of this research, I adapted Chao's (2011) to categorize cultural contents in textbooks. However, when applying to English textbooks in Vietnam, some changes should be made to suit the context of the research. SC refers to Vietnamese culture.

Table 2

The Categories and the Criteria to Classify Culture (adapted Chao, 2011)

Cultural categories	Explanations
source culture (SC)	It refers to Vietnamese culture.
target culture (TC)	It includes English-speaking countries in the inner circle (Australia, Canada, Ireland, New Zealand, the UK and the USA).
international culture (InC)	It includes cultures of all countries in the world (European countries, countries in Latin America, Africa, and Asia) except for Vietnamese and English-speaking cultures.
intercultural interaction (ICI)	It includes the comparison, reflection, intercultural communication, or awareness of the differences and similarities between the local/source and the target/international culture through activities such as case studies, problem-solving, and role-play to help students develop positive attitudes, knowledge, skills, and awareness in international communication.
universality across culture (UC)	It includes general knowledge/content that is not specific to any particular culture or country.

3. Methodology

3.1. Textbook description

Data consisted of three textbooks series for three grades and each textbook series has two volumes which are entitled *Tiếng Anh 10*, *Tiếng Anh 11*, and *Tiếng Anh 12*, published by Vietnam Education Publishing House. These books are the results of the collaboration of Vietnam Education Publishing House and Pearson Education. It is expected that after finishing high school, students will achieve CEFR level B1. Compared to the previous textbook series, English textbooks under the Project are developed from a multi-component

approach taking topics as the starting point. The development of four macro-skills, linguistic elements (pronunciation, vocabulary, and grammar) and intercultural aspects are regarded as the means to be taught so that together these components will contribute to the development of the school student's comprehensive communicative competence (Hoang, 2016).

In the textbook series under the Project, high school textbooks vary from lower secondary and primary textbooks in terms of textbook structure, the number of units, the unit structure, the number of components of each unit, and how a unit begins and ends (Hoang, 2015).

The textbook series for high school students consists of student's books, teacher's books,

and workbooks and CDs. In terms of textbook structure, each textbook for high school students is organized around 10 units and 4 reviews which are separated into two volumes for each semester of a school year.

Each book provides a book map which presents the topics of each unit, language functions and notions, phonological and lexical items related to the topic, and grammatical structures realizing the functions and notions, and cross-cultural contents for the textbook of each grade (Hoang, 2016). There is a consistent structure for each unit and each review. Each unit is presented in 10 pages. Topic, language focus, reading, speaking, listening, writing, communication & culture and project are incorporated across eight-lesson titles. Each of the titles consists of varying exercises and communicative tasks or activities which require individual work, pair work, group work, class discussion, and different patterns of interaction among teacher and students.

In each textbook volume, there are two reviews: one after the third unit, and the other after the fifth unit. In this section, students have a chance to revisit grammar points, lexical items, and phonological patterns from the previous units as well as four language skills focusing on topics in previous units.

A consistent structure is applied for all units in the English textbooks for three grades. Each unit includes eight sections which are equivalent to eight periods/ lessons. In terms of components, each unit in textbooks for high school students consists of eight headings: Getting Started, Language, Reading, Speaking, Writing, Communication & Culture, and Looking back & Project.

Each heading contributes to develop students' communicative language areas as well as improve the level of proficiency. *Getting started* aims at introducing the topic of the unit, eliciting student's existing knowledge of the topic. In *Language* period, students are provided with grammar points, lexical items related to the topic. Apart from supplying knowledge, four skill-based lessons create a learning environment for students to develop communicative language use. In *Communication & Culture*, students learn to use English in social-cultural contexts and read about an aspect of a specific culture. In the last lesson of each unit, students revise language

patterns and produce real work about the topic they have learned.

A unit of grade 10 through to grade 12 begins with a dialogue about the topic of which incorporates phonological and lexical items related to the main topic, grammar points, and specific functions and notions. These language elements and language functions are enhanced, practiced, expanded, and integrated into four following lessons which aim at developing four macro skills: reading, speaking, listening, writing and some cultural contents related to the topic. The unit ends with a project which provides students with opportunities to use the language learned throughout seven lessons to perform communicative tasks in real contexts.

3.2. Research instruments

In order to answer the research question, the qualitative method and quantitative method were applied. Content analysis is a research technique that provides new insights, increases the researcher's understanding of particular phenomena, and informs practice. Therefore, a content analysis of textbooks for high school students was conducted to determine intercultural elements in textbooks. The culture-related contents in these textbooks, exercises, and the learning tasks are used as the baseline data for content analysis.

When it comes to the proportion of intercultural contents in the textbook series. The textbook culture-related contents were coded according to the adaptation of Chao's (2011) categories of sources of culture. Under this scheme, cultural information was divided into five groups: source culture, target culture, international culture, intercultural interaction, and universality across culture as presented in Table 2 SC refers to Vietnamese culture. TC includes English-speaking cultures such as England, America, Australia, New Zealand, and so on. InC represents the cultures of all countries other than SC and TC. On the other hand, ICI includes content that reflects the similarities and differences in cultures among the 'SC', 'TC', and 'IC. Culture-neutral or culture-free contents were counted as Universality across culture.

A coding scheme was developed to analyze data and categorize data according to the existing framework based on Chao's (2011) categories of culture.

The source culture: native cultural representations of learners. In this situation, the source culture is Vietnamese cultural representations, which can be found in three textbook series.

The target culture: culture representations of the cultures where English is the first language, for example, the United States, the UK, Canada, Australia, and New Zealand.

The international culture: cultural representations of non-Vietnamese culture and non-English speaking countries in Africa, Asia, or Europe.

The intercultural interaction: there is a comparison, reflection, intercultural communication or awareness of the differences and similarities between the local/source and the target/international culture.

Universality across culture: it includes general knowledge or general contents, which do not belong to any specific culture.

When all texts, listening transcripts, and visuals were investigated and classified into each category, a quantitative tool was conducted to calculate the proportion of Intercultural elements in three textbooks and its correlation with other sources of cultural information.

3.3. Data collecting procedure

In every heading, visual elements and written forms were analyzed separately. Pictures, maps, charts, graphs, signs, photographs, and illustrations were classified into visual elements. Written forms such as names of characters, places, themes of written texts, or any culture references were put into one group. General contents such as culture-free statements or scientific facts that did not belong to any specific cultures and could not determine their specific source of culture were grouped as Universality across culture.

In order to classify cultural elements into different categories, names of countries appearing in each analysis unit were highlighted and coded into different categories such as Target culture, Source culture, International culture, or Intercultural interaction. For those elements that could not be determined any cultural references would be put into Universality across culture. The analysis units of the study included reading passages, notes,

text, listening transcript and pictures, and all other activities in the student's books.

The frequency of each cultural element in each section of each unit was counted and recorded in a coding table.

3.4. Data analysis

To answer the first research question, after making the data units selected and excluded in phase one, the main ideas of the texts, recording, activities, exercises, and visual elements were scrutinized and coded them with categories and types of culture using framework as presented in the previous section. The collected data was recorded in the content analysis table that enabled to count the frequency of cultural sources. In order to determine the cultural categories, the name of countries mentioned in each text and visuals was noted and put into different sources of cultural information. Then the main ideas of each reading, pictures, and other visuals were determined and coded according to guidelines to identify intercultural components.

The first domain of the textbook analysis was source culture. Most examples of Vietnamese culture were contextualized in Vietnam in modes of social addressing system. All over the textbook series, the use of given names instead of surnames was found. In almost all situations of all units, characters use first names in communicating with others such as "Mai, Nam, Quan, Hieu, Phong, Anna, Scott…". Besides, Vietnamese culture was also presented in the textbooks through different features as Geography, Architecture, Economics, Historical features…; for instance, a brief biography of Van Cao, a reading text about Ha Long Bay, or a listening recording about Phong Nha Ke Bang. Apart from that, Vietnamese "values" cultural elements, through the introduction of health beliefs such as "Ailments are caused by an imbalance of yin and yang" found in *Tieng Anh 10*. Additionally, a few Vietnamese festivals were described in the textbooks such as "Elephant racing festival", "Forest worshipping festival" in *Tieng Anh 12*. A number of introductions of musical works or art forms were also illustrated source culture such as "Tien quan ca", "Noi vong tay lon", or "Quan Ho" singing.

Regarding target culture, there were a lot of written texts which describe features of culture in countries in the Inner Circle. In some cases, the target culture was described separately. In particular, most instances of target culture were contextualized in England, Britain, The USA, the UK, and Australia. An introduction of the British educational system, curriculum, subject descriptions, and discussing the education structure, institutions, and organizations in *Tieng Anh 11* was an example. Besides, some customs and superstitions in target culture were introduced such as some superstitions in Britain in *Tieng Anh 10.* In addition to the names of the countries, the names of the cities and places such as London, New York, California, three textbooks also referred to American and British values were also presented through the standard of education with the names and description of degrees, certificates, and level such as AS-Level, TOK, IB, A-level (*Tieng Anh 11*, p. 22)

The third domain was international culture. In three textbooks international culture can be found in several written texts. Most examples of international cultural references belonged to Asian culture. The names of countries and regions were found in great density such as Asian, Korea, Indonesia, Malaysia, Thailand, Laos, China, Japan. Apart from that, many cultural elements belonging to other countries and regions such as India, German, Sweden, Europe, Costa Rica, Africa were also named in the textbooks. Moreover, the textbook set also referred to geographic locations of places that characters come from. Names and descriptions of international organizations such as UNESCO, UNICEF, East Meets West contribute to the completion of the picture of International culture represented in the textbooks.

Concerning the fourth domain intercultural interactions, in the textbooks, Vietnamese culture content was primarily compared and contrasted to target culture and international culture in numerous aspects and cases. From those written texts, similarities and differences between those cultures in several aspects and the interactions between those cultures could be found, for instance, the comparison on the ideas of success between American and Vietnamese people. The intercultural interactions were mostly in forms of communication among people from different cultures such as John and Van talking about a historical figure, Nguyen Trai, in *Tieng Anh 12*. Another example could be found in *Tieng*

Anh 10, in Unit 2, there was a conversation between Nam and Scott talking about the saying "An apple a day keeps doctors away". The names of the characters gave a clue that they were from different cultural backgrounds, and their exchanges in the conversation were based on their understanding and more or less embodied their cultures.

Additionally, written forms without any cultural references or with general knowledge or general facts would be grouped into universality across culture.

Regarding visuals, there were a large number of visuals in the textbook series. Images in the textbooks series are mostly the prompts to elicit students' background knowledge about the topic or illustrations for the content. There are pictures, maps, or charts with brief descriptions including cultural references to trace back the sources of culture. Images referring to Vietnamese culture could be easily identified. In Unit 3, *Tieng Anh 10*, there were pictures of Quan ho singing, Van Cao, Vietnamese television programs which illustrated the content of the listening recording, a biography, or pictures for discussion. In addition to that, when introducing historical places in Vietnam, images of Flag Tower of Hanoi, the Centre Sector of the Imperial Citadel of Thang Long, Hoi An ancient town, Hue Imperial Citadel, and so on were included in different parts to depict the content of the texts or the recordings.

Concerning target culture, pictures of famous people, places and destinations, charts showing trends could be found in the textbook set. For example, before listening to a conversation about their favorite songs in Unit 3, *Tieng Anh 10*, the textbook provided students with pictures of famous musicians such as Michael Jackson, Elton John. Another example can be found in *Tieng Anh 12*, pictures of Steve Jobs, Larry Steward, Conan Doyle were presented when introducing topics "Life stories".

Regarding images depicting the international culture, a large number of pictures of Asian countries, cities, flags as well as attractive destinations in those countries were illustrated. In addition, logos or symbols of international organizations were also found such as World Wide Fund for Nature (WWF) or Association of Southeast Asian Nations (ASEAN).

Additionally, the textbooks also presented a small number of visuals showing the

interactions among people from different countries. In those images, people from different countries communicated with each other such as pictures of foreign students wearing *Ao dai* and interacting with Vietnamese people in Unit 7, *Tieng Anh 11*.

In terms of universality across culture, a large number of illustrations could be found in three textbooks. They were cartoon pictures or images with no specific cultural references. These visuals were grouped into the fifth category as cultural neutral elements.

The results of the procedures were presented in the content analysis table. Then the frequency of each source of culture was calculated and the proportion of intercultural components was figured out to see its correlation with other sources of culture.

To make the results more objective and more reliable, I conducted an independent analysis with another B.A holder. The results then were correlated for further analysis.

4. Findings

The textbook series contains 30 units and 12 reviews and each unit contains eight headings. In total, I examine 252 headings to collect data about sources of cultural information. All paragraphs, reading texts, listening scripts, and notes were counted as relevant texts. Conversations and dialogues were counted as texts. Those texts may provide cultural contexts through which factual information can be introduced comprehensively and accurately. Besides, all pictures, maps, charts, graphs in three textbooks were included for analysis as those visual elements also contain cultural information and they also reflect human life. Therefore, they are a useful source of cultural inputs.

In detail, I examined 264 texts and 789 visuals (see in Table 3). If one unit presents cultural content, it was analyzed and placed under a suitable category.

Table 3

Number of Aspects of Analysis on Cultural-Related Content

Book	Tieng Anh 10	Tieng Anh 11	Tieng Anh 12	Total
visuals (pictures, maps, charts, graphs…)	82	89	93	264
texts (paragraphs, reading texts, dialogues, passages, conversations, notes, …..)	237	287	265	789

Throughout the three textbooks, cultural content was almost evenly presented both tangibly and intangibly. After examining 264 texts and 789 pictures and placing them under suitable categories, the proportion of intercultural components was calculated and presented in Table 4.

Table 4

Percentage of Source Culture, Target Culture, International Culture, Intercultural Interaction and Universality Across Culture in Three Textbooks

Culture categories	Aspects of analysis		Sum
	Texts	Visuals	
source culture	85	128	213 (20.2%)
target culture	36	40	76 (7.2%)
international culture	42	87	129 (12.3%)
intercultural interaction	28	11	39 (3.7%)
universality across culture	73	524	597 (56.7%)

Table 4 presents the percentage and frequency of four types of culture in the textbooks series. It can be found that throughout the three textbooks, Universality across culture accounted for more than half of analysis units with 56.7 percent. Source culture was given the second most concern with 20.2 percent. Ranking the third is International culture with 12.3 percent, which was not so far surpassed Target culture in the amount with 7.2 percent. Accounting for the most modest proportion among four categories is Intercultural interaction with only 3.7 percent. In three textbooks series, it can be seen that the proportion of Universality across culture is the largest.

There are a lot of analyzed units in textbooks which have no cultural reference such as a picture of two people talking to each other, a picture of a part of a city, a group discussion,

or a reading text about conflicts in a family with no cultural references, a conversation about using robots. Visuals and written texts have no direct references to any cultures, some referring to general categories such as teachers, doctors, global warming. In these cases, English is used as a medium to convey information and exchange information.

It is not difficult to see that the textbooks tried to include all sources of cultural information. Cultural-related contents come from five sources. Among those sources, the mild bias in favor of Universality across culture, Source culture, and International culture, Target culture proving that textbook writers tried to serve the purpose of multicultural content. The intercultural interaction only accounted for a rather modest proportion.

Table 5

Frequency of Source Culture, Target Culture, International Culture, Intercultural Interaction and Universality across culture

Culture categories	Aspects of analysis	Tieng Anh 10	Tieng Anh 11	Tieng Anh 12
Source culture	texts	30 / 36.6%	29 / 32.6%	26 / 28%
	visuals	45 / 19%	49 / 17.1%	34 / 12.8%
Target culture	texts	14 / 17.1%	8 / 9%	14 / 15.1%
	visuals	22 / 9.3%	2 / 0.7%	16 / 6%
International culture	texts	9 / 11%	20 / 22.5%	13 / 14%
	visuals	12 / 5.1%	53 / 18.5%	22 / 8.3%
Intercultural interaction	texts	9 / 11%	9 / 10.1%	10 / 10.8%
	visuals	0 / 0%	7 / 2.5%	4 / 1.1%
Universality across culture	texts	20 / 24.4%	23 / 25.8%	30 / 32.2%
	visuals	158 / 66.7%	176 / 61.3%	190 / 71.7%

Table 5 shows the comparison of cultural categories among the three books in different cultural aspects. In terms of visual, Universality across culture elements occupy the largest proportion with 66.7%, 61.3%, and 71.7% in the same order of *Tieng Anh 10, Tieng Anh 11* and *Tieng Anh 12*. Regarding Vietnamese cultural elements, *Tieng Anh 10, Tieng Anh 11* seemed to have no considerable difference in

amount with 19% and 17.1%; however, Vietnamese cultural elements compose 12% in *Tieng Anh 12*. For visual target culture content, *Tieng Anh 10, Tieng Anh 12* were more densely represented with 9.3% and 6% in comparison with those in *Tieng Anh 11* with only 0.7%. Pictures of International culture were more densely represented in *Tieng Anh 11* with 18.5% rather than those in *Tieng Anh 10* and

Tieng Anh 12 with 5.1% and 8.3% respectively. In contrast, there was a small proportion of pictures of Intercultural interaction presented in *Tieng Anh 11* and *Tieng Anh 12*, which were 2.5% and 1.1%, and visual intercultural interaction could not be found in *Tieng Anh 10*. In regards to all written forms of texts in the textbooks, written texts about universality across culture content a bit surpassed in *Tieng Anh 12* with 32.3% rather than those in *Tieng Anh 10, 11* which are 24.4 and 25.8 percent. In addition, there was almost no significant difference in written Vietnamese culture content in three textbooks with the amount of 36.6%, 32.6%, and 28% respectively. Texts of the target culture in *Tieng Anh 10 and Tieng Anh 12* were roughly the same, which were 17.1% and 15.1% while in *Tieng Anh 11* they accounted for only 9%. In contrast to the trend in texts of target culture, the proportion of written forms of international culture in *Tieng Anh 11* surpassed the amount with 22% meanwhile, they constitute only 11% in *Tieng Anh 10* and 14% in *Tieng Anh 12*. In terms of written forms of intercultural interaction, there was almost no significant difference bias toward any textbooks. They were represented with roughly the same amount in *three textbooks* which were 11%, 10.1% and 10.8% in the same order.

One of the purposes of the study is to investigate intercultural components presented in the textbooks for high schools under the Project. In the textbooks, the distribution of intercultural pictures was unequal but there was a balanced number of intercultural pictures among three textbooks. The visuals that carry messages or represent the interactions among people from different countries can mostly be found in *Tieng Anh 11*.

From the textbook analysis process, it can be seen that textbook writers tried to construct various situations in which Vietnamese people communicate and interact with foreigners on certain topics like education, music, values, social norms and many others. For example, in *Tieng Anh 11*, there is a conversation among three people, Phong, Kevin, and Marian. They are talking about "Further education" and how they understand the term "Further education". Based on the name of the characters, three speakers are from different countries with different presuppositions about the topic. Nevertheless, what they exchange for one

another is quite common knowledge about the higher education system.

Additionally, intercultural elements were also found in written texts comparing cultural customs, values, or superstitions in different countries. In *Tieng Anh 11*, a comparison of raising children in the US and Vietnam was presented in Unit 3. The text showed the differences in the mindset. While American parents often help their children become self-reliant, Vietnamese parents tend to overprotect their kids. Another example was illustrated in *Tieng Anh 10,* Unit 7. The text as an input for speaking tasks presented the differences in traditions and customs in Russia and the UK. This text provided students with knowledge of social life in two countries such as popular drinks, sports, and beliefs. In the same unit, the text supplied information about the similarities and differences in the ideas of success in Vietnam and America. The textbooks presented not only comparisons in traditions or customs but also the social aspects. In *Tieng Anh 12*, in a writing task, there was a line graph comparing the urbanization rates in Korea and Indonesia Unit 3.

Although textbook writers included written texts and pictures carrying intercultural components, the result of the textbook analysis indicated that the intercultural interaction materials were seriously under-represented in all of the English textbooks. The percentage of ICI in three textbooks was just 3.7 percent. The result showed that English textbooks tended to pay less attention to intercultural issues, though they were considered an essential part of developing learners' ICC.

Through the process of analyzing cultural elements especially, intercultural elements, it can be concluded that the analyzed textbooks included knowledge of cultures, which are the inputs for the practices integrated into the learning tasks in the textbooks. The textbooks, to a certain extent, help to enhance students' knowledge of different cultures, which is also a significant aspect of developing students' ICC.

5. Conclusion

Teaching materials have a powerful influence on the process of teaching and learning a language. Textbooks are not only one of the main sources of language input and practice but also a supply of intercultural

knowledge and skills to build up learners' intercultural communication competence. To communicate successfully in an intercultural environment, students should be drawn their attention to the issue and equipped with sufficient skills. For those reasons, it drove me to conduct this study to find out whether current textbooks implemented in the school can help teachers and students in improving students' intercultural communication competence. Besides, there can be suitable adaptation and adjustment of materials to serve students' demands and the requirements to help students to be confident and successful in communication in international contexts.

The study was conducted with two main phases: data collection and data analysis. Before conducting phase one, I reviewed the framework to categorize sources of cultural information in the textbook by Chao (2011) and adapted it to make it more appropriate with the context of the study. After that, a coding scheme was developed to collect relevant data for analysis. Based on the guidelines from the framework by Chao (2011), visual information and written texts were investigated and put into different categories.

As relevant data was collected, I built up the content analysis table to describe and analyze the data, one was to report data about the sources of cultural information. The results of the study indicate that textbook compilers integrate cultural information from various sources including intercultural interactions in which people from different cultures communicate with one another or different aspects of different cultures are put together to find out similarities and differences or people from one culture interact with the environment of other countries. The textbook series provides intercultural knowledge as well as other cultural materials for students to practice in classrooms. It is also consistent with the guiding principles of developing the textbook series stated in Hoang (2015). In his article, he pointed out one of the basic principles for developing textbooks was to ensure that cross-cultural issues are adequately incorporated into the contents of the textbooks. As Byram (1997) and Scollon & Scollon (1995) mentioned, intercultural communicative competences can be enhanced when students are exposed to a culturally rich environment in which they internalize the norms of different cultures. In this regard, Byram et al state that "materials from different origins with different perspectives should be used together to enable learners to compare and to analyze the materials critically. It is more important than learners acquire skills of analysis than factual information" (1994, p. 19). This means that the representation of ICI in current English textbooks should be modified or improved in a way that helps students to develop their ICC.

From the results of the data analysis processes, it can be noticed that the proportion of intercultural components and the learning tasks addressing IC in three textbooks series is different. The differences may result from the differences in cultural themes presented in those textbooks and there is properly no standardized figure to the distributions of intercultural elements and tasks in three textbooks.

Hence, it is concluded that the analyzed textbooks series is a good English textbook set from the perspective of ICC. Textbook writers are concerned about developing students' ICC by including cultural and intercultural elements, which are inputs for linguistic as well as cultural practices. To help students enhance ICC comprehensively, the knowledge of cultures is not adequate. By conducting the activities and the learning tasks demonstrated in these textbooks, students have chances to develop their intercultural attitudes and skills. It also follows the recent trend in English textbooks writing for learners who take English as a foreign language. Current English textbooks tend to be designed to improve intercultural dynamics by incorporating more topics on ICI into culture-related content and IC learning tasks.

Teaching and learning English cannot be separated from teaching and learning its culture. To support students master English effectively via textbooks, cultural elements should be highlighted during the lessons. The teachers also need to draw students' attention to the issue of intercultural communication and help them to be aware of cultural differences in international environments to conduct activities presented in the textbooks.

The results of the research provide teachers who are using the textbook series with another

perspective about three textbooks. For those teachers who approach the textbook under the perspective of intercultural communication competence, this study can be a reference for them when they use and adapt the textbooks to have appropriate adjustments with different learners.

With the analysis above, teachers' responsibility to find practical solutions to integrate cultural teaching into their language teaching in one way or another. Teachers can plan their own extensive teaching program on cultures, especially for extra-curriculum activities or involve intercultural activities in their four skills lessons.

Nevertheless, unless teachers are interculturally competent and knowledgeable, it is doubtful that they can help foster the interculturality of their students. To do that, there should be plans and policies to draw teachers' attention to this issue and help them enhance their knowledge and skills of teaching.

Besides, every high school also needs to provide teachers with the proximal environment to implement their plan to enhance students' interculturality.

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TÌM HIỂU CÁC YẾU TỐ LIÊN VĂN HÓA
TRONG SÁCH GIÁO KHOA TIẾNG ANH THÍ ĐIỂM
CẤP TRUNG HỌC PHỔ THÔNG
THUỘC ĐỀ ÁN NGOẠI NGỮ QUỐC GIA

Kiều Thị Hà

Khoa Ngoại ngữ - Tiếng Việt, Trường Sĩ quan Lục quân 1
Cổ Đông, Sơn Tây, Hà Nội

Tóm tắt: Sách giáo khoa được coi là nguồn tài liệu giảng dạy chính; chúng cung cấp cho người học không chỉ kiến thức ngôn ngữ mà còn kiến thức và kỹ năng liên văn hóa giúp bồi dưỡng và phát triển kỹ năng giao tiếp liên văn hóa. Nghiên cứu này tìm hiểu xem liệu rằng bộ sách giáo khoa Tiếng Anh trong khuôn khổ Đề án Ngoại ngữ Quốc gia được thí điểm ở cấp trung học phổ thông có bao gồm các yếu tố liên văn hóa và giúp học sinh phát triển năng lực giao tiếp liên văn hóa hay không. Nghiên cứu này sử dụng khung lý thuyết của Chao (2011) để phân tích và phân loại các yếu tố văn học theo nguồn gốc. Kết quả nghiên cứu chỉ ra rằng bộ sách có chứa đựng những yếu tố văn hóa từ các nguồn khác nhau và bao gồm cả các yếu tố liên văn hóa.

Từ khóa: năng lực giao tiếp liên văn hóa, sách giáo khoa, các loại văn hóa, Đề án Ngoại ngữ Quốc gia

REALIZATION OF INTERPERSONAL MEANING
IN U.S PRESIDENT BARACK OBAMA'S SPEECH
AT VIETNAM CONVENTION CENTRE:
A MOOD SYSTEM ANALYSIS

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Abstract: This study investigated the interpersonal meaning which lies on the diplomatic speech delivered by Barack Obama at Vietnam Convention Centre. The purposes of this study were to describe the construction of the interpersonal meaning of Obama's speech and the contribution of this construction for interpreting his attitudes towards Vietnam. This study used qualitative approach as its main method and clause was chosen as the unit of analysis. The data for this study were analyzed using the MOOD system, including Mood element, Residue, and Mood types. Based on this analysis, it can be concluded that the interpersonal meaning in Obama's speech was mainly realized through Mood types, modal auxiliary, subjects and tense shift. The dominant appearance of declarative clauses, the frequent employment of modals *will*, *can*, *should* and *have to*, the preference for the first person pronouns *I* and *we* in the speech means that Obama wanted to give information as much as possible to the audience, to shorten the distance between him (as the representative of the United States) and the audience as well as maintaining an equal, reliant relationship between them.

Key words: interpersonal meaning, modality auxiliary, Mood system, Residue, Obama's speech

1. Introduction

Nowadays, there are many grammatical trends and each of them views language from different perspectives. Among those, Systemic Functional Grammar (SFG) has been attracting many linguists all around the world (M. A. K Halliday, C. Matthiessen, R. Hassan, S. Eggins, G. Thompson, Hoang Van Van, Nguyen Thu Hanh, Nguyen Thanh Nga, etc.). It is particularly helpful for explaining how language is selected and organized in particular ways for particular socio-cultural purposes. Thus, it can help us to understand human language more deeply and comprehensively.

In SFG, Halliday and Matthiessen (2004, 2014) propose that language has three metafunctions: the ideational, the interpersonal and the textual. Many studies related to interpersonal meaning of language have been conducted by researchers all over the world like Feng and Liu (2010), Mafruchatunnisa and Agustein (2016), Tran (2011), and Ye (2010). These studies uncover interpersonal meaning

from the perspective of Functional Grammar with the focus on mood, modal auxiliary, personal pronouns, and tense shift in political speeches. The findings show that the addressers make full use of the language to achieve their political purposes in their speeches by using different devices to fulfill interpersonal meaning such as the frequent applications of *we* and *we - you - we* pattern helping to create an intimate dialogic style, which can shorten the distance between the addresser and the audience and further persuade the audience to share the same proposal of the addresser.

However, until now, an analysis of U.S President Barack Obama's speech at Vietnam Convention Center from the perspective of interpersonal metafunction has never been investigated by any researcher. Therefore, the current paper primarily aims at examining the social, functional aspect of language in U.S President Barack Obama's speech at Vietnam Convention Center by investigating the realization of interpersonal meaning in this speech. More specifically, the research tries to give an explanation about the phenomenon of the written data with respect to MOOD system used in U.S President Barack Obama's speech

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at Vietnam Convention Center and from this analysis, the study hopes to bring to light his attitudes towards Vietnam.

2. Halliday's theory on metafunctions and MOOD system

Within Functional Grammar, the theory on metafunctions was proposed by Michael Halliday (1985, 1994) who later collaborated with Christian Matthiessen (Halliday & Matthiessen 2004, 2014) and, together, they claim that language has three metafunctions: the ideational, the interpersonal and the textual. Each metafunction is concerned with a meaning, and each meaning "forms part of a different functional configuration, making up a separate stand in the overall meaning of the clause" (p. 83). Of these three metafunctions, interpersonal one plays the role of setting up and maintaining social relations and indicates the roles of the participants in the communication. It deals with the way language expresses the writer's or speaker's reaction towards others and writer's or speaker's attitudes towards a subject. Halliday and Matthiessen (2014, p. 30) assert that "the clause of the grammar is also a proposition, or a proposal, whereby we inform or question, give an order or make an offer, and express our appraisal of and attitude towards whoever we are addressing and what we are talking about. This kind of meaning is more active: if the ideational function of the grammar is 'language as reflection', this is 'language as action'. We call it the interpersonal metafunction". This metafunction is realized through MOOD system.

MOOD, together with modality and polarity, is the major interpersonal system of

the clause. It consists of Mood element and Residue. According to Halliday and Matthiessen (2014, p. 140), the Mood element consists of two parts: (1) the Subject, which is a nominal group, and (2) the Finite operator, which is part of a verbal group. In the relation of these functional elements, the Subject approves or disapproves argument whereas the Finite shows primary tense and modality. Because primary tense is time relative to 'now', the internal meaning of a proposition which refers to 'past', 'present' or 'future' time is heavily dependent on the 'primary tense' of the clause. Halliday and Matthiessen (2014, p. 144) views that through modality the speaker takes up a position and signals the status and validity of his own judgments. If the commodity being exchanged is information, the clauses are labeled as proposition and modality expressions are termed as modalization which refers to the validity of proposition in terms of probability and usuality. If the commodity is goods and services, the clauses are defined as proposals and modality expressions are termed as modulation which reflects how confident the speaker can be in the eventual success of the exchange in terms of obligation and inclination.

The Residue consists of functional elements of three kinds: Predicator - a verbal group minus the temporal or modal operator; Complement - an element within the Residue that has the potential of being Subject but is not; and Adjunct - an adverbial group or a prepositional phrase which contributes some additional (but non-essential) information to the clause. There can be only one Predicator, one or two Complements, and an indefinite number of Adjuncts. Here is an example to illustrate MOOD system:

Table 1

Illustration of MOOD System

Sister Susie	*'s*	*sewing*	*shirts*	*for soldiers.*
Subject	Finite	Predicator	Complement	Adjunct

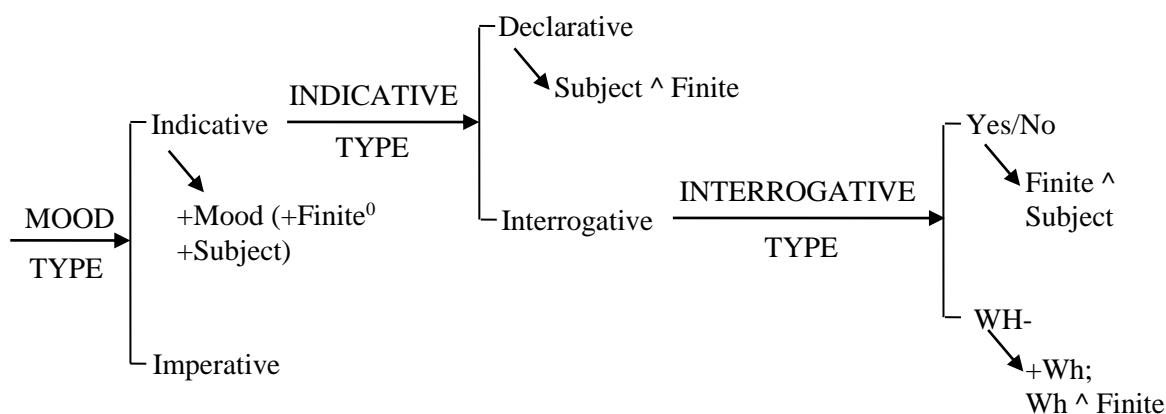In terms of MOOD types, Halliday and Matthiessen (2014) state that a major clause is either indicative or imperative in MOOD (see Figure 1).

Figure 1

The MOOD System Network (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2014, p. 23)

An indicative clause is either declarative or interrogative; if declarative, the Subject comes before the Finite. An interrogative clause is either yes/no type or WH-type; if yes/no type, the Finite comes before the Subject; if WH-type, it has a Wh-element. The imperative has a different system of person from the indicative. Since the imperative is the mood for exchanging goods and services, its Subject is "*you*" or "*me*" or "*you and me*". The features of imperatives could be: Subject only (*you*), Finite only (*do*, *don't*), Finite followed by Subject (*don't you*) or they may have no Mood element (e.g. *look* - Predicator only, with no Finite in it).

3. Methodology

In this paper, the descriptive method was used as guidance for conducting the research. It was based on the reason that the steps like gathering, analyzing and interpreting the data were included in this method. This study was intended to describe U.S President Barack Obama's speech at Vietnam Convention Center based on SFG, particularly MOOD system proposed by Halliday and Matthiessen (2004, 2014) and to find out how the realization of interpersonal meaning of Obama's speech reflects his attitudes towards Vietnam. The method of the study was accomplished through two stages. Firstly, the text was closely read to get a comprehensive understanding. Secondly, the text was analyzed through MOOD system in SFG. The text was firstly approached from a general point of view in that the text was treated as a whole, then it was approached from more specific one - clause by clause, and finally to appraisal tokens in the written text.

The clause has been chosen as the primary unit of analysis in this study as Halliday and Matthiessen (2014, p. 10) claim "the clause is the central processing unit in the lexicogrammar - in the specific sense that it is in the clause that meanings of different kinds are mapped into an integrated grammatical structure". Making the same point, Eggins (1994) states that when the stratum of language to analyze is lexicogrammar, the unit of analysis or description is the clause.

The object of this study was U.S President Barack Obama's speech at Vietnam Convention Center. It was delivered in front of 2,000 attendees on May 24th 2016 during U.S President Barack Obama's official visit to Vietnam. To count for authenticity, the data were collected through the following steps:

- *Accessing*: The researcher browsed into the internet and looked for U.S President Barack Obama's speech at Vietnam Convention Center.

- *Finding*: The researcher found U.S President Barack Obama's speech at Vietnam Convention Center entitled "Remarks by President Obama in Address to the People of Vietnam".

- *Downloading*: The transcript of the speech was downloaded from www.whitehouse.gov - the official website of the U.S White House.

The data were analyzed manually: the data were sorted and tabulated, and then these elements were analyzed and evaluated to see how they contribute to the findings of the study.

In more details, the data was analyzed in the following steps:

- *Reading*: The research team thoroughly read the transcript of U.S President Barack Obama's speech at Vietnam Convention Center in order to get a comprehensive understanding.

- *Segmenting the text into clauses*: the text was divided into sentences, and then those sentences were segmented into clauses. Let us consider the following example:

(Cl.21) *So I come here mindful of the past,*

(Cl.10a) *Last night, I visited the Old Quarter here in Hanoi.*

Last night	*I*	*visited*		*the Old Quarter*	*here in Hanoi*
Adjunct	Subject	Finite	Predicator	Complement	Adjunct
	Mood				
	Residue				

It notes that in analyzing clauses, embedded clauses were marked off with double square brackets [[ ]]. Consider the following example:

(Cl.7) *We have Vietnamese from across this great country, including so many young people [[who represent the dynamism, and the talent and the hope of Vietnam]].*

In this example, the clause within the double square brackets is an embedded clause and functions as the modifier of "*so many young people*".

- *Classifying types of Subjects, Tense, and Modal Auxiliary:* Subject, Tense and Modal Auxiliary were identified in each clause and then the results were tabulated.

- *Determining Mood types of the clauses:* The type of each clause was identified whether it was declarative, interrogative or imperative. After that, the results were tabulated.

4. Realization of interpersonal meaning in U.S. President Barack Obama's speech through MOOD system

In order to realize interpersonal meaning of U.S President Barack Obama's speech and to see how this realization reflects Obama's attitudes towards Vietnam in his speech at Vietnam Convention Center, the speech was analyzed through MOOD system including constituents of Mood, of Residue and Mood Types.

mindful of our difficult history,// but focused on the future - the prosperity, security and human dignity // that we can advance together.

In the above example, it can be seen that there are three major clauses within a sentence and they are divided with the double slash.

- *Analyzing the clauses through MOOD system*: With the aim of demonstrating how MOOD system is analyzed in a clause, the research team analyzed it from clauses in the first paragraph of the text. For example:

4.1. Constituents of the MOOD

The Subject in the Mood structure specifies the responsible element in the proposition or proposal. It is that element on which the validity of the information is made to rest (Gerot & Wignell, 1994, p. 146). Here are some typical Subjects identified in Obama's speech:

(Cl.7) **We** *have Vietnamese from across this great country, including so many young people who represent the dynamism, and the talent and the hope of Vietnam.*

(Cl.10) *Last night, **I** visited the Old Quarter here in Hanoi and enjoyed some outstanding Vietnamese food.*

(Cl.34) *And on the day that **Vietnam** declared its independence, crowds took to the streets of this city, and Ho Chi Minh evoked the American Declaration of Independence.*

(Cl.39) *At your war memorial not far from here, and with family altars across this country, **you** remember some 3 million Vietnamese, soldiers and civilians, on both sides, who lost their lives.*

(Cl.115) *And **the United States** is ready to assist Vietnam as it works to fully implement its commitments.*

In the above examples, *I*, *we*, *you*, *Vietnam* and *the United States* are the subjects of clauses found in Obama's speech. The frequency of Subjects identified in Obama's speech is shown in Table 2.

Table 2

Frequency of Subjects Identified in Obama's Speech

Subjects	I	We	You	Vietnam	The United States	Others	Total
Times	68	63	28	18	12	280	469
Frequency (%)	14.49	13.43	5.97	3.83	2.55	59.73	100

Among these Subjects, *I*, *we* and *you* are personal pronouns. They have the interpersonal function in discourse by establishing a certain relationship between the addresser and the audience in a speech. The choice of the first personal pronouns *I* and *we* and the second personal pronoun *you* may provide different meanings in the interpretation of the text. As evident in many SFG researches, e.g. Thompson (2004) and Mulderrig (2011), the first person singular pronoun *I* is always exclusive, while the first person plural *we* is usually inclusive. First person singular pronoun *I* is exclusive because it refers to the addressers themselves leaving out the audience, while first person plural *we* is usually inclusive because it includes both the addresser and the audience in the propositions being advanced. Second personal pronoun *you* is mostly exclusive because it directly refers to the person(s) being addressed.

Through data analysis, a total of 469 Subjects are used in Obama's speech. The first person singular pronoun *I* is used 68 times, accounting for 14.49%. The pronoun *we* is discovered 63 times (13.43%). The second person pronoun *you* turns up 28 times with a percentage of 5.97% throughout the speech. The Subjects *Vietnam* and *the United States* respectively appear 18 times (3.83%) and 12 times (2.55%). And other Subjects appear 280 times (59.73%) in Obama's speech. However, they will not be discussed in this research because they are not central in the speech interaction.

According to the result, it can be seen that *I* is the most frequent Subject found in Obama's speech. *I* here refers to the speaker of the speech that is U.S President Barack Obama. It means that Obama himself takes responsibility for the speech. Moreover, the research team found that the Subject *I* mainly falls into the following categories in the speech: to express Obama's gratitude to certain people, to describe the specific deeds and to present his personal beliefs and comments. For example:

(Cl.5) *To the government and the people of Vietnam, ^I thank you for this very warm welcome and the hospitality that you have shown to me on this visit* (expressing his gratitude to the government and the people of Vietnam).

(Cl.13) *But I have to say, the busy streets of this city, I've never seen so many motorbikes in my life* (presenting his personal comment).

(Cl.82) *And I believe our experience holds lessons for the world* (presenting his personal belief).

(Cl.130) *With the announcement I made yesterday to fully lift the ban on defense sales, Vietnam will have greater access to the military equipment you need to ensure your security* (describing a specific deed).

In SFG, the pronoun *we* is usually inclusive but it can also be exclusive. The inclusive stands for "I and you (the person(s) spoken to)", which holds emotional effectiveness to shorten the distance between the speaker and the audience. It can make them sense that they share a common objective. The exclusive is equal to "I and others", not "I and you (the person(s) spoken to)". By statistics, in Obama's speech, pronoun *we* turns up for 63 times, of which 37 are inclusive ones and 26 are exclusive ones. They can be seen partly in the following examples:

(Cl.21) *So I come here mindful of the past, mindful of our difficult history, but focused on the future - the prosperity, security and human dignity that **we** can advance together.*

(Cl.63) *Even as **we** continue to assist Vietnamese with disabilities, including children, we are also continuing to help remove Agent Orange - dioxin - so that Vietnam can reclaim more of your land.*

In the above examples, the first person pronoun *we* mentions "the United States and Vietnam", making the audience experience a feeling that the United States and Vietnam are in the same boat and there is no distance between two nations. Obama, as the representative of the United States, positions Vietnam as a friend and a partner of the United

States so that two nations share common objectives and can work together. Moreover, giving the Subject *we* means that Obama wants to share responsibility between the United States and Vietnam. By this way, Obama successfully shortens the distance between him (as the representative of the United States) and the audience as well as maintains an equal and reliant relationship between them, thus greatly helps to persuade the audience to share his same proposal. The second person plural pronoun *we* refers to "Obama and all American people". It gives an impression that there is a unity between the U.S government and its citizens in giving response to other countries in the world and policies and actions of the U.S government are supported by all American people.

In his speech, Obama also made *you* - the audience as the Subject of the clauses in his speech in order to attract their attention and also to make them get involved in the speech. It is also the way Obama shows his respect to the audience. There are 18 items of *Vietnam* as the Subject of the clauses in the speech. This is understandable since what Obama talks is mostly about U.S relations with Vietnam but not any other countries. There are 12 items expressing *the United States* or *America* as the Subject in order to show the world that Obama speaks as the representative of the United States. What he is sharing in his speech represents what the United States says to the world.

- Primary Tense

Tense is the time of a clause. Halliday and Matthiessen (2004, 2014) point out that primary tense means past, present or future at the moment of speaking; it is the time relative to "now". Here are some examples about tenses found in Obama's speech:

(Cl.22) *I also **come** here with a deep respect for Vietnam's ancient heritage.* (Present tense)

(Cl.30) *More than 200 years ago, when our Founding Father, Thomas Jefferson, **sought** rice for his farm, he **looked** to the rice of Vietnam, which he **said had** "the reputation of*

being whitest to the eye, best flavored to the taste, and most productive." (Past tense)

(Cl.163) *And ultimately, the future of Vietnam **will** be decided by the people of Vietnam.* (Future tense)

Table 3 shows the frequency of the primary tenses found in the speech. On the basis of the statistics of tenses, we can see that present tense is the most frequent one used in the speech with a percentage of 77.61%. Past tense ranks second with a percentage of 15.99% and is followed by future tense with a percentage of 6.4%. Biber et al. (1999, p. 457) state that "the preference for present tense verbs is particularly strong in conversation, the reliance on present tense reflects speakers' general focus on the immediate context". Thus, the finding indicates that Obama wants to focus on the real condition at the moment of speaking. He focuses on presenting the relations between the United States and Vietnam ranging from different areas like prosperity, security and human dignity at present.

Table 3

Frequency of Primary Tenses Found in Obama's Speech

Tense	Past	Present	Future	Total
Times	75	364	30	469
Frequency (%)	15.99	77.61	6.40	100

- Modality

There are different ways to realize modality, including modal auxiliary, adverbs, intonation and mental-process verbs. However, this study will focus on modal auxiliary. According to Halliday and Matthiessen (2004, 2014), three basic values of modal commitment are high, median and low on the scale. And different scales of modal commitment lead to different meanings. Table 4 below presents the frequency of modal auxiliary used in Obama's speech.

Table 4

Frequency of Modal Auxiliary in Obama's Speech

Modal auxiliary	Can	Will	Should	Have to	Others	Total
Times	26	29	06	06	10	77
Frequency (%)	33.76	37.66	7.80	7.80	12.98	100

From the above table, we can find that *will* is used most frequently, accounting for 29 times (37.66%). It is mainly employed to provide information about what will happen in the future, for example:

(Cl.101) *As I announced yesterday, the Peace Corps **will** come to Vietnam for the first time, with a focus on teaching English.*

(Cl.105) *The new Fulbright University Vietnam **will** open in Ho Chi Minh City - this nation's first independent, non-profit university - where there **will** be full academic freedom and scholarships for those in need.*

(Cl.128) *We **will** continue to offer training and equipment to your Coast Guard to enhance Vietnam's maritime capabilities.*

(Cl.129) *We **will** partner to deliver humanitarian aid in times of disaster.*

Through using the modal auxiliary *will*, U.S President Obama reveals his views towards Vietnam in the future and the effect of those views is strengthened by his power and authority.

Besides, *will* is used to illustrate Obama's strong determination. Consider the following:

(Cl.142) *But we **will** stand with partners in upholding core principles, like freedom of navigation and overflight…*

(Cl.143) *As we go forward, the United States **will** continue to fly, sail and operate wherever international law allows, and we **will** support the right of all countries to do the same.*

From the above examples, it can be understood that Obama shows the determination of the United States in upholding the international law. But actually, he also wants to show the power of the United States to the world and confirm that America is the global superpower.

The modal auxiliary *can* turns up 26 times (33.76%) in the speech, ranking the second position in the frequency of modal auxiliary in Obama's speech. It is one of low modals. Hickel (2009) observes that these modals indicate lack of speaker's confidence in the truth of the propositions which are being advanced. However, Obama still uses this modal in his speech with a high frequency. There are some considerations for this choice. On one hand, *can* is seen as the lowest degree of pressure, opening the possibility for the other people to do the action but leaving the decision to them; with regard to this, Obama uses *can* to

weaken his authority, shorten the distance between him and the audience and not to force them to follow his instruction. On the other hand, according to Kondowe (2014), *can* often serves to mark personal belief, possibility, likelihood and politeness in discourse. Thus, the use of *can* not only shows Obama's politeness but also expresses his hope, possibility and likelihood. Obama tries to inspire and elicit hope from the audience, for example:

(Cl.21) *So I come here mindful of the past, mindful of our difficult history, but focused on the future - the prosperity, security and human dignity that we **can** advance together.*

(Cl.92) *And with the time I have left, I want to share with you the vision that I believe **can** guide us in the decades ahead.*

(Cl.184) *Finally, our partnership I think **can** meet global challenges that no nation can solve by itself.*

In his speech, Obama also used the modal auxiliary *should* with the occurrence of 6 times (7.8%). This modality is realized as the "obligation" modality and it is involved as median category in expressing the speaker's judgment or attitude about something:

(Cl.133) *Nations are sovereign, and no matter how large or small a nation may be, its sovereignty **should** be respected, and its territory **should** not be violated.*

(Cl.134) *Big nations **should** not bully smaller ones.*

(Cl.135) *Disputes **should** be resolved peacefully.*

Here, by using the modal *should*, it is clear that Obama wants to express his attitude about the sovereign of a country.

As seen in Table 4, the modal *have to* occurs 06 times (7.8%) in the speech. As a high modal, *have to* carries out the degree of obligation on the person to carry out a command. Thus, most political speeches adopt *have to* to convey the speaker's strong determination and call on the audience to be determined to take action to achieve their common objectives. It is shown in the following examples:

(Cl.125) *So we now **have to** get it done - for the sake of our economic prosperity and our national security.*

(Cl.182) *But there are these basic principles that I think we all **have to** try to work on and improve.*

(Cl.186) *Natural wonders like Ha Long Bay and Son Doong Cave* **have to** *be preserved for our children and our grandchildren.*

From the above analysis, we can conclude that the most dominant modal used in the speech is *will* and it is followed by the modal *can*, *should*, and *have to*. Obama uses the modal *will* with the highest frequency in order to reveal his views towards Vietnam in the future and show his strong determination in ensuring the implementation of the international law. He also tends to shorten the distance between him and the audience in order to establish a good relationship between them and give hope and anticipate the future by using modal *can* rather than enforcing on the audience, through which, a good relationship is well established.

4.2. Constituents of RESIDUE

According to White (2001, p. 89), the Mood element plays a central role in the arguability of a clause as it is the element which will be passed back and forth in any debate. Residue component is another component of the clause that is somehow less essential to the arguability of a clause than the Mood element, but Residue structure also contains a number of functional elements: Predicator, Complements, and different kinds of Adjuncts. Therefore, the constituents of Residue will be discussed in this study.

4.2.1. Predicators

Predicator is a verb part of the clause which shows what is happening. Here are some examples of Predicator identified in the speech:

(Cl.24) *At this bend in the river, Hanoi has* **endured** *for more than a thousand years.*

(Cl.28) *But like bamboo, the unbroken spirit of the Vietnamese people was* **captured** *by Ly Thuong Kiet "the Southern emperor rules the Southern land. Our destiny is writ in Heaven's Book."*

(Cl.43) *More recently, over the past two decades, Vietnam has* **achieved** *enormous progress, and today the world can see the strides that you have* **made**.

Through the analysis of Predicator, it can be found that a fusion of Finite with Predicator appears in many clauses of the speech, for example:

(Cl.10) *Last night, I* **visited** *the Old Quarter here in Hanoi and* **enjoyed** *some outstanding Vietnamese food.*

(Cl.25) *The world* **came** *to treasure Vietnamese silks and paintings, and a great Temple of Literature* **stands** *as a testament to your pursuit of knowledge.*

(Cl.47) *We* **see** *Vietnam's progress in the skyscrapers and high-rises of Hanoi and Ho Chi Minh City, and new shopping malls and urban centers.*

As its function, Predicator tells us about what is (are) one(s)/something(s) doing towards one(s)/something(s). It indicates what activity that occurs in a situation.

4.2.2. Complements

A Complement is an element within the Residue that has the potential of being Subject but is not. A complement is typically realized by a nominal group. It answers the question "is/had what", "to whom", "did to whom" and "did to what". Complement is partly identified in the following examples:

(Cl.81) *But now we can say* **something** *that was once unimaginable: Today, Vietnam and the United States are* **partners**.

(Cl.113) *Here in Vietnam, TPP will let you sell* **more of your products** *to the world and it will attract* **new investment**.

(Cl.115) *And the United States is ready to assist* **Vietnam** *as it works to fully implement* **its commitments**.

4.2.3. Adjuncts

An Adjunct is an element that has not got the potential of being Subject. It is typically realized by an adverbial group or a prepositional phrase. And Adjunct itself is divided into four types: Circumstantial Adjunct, mood Adjunct, comment Adjunct and conjunctive Adjunct. Thus, in this study, Adjunct component will be identified according to these types.

- Circumstantial Adjunct

As Halliday and Matthiessen (2014) state, circumstantial Adjunct may refer to time (when), place (where), cause (why), matter (about what), accompaniment (with whom), beneficiary (to whom), agent (by whom). Some examples of circumstantial Adjunct are shown as follows:

(Cl.18) *So my first exposure to Vietnam and the Vietnamese people came when I was growing up in Hawaii,* **with its proud Vietnamese American community there**.

(Cl.57) *That's what you have been able to achieve **in a very short time***.

(Cl.64) *We're proud of our work together **in Danang**, and we look forward to supporting your efforts **in Bien Hoa***.

(Cl.65) *Let's also not forget that the reconciliation between our countries was led **by our veterans** who once faced each other in battle.*

In the above examples, circumstantial Adjunct *in a very short time* answers the question "when", while circumstantial Adjuncts *in Danang*, *in Bien Hoa* answer the question "where". Circumstantial Adjunct *with its proud Vietnamese American community* answers the question "with whom", while circumstantial Adjunct *by our veterans* answers the question "by whom".

- Mood Adjunct

According to Halliday and Matthiessen (2004, 2014), mood Adjuncts relate specifically to the meaning of the finite verbal operator, expressing "probability", "usuality", "obligation" and "inclination of time". This kind of Adjunct is identified in the following examples:

(Cl.13) *But I have to say, the busy streets of this city, I've **never** seen so many motorbikes in my life.* (Usuality)

(Cl.14) *So I haven't had to try to cross the street so far, but **maybe** when I come back and visit you can tell me how.* (Probability)

(Cl.17) *When the last U.S. forces left Vietnam, I was **just** 13 years old.* (Time)

(Cl.42) *Just as we learned in America that, even if we disagree about a war, we must **always** honor those who serve and welcome them home with the respect they deserve.* (Usuality)

(Cl.65) *Let's also not forget that the reconciliation between our countries was led by our veterans who **once** faced each other in battle.* (Time)

- Comment Adjunct

Comment Adjuncts are considered interpersonal elements in the clause, since they add an expression of attitude and evaluation. They are realized by adverbs. Unfortunately, there is only a comment Adjunct found throughout Obama's speech. That is in sentence (Cl.157) *So really, this is an issue about all of us, each country, trying to consistently apply these principles, making sure that we - those of*

us in government - are being true to these ideals. "Really" here is to show the Assertion.

- Conjunctive Adjunct

Conjunctive Adjuncts are expressed by conjunctions, functions to provide linking relations between one clause and another. Conjunctive Adjuncts include items such as "for instance", "anyway", "moreover", "meanwhile", "therefore", and "nevertheless". The examples below will partly show conjunctive Adjuncts identified in the speech:

(Cl.16) ***But** I am the first, like so many of you, who came of age after the war between our countries.*

(Cl.18) ***So** my first exposure to Vietnam and the Vietnamese people came when I was growing up in Hawaii, with its proud Vietnamese American community there.*

(Cl.34) ***And** on the day that Vietnam declared its independence, crowds took to the streets of this city, and Ho Chi Minh evoked the American Declaration of Independence.*

(Cl.70) ***Because** our veterans showed us the way, because warriors had the courage to pursue peace, our peoples are now closer than ever before.*

(Cl.176) ***Then** countries can better address challenges that government sometimes cannot solve by itself.*

4.3. MOOD types analysis

Halliday and Matthiessen (2004, 2014) observe that most of the clauses in English are construed around declaratives, interrogatives and imperatives. The choice of Mood depends on the role the speaker selects in the speech situation and what role he/she assigns to the addressee. In English, the Mood consists of Subject and Finite. The ordering of Subject and Finite in the clause plays an indispensable role in signaling speech roles and it indicates whether the clause is declarative (Subject^Finite), interrogative (WH^Finite or Finite^Subject) or imperative (Subject "let's" or Finite^Subject). Declarative mood typically gives out information, interrogative expresses a question-typically asking for information, and imperative expresses a directive (Sustein, 1992).

Statistically, out of 469 clauses identified in the speech, 465 are declarative, which constitute 99.14%. The remaining four clauses are imperative (0.86%), while no interrogative clause has been found in the analysis (see Table 5).

Table 5

Frequency of Mood Types

Mood Types	Declarative	Interrogative	Imperative	Total
Times	465	00	04	469
Percentage (%)	99.14	0	0.86	100

This result is in tandem with Feng and Liu's (2010) and Ye's (2010) assertion that declarative clauses generally dominate in political speeches, followed by imperatives, while interrogatives usually come last. The purpose of a speech is to express the addresser's viewpoint on things in the world, to elicit or change the audience's attitudes and to arouse the audience's passion to share the same proposal of the addresser. Particularly in a political speech, it is vital for the addresser to give information. Through the speech, the addresser hopes to offer certain messages to the audience showing his political attitude and assumption. Therefore, declarative clauses generally dominate in a political speech, imperative clauses come next to them, and interrogative clauses are the last choices for the reason that they may make a speech less solemn, less convincing and persuasive. With these regards, the dominant appearance of 465 declarative clauses in Obama's speech is successful in that they are functioned as statements to give information as much as possible to the audience.

On the use of imperative clauses, there are four imperative clauses found in Obama's speech. Among those, one clause is cited from the Tale of Kieu by Obama and then will fall outside of the analysis. Halliday and Matthiessen (2004, 2014) state that imperative clauses convey two types of messages: one is to command others to do something, while the other is to offer/suggest the audience to do something or achieve something together. Imperative clauses found in Obama's speech clearly fall under the category of offering/suggesting the audience:

(Cl.65) ***Let's*** *also not forget that the reconciliation between our countries was led by our veterans who once faced each other in battle.*

(Cl.93) *First,* ***let's*** *work together to create real opportunity and prosperity for all of our people.*

(Cl.165) *But as a friend of Vietnam,* ***allow*** *me to share my view - why I believe nations are more successful when universal rights are upheld.*

By using these clauses, Obama successfully bridges the gap between him and the audience. Furthermore, such clauses seem to be appropriate for the context of a diplomatic speech. In his speech, Obama did not use interrogative clauses because they may make a speech less solemn, less convincing and persuasive.

5. Conclusion

This research applied SFG proposed by Halliday and Matthiessen (2004, 2014) to analyze U.S President Barack Obama's speech at Vietnam Convention Center. The research served as a sample to demonstrate how interpersonal meaning is generally realized in a political speech. From the perspective of the interpersonal metafunction, by analyzing MOOD system in the clauses of Obama's speech, the research team found that the interpersonal meaning in Obama's speech was mainly realized through Mood types, modal auxiliary, subjects and tense shift. In terms of Mood types, declarative clauses dominated Barack Obama's speech, imperative clauses were in the second position, while no interrogative clause was found in the speech. The dominant appearance of declarative clauses in the speech means that Obama wanted to give as much information as possible to the audience. In terms of modal auxiliary, the modals *will*, *can*, *should* and *have to* turned up frequently to carry on the modality in the speech. By using the modal *will* with the highest frequency, the views of the United States towards Vietnam in the future were revealed. Meanwhile, by using the modal *can* in his speech, Obama tended to shorten the distance between him and the audience in order to establish a good relationship between them,

give hope and anticipate the future rather than enforcing on the audience. In terms of Subjects, the first person pronouns *I* and *we* turned up mostly in the speech; the second person pronoun *you* came next. The pronoun *we* was both inclusive and exclusive. By using the inclusive one, Obama successfully shortened the distance between him (as the representative of the United States) and the audience and maintained an equal, reliant relationship between them, thus greatly helped to persuade the audience to share his same proposal. And by using the exclusive one, it gave an impression that there was a unity between the U.S government and its people in giving response to other countries in the world. In terms of tense shift, the findings pointed out that the present tense was the most frequent one used in the speech. It means that Obama wanted to focus on the real condition at the moment of speaking.

The research results were in agreement with the previous studies on interpersonal meaning in political speech (Mafruchatunnisa & Agustein, 2016; Tran, 2011; Ye, 2010) in which they claim that the use of first person *I* is to express the speaker's will and build his authority while *we* is used to make sense of intimacy with the audience as well as follow a common objective; in modality, the speaker utilizes tactfully modal verbs of median and low to shorten the distance between him and people so as to successfully establish a sound relation; in mood, the speaker takes the advantage of employing indicative mood to express their propositions to gain support. The tense can be another factor that signalizes political speech because it refers to present, past and future events as well as activities that demonstrate political objectives and at the same time display the world wide situations that extend from political, cultural, and economical fields at present.

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NGHĨA LIÊN NHÂN THỂ HIỆN TRONG BÀI PHÁT BIỂU CỦA TỔNG THỐNG HOA KỲ BARACK OBAMA TẠI TRUNG TÂM HỘI NGHỊ QUỐC GIA VIỆT NAM: PHÂN TÍCH HỆ THỐNG THỨC

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Tóm tắt: Bài báo này tìm hiểu nghĩa liên nhân thể hiện trong bài phát biểu của Tổng thống Hoa Kỳ Barack Obama tại Trung tâm Hội nghị Quốc gia Việt Nam. Mục đích của nghiên cứu này là mô tả việc thiết lập nghĩa liên nhân trong bài phát biểu của Barack Obama và qua đó giải thích thái độ của ông đối với Việt Nam. Nghiên cứu sử dụng cách tiếp cận định tính làm phương pháp chính và Cú được chọn làm đơn vị nghiên cứu. Dữ liệu cho nghiên cứu được phân tích bằng hệ thống THỨC (MOOD), bao gồm yếu tố Thức, Phần Dư và các mẫu Thức khác nhau. Kết quả nghiên cứu chỉ ra rằng nghĩa liên nhân thể hiện trong bài phát biểu của Obama chủ yếu được hiện thực hóa thông qua các loại Thức, Bổ ngữ tình thái, Chủ ngữ và sự biến đổi của Thì. Sự xuất hiện chủ đạo của các Cú tuyên ngôn, việc sử dụng thường xuyên Bổ ngữ tình thái "sẽ", "có thể", "nên" và "phải làm", sự ưu tiên cho các đại từ ngôi thứ nhất "tôi" và "chúng ta" trong bài phát biểu có nghĩa là Obama muốn cung cấp thông tin càng nhiều càng tốt cho khán giả Việt Nam, để rút ngắn khoảng cách giữa Tổng thống (với tư cách là đại diện của Hoa Kỳ) và khán giả (Việt Nam); từ đó, duy trì mối quan hệ bình đẳng và tương trợ lẫn nhau.

Từ khóa: nghĩa liên nhân, hệ thống Thức, phần Dư, bổ ngữ tình thái, bài phát biểu của Tổng thống Hoa Kỳ Barack Obama

MOTIVATING SECOND LANGUAGE LEARNERS:
FROM MAJOR L2 MOTIVATION THEORIES
TO IMPLICATIONS FOR L2 CLASSROOM PRACTICE
AND RESEARCH

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Abstract: Motivation has long been emphasized as a determinant factor in a learning process in general, and second language (L2) acquisition in particular. Equivalent to such importance, a vast number of theories and models have been proposed in the literature to explain why students choose to learn a second language. The proliferation of L2 motivational theories and models in the literature, however, might have caused certain confusion to practitioners and researchers in choosing a suitable methodological and theoretical framework for their teaching practice and research. This paper aims to address this concern by critically reviewing the major L2 motivation approaches and their featured L2 motivational models to date, based on which several implications will be made for L2 teachers who seek to create a motivating language teaching practice, and for L2 researchers whose goal is to gain a comprehensive understanding of the construct in their empirical enquiries.

Keywords: second language (L2) motivation, literature review, second language teaching, L2 motivation theories

1. Introduction

For a long time, the vital role of an individual's motivation in his/her learning has been emphasized by many educational psychologists (e.g. Cave & Mulloy, 2010; Dörnyei, 2007; Graham & Weiner, 2012; Cook & Artino, 2016). As stressed by Cave and Mulloy (2010), information about how and why people learn is essential in helping educators to design effective instructional practice. In the field of second language (L2) education, motivation is frequently mentioned as a factor worthy of special attention. Both practitioners and researchers consistently share the view that learners' motivation affects the success of their L2 learning (Dörnyei, 2001b, 2005, 2007; Hadfield & Dörnyei, 2013). According to Dörnyei (2007), it is not so much the quantity and the quality of L2 input, the teaching methods applied, or the nature of the L2 learning tasks, but the continuing motivation in learners that can "inspire a lifelong commitment to the subject matter" (pp. 719-720).

Being of such importance, L2 motivation has been illuminated on via numerous theories and approaches over the past five decades. Serving a shared purpose of helping teachers to create motivating teaching practices, and researchers to better understand the L2 motivation construct, the proliferation of L2 motivation theories, however, must have caused certain difficulty for teachers and researchers in selecting a theoretical framework that best suits their context and research purposes (McEown, Noels, & Chaffee, 2014). This suggests a need for a comparative review of the most influential models in the vast L2 motivation literature with concrete implications for practice and research.

This paper aims to address this need by critically reviewing the major approaches to understanding L2 motivation to date, as well as their corresponding featured motivational models. Based on the discussion of the strengths and flaws in each L2 approach and model chosen to review, and of them all collectively, several practical and methodological recommendations for both L2 teachers and researchers will be presented.

The review starts with a brief definition of motivation before examining how the understanding of the construct has evolved over

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time through the analysis of four major approaches in the history of L2 motivation research. The paper then discusses the literature collectively to draw implications for practice and research at the end.

2. Motivation in mainstream psychology

Before L2 motivation literature is critically reviewed, this section provides readers with a general understanding of the construct by defining "motivation", its characteristics and categories in mainstream psychology.

By definition, human motivation simply refers to the reasons why people think and behave in the way they do or the process whereby a goal-directed activity is initiated and sustained (Kazdin, 2000). In another mainstream psychology text, Graham and Weiner (2012) defined motivation as "what gets people's behaviour started, what directs, energizes, sustains, and eventually terminates the action" (p. 367). It is clear from these definitions that insights into an individual's motivation for an action cannot only explain *why* s/he does so, but also indicate *how long* s/he is willing to sustain the activity and *how much effort* s/he is going to spend pursuing it. This also implies two aspects of the motivational construct, namely, the *choice* aspect (why a person behaves the way s/he does), and the *intensity* aspect (how much s/he wants to do it).

In terms of characteristics, it is generally agreed that motivation is temporal, dynamic (Gardner, 1985; Gottfried, 1990; Dörnyei, 2001b; MacIntyre, 2002; Graham & Weiner, 2012); and domain-specific (Fernet et al., 2008; Gottfried, 1990). This means motivation varies over time, across subject areas, learner groups and learning situations. Such characteristics necessitate the account of factors that influence motivational changes in the whole course of an action in a theory or model that aims to explain an individual's motivation for such an action.

Concerning categorization, most educational psychologists have framed motivation in the extrinsic/intrinsic dualism. For learning to be best conditioned psychologically, both intrinsic motivation (i.e. the internal drive to follow one's interest to enhance knowledge and skills and become more capable), and extrinsic motivation (the belief

that the goal of learning is instrumentally beneficial and achievable) should be present (Day, 1999). However, educators normally consider intrinsic motivations to be more desirable and lead to better learning outcomes than extrinsic drives (Ryan & Deci, 2000; Graham & Weiner, 2012).

3. Motivation in second language acquisition

Having long been recognized as a significant predictor of L2 achievement, L2 motivation has been rigorously researched in the last five decades. This section critically reviews the most prevalent approaches to understanding L2 motivation, starting with the earliest social-psychological approach, and concluding with the latest socio-dynamic approach.

3.1. *The social-psychological approach*

The first foundation in the long history of L2 motivation research was laid with the **social-psychological approach** which features the two-fold formulation of L2 motivation proposed by Gardner and Lambert (1972). They theorize that the L2 learning process has important psychological and social aspects that make the motivation to learn an L2 differ from the motivation to learn all other subjects. That is, language learners are expected to acquire not only the linguistic knowledge, but also to adopt the L2 native community's distinct linguistic styles and behaviors (Gardner & Lambert, 1972). It is, according to Gardner and Lambert (1972), primarily the learners' attitudes towards the L2 native speakers and their culture that directly affect their learning motivation and performance. This led these two social psychologists to propose two kinds of motivation in L2 learning: the "integrative" motivation referring to "a willingness to become a member of another ethnolinguistic group" (Gardner & Lambert, 1972, p. 12), and the "instrumental" type denoting "a desire to gain social recognition or economic advantages through knowledge of a foreign language" (ibid., p. 14). To be more specific, those who are integratively motivated choose to learn an L2 because they are genuinely interested in the language itself and its culture, or want to be identified with the target people. Those who are instrumentally motivated, on the other hand,

aim at the practicality and utility of the L2 proficiency, for example, to have better job opportunities, or to gain course credits. Of the two motivational orientations, integrativeness is expected to be more desirable and lead to higher outcomes in L2 learning than the other (Gardner & Lambert, 1972; Gardner, 1985).

On this theoretical basis, Gardner (1985) devised the Attitude/Motivation Test Battery (AMTB), an instrument to quantify the amount of motivation. This includes three sub-scales measuring three constructs that would collectively underlie a learner's motivation for learning an L2: (i) the motivation intensity (i.e. how much effort a person invested or is willing to invest in learning the language); (ii) the attitudes towards learning the L2 (i.e. how much enjoyment the person feels when s/he learns the language); and (iii) desire to learn (i.e. how much the learner personally wants to learn the L2) (Ortega, 2009). The latest version of the instrument (Gardner, 2004) consists of 104 Likert-scale statements measured on a 6-points continuum, ranging from strongly disagree (scored 1) to strongly agree (scored 6), and seven items on a 7-point rating of various types (e.g. weak-strong; very low-very high; unfavorable-favorable). Researchers who adopt the instrument may select the specific contents that suit best their research purposes.

Gardner's and his associate's social-psychological perspective was noted as being radically ahead of its time (Dörnyei, 2005) since it had, for the first time, distinguished L2 motivation research from the mainstream motivational psychology, which was then still dominated by purely individual-cognitive perspectives on motivation. In light of this differentiation, L2 motivation is rigorously articulated in terms of both motivation *per se* (effort, desire to learn) and its social-psychological contributors (attitudes, learning orientations). In fact, Gardner's and Lambert's (1972) theory and the subsequent model of AMTB, since its inception, has underpinned a wealth of empirical research that aims to measure motivation as an individual-difference variable in L2 acquisition and predicts its causal link with other aspects of L2 learning and with L2 achievement throughout two decades thereafter (Gardner & Lambert, 1972; Gardner, 1985; Gardner & MacIntyre, 1993; Masgoret & Gardner, 2003; Ditual, 2012). Current research examining the cultural and attitudinal factors

that contribute to students' motivation in English language learning is still found based its argument on Gardner's and associates' (1972, 2004) work (e.g. Lai & Aksornjarung, 2019; Darmanto, 2020).

Although these empirical studies largely confirm the validity of the socio-psychological approach as well as the role of motivation as a causal variable in predicting L2 success, the model nevertheless has not gone unchallenged. First, some studies (Kruidenier & Clement, 1986; Belmechri & Hummel, 1998) did not detect the presence of integrative motivation in certain groups of second language learners, but instead revealed a different set of motivators: instrumental, friendship, travel, self-understanding, knowledge, whose dominant orientations vary across learning situations. Second, the definition of integrative motivation appears inapplicable to the L2 learners who demonstrate very little or no genuine interest in the target culture due to limited opportunities to interact with the native speakers. The presumably superior influence of "integrativeness" on L2 achievement is also challenged when instrumental motivation was actually found to be much more powerful among this group of learners in several cases (Lukmani, 1972; Gonzales, 2010). The reason is that when English is increasingly viewed as an international language, the notion of integrating with native speakers from specific Anglophone communities has become less and less meaningful (Coetzee-Van Rooy, 2006). Not only was the power of integrativeness found problematic, the correlation between learners' attitudes and their L2 motivation was also not as positive as expected by the model in certain contexts. In Lai and Aksornjarung's (2018) study on Thai EFL students for instance, the research sample did not show a level of motivation that duly matched their reported positive attitudes towards English language learning. Research findings as such led several notable scholars to critiquing Gardner's socio-psychological model as being too deterministic and static (Ellis, 2008; MacIntyre, 2002). On the one hand, it considers motivation as an individual-difference factor that obviously determines a learner's L2 success. It also seems to ignore, on the other hand, the dynamic character of motivation, which causes it to constantly change as a result of different learning experiences and a multiplicity of other

purely personal factors. Acknowledging this limitation after decades of research, Gardner (2010, p. 59) conceded that the socio-psychological model could only account for "general relationships", and is unable to provide context-specific and individualized advice to L2 teachers on how to motivate their students.

3.2. The cognitive-situated approach

The limitations of the social-psychological approach as discussed above led to the emergence of what Dörnyei (2005) named the **cognitive-situated approach** in motivation research during the 1990s. The approach is influenced by two interrelated trends: (i) the desire to incorporate cognitive theories in general educational psychology in the analysis of L2 motivation and (ii) the need to shift from a macro socio-psychological perspective to a more situated view of L2 motivation in specific learning contexts, for example, classrooms. The resulting models of motivation under this approach are those considering motivation in a particular learning situation (e.g. classroom environment, course material, instructional methods) through the lens of one cognitive notion in mainstream psychology. Some of the most influential concepts considered include "self-determination" – which posits that higher motivation and subsequently increased learning outcome is engendered when learners are more involved in the decision-making process and self-determine their learning goals and styles (Deci & Ryan, 1985; Crookes & Schmidt, 1991); "self-efficacy" – the belief in one's ability to succeed in L2 learning; the stronger the belief, the more motivated the learner is supposed to be (Clement, Dörnyei, & Noels, 1994); and "attributions" (Weiner, 1992), which asserts that the types of reasons to which learners attribute their L2 performance, being either effort-related or ability-related, will shape their motivation in the L2 learning process (Dörnyei, 2005). Examples of empirical studies applying and applauding the applicability of this approach in L2 motivation research are Otoshi and Heffernan (2011), Thurman (2013), and Rahmanpanah (2017). Quantitatively designed and focusing on English as a second language (ESL) learners, these studies confirmed the significant effects of learners' autonomy, self-efficacy (Rahmanpanah 2017; Thurman, 2013); teachers' support of students'

needs for competence and relatedness (Otoshi & Heffernan, 2011) on the L2 motivation of the researched participants.

This shift in L2 motivational research is said to acknowledge one major development in L2 motivation study: recognizing the temporal and dynamic nature of the motivational construct. In fact, much research under the approach has shown that learners' motivation can vary across different individual cognitions (e.g. self-confidence, explanation of progress or lack thereof) (Ellis, 2008). Moreover, the focus of the cognitive-situated approach on classroom processes has started to allow research framed under this approach to yield practical advice to language teachers (Boo et al., 2015).

This discovery is, however, still limited in its characterization of motivation as a conscious process that happens within a relatively short duration (Boo et al., 2015). It thus does not suffice to fully address the instability of motivation during an extended learning event, such as a lesson, or the whole course of learning (Ushioda & Dörnyei, 2012). To address this, the process-oriented approach was developed at the turn of this century.

3.3. The process-oriented approach

The process-oriented approach to understanding L2 motivation features the attempt to capture the temporal feature of the construct, which the previous theories fail to, at least explicitly, account for (Dörnyei, 2002). An outstanding outcome of such an attempt is Dörnyei and Ottos's (1998) process model which describes L2 learning motivation as experiencing three distinct stages: (1) "pre-actional" featuring choice motivation, (2) "actional" concerning executive motivation, and (3) "post-actional" involving learners' evaluation of the learning experiences.

The choice motivation in phase 1 contains three sub-elements that occur prior to a language learning event, namely goal setting, information intention, and enactment (Dörnyei & Ottos, 1998, p. 47). The subsequent actional phase starts at the onset of the action and goes on under the effects of three basic processes, including subtask generation and implementation, appraisal of environmental support and on-going progress, and action control mechanisms. Finally, the post-actional phase, which begins upon the achievement of

goals or termination of the action, involves causal attributions about the result of the whole learning process, and inferences of future action orientations. The whole actional sequence is fueled by the so-called "motivational influences" (Dörnyei & Ottos, 1998, p. 51), appearing in and corresponding to every stage of the motivation process. It is beyond the scope of this review to exhaustively list all these influences, but some examples include language attitudes that direct goal setting in the initial phase, learners' sense of autonomy that affects the actional stage, and teachers' feedback that may shape post-actional evaluation (Dörnyei & Ottos, 1998).

Such a "flexible" model was found superior to its "static" antecedents in its ability to distinguish conceptually the motivations to engage in learning an L2 (reasons, decisions, goals) from motivations that sustain the engagement during the L2 learning process (feelings, behaviors, reactions to learning environment) (Ushioda & Dörnyei, 2012). Projecting the wax and wane of motivation on the whole process of L2 learning, the model also provides systematic and helpful guides for teachers on how to create motivating teaching practice (Dörnyei, 2007). Last but not least, the model is able to incorporate into its scope other past motivational concepts, for example, integrative motivation and instrumental motivation in the pre-actional and actional stage, or attribution in the post-actional stage, thus offering a more extended framework for research than its predecessors (Ellis, 2008). Examples of studies that applied and applauded the validity and usefulness of the procedural view of L2 motivation include Dörnyei and Csizér (2005), Inbar et al. (2001), Ushioda (2001), Hiromori (2009), and Khudur (2019). Although conducted at different scales and adopting different research designs, all of these studies found motivational variations over time, whether it be a historical period (Dörnyei & Csizér, 2005), a school year (Inbar et al., 2001), or a particular course (Ushioda, 2001; Hiromori, 2009; Khudur, 2019) thanks to the application of process-oriented L2 motivation framework.

The process model of L2 motivation, however, exhibits two shortcomings: (i) it assumes a clear definition of the starting and ending point of a learning process and (ii) it does not acknowledge the possible interference from other motivational processes which the learner may be simultaneously engaged in (Ushioda & Dörnyei, 2012). In other words, it still treats motivation as an individual difference factor that is relatively stable and easily identifiable, which in fact has been proved to be highly sensitive to context specificity in reality (Al-Hoorie, 2017). These short-comings actually reveal the limitations of most studies in L2 motivation to date; that is, they have mostly attempted to draw an explanatory linear relationship between motivation and learning outcomes without adequately considering the full situated and dynamic complexity of the whole L2 learning process with various factors that may shape a learner's motivation (Ushioda & Dörnyei, 2012).

3.4. The socio-dynamic approach

The latest movement in L2 motivation research has shifted to a more dynamic contextual perspective in analysing motivation, which is marked by **the socio-dynamic approach**. In light of this approach, motivation is no longer treated as an individual-difference variable, but rather, as an integral part of organic dynamic systems which evolve and develop in a non-linear manner and in the interaction of multiple personal, social and contextual factors (Dörnyei, 2009; Ushioda, 2009; Dörnyei, MacIntyre & Henry, 2015). The approach is thus characterized by a need to theorize L2 motivation "in ways that take account of broader complexities of language learning and language use in the modern globalized world – that is, by reframing L2 motivation in the context of contemporary theories of self and identity" (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2012, p. 398).

Dörnyei's (2009) conceptualization of the "L2 Motivational Self System" (LMSS), based on two parent theories of "possible selves" (Markus & Nurius, 1986) and self-discrepancy (Higgin, 1987) in psychology, is one noteworthy response to this need. Central in the model is the concept of "ideal self", representing all the attributes that a person ideally wishes to possess (as revealed in his/her personal hopes, wishes, desires), and the complementary concept of "ought-to self", signifying the attributes that a person feels necessary to possess as a result of his sense of responsibilities, obligations and duties. A principle is that one's psychological desire to

bridge the gap between the "current actual self" and "future self" will serve as a great source of motivation for one to learn. Investigations into the selves must also take into account their interaction with the third component of the LMSS – L2 learning experience, which contains the specific motives shaped by the immediate learning environment. (Dörnyei, 2005, p. 106). According to Ushioda (2009), these motives can be instructor-specific (e.g. teachers' professional profile and nature of feedback), course-specific (e.g. the teaching materials, the mode of delivery), or learner group-specific (e.g. the dynamics of the group of learners learning together).

Dörnyei's (2009) LMSS under the socio-dynamic approach has a number of advantages. First, by considering the individual self system with its full complexity and relationship with other social and contextual facets (learning experiences, sense of obligation, responsibilities), the model offers a comprehensive and versatile framework for L2 motivation research under the socio-dynamic approach. Ortega (2009) noted that the conceptualization as such has opened "the horizon to research on individual differences where cognitive, conative and affective dimensions can be blended and studied interrelated" (p. 188), and Boo et al. (2015) acknowledged the model's ability to afford both quantitative and qualitative methodologies. This can actually be seen in the surge of studies conceptually framed under the LMSS and of various designs since 2011 (Boo et al., 2015) in both ESL (e.g. King, Yeung & Cai, 2019; Papi et al., 2018), and learning languages other than English (LOTEs) contexts (e.g. Berardi-Wiltshire, Bortolotto & Morris, 2020). Second, the notion of "ideal language self" in the LMSS has reinterpreted Gardner's concept of "integrativeness" in an interesting way, being for example, a personal desire to be proficient in English as an international language (Ellis, 2008). This has addressed the conceptual issue of integrative motivation as discussed earlier, extending its application even to contexts where chances to interact with the target language community are not present. Third, the focus on how learners conceive themselves has laid an important foundation for research into practical strategies to initiate, sustain, and enhance learners' motivation throughout the learning process (Cheng & Dörnyei, 2007; Hadfield & Dörnyei, 2013).

Shortcomings, however, are still noticeable. Ushioda and Dörnyei (2012) point out that a challenging question remains about how to operationalize the complex and dynamic relationships between learner, language and environment in measurable terms. The advanced L2 Motivational Self System is also not far from problematic. As "humans […] are inherently social beings" (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2009, p. 353), one's perceptions about "selves" are supposed to be grounded in the social environment s/he is in and the constant interactions s/he has with that environment. Given such a social influence, it is thorny to decide with absolute confidence the desired self a learner perceives at a certain time is "ideal", i.e. the possible self "that is fully owned by the leaner" and "not imposed by others" (ibid., p. 353). Finally, the concept of strongly goal-oriented future self might not apply to learners of the languages that are not associated with strong instrumental utility (Duff, 2017). In fact, while well-defined L2 learning goals (an integral part of the learner's future self) are considered a strong motivational force in the LMSS, the total absence of such was interestingly found in highly motivated learners of te reo Māori, an indigenous New Zealand language (Berardi-Wiltshire, Bortolotto & Morris, 2020). The complexities and nuances behind the motivation of LOTEs are therefore not yet fully accounted for under the socio-dynamic L2 motivation approach.

4. Discussion and implications

It can be seen from the review above that the concept of L2 motivation and its full complexity has been gradually uncovered with the increasing sophistication of the analytical framework over time. From a static notion bearing a simplified linear relationship with learning outcomes, motivation has recently been depicted as a temporal and dynamic construct, which constantly changes under the effects of numerous variables in the learning process. Throughout the evolution process, later theories in consecutive stages did not simply replace but modified and complemented former ones, creating certain overlaps and subtle interactions (Boo et al., 2015).

It is, however, striking to notice that none of the existing approaches and models would, by itself, be entirely adequate to serve as a comprehensive theoretical basis for both practical and research applications. *First*, no approach to date suffices to capture all the features of the motivational construct. While the socio-psychological approach, for instance, fails to capture the "temporal" feature, the process-oriented model appears to simplify the "dynamic" aspect of motivation in its temporal axis. *Second*, most approaches tend to emphasize the *initial* phase of a motivational process (i.e. the reasons for people's choice of a certain course of action), while ignoring or depreciating the importance of sustaining learner's motivation *during* an L2 learning process (i.e. how and why a learner continues to engage or choose to disengage in learning an L2). The only model that does justice to executive motivational sources – Dörnyei's and Ottos's (1998) process model of L2 motivation – unfortunately seems to display one former shortcoming: insufficient in portraying the "dynamic" feature of motivation (Bower, 2019). *Third*, all born in the contexts where English is a typical second language, the above theories might be offering a narrow view of L2 motivation, excluding some priorities and experiences of LOTEs learners and thus failing to cover all the nuances of their motivation (Berardi-Wiltshire, Bortolotto & Morris, 2020). As explained by Ushioda (2017), the future-oriented and goal-based nature of L2 motivation as depicted in the mentioned theories has necessarily associated L2 motivation discourses with "necessity, utility, advantage, power, advancement, mobility, migration and cosmopolitanism" (p. 417), the concepts that may not fully apply to the reasons behind individuals learning minority languages not connected with economic utility or hegemonic status. Furthermore, some concepts no longer deemed much meaningful to learning English as a global language, such as integrativeness (Coetzee-Van Rooy, 2006), has now been found resurface in LOTEs motivation research (Al-Hoorie, 2017). *Finally*, past and current views on L2 motivation tend to assume, at least implicitly, that L2 learners are rational individuals who are conscious of and able to articulate their drives in L2 learning (Al-Hoorie, 2017). In other words, the importance of unconscious motivators, which has recently gained scholarly attention in mainstream psychology (Ryan & Legate, 2012), is still largely overlooked, leaving much room in the L2 motivation field to be enriched.

These points imply several recommendations for both practitioners and researchers. For L2 instructors, including those in Vietnam context, even simple psychological techniques such as encouraging in students the positive attitudes towards the targeted language, people, and culture, or emphasizing the instrumental benefits of learning the L2 can be powerful ways to instil the initial drive for students to learn a second language (Dörnyei, 2007). However, since students' motivation is ever-changing and unstable, teachers must invest constant effort in sustaining student's motivation throughout the learning process. This can be done by maximizing student's freedom in pursuing their own learning styles, nurturing self-esteem and autonomy in them (Rahmanpana, 2017), or prioritizing effort-related feedback over the ability-related type (Dörnyei, 2007). In addition, helping students to understand their current self, and directing them towards a suitable ideal self image would also be an effective way to create on-going motivation in L2 classes (King, Yeung & Cai, 2019). Last but not least, since motivation is individually different and context sensitive, teachers should be flexible in choosing motivational techniques to apply in classrooms. As emphasized by Dörnyei (2007), while it is necessary for teachers to be aware of the vast repertoire of possible motivational strategies, a motivating teaching practice must be tailored based on the "specific needs that arise" in their "concrete circumstances" (p. 731). The integrative motivational technique, for instance, might work well with learners who demonstrate a genuine interest in the targeted culture, but is highly likely to fail with those whose sole goal of learning the L2 is to earn a promotion at work.

For L2 researchers, it is advisable that the motivation construct should be viewed from different angles to obtain a more comprehensive understanding. Several useful directions for research include, *first of all*, applying multiple theoretical lenses since no theory or concept alone is sufficient in capturing the nuances of L2 motivation (Bower, 2019). In a review extending over a decade, Boo et al. (2015) have in fact observed a surge of "more than one concept" studies since 2011, which typically

paired the LLMS with another motivation theory – the trend still prevalent until today in motivation research (e.g. Bower, 2019; Berardi-Wiltshire et al., 2020). Conceptual pairing, according to these authors, would on the one hand allow for an extended understanding of L2 motivation in a given context; and on the other, create room for juxtaposing different theoretical perspectives, thus enabling possible expansion of the theoretical basis in the area (Boo et al., 2015; King et al., 2019). When comparing empirical studies framed under multiple theoretical lenses, McEown et al. (2014) also concluded that L2 outcome variables are best explained under a framework that combines key concepts from different approaches. ***Second,*** the unexplored unconscious motivators in L2 learning are also an area that holds potential for future research. The inclusion of implicit processes such as implicit attitudes, implicit self-concepts, implicit prejudice, may move the field towards an equivalent place with other educational psychology sub-disciplines where unconscious motivation, or "the other side" of the motivation construct, has been duly investigated (Al-Hoorie, 2017). ***Methodologically***, future researchers are advised to adopt longitudinal designs (Ortega, 2009). Unlike the cross-sectional methods that dominate current L2 motivation research (McEown, 2014), long-term investigations would unfold the revolutionary trajectories of the motivation processes, and thus be able to capture the temporal and long-term feature of L2 motivation (Al-Hoorie, 2017). ***Finally,*** the inadequate affordance of LOTEs in the scope of the current L2 motivation theories points to a critical need for inquiries into relatively unexplored motives in relatively unexplored contexts, among which, ones involving the learning of minority, indigenous, or heritage languages should deserve special attention (MacIntyre, Baker, & Sparling, 2017, p. 501). Findings of this research strand would complement the current L2 motivation theories,

expanding their scope to include the complexities involved in the LOTEs contexts as well.

5. Conclusion

This literature review has chronologically described and critiqued the major approaches to understanding L2 motivation to date. It has highlighted motivation as a determinant factor in L2 learning, and a construct attracting growing attention in L2 and educational psychology research. The paper also argued that the literature still lacks a comprehensive framework to depict L2 motivation, especially in the context of LOTEs, suggesting the need for both teachers and researchers to be critical and inclusive in their choice of a motivational theory to apply to their practice and research.

Such an observation matches what Dornyei wrote more than two decades ago; that is, "motivation is indeed a multifaceted rather than a uniform factor and no available theory has yet managed to represent it in its total complexity" (1998, p. 131). This review though, by putting all notable L2 motivation theories and models in one place, is hoped to have described different facets of the construct, and equipped researchers and teachers with an integrative repertoire of strategies to explore and nurture students' L2 motivation. Put in MacIntyre and associates' words (2010), the review may have provided "complementary, and perhaps richer, ways of understanding motivation and language learning" (p. 1).

A limitation of this review should be acknowledged. That is, the list of the L2 motivational models and theories reviewed in this paper is not exhaustive. Although the author is confident that the most influential ones have been covered, a new theory might have evolved beyond the author's awareness and thus may have been missed in the paper. Future work with more resources can expand the current review and complete the picture of L2 motivation it has depicted.

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TẠO ĐỘNG LỰC CHO NGƯỜI HỌC NGOẠI NGỮ: TỪ CÁC LÝ THUYẾT PHỔ BIẾN TỚI VIỆC ÁP DỤNG TRONG NGHIÊN CỨU VÀ THỰC HÀNH

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Tóm tắt: Động lực của người học từ lâu đã được khẳng định là một yếu tố quyết định trong quá trình học tập nói chung và việc học ngôn ngữ thứ hai nói riêng. Tương xứng với tầm quan trọng của vấn đề, rất nhiều lý thuyết và mô hình nhằm lý giải động lực học ngôn ngữ thứ hai đã ra đời. Tuy vậy, sự đa dạng về số lượng các đường hướng và mô hình có thể đã gây ra không ít khó khăn cho những người làm chuyên môn muốn lựa chọn một lý thuyết phù hợp nhất cho nghiên cứu hay thực tế giảng dạy của mình. Bài viết nhằm mục đích tháo gỡ khó khăn này thông qua việc tổng hợp và phân tích các đường hướng và mô hình lý giải động lực học ngôn ngữ thứ hai phổ biến từ trước tới nay. Trên cơ sở đó, tác giả đưa ra một số đề xuất mang tính thực tiễn cho giáo viên ngoại ngữ/ngôn ngữ thứ hai và mang ý nghĩa phương pháp luận cho các nhà nghiên cứu muốn tìm hiểu một cách toàn diện hơn về khái niệm động lực học ngoại ngữ hay ngôn ngữ thứ hai.

Từ khóa: động lực học ngôn ngữ thứ hai, tổng quan lý thuyết, dạy học ngôn ngữ thứ hai, lý thuyết về động lực học ngôn ngữ thứ hai

INFLUENCES OF PERSONALITY
ON STUDENTS' SPEAKING PERFORMANCE

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Abstract: The great demand for pair work and group work in speaking lessons at University of Languages and International Studies, Vietnam National University, Hanoi (ULIS, VNU) and the weaknesses of first-year students in those activities have been a source of inspiration to this research paper. The research paper focuses on both influences of personality on students' performance and possible recommendations to overcome the problems. To achieve these purposes, 52 first-year students and 2 experienced speaking teachers at Division 1, Faculty of English Language Teacher Education, ULIS, VNU have taken part in the data collection process including questionnaires, interviews and classroom observations. Afterwards, the data analysis detected that unstable-extroverted was the common trend of students' personality. Besides, some positive and negative influences of personality types on students' performance in pair work and group work speaking activities were found out. Based on those influences, recommendations of dividing groups and pairs as well as dividing roles and tasks for students in pair work and group work were raised to reduce the negative effects and increase positive ones.

Key words: speaking, personality, speaking activities

I. Introduction

English language learning and teaching has been considered an important subject in the Vietnam education system. According to the statistics by Vietnam Ministry of Education and Training (as cited in Chu, 2003), in 2003, English was taught in 98.5% of Vietnamese secondary schools. Recognizing this importance, schools and teachers are trying to improve their teaching methods. In the past, grammar and rules were the most vital element and grammar-translation was the most popular teaching method. In contrast, communication has been put into great consideration in modern society; therefore, Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) focusing on four skills: listening, speaking, reading and writing has been the main teaching approach in most schools and institutions (Chu, 2003). In this context, University of Languages and International Studies - Vietnam National University, Hanoi (ULIS, VNU) has applied CLT into teaching English and certainly four skills are carefully taught. Moreover, for some

students, speaking skill is not only important but also difficult. In fact, many students cannot communicate in English although they have learnt English for seven years at high school. Therefore, speaking learning should be focused more.

In the speaking learning process, various factors can affect the effectiveness of students' learning. First, there are some objective factors such as social context, regional tradition and customs. Besides, some subjective factors include students' psychological and physical features, interests, purposes of learning and especially their own personalities. Several studies have been conducted on the relationship between personalities and the second language learning such as *The Role of Personality in Second Language Acquisition* (Yan, 2006) and *Personality Preferences and Foreign Language Learning* (Raymond, 1998). Some influences of personalities on foreign language learning process have been found out in those studies; however, not many researchers concentrate on the influences of personalities on learning speaking skill.

For those reasons, the researcher decided to conduct a study on the topic ***"Influences of personality on students' speaking performance"*** for the purpose of examining the

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influences of personalities on students' performance in speaking activities. After exploring the influences including both positive and negative ones, the study also aims at discovering several possible ways to enhance the positive effects to help students have a better result in learning. In fact, speaking skill includes both monologue and dialogue, and this study only focused on dialogue. To be specific, the study concentrated on speaking activities in which the students have to work with others.

II. Literature review

1. Nature of speaking

In 1987, Bygates (1987, as cited in Chu, 2003, p. 5) raised a definition of speaking which is a popular form of expression using "the colloquial register". He also emphasized that "speaking is transient and improvised and can therefore be viewed as facile, superficial or glib".

From another viewpoint, Rivers (1968, cited in Tran, 1999, p. 7) considered speaking as "the selection of the message to be sent and the encoding of the message for transmission (that is, the intensive and encoding behavior of the speaker)". Different from Bygates (1987), Rivers (1968) believed that speaking is not a superficial activity but an intensive behavior.

Byrne (1976, cited in Bui, 1999, p. 8) gave another definition of speaking which is "a two-way process between the speaker(s) and the listener(s) involving the productive skills of speaking and the receptive skills of understanding". This definition focused on interactive characteristics of speaking. In his opinion, both speaker and listener had function in this process: the speaker had to encode the target message to convey it in a suitable way and the listener had to decode it.

Among these three definitions, the last one of Byrne (1976, cited in Bui, 1999, p. 8) was the most complete because it not only mentioned the speaker but also the listener. As we know, speaking is not an activity of the speaker but is an interaction between the speaker and the listener.

2. Factors affecting speaking performance

According to Nguyen and Tran (2015), there were four factors that affected students'

speaking performance. They were *performance condition, listening ability, feedback* and *affective factors.*

Performance condition

Students perform their speaking task under certain conditions. Nguyen and Tran (2015) thought that these conditions could affect the students' performance a lot. Those conditions consist of time pressure, planning, the standard of the performance and the amount of support.

Listening ability

Speaking ability can be developed only when listening ability is improved (Doff, 1998, as cited in Nguyen & Tran, 2015). To have a successful conversation, students must understand what is said. In a conversation, one person is not only the speaker but also the listener. Therefore, he/she cannot respond if he/she doesn't understand what is being said (Nguyen & Tran, 2015).

Feedback during speaking activities

According to Harmer (1991), all students expect their teachers' feedback, but how the teacher gives feedback affects their speaking a lot. If the students are always stopped for mistakes, they will feel demotivating and afraid to speak in front of their friends. Harmer also suggested teacher should give feedback to their students positively and with encouragement.

Affective factors

The learners' affective side is one of the most influential factors on their speaking success or failure (Krashen, 1982, as cited in Nguyen & Tran, 2015). Krashen stated that a number of studies confirmed the relationship between affective variables and speaking learning success.

Focusing on the connection between affective factors and speaking performance, Minghe and Juan (2013) mentioned four main factors including *Motivation and Attitude, Self-esteem and Anxiety, Cross-cultural Awareness and especially Personality*. In their opinion, personality is an important factor and closely relates to the students' oral performance. Specifically, they thought that students with

different personality traits choose different speaking learning strategies. There are two obvious groups of personality traits which are extroverted and introverted. Generally, extroverted students seem to be more active in English oral performance than introverted ones. Some students have troubles in English oral performance because of their personality. However, a few teachers fail to pay proper attention to those kinds of students or just complain about their poor performance. In some cases, teachers may neglect these introverted students, which makes them feel lonely and leads to negative effects on their speaking learning.

Minghe and Juan (2013) also thought that English teacher should be aware of their students' personality types and the affective factors of personality types. Teachers should consider both extroverts and introverts when designing activities for their students. Finally, introverted students should be encouraged to take part in the activities.

To sum up, some studies show that there are some factors affecting students' speaking performance. Affective factors in general or personality in particular are important and have strong influences on the students' English oral performance.

3. Types of personality

According to Jung (1921), there are two basic "general attitude types": **Introverted** and **Extroverted** which "distinguished by the direction of general interest or libido movement..... differentiated by their particular attitude to the object".

Specifically, extroverted attitude "maintains a positive relation to the object" and an extravert's attitude is continually orientated by and related to the object (Jung, 1921). In contrast, the introvert's attitude to the object "is an abstracting one" and an introverted person "is always facing the problem of how libido can be withdrawn from the object". Thus, the main difference between these two kinds of attitudes is that the former is more objective when the latter is more subjective in the relation to the object.

Table 1

Extroverted and Introverted (Jung, 1921)

Extroverted	Introverted
psychological energy is directed out of the person to the world outside them	the person's psychological energy is internally directed
objective – outward	subjective – inward
"... maintains a positive relation to the object. To such an extent does he affirm its importance that his subjective attitude is continually being orientated by, and related to the object...." (Jung, 1921)	".... attitude to the object is an abstracting one.... he is always facing the problem of how libido can be withdrawn from the object...." (Jung, 1921)

Apart from the two attitudes of extraversion and introversion, Jung also developed a framework of "four functional types" from which the "most differentiated function plays the principal role in an individual's adaptation or orientation to life" (Jung, 1921). It can be referred that among four functional types, there is one type that is dominant and able to lead to a person's changes.

Table 2

Jung's Four Functional Types – Definitions

Thinking	what something is	meaning and understanding	both are opposite **reasoning** and **judging** functions - people consciously 'prefer' one or the other - Jung called these functions '**rational**'
Feeling	whether it's good or not	weight and value	
Sensation	something exists	sensual perception	both are opposite **perceiving** functions - people consciously 'prefer' one or the other - Jung called these functions '**irrational**'
Intuition	where it's from and where it's going	possibilities and atmosphere	

Table 3

Jung's 8 Psychological Types

	Type name	Type characteristics
1	extroverted thinking	analytical, strategic, plans, implements, organises others
2	introverted thinking	contemplative, discovering, theoretical, seeks self-knowledge
3	extroverted feeling	sociable, sentimental, seeks personal and social success
4	introverted feeling	inaccessible, enigmatic, self-contained, seeks inner intensity
5	extroverted sensation	practical, hands-on, pleasure-seeking, hard-headed
6	introverted sensation	intense, obsessive, detached, connoisseur, expert
7	extroverted intuition	adventurous, innovative, seeks novelty, proposes change
8	introverted intuition	idealistic, visionary, esoteric, mystical, aloof

In 1962, in a book named *A Guide to the Development and Use of the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator,* Briggs and Briggs combined and developed Jung's categorization to make it *"more useful"* in practical life (Briggs & Briggs, 1962). In their opinion, there are 4 scales represents two opposing *"preferences".*

- **Extraversion** or **Introversion:** the focus or direction or orientation of our behavior - outward (Extraversion) or inward (Introversion)
- **Sensing** or **Intuition:** how we gather information observed facts and specifics (Sensing) or what we imagine things can mean (Intuition)
- **Thinking** or **Feeling:** how we decide: objective and tough-minded (Thinking) or friendly and sensitive to others and ourselves (Feeling)
- **Judging** or **Perceiving**: our method for handling the outside world and particularly for making decisions - do quite soon evaluate and decide (Judging) or continue gathering data and keep options open (Perceiving)

Table 4

Briggs and Brigg's 4 Scales of Personality

preference for the outer world and one's own action and effect on it	Extraversion	or	Introversion	preference for inner self and ideas to understand and protect or take care of it
gathers information by: focusing on facts within information	Sensing	or	Intuition	gathers information by: interpreting patterns, possibilities and meaning from information received
decides by using logic, consistency, objective analysis, process-driven conclusions	Thinking	or	Feeling	decides according to what matters to self and others, and personal values
in dealing with the world organizes, plans, controls, and decides clear firm actions and responses - relatively quick to decide	Judging	or	Perceiving	in dealing with the world responds and acts with flexibility, spontaneity, adaptability and understanding - relatively slow to decide

In fact, Briggs and Briggs added the fourth dimension **Judging** or **Perceiving** to Jung's three old ones and he succeeded in making categories more understandable. However, the last dimension is somehow related to the third one because they both mention ways of making decisions although they have different approaches.

In Eysenck's 1991 theory, the author just used two scales to measure one's personality:

- **Introversion - extraversion**
- **Stability - instability** (unemotional-emotional)

Table 5

Eysenck's Four Main Types of Personality

	Type name	Type characteristics
1	Unstable – introverted (emotional-introverted)	moody, anxious, rigid, sober, pessimistic, reserved, unsociable, quiet
2	Unstable – extroverted (emotional-extroverted)	touchy, restless, aggressive, excitable, changeable, impulsive, optimistic, active
3	Stable – introverted (unemotional-introverted)	calm, even-tempered, reliable, controlled, peaceful, thoughtful, careful, passive
4	Stable – extroverted (unemotional-extroverted)	sociable, outgoing, talkative, responsive, easy-going, lively, carefree, leadership

Apart from understandability, this way of categorizing is helpful for people to find out their own personalities. Therefore, the researcher based on it to conduct the study.

4. Influences of students' personality on their speaking performance

In the field of personality types, there have been a number of studies focusing on the relationship between personality types and speaking performance. Most of the studies mentioned two main types of personality which are extrovert and introvert.

The studies (e.g. Dewaele & Furnham, 2000; Rossier, 1976; Vogel & Vogel, 1986; Hassan, 2001; Abali, 2006, as cited in Dini, 2018) have found the close relation between extraversion-introversion and participants' oral performance in the target language. Rossier (1976, as cited in Dini, 2018) found that extraversion personality types have positive impacts on oral performance. Dewaele and Furnham (2000, as cited in Dini, 2018) shared the same idea. They thought that extroverted students produce longer speaking performances than introverted ones. Extroverts are also more active than introverts in organizing ideas.

III. METHODOLOGY

1. Research questions

The research aims to answer these three questions:

1. What are the common personalities of first-year mainstream students of FELTE, ULIS, VNU as perceived by the students?

2. How do the personalities of first-year mainstream students of FELTE, ULIS, VNU affect their performance in speaking activities?

Do those personalities help to improve or reduce the effectiveness?

3. What are possible recommendations to reduce negative influences and increase positive ones as perceived by the speaking teachers of first-year mainstream students?

2. Research design

The paper is a case-study which focuses on a small group of first-year students from FELTE, ULIS. The reason for choosing this approach is that case-study is suitable for the papers whose focus is to answer "how" questions (Yin, 2003). In fact, one main question for this research is "*How do the personalities of first-year mainstream students of FELTE, ULIS, VNU affect their performance in speaking activities?*"; therefore, case-study is a suitable approach.

This paper uses the mixed methods which combine elements of qualitative and quantitative approaches. Specifically, the study collects and analyzes both numeric data from the survey and non-numeric data from the interview and observation. This combination helps the researcher have adequate information to find the answers for the research questions.

3. Participants

3.1. First-year students from FELTE, ULIS, VNU

To seek the answers for the two first research questions, fifty two first-year students from FELTE, ULIS, VNU were involved in the process of data collection. Specifically, the students were picked up randomly because *"random sampling"* can help to *"minimize the effects of any extraneous or subjective variables that might affect the outcomes of the survey*

study" (Hoang & Nguyen, 2006, as cited in Vu, 2007, pp. 30-31).

3.2. Speaking teachers

Experienced speaking teachers at Division 1, FELTE were invited to be involved in the data collection process of the research paper. The reason is that the teachers who have experiences in teaching can understand their students' personality more easily than inexperienced ones. After a long time of teaching, the teacher can give valuable suggestions for students to overcome difficulties in speaking activities caused by their own personalities. In the process of data collection, these two teachers were asked about the influences of personalities on students' performance in speaking lessons. Then they suggested solutions for students as well as teachers to reduce negative influences and increase positive ones. Because of limitation of time, only two speaking teachers were involved in the study.

4. Data collection instruments

To find adequate results for the paper, three data collection instruments were used including questionnaires, interviews and class observation. The researcher had to combine these three instruments to have the solid answers for the research questions. Among these three instruments, the information from the questionnaire was the base for the whole study.

4.1. Questionnaires

The questionnaire was divided into two main parts. The first part included twenty-two yes/no questions collected and adapted from *The short-form revised Eysenck personality questionnaire (EPQ-S): A German edition* (Francis, Lewis & Ziebertz, 2006). The purpose of this part was to find out the personality types of fifty-two students who took part in the survey. The second part consisted of twenty statements which were designed according to Likert scales. This part focused on influences of students' personality types on their performance in speaking lessons.

4.2. Interviews

The interviews with four students of four different personality types aimed at finding out the clearer results for the influences of personality types on students' oral performance. There were totally six questions in the interview schedule for students and most of them focused on the second research question. Moreover, relaxing conversations between the interviewer and interviewees were conducted to establish the interaction between the participants of the interviews. Based on that, the researcher could see and judge the interviewees' personality types more clearly to have more exact results.

Likewise, two experienced teachers were asked to take part in the interviews. The main function of these interviews was to find out possible solutions to reduce negative influences of personality types on students' performance in speaking activities and increase the positive effects. Besides, some more questions were raised to ask the teachers about the importance of understanding students' personality and the influences of personality on their speaking performance.

4.3. Classroom observation

The speaking performance of the four students who took part in the interview was observed in two lessons. The aim of this part was to find out influences of students personality types on their performance in speaking classes perceived by the researcher. In all those classroom observations, a sample of observation checklist designed by the researcher was used. There was a five-criteria set in the checklist for the researcher to give comments. They were students' *involvement and excitement, leadership, noise and mistakes, use of Vietnamese* as well as *ideas and arguments*.

5. Data analysis procedure

To find out the answer for the three research questions, the collected data was classified. To be specific, the answer for the first question can be found from the first part of the questionnaires. Then the second part of the questionnaires, the observation's content and students' responses helped to solve the second research question. Lastly, the teachers' answers and suggestions were the key to the third question of the study.

As for the first research question, information on personality types and characteristics of first-year students was

gathered from the first part of the survey questionnaires which consisted of twenty one yes/no questions. To find out the result, the researcher counted the number of the answers Yes and No of each student. Then, a pie chart was formed to compare the number of different personality types of students. Finally, some outstanding characteristics of each type of students' personality which may influence their performance speaking lessons would be described.

Regarding the second question, the researcher synthesized to find out the personality types in turn. The information for this research question was revealed from the second part of the questionnaires. Because all of the students' answers showed different levels of agreement, they were converted into a five-point scale. In details, a maximum of five points referred to students' strong agreement with the statements in the questionnaires. This score gradually decreased from five to one for strong disagreement. At last, the number of students' responses for each statement in different levels (from *strongly agree* to *strongly disagree*) was counted. They were all inserted into a table to show the influences of students' personality on their speaking performance. Moreover, the information from the classroom observation and the students' responses in the interviews were added to show clearer results.

With the last question of the study, the researcher took advantage of the teachers' ideas in the interviews to find out the solution for negative influences and help students have the best result in speaking classes.

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

1. Research question 1: The common personalities of first-year students of FELTE, ULIS, VNU as perceived by the students

The answer for the common personalities of first-year students of FELTE, ULIS, VNU was found out after classifying information in the first research question. The answer to this research question was a surprise because the number of extroverted students was much bigger than the number of introverted ones. In short, the comparison among the four types of personalities of first-year students at FELTE,

ULIS, VNU can be summarized in the table hereafter.

Table 6

Common Personalities of First-Year Students at FELTE, ULIS, VNU

Types of personality	Number of students
Introverted-Unstable	6
Introverted-Stable	2
Extroverted-Unstable	26
Extroverted-Stable	18
Total	52

Or we can see the comparison among these four types more clearly in the chart hereafter.

Chart 1

Common Personalities of First-Year Mainstream Students
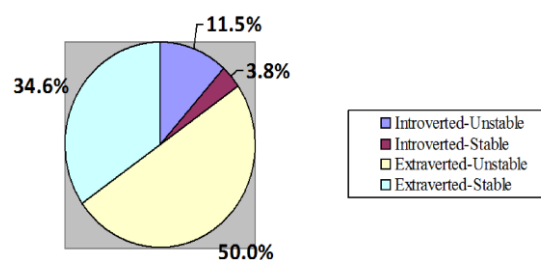
According to the pie chart above, half of the students are Extroverted-Unstable type. Meanwhile, 34.6% of them are Extroverted-Stable; 11.5% are Introverted-Unstable students and only 3.8% are Introverted-Stable ones. Thus, it can be clearly seen that the number of extroverted students who are believed to be sociable, active and out-going is much bigger than introverted ones who are quiet and passive. This result is a bit surprising because the participants of the study are freshmen at university who are often believed to be quiet and shy. This result also brings some expectations about activeness of the students in the classroom's speaking activities.

Also, the students' characteristics of each personality type were revealed from the data collection process. First, it can be concluded that introverted-unstable people are quite excited in their daily life with familiar people but not very active and a little bit shy. To be specific, they are talkative, enjoy meeting people especially their friends. However, they cannot take the initiative in making new

friends, rapidly get involved in social life at a new workplace or get a party going and are not considered a lively person by others. This result is partially similar to Eysenck's description of introverted-unstable people who are *"quiet"* and *"unsocial"* (Eysenck, 1991). Moreover, according to Eysenck, introverted people like being alone and do not want to be with other people.

Besides, most of the introverted-unstable students agree that they are worrying and usually feel lonely as well as suffer from "nerves" and are troubled about feelings of guilt. Their mood often goes up and down. They even feel "just miserable" for no reason and frequently worry too long after an embarrassing experience. In addition, their feelings are easily hurt, they are short-tempered and often feel fed-up. Overall, with all the characteristics analyzed, introverted-unstable students may not be very active and excited in pair work and group work in speaking lessons. Moreover, because they are *moody, anxious* and *rigid*, they may not be able to control their temper in discussions and can cause quarrels. With those characteristics, perhaps they are not good leaders when working in pairs or groups.

Secondly, as for introverted-stable students, their extraversion is quite similar to introverted-unstable ones'. Their answers in the questionnaires reveal that they are rather talkative and excited about meeting people but are not very lively and quite passive. Besides, these students say they are not worrying and short-tempered people who do not worry too long after an embarrassing experience and are not often troubled about feelings of guilt. All of them are not nervous; do not often feel lonely, fed-up, and miserable for no reasons and suffer from "nerves". Moreover, their feelings are not easily hurt. This result is on the contrary with introverted-unstable ones but coincides with the opinion about introverted-stable people when they are often described as calm, reliable and controlled. Thus, it can be guessed that introverted-stable students may be not very excited and involved in pair work and group work speaking activities. However, unlike introverted-unstable ones, these students are calm and controlled. Therefore, they may know how to keep temper in discussion so as not to cause unexpected arguments.

Thirdly, regarding extroverted-stable students, they are mostly lively and talkative people who like meeting and mixing with people and friends. They are also quite active when usually taking the initiative in making new friends and rapidly getting involved in social life at a new workplace. Most of them can also let themselves go and enjoy themselves at a lively party and like plenty of bustle and excitement around them. Also, most of the students affirmed they are considered lively people by their friends and more than half of them can get a party going. Surprisingly, only one-third can easily get some life into a rather dull party. Moreover, as for extroverted-stable people, Eysenck described them as *easy-going*, *carefree* and have good *leadership*. In comparison with the result from the questionnaires, it is quite similar because most extroverted-stable students described themselves as not worrying, nervous and short-tempered people. The majority of them do not usually feel lonely, miserable as well as their feelings are not easily hurt but their mood often goes up and down. Thus, with these characteristics, extroverted-stable students may be active and excited in speaking lessons. They may also be enthusiastic to raise ideas and have interesting ones. Moreover, these students may be able to be good leaders in their pairs and groups.

Lastly, concerning extroverted-unstable students, most of them agree that they are talkative and rather lively. These students also enjoy meeting new people and having plenty of bustle and excitement around them. However, nearly half of the students cannot let themselves go and enjoy themselves at a lively party. Besides, almost fifty percent of them are unable to get a party going and easily get some life into a rather dull party. Thus, it can be concluded that although these students are talkative and lively, they are not very active. This result is quite surprising because extroverted people are often thought to be *active* and *excitable* (Jung, 1921). Almost all of the extroverted-unstable students taking part in the data collection process conclude that they are worrying and short-tempered people. These students also agree that their mood often goes up and down and their feelings are easily hurt. Moreover, they affirm that they ever feel miserable for no reason and often feel lonely. However, nearly a half of them say they are not nervous people. Overall, extroverted-unstable students are *optimistic, active, excitable, touchy* and

changeable. Therefore, in pair work and group work speaking activities, they may be excited and involved in but aggressive to cause quarrels.

2. Research question 2: Influences of personality on students' performance in speaking lessons of first-year students, FELTE, ULIS, VNU

The answer for the second research question was revealed from the second part of the questionnaires, the information from the classroom observation and the interviews with four students of four personality types. The influences of each personality type were specifically analyzed according to two criteria: *Involvement and excitement* and *leadership*. Regarding the questionnaires, students answered by giving their opinions on the statements from *strongly disagree* to *strongly agree*. To be specific, there are totally five scales which were converted into a five-point scale, *1 pt: strong disagree, 2 pts: disagree, 3 pts: neutral, 4 pts: agree, 5 pts: strongly agree.*

2.1. *Unstable-Introverted students & Stable-Introverted students*

2.1.1. Involvement and excitement

Regarding unstable-introverted students who are believed to be *unsociable* and *quiet* (Eysenck, 1991), they admitted that they were not really involved in activities in speaking classes. Their *"quiet"* characteristic was clearly shown in their performance in those kinds of activities which was specifically illustrated in the table hereafter.

Table 7

A Summary of Unstable-Introverted and Stable-Introverted Students' Involvement and Excitement in Pair Work and Group Work

	Statements	Unstable-Introverted	Stable-Introverted
1	I am really involved and motivated	3.17	3.0
2	I take advantage of chances to use English	3.33	3.5
3	I feel excited in these activities because I have chance to compete with my friends	3.0	3.0
4	I feel more secure when working with friends instead of talking to the teacher	3.5	3.5
5	I dominate other friends in my group	2.33	1.5

As it can be clearly seen from the table above, the results for two groups were quite similar to each other. Both groups of students were not very involved and motivated in speaking activities as well as did not really take advantage of chances to use English in those activities because the overall mark of students' agreement was just about three over five points. However, the information collected from the interview was different. An unstable-introverted student said that he was quite involved and excited in speaking activities. Moreover, this student affirmed he tried to take advantage of chances to use English in those activities and *"the chance to be the presenter for my group"*. This totally fitted with the results from the observation of this student's performance. Through the classroom observation, the researcher found out that this unstable-introverted student was quite involved in the activities and sometimes fought to be the speaker of his group. In contrast, a stable-introverted student admitted in the interview that she did not take advantage of chances to use English because she was still afraid to communicate in English. Moreover, she shared that if she had chances to work with her close friends, she would feel free to give opinions and be involved in the activities. Overall, it can be concluded that both unstable-introverted and stable-introverted students did not involve in speaking classes; however, some of unstable-introverted ones still tried to overcome the shortcomings of their personality to participate in and practice speaking English. These students should be complimented when they are aware of their weaknesses.

Beside the involvement, this table showed that most of the students felt more secure when working with their friends' instead of talking to the teacher. The average mark for this one is 3.5 over 5 points which is the highest one among

five criteria. The interviewed unstable-introverted student agreed with this idea when he stated: *"I feel working with the teacher is not very comfortable. Working with my friends is safer"*. Similarly, one student from the stable-introverted group added that she liked working with friends because it was much safer than talking to the teacher. In addition, the classroom observation also showed that the stable-introverted student did not actively participate in the activities when she spent most of the time listening to other members. Not only may the students of this personality trend but also other kinds of students feel safer to work with friends than to work with teachers. The reason is that friends are close to them; therefore, they are willing to raise ideas or share opinions. When talking to teachers, students are normally afraid of making mistakes.

Last but not least, because these students did not actively participate in speaking activities, they did not dominate their friends in discussions. The average mark for this criterion was only about 2.3 over 5 points for the unstable-introverted group and 1.5 for the stable-introverted group which was the lowest one. In the meantime, the result from the classroom observation and the interview shared the same ideas. When being asked about this problem, the unstable-introverted student answered he could not dominate other friends

because they were very energetic, dynamic and quick-minded. Similarly, the stable-introverted student said she was quiet in speaking activities and the researcher witnessed she only talked at the beginning of the activities and then sat to listen to others.

Overall, although both unstable-introverted and stable-introverted students felt safer when working in groups, they did not involve themselves as well as did not dominate their friends in those activities. This result can be easily guessed based on their analyzed characteristics: unstable-introverted group as *"quiet"* and *"unsocial"* and stable-introverted group as *"careful"* and *"passive"* (Eysenck, 1991). However, if the students are aware of the weakness in their personality, they can have suitable adjustment to have the best results in speaking lessons.

2.1.2. Leadership

According to Eysenck's theory about four types of personality in 1991, unstable-introverted and stable-introverted were not the type which had good leadership. Comparing with the information collected from the data collection procedure, Eysenck' idea is quite true when there were few students affirming that they could be the group leaders in pair work and group work activities. The result from the questionnaires was clearly shown in this table:

Table 8

A Summary of Unstable-Introverted and Stable-Introverted Students' Leadership in Pair Work and Group Work

	Statements	Unstable-introverted	Stable-introverted
1	I help other group members when they have difficulties	3.67	3.5
2	I play as the group leader in my group to lead my friends to finish the task	3.0	2.5
3	I respect others' ideas and listen to them whenever they raise voice	3.67	3.5

Thanks to the analysis from the table, it can be concluded that most of the students participating in the survey helped their group members when they had difficulties and respected others' ideas. More than a half participating students agreed with these statements and the average mark was 3.67 for unstable-introverted and 3.5 for stable-introverted which was rather high. However, only two among six unstable-introverted students said that they played as the group leaders in their groups to guide other members

to finish the task, which led to the low average mark: three over five. Similarly, both of stable-introverted students were not sure about their leadership when the average mark for this claim was only 2.5 over five points. This result quite fitted with the information from the classroom observation when the researcher realized both the unstable-introverted student and the stable-introverted one did not show his leadership in speaking activities. In contrast, in the interview, the unstable-introverted student said he was normally the leader in his group, but only in the

presentation stage because he usually volunteered to become the presenter. In the researcher's opinion, this does not mean he played as a leader but only a volunteer speaker.

To sum up, both unstable-introverted and stable-introverted students did not show leadership in speaking lessons although they still helped their friends overcome difficulties as well as respected others' ideas. The result of this part is not surprising because unstable-introverted students are not only *"quiet"*, *"unsociable"* but also *"anxious"* and *"rigid"* (Jung, 1921). These characteristics are not suitable for them to play as the leader. Also, stable-introverted students who were described as *calm* and *controlled* cannot be a

leader because of their passiveness. They are also not confident enough to be a leader. If these students want to have the best performance in speaking activities, they should be aware of their shortcomings and try to reduce the influences of those weaknesses.

2.2. Unstable-Extroverted & Stable-Extroverted Students

2.2.1. Involvement and excitement

Both unstable-extroverted people who are *excitable* and *active* (Eysenck, 1991) and stable-extroverted ones who are described as *sociable*, *out-going* and *talkative* showed their involvement in pair work and group work in speaking lessons.

Table 9

A Summary of Unstable-Extroverted and Stable-Extroverted Students' Involvement and Excitement in Pair Work and Group Work

	Statements	Unstable-Extroverted	Stable-Extroverted
1	I am really involved and motivated	3.23	3.78
2	I take advantage of chances to use English	3.38	3.67
3	I feel excited in these activities because I have chance to compete with my friends	3.23	3.88
4	I feel more secure when working with friends instead of talking to the teacher	3.54	3.63
5	I dominate other friends in my group	2.11	3.56

The above table revealed the participation of both unstable-extroverted and stable-extroverted students. According to the result, these students were quite involved and excited in speaking activities. However, the result showed that more stable-extroverted students thought they were involved than unstable-extroverted ones. Besides, over a half of the students did try to take advantage of chances to use English in those activities. The highest point in the unstable-extroverted column was for the statement of safety when working with friends instead of talking to the teacher. And the highest point in the stable-extroverted column was for statement 4. These students felt more secure when working with friends instead of talking to teachers. However, in the interview, the stable-extroverted student did not agree because he considered teachers as his friends, but working with friends helped him feel more confident and critical. Also in the interview, the unstable-extroverted student said she was very enthusiastic in the activities and talked so much

in discussions. The researcher shared the same idea when observing her performance. She was over-excited and talked most of the time.

Regarding students' domination, surprisingly, this statement got the lowest point for both groups. In contrast, the interviewed unstable-extroverted student told that she always dominated their friends in her groups. The classroom observation also proved the truthfulness of her saying when the researcher found she did not save time for others to talk. On the contrary, the stable-extroverted student said he did not normally dominate others in his group. However, according to the information from the observation, this student sometimes dominated others when he was over-excited in discussions.

Overall, both unstable-extroverted and stable-extroverted students were quite involved in activities and felt secure to work with friends. Also, most of them did not dominate other friends in discussions. Thus, unlike the students of the two first personality types,

characteristics of the students of these two types have positive influences on their performance in speaking lessons when they were excited in those activities. These students were guessed to dominate their friends because of their aggressiveness but in fact, they did not.

2.3.2. Leadership

Concerning leadership, most of unstable-extroverted and stable-extroverted students were not group leaders in discussions although they still helped others and respected their friends' ideas.

Table 10

A Summary of Unstable-Extroverted and Stable-Extroverted Students' Leadership in Pair Work and Group Work

	Statements	Unstable-Extroverted	Stable-Extroverted
1	I help other group members when they have difficulties	3.58	3.17
2	I play as the group leader in my group to lead my friends to finish the task	2.81	3.17
3	I respect others' ideas and listen to them whenever they raise voice	4.23	4.5

As can be seen from the table, the last statement got the highest point for both groups, which means that most of the students respected others' ideas and listened to them whenever they raised their voices. The second highest point for the unstable-extroverted group belonged to the first statement. It proved these students helped their friends in discussions. However, most of the unstable-extrovert students were not confident to say they were the group leader, which led to the lowest point 2.81. The result was quite similar for the stable-extroverted group. Only a half of them helped other members when they had difficulties and one third played as the leader in pair work and group work speaking activities. Nevertheless, according to the interview, the unstable-extroverted student said she often talked so much in her groups and felt that she was the leader. The interviewed stable-extroverted student also shared he was always the leader in his pairs or groups. He also tried to lead other members to finish the task and helped them if necessary. The information from the observation was different for the two groups. Although the unstable-extroverted student wanted to be the leader in her group, her leadership was not good when she sometimes forced others to do as she asked and spoke too much. On the contrary, the stable-extroverted student showed very good leadership and respected others by being patient to listen to their voice.

To sum up, although unstable-extroverted students helped their group members and respected their ideas, they did not show effective leadership. This result fits with the researcher's guess. Although these students are *active,* and *excitable,* their *touchy* and *changeable* characteristics prevent them from being a good group leader. Therefore, to have the best performance in group work activities, these students should learn how to control their speaking time and respect other group members more. Meanwhile, most stable-extroverted students showed their respect to their friends' ideas but did not play as the leader as well as help others in difficulties. This result is really surprising because according to Eysenck, people of this personality type had very good leadership. Moreover, some characteristics described above showed that they could be good group leaders. Perhaps the reason is that they are freshmen at university. They do not understand their friends enough and do not have experiences. Then they cannot take advantage of their strength in personalities to have the best performance.

3. Research question 3: Possible recommendations to reduce negative influences and increase positive ones as perceived by the speaking teachers of first-year mainstream students

After finding the answer to the second research question, the researcher continued working on the last one. The interviews with the two experienced teachers at Division 1, FELTE, VNU revealed the results for this

question. These teachers raised interesting ideas to suggest how to reduce negative influences and increase positive ones.

First of all, both of the teachers are experienced when they have been teaching speaking for a long time. For each class, they often work in one semester (fifteen weeks). In their opinion, this amount of time was long enough for them to realize the common personality trend of the whole class as well as some outstanding students, for example some very talkative ones or some really quiet ones. However, the teacher couldn't understand each individual's personality. Moreover, both of the teachers could realize the influences of personality on students' performance in speaking lessons. The reason raised by one of them was that in English learning environment, students did not use their mother tongue, so the communication was not natural. They were learning to communicate; therefore, personality affected students' performance a lot. However, the teachers could not figure out specific influences on each type of personality when being asked. They only could give opinions about effects on extroverted and introverted students. To be specific, from their point of view, extroverted students often performed themselves well and led other members in their groups because they were often excited, enthusiastic and seemed to be interested in communicating and performing. In contrast, introverted ones did not take advantage of talking. In fact, they may participate in the activity but not enthusiastically. They took part only because of the requirement of the activity but did not feel relaxed to involve in. These teachers also added it was the teachers' duty to ensure that the participation of students was relatively equal as well as the chance of practicing and talking must be equally given to each student regardless of the differences in their personality.

Realizing those influences on their students' performance, the teachers recommended some solutions to overcome the problem. The teachers agreed they did not base on each student's personality to divide pairs or groups but based on the requirements of the tasks. Moreover, the arrangement of the classrooms did not allow them to pick up so many students. They often divided groups or pairs by traditional ways such as counting and asking the same numbers to sit together or requiring

students in one or two tables to be in one group. Then, if there were any problems with students in discussions, the teacher would have some necessary adjustments.

Regarding pair work, the first suggestion from the teachers was to divide the explicit role for each student. To be specific, in this activity, student A had to do this and student B had to do that. Both of them had to do their own task to finish the whole task of the pair. At that time, whether the student's personality was quiet or talkative, they still must talk at least enough to complete the task assigned to them. Secondly, the teachers shared they changed the chance of speaking for students regularly. For example, if in the first activity, student one talked more than the second student; then in the next activity, the teacher would adjust the roles so that student two had more chance of speaking. Thus, the chance of speaking for each student would increase and be equal. Moreover, the teachers had another way of adjusting students' performance in pair work. That was to assign tasks to each individual to make talkative students speak less and vice versa, quiet ones talk more. For instance, when a quiet student was talking, the more talkative one would be told to do another task such as note-taking.

As for group work, the teachers also had some ways to improve the quality of students' performance regardless of their different personality types. The first solution raised by the teachers was to divide different tasks for each member in one group. For example, dominant members could be asked to do some "quiet" tasks such as note-taking or observing to save the chance for other more introverted and shy students to perform. Secondly, the teacher needed to use different observing methods when dividing roles. For instance, in some cases in one group, the teacher could assign some roles in which students must talk to quiet learners to force them to talk. Or sometimes, based on their observation, the teacher could come to quiet students to elicit and help them involve in the activities. Another way the teachers suggested was to control group work when students came to the board to present. The teachers shared they never called only one student to come to present because volunteer students or group leaders were normally good at speaking. Therefore, the chance of speaking should be saved for other members by randomly calling one member or

even asking the whole group to present. At that time, the teacher would give marks for each student as well as observe the cooperation among members. Consequently, each member had to be aware of their own task and the minimum requirement for each of them. Another way which could be applied into both pair work and group work was to encourage students by giving bonus points to enthusiastic and active ones. Besides, the teachers also could affirm dynamic students would be given some gifts and quiet ones would receive some punishments.

To sum up, this part has found out the answers for each of research questions thanks to the analysis and discussion of the collected data. Regarding the common personality types of first-year mainstream students, extroverted ones make up the majority. Concerning the influences, although there are some surprising results which are on the contrary to the researcher's guess, each personality type has both positive and negative effects on students' performance. As for possible solutions, some advice about dividing pairs and groups as well as assigning tasks and roles for students was raised by the speaking teachers to solve the problem.

V. CONCLUSION

1. Major findings of the study

On the whole, the research paper studies the influences of personality on students' speaking performance. Thanks to the analysis and discussion of data collected from questionnaires, interviews and classroom observation, the answers to three research questions were revealed.

As for the first research question, the study confirmed that half of first-year mainstream students of FELTE, ULIS were unstable-extroverted, 34.6% of them were Extroverted-Stable, 11.5% were Introverted-Unstable students and only 3.8% were Introverted-Stable ones. Regarding characteristics of each personality type, unstable-introverted students are quite excited in their daily life with familiar people but not very active and a little bit shy. Moreover, they are also *moody, anxious* and *pessimistic* like the description of Eysenck in

1950. Belonging to the second personality type, stable-introverted students are similar to unstable-introverted ones in terms of their extraversion trend. However, unlike the students of the first type, they are *calm, even-tempered* and *controlled.* In the third type, stable-extroverted students show that they are *sociable, outgoing* and *talkative.* These students are also *carefree* and *easy-going* when they do not worry too much and are not nervous. Lastly, unstable-extroverted students described themselves as talkative and rather lively but not very active because they cannot let themselves go and enjoy themselves at a lively party. Moreover, their mood is changeable and they are moody but not nervous people.

Regarding the second research question, some influences of different personality types on students' performance in speaking lessons have been found out. Firstly, although unstable-introverted students felt safer when working in groups, they did not involve themselves as well as did not dominate their friends in those activities. Moreover, even though these students helped their friends overcome difficulties and respected others' ideas, they did not show leadership in speaking lessons.

Similar to unstable-introverted students, stable-introverted ones felt safer to work with friends instead of talking to the teacher but did not actively join in pair work and group work speaking activities; therefore, they did not dominate their friends when discussing. These students also did not play as a leader in discussions.

Unlike stable and unstable-introverted students, unstable-extroverted ones were quite involved in speaking activities and felt secure to work with friends. However, most of them did not dominate other friends in discussions. Also, although unstable-extroverted students helped their group members in group work and respected their ideas, they did not show effective leadership.

Belonging to the last personality type, stable-extroverted students were involved and excited in speaking lessons and tried to take advantage of chances to communicate in English. Besides, they did not usually dominate their friends in discussions and did not think it was safer to work with friends rather than the teachers. Moreover, although most of the

stable-extroverted students showed their respect to their friends' ideas, they did not play as the leader as well as help others in difficulties.

After the answers for the first and second research question were found out, some suggestions to reduce negative influences of personality types on students' performance in speaking lessons were proposed. First of all, regarding pair work, the speaking teachers recommended dividing explicit roles for each student. Secondly, the students' chance of speaking should be changed regularly. Moreover, the teachers had another way of adjusting students' performance in pair work. That was to assign tasks to each individual to make talkative students speak less and vice versa, quiet ones talk more.

As for group work, the first solution raised by the teachers was to divide different tasks for each member in one group. Next, the teachers needed to use other observing methods when dividing roles to help quiet students when necessary. Another way the teachers suggested was to control group work when students came to the board to present by randomly calling one member or the whole group to make the presentation. Another way which could be applied into both pair work and group work was to encourage students by giving bonus points to enthusiastic and active ones.

2. Limitations of the study

Despite the researcher's effort, the study still has some short-comings because of time limitation and other unexpected factors.

First of all, the number of first-year students participating in the data collection procedure was quite small in comparison with the whole number of students in Division 1. Therefore, the representativeness of them was rather low. Maybe because of this reason, the result for the first research question was quite surprising when the amount of extroverted students was much more than introverted ones.

Secondly, also because of time limitation, there were only two speaking teachers in Division 1 taking part in the interviews. Although the advice and suggestions they gave were really useful, they did not focus on each type of personality but only extraversion and introversion. The reason is that it is not easy for the teachers to understand each student's personality type in just fifteen-week teaching time. They could only realize the common trend of the whole class or some outstanding students.

3. Suggestions for further studies

Overall, different personality types have some certain influences on students' performance in speaking activities. Therefore, to have better teaching and learning results, it is necessary for the teachers to understand their students' personality traits. In fact, personality is a very big field in research. This paper only covered a small part of this field. Further studies can be conducted to find out personality influences on foreign language learning.

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APPENDIX 1: QUESTIONNAIRES, INTERVIEW SCHEDULES AND CLASSROOM OBSERVATION CHECKLIST

PART I

Please answer the following questions by putting an "X" in the box YES or NO.

	QUESTIONS	YES	NO
1	Are you a talkative person?		
2	Are you rather lively?		
3	Do you enjoy meeting new people?		
4	Can you usually let yourself go and enjoy yourself at a lively party?		
5	Do you usually take the initiative in making new friends?		
6	Do you rapidly get involved in social life at a new workplace?		
7	Do you like mixing with people?		
8	Do you like plenty of bustle and excitement around you?		
9	Do other people think of you as being very lively?		
10	Can you get a party going?		
11	Can you easily get some life into a rather dull party?		
12	Does your mood often go up and down?		
13	Do you ever feel 'just miserable' for no reason?		
14	Are your feelings easily hurt?		
15	Do you often feel 'fed-up'?		
16	Would you call yourself a nervous person?		
17	Are you a worrier?		
18	Do you worry too long after an embarrassing experience?		
19	Are you a short-tempered person?		
20	Do you often feel lonely?		
21	Are you often troubled about feelings of guilt?		
22	Do you suffer from 'nerves'?		

PART II

Please answer the following questions by putting an "X" in the box of the appropriate number:
1: Strongly Disagree   2: Disagree   3: Neutral   4: Agree   5: Strongly Agree

QUESTIONS	1	2	3	4	5
In pair work and group work activities in speaking lessons …..					
1 I am really involved and motivated					
2 I feel excited in these activities because I have chance to compete with my friends					
3 I feel more secure when working with friends instead of talking with the teacher					
4 I help other group members when they have difficulties					
5 I play as the group leader in my group to lead my friends to finish the task					
6 I respect others' ideas and listen to them whenever they raise voice					
7 I observe and listen to other's ideas before raising voice					
8 I keep silent when other group members are arguing					
9 I dominate other friends in my group					

Thank you very much for your help!

ẢNH HƯỞNG CỦA TÍNH CÁCH ĐẾN SỰ THỂ HIỆN CỦA SINH VIÊN TRONG HOẠT ĐỘNG NÓI

Trương Thị Phượng

Khoa Đào tạo và Bồi dưỡng Ngoại ngữ, Trường Đại học Ngoại ngữ, ĐHQGHN,
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Tóm tắt: Nghiên cứu điều tra những ảnh hưởng của tính cách đến sự thể hiện của sinh viên năm thứ nhất trong hoạt động nói, khoa Sư phạm tiếng Anh, trường Đại học Ngoại ngữ, Đại học Quốc gia Hà Nội. Nghiên cứu tập trung vào cả những ảnh hưởng của tính cách lên sinh viên trong các hoạt động của giờ học môn nói và những gợi ý của các giáo viên có kinh nghiệm để giải quyết vấn đề trên. Để đạt được hai mục đích đó, tác giả đã mời 52 sinh viên năm thứ nhất và 2 giảng viên khoa Sư phạm tiếng Anh tham gia nghiên cứu. Các công cụ nghiên cứu bao gồm: bản điều tra khảo sát, phỏng vấn và quan sát lớp học. Những dữ liệu thu thập được cho thấy rằng xu hướng tính cách chung của sinh viên là hướng ngoại – không ổn định. Ngoài ra, một số ảnh hưởng tích cực và tiêu cực của tính cách lên sự thể hiện của sinh viên cũng được phát hiện ra. Dựa vào những kết quả đó, một số gợi ý về cách chia nhóm, chia cặp và phân chia vai trong hoạt động môn nói được hai giáo viên gợi ý để hạn chế những ảnh hưởng tiêu cực và thúc đẩy những ảnh hưởng tích cực.

Từ khóa: hoạt động theo cặp, hoạt động nhóm, tính cách, môn nói

GENERIC STRUCTURE POTENTIAL
OF COURSE DESCRIPTION

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Abstract: Generic Structure Potential (GSP), which is a "range of textual structures available within a genre" (Hasan, 1984, p. 79) was developed based on the need for a "generic structure" of a text to gain a comprehensive understanding of a genre (Halliday, 1978). Despite various research into different types of academic and promotional genres, there has been little attention given to the course description. This research seeks to unveil the GSP of course description and identify differences between formal course descriptions and online ones, analyzed based on a fourteen-element analytical framework. The findings revealed four more elements apart from those available in the original analytical framework. Most importantly, the course description was discovered to play the role of both informing and promotional, yet the former role is dominant. Regarding the difference between conventional and online descriptions, online ones were found to possess a higher number of promotional elements but still focus on informing students and promoting the course at the same time. The sequence of these elements seems to resemble the purchase decision-making process of customers significantly. On the contrary, the traditional description puts major emphasis on the informative purpose and shows negligence to the promotional aspects.

Key words: GSP, course description, traditional courses, online courses

1. Introduction

In recent years, the adaptation of the free market model into school administration, which is known as the marketization of education (Kwong, 2000), seems to be on the rise. This trend occurs due to the reduced financial assistance from the government. As financial independence is being upheld in academic institutions, their original mission of human development and knowledge creation might be neglected and negotiated with profit-making through increasing the number of student intake and producing "marketable products" (Askehave, 2007; Mautner, 2005). This phenomenon can also be felt in the discursive practices with the realization of Fairclough (1995) when analysing university prospectus. These institutions appear to focus extensively on "selling" the course to potential students in an increasingly competitive market.

In this study, the researcher focuses on investigating the genre of course description, an academically produced product. Course description, without a doubt, is important as it serves as one of the main channels of introducing students to suitable courses. Numerous research stated that the choice of courses has a determining impact on students' subsequent studying and career commitment (Kuh et al., 2006; Bożykowski et al., 2014; Zajac & Komendant-Brodowska, 2018). The wrong course choice has been pinpointed as one of the main reasons behind school drop-out (Yorke, 1999; Gibson & Walters, 2002; Borzovs, Niedrite & Solodovnikova, 2016). In addition, the course content and structure is deemed as a decisive criterion for choosing an institution (Maringe, 2006; Bhardwa, 2018). Therefore, a high-quality course description can assist students in selecting the most suitable course and ensure students have a fulfilling studying period.

Despite the importance of course descriptions on students' choice of studying and future career, there has been little attention given to this type of genre. With a view to filling in this gap to a certain extent, this study aims at examining the GSP of English course descriptions, through analysing course descriptions from a formal academic institution and an online course provider. To

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achieve the two objectives, which are, first, revealing the generic patterns of course descriptions and second, highlighting the major differences between a traditional description and an online one, two research questions were proposed:

1. What is the generic structure potential of the course description?

2. How is the generic structure potential of the conventional university course description different from that of the online course description?

2. Literature review

2.1. Genre and genre analysis

Genre is commonly known as types of texts, and these types of texts have distinctive features because "they do different things" (Callaghan, Knapp & Noble, 1993, p. 7). Genre can be defined as a "staged, goal-oriented, purposeful activity in which speakers engage in as members of our culture" (Martin, 1984, p. 25).

The notion of genre can be viewed from two perspectives: from a linguistic viewpoint and based on its social and communicative purposes. From the former viewpoint, genre is defined as "a typified form of discourse or way of organizing or structuring discourse" (Chapman, 1994, p. 352) and a social strategy "embodied in the form of discourse" (Coe & Friedman, 1998, p. 41). A genre consists of a number of obligatory and optional structural elements (Hasan, as cited in Halliday

& Hasan, 1989). It is these compulsory elements that distinguish one type of genre from another thanks to their relation to the range of genre classification.

Apart from being defined as a type of discourse, a genre can also be viewed based on its communicative aims (Hasan, as cited in Halliday & Hasan, 1989). A more detailed working definition of genre was proposed by Swales (1990), in which genre is described as "a class of communicative events, the members of which share some set of communicative purposes" (p. 45). These communicative aims then determine the structure of the genre and the choice of content and style, which is similar to the definition proposed by Dudley-Evans (1994) that defining genre as "a means of achieving a communicative goal that has evolved in response to particular rhetorical needs". From a more social perspective, as aforementioned, genre is considered a "staged, goal-oriented, purposeful activity in which speakers engage in as members of our culture" (Martin, 1984, p. 25). In this definition, a genre is "staged" as it is comprised of several organization structures, "goal-oriented" because it has specific goals and "social" because of its presence as a communication medium of community members (Martin, Christie & Rothery, 1987). The association of different social processes with the types of genre can be summarized in the figure below by Knapp and Watkins (1994, p. 26).

Figure 1

Classification of Genres (Knapp & Watkins, 1994, p. 26)
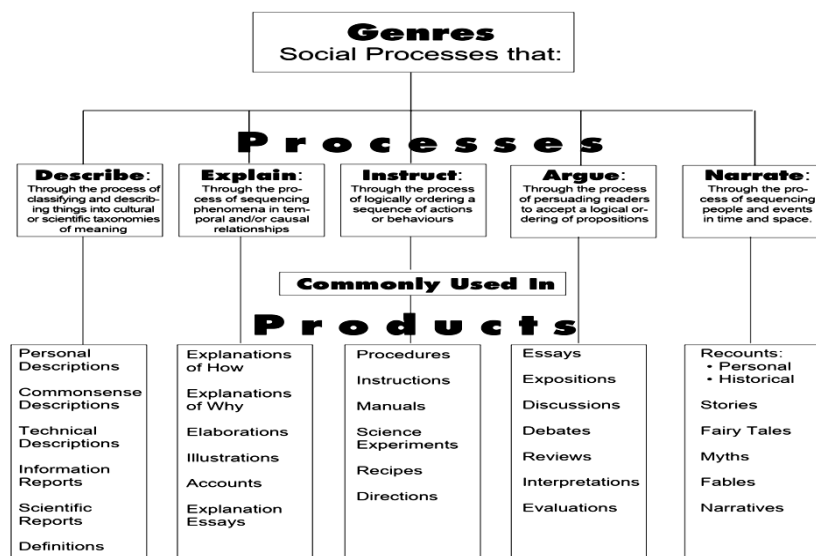
Genre analysis is commonly deemed as a "situated linguistic behaviour" (Bhatia, 2002, p. 4). Three of the most commonly used approaches for analysing genre are the New Rhetoric, English for Specific Purposes (ESP), and the Systemic Functional Linguistics (SFL) approaches (Bawarshi & Reiff, 2010; Hyland, 2002; Hyon, 1996).

These three approaches share the same notion of the link between linguistic actions and their function and social context. However, it is the focus of each approach that distinguishes them. While the New Rhetoric approach places focus on the social actions surrounding the genre, the emphasis of ESP research is the discourse structure. On the other hand, the SFL approach attempts to reveal the grammatical characteristics and discourse structure of a genre and how they are related to their social functions (Yunick, 1997). Another significant difference between the SFL and the ESP approach is the selection of analytical data. While the so-called "pre-genre" is the concentration of SFL scholars such as explanations and reports (Johns, 2012), typical genres of ESP research are the community-linked ones such as literature review, research articles, job applications. This different choice of focus explains the micro-level analysis of the ESP approach compared to the macro-level analysis of the SFL approach (Bawarshi & Reiff, 2010).

Among these three approaches, two models emerged as essential to analysing genre, namely the Move Structure of the ESP approach and the Generic Structure Potential of the SFL approach. In the former model, the functional goals of the text elements define the "moves" in the text, and then each "move" is then further divided into "steps". Therefore, a genre will be comprised of a fixed sequence of moves. On the other hand, the Generic Structure Potential (GSP) model was proposed in Hasan and Halliday (1989) with a view to investigating the fundamental and elective structural elements of a specific type of text, then formulate a detailed description of the text genre.

2.2. Generic Structure Potential

In 1978, in an attempt to investigate the nature and functions of genre, in his work, Halliday argued that "in order to give a complete characterisation of texture, we should also have to make reference to 'generic structure', the form that a text has as a property of its genre" (p. 61). Following this argument,

Hasan (1984, p. 79) defined genre as a "range of textual structures available within a range". In 1989, Hasan (as cited in Halliday & Hasan 1989) gave a more systematic description of generic analysis, known as the generic structure potential, a fundamental concept of the SFL approach.

GSP was developed based on the notion of Contextual Configuration, the values of the variables, namely the field, the mode and the tenor that "permits statements about the text structures" (Halliday & Hasan, 1989). A Contextual Configuration can provide predictions about the following elements of a text structure:

(1) Obligatory elements - What elements must occur?

(2) Optional elements - What elements may occur?

(3) Sequencing of elements - What arrangement of elements is obligatory and optional?

(4) Iteration - How often may the elements occur?

As shown above, GSP consists of obligatory, optional and iterative elements that together form a fixed sequence. Obligatory elements can be deemed as the main components of a genre and distinguish one genre for the others. Optional elements, on the other hand, only appear in certain cases and are predictable. Lastly, iterative elements are used to signify the repetitive occurrence of any element (Hasan, 1979).

Following is the result of a study by Halliday and Hasan (1989) to analyse the GSP of shop transaction.

Figure 2

GSP of Shop Transaction (Halliday & Hasan, 1989, p. 64)

$$\curvearrowright \qquad \curvearrowright$$
$$[(G) \bullet (SI)^\wedge] \ [(SE \bullet) \ \{SR^\wedge SC^\wedge\} \ ^\wedge S^\wedge] \ \mathbf{P^\wedge PC}(^\wedge F)$$

The pattern above shows the nine elements in any shop transaction namely Greeting (G), Sale Initiation (SI), Sale Enquiry (SE), Sale Request (SR), Sale Compliance (SC), Sale (S), Purchase (P), Purchase Closure (PC) and Finis (F).

- Among these elements, SR, SC, S, P and PC are obligatory ones and appear in every conversation.

- The remaining elements, namely G, SI, SE, F are optional. They can only be found in some conversations.
- Elements SE, SR and SC are iterative and can be repeated in some cases.
- Some elements such as G and SI can switch places into (G)^(SI) or (SI)^(G).
- Some elements have already maintained a fixed sequence. For example, F will always occur at the end of the conversation.

Besides the investigation into shop transaction GSP by Halliday and Hasan (1989), the GSP model has been utilized to develop the discourse structure of several types of genre, both informative and promotional. Paltridge (1993) attempted to construct the GSP of research introduction. He established an eight-element framework, among which only two elements, namely "the previous research" and "purpose of study" were found to be obligatory to a research introduction. Osat (2012) focused his study on the genre of entrepreneurship article. It was found that the two obligatory elements in this particular type of genre also correspond with Paltridge's (1993) findings. However, the major difference was the gap in the number of optional elements, eleven elements compared to the recorded six elements in Paltridge (1993). In this study, the categorization of elements into obligatory and optional elements are employed as the status-based framework to analyze the elements of course descriptions.

2.3. Course description as a type of genre

A course description is commonly known as a descriptive passage at the beginning of any course introduction. It is mainly used to introduce the major course content and other essential information. A course description, originally, can fall into the *academic* introduction genre as it provides important information about the course, such as the focus, activities and assignments to prospective students. This aim of the course description, in this way, is similar to the communicative goal of an academic introduction, namely introducing any academically written or spoken event (Bhatia, 1997) such as the introduction of research article introduction (Swales, 1990).

A course description might also belong to the *promotional* genre because it can be used to attract prospective students. This goal can be recognized through the inclusion of students' reviews and positive comments on the course. In some cases, the appearance of promotional elements can be so overwhelming that it can override the original communicative goal, which is predicted by Swales (1990) when examining the research article introduction.

In short, a course description reserves two main communicative goals: informing and promotional.

No research on GSP of course description has been conducted so far. However, studies of the generic features of university-related texts could be found, including a study of the generic features of "Why choose us?" text in university websites conducted by Yang (2013) and an analysis of the promotional genre in the academic setting was also found in the study into university brochures by Osman (2008). Compared to the framework by Yang (2013), the framework designed by Osman (2008) contained ten moves, with moves fulfilling similar functions of evoking response from readers but with different names like "soliciting response from the audience" (Osman, 2008) and "end with suggestions" (Yang, 2013). Further study is the generic analysis of international students' prospectus by Askehave (2007). Based on the findings, it can be concluded that the obligatory "move repertoire" in all the surveyed universities contain the following moves: identification of sender, description of university, description of courses/degrees, description of destination, providing practical information – fast facts and providing contact information. The GSP analysis of course description is not found in any previous research, but the findings of the studies reviewed above provide an overview of the potential functions that different elements of any academic and promotional university texts may probably fulfill. The analytical framework of course description elements based on their functions in the texts could be constructed based on these studies.

3. The study

3.1. The corpus

The corpora of this study comprise a total of forty course descriptions, with twenty descriptions from faculty Y of university X, namely the university corpus, and twenty

descriptions from a privately run online course provider named A, namely the online corpus. The main criteria for choosing these two sources are their reputation. University X is one of the highly ranked education institutions nation-wide, while platform A has been in the online course provider ranking table for years. Regarding the selection of data, the course descriptions from website A were chosen based on their degree of representativeness, which refers to the similarity of course content and field of study between the two sources.

3.2. Analytical framework

The function-based analytical framework

for categorizing elements of course description in this study is a combination of elements found in the following corpora: the "Why choose us?" section in university websites (Yang, 2013), international students' prospectus (Askehave, 2007), university brochures (Osman, 2008), research article introduction (Paltridge, 1993), and introduction in entrepreneurship research articles (Osat, 2012). An element named "Others" was also added to represent the unavailable elements in the proposed framework. (Please refer to Appendix 2 for a specific example of each element)

Table 1

Proposed Elements of the Course Description

No.	Elements	Description	Short forms
1	Welcoming remark	Refers to the welcoming message from the course instructor	W
2	Background information	Introduces some general knowledge about the course content	BI
3	Topic centrality	Emphasizes the importance of the taught content	T
4	Indicating a gap	Points out the lack of the taught content in the standard educational curriculum	IG
5	Claim	Refers to the writer's evaluation of the presented situation or fact	CA
6	Establishing credentials	Focuses on the course instructor's qualifications (e.g, working experience, successful students, awards, etc.)	EC
7	Ensuring teaching quality	Describes the teacher-responsibility-related elements that will contribute to a motivating learning environment	EQ
8	Indicating the value of the service	Refers to the entry requirements, fees and duration of the course	I
9	Endorsing the value of the service	Refers to statements describing the course objectives	E
10	Describing the service	Refers to statements about the course content and the teaching and learning methods	D
11	Offering attractive incentives	Describes the financial support or reward-related elements which motivate students to apply	OI
12	Soliciting responses	Ends the description with invitations for enrolment or further questions about the course	S
13	Closing remark	Refers to the last few words from the course descriptor to end the description	C
14	Others	Elements that are not addressed above	O

As regards the status-based categorization of elements into obligatory and optional elements, Hasan (1984) states that obligatory elements are those that must occur, not those that occur in all texts of the genre. The modal verb "must" indicates a very high chance of elements occurring in texts, not a 100% absolute occurrence of the element. Therefore, in authentic texts analysis, a certain range of variation in analysis should be allowed to avoid any extreme overgeneralization about all texts in the genre. Such a variation range was needed

for any uncertainty about the absence or presence of the elements in every single text since no corpora can ever cover all texts possible in the genre. When exploring the corpora with a huge number of texts, the variation range in the analysis could become very small, even asymptotic to zero.

To be more specific, in the corpora of this study, sometimes, if the course description writers and audience share the same contexts (e.g., teachers and students in the same faculty, the same university, etc.), element ellipsis

might happen. That is, due to the shared assumption among people in those contexts that those elements could be already well known, the presence of those elements might be redundant. Accordingly, that some elements are missing does not mean that they have no function at all in the course description. In the same way, for some specific reasons in certain contexts, some very informal elements might be attached to the course description – an academic genre as discussed in 2.3. The attachment of these elements to the course description may mean that, besides the major aim of describing the course, the teacher wants to additionally communicate some very personal message to his/her students, which is not a typical feature of such an academic genre as course description (or in other words, the convention is that those elements should not be where they are seen in the present academic text). To ensure the representativeness of the data in this academic genre, the informal elements with very low occurrence (say less than 2%, 5%, or 10%) were not further processed.

The analytical framework for labeling obligatory and optional elements is summarized in Table 2.

Table 2

The Status of the Elements

Occurrence in the corpora	Status of elements
≥ 90% of texts	obligatory
<90%, ≥ 10% of texts	optional
<10% of texts	N/A

3.3. Data analysing procedure

The analysing procedure is comprised of four main steps.

Firstly, each course description in both the university corpus and the online corpus was numbered, and elements were functionally classified based on the proposed fourteen-element framework in Table 1. To ensure the reliability of the analysis, two coders worked independently in the coding process, resulting in two independent lists of coded elements. The two element-coding lists were then compared; and in any case of differences in the coding results, the coders discussed carefully how the elements should be categorized and labelled. The coding process results went through the supervision of an experienced functional

linguist whose expertise was genre analysis before the final results were confirmed.

Secondly, the status of each element (obligatory or optional) was categorized according to their occurrence, based on the analytical framework in Table 2. As the number of course descriptions in the corpora collected for this study was quite small (only 40 for two corpora), a ten-percent variation range in element categorization was allowed in order to avoid any extreme overgeneralization about the status of the elements in course description in general. That is, an element was deemed obligatory when it was identified in at least 90% of the total corpus, while elements with at least 10% occurrence frequency in all the texts were declared optional. Elements with the occurrence of less than 10% were not further analyzed and labelled. Any elements that were repeated in the text and at different sections is regarded as reiterative. The generic patterns of the corpus were reached. These data were the answer to the first research question.

Thirdly, the results from the second steps were gathered to identify the differences in the element occurrences between the two groups of data: conventional course description and online course description.

Finally, the status of the elements and their sequencing in relation to other elements were declared. The GSP of course descriptions in each corpus, conventional course description in the university corpus and online course description in the online corpus, was constructed. The second research question was now answered.

4. Findings and Discussion

4.1. General findings

The preliminary analysis identified four new more elements, namely: (Please refer to Appendix 2 for a specific example of each element)

- Social expectation (SE) which describes the course expectation to certain groups of students
- Selling point (SP) which refers to promises of exceptional outcome from the description writer
- Demonstrating understanding (DU) which describes the expected audience's reaction to the taught content

- Addressing needs (A) which outlines specific types of students with different needs

Another noticeable finding is the presence of several elements in a single sentence. The sentence below, which is packed with four elements, is an example.

"You are about to learn *powerful, expert-level* (**Element 7** – Ensuring teaching quality) skills (**Element 10** – Describing the service) to understand and speak about most problems of international politics (**Element 9** – Endorsing the value of the service) like a confident expert even without prior university education in Politics or International Relations. (**Element 14** – Selling point)" – International Politics Mastery: Level of Analysis.

Generally speaking, the number of elements in the corpus is diverse. The average number of elements present in the corpus is 13.82. Regarding the difference between the online and traditional descriptions, the average number of the former (10.7) is more than three times higher than that of the latter (3.2). The number of obligatory (3) and optional elements (12) of the online descriptions also outnumbers the traditional descriptions, 1 and 9, respectively. This noticeable gap suggests that the online description writers tend to include more information types than the traditional ones.

In general, the potential elements of the course descriptions can be summarized as below.

- The sole obligatory element of the course description is the "Describing the service", which presents the major course content. Due to its utmost importance, it usually takes up to a few paragraphs and can appear at several locations in the descriptions. In descriptions with a modest number of elements, it is likely to appear at the beginning of the description, usually after the optional element "Background

information". In addition, this element itself can serve as a full course description. However, in descriptions rich in information and elements, this element is mentioned in several sections and in company with two other elements, namely "Endorsing the value of the service" and "Ensuring the teaching quality".

- The optional elements in the course descriptions are quite diverse and cover different types of information. Some elements that record high frequency rate and have proved their importance are the "Background information", "Ensuring teaching quality" and "Endorsing the value of the service". While the first element is commonly found at the beginning of the introduction, the second and third element mostly accompany the element "Describing the service" and might even serve as a section within this element. Another element that is recognizable in the corpus is the "Topic centrality" which often appears in the sentences following the "Background information".

- An element can only be declared reiterative should the content be repeated in another paragraph or section of the text. In the corpus, the two most commonly found reiterative elements are the "Describing the service" and "Endorsing the value of the service" accounting for one fourth of the number of texts. The low rate of reiteration suggests that repetition might not be one of the course description writer's approaches to deliver their message.

4.2. Findings about the traditional course descriptions

The frequency rate of each element in the descriptions from faculty Y will be illustrated in the chart below.

Chart 1

Frequency of Elements in Course Descriptions From Faculty Y, University X
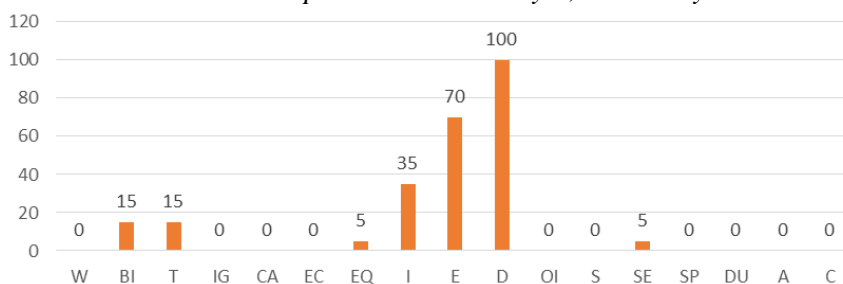
According to the chart, only seven out of a total of seventeen elements are present in the descriptions of faculty Y. This disparity suggests that these descriptions place emphasis on specific aspects such as the content of the course and the course outcome for a certain group of readers instead of including diverse types of information for a wide range of audience.

The seven elements available in the course descriptions are "Background information", "Topic centrality", "Ensuring teaching quality", "Indicating the value of the service", "Endorsing the value of the service", "Describing the service" and "Social expectation". Since the two elements with the highest frequency rate aim at introducing the course content and the course objectives, it can be concluded that the traditional course descriptions lean more toward the informing purpose rather than the promotional side.

The single obligatory element in this description is "Describing the service". This element summarizes the most essential parts of the course and is often written in a detailed and concise manner. It can be regarded as the key determining factor of the course description. In the traditional course descriptions, this element holds flexible positions and can be positioned in almost every section of the description. Furthermore, it can serve as a course description on its own.

There are four optional elements in a traditional course description, namely "Background information", "Topic centrality", "Indicating the value of the service" and "Endorsing the value of the service". The other two elements cannot obtain this status due to their limited appearance in the corpus. Out of the four optional elements, element "Endorsing the value of the service" was recorded in the highest number of texts and commonly

accompanies the obligatory element. It describes the outcome after the course and gives readers a potential sense of achievement. Element "Background information", which provides some side information about the course or the course content, also holds the same frequency rate, yet its location varies in different locations. Element "Indicating the value of the service", on the other hand, describes the entry requirements of the course. These requirements are in diverse formats, ranging from students' interest "… for those interested in country-studies, especially English Study" (Literature and Communication), to students' major "It is designed for ELT and English linguistics students" (Introduction to Linguistics 1), and students' capability "There is no prerequisite other than a good command of English" (Semantics).

Reiteration can only be found in two elements in the traditional descriptions, which are "Describing the service" (D) and "Endorsing the value of the service" (E). This repetition rate indicates the preference of the description writers to emphasize the course content and course objectives. However, the writer's approach to each element differs. For element D, the course content can be separated into different parts, and then each part is placed at different sections of the description. Nevertheless, for element E, a summary of the course objectives is presented first, and then specific objectives in terms of skills, knowledge or attitude are then introduced.

4.3. Findings about the online course descriptions

The frequency rate of elements from the online course description is displayed in the following chart.

Chart 2

Frequency of Elements in Course Descriptions From Platform A
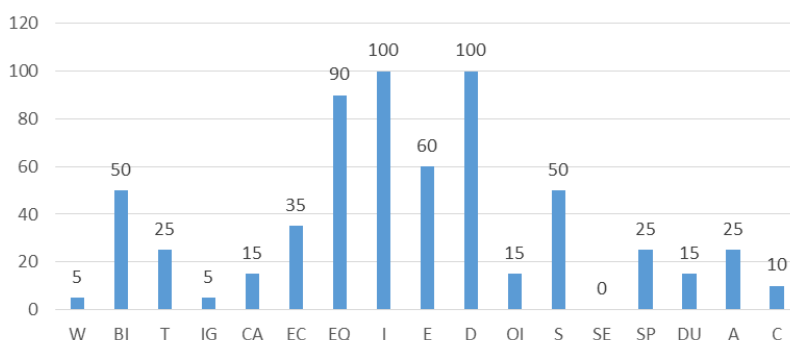
In general, the course descriptions from platform A have extensive coverage of information, with sixteen elements available out of the total seventeen. Therefore, it seems that these descriptions are obliged to convey a significantly wide range of purposes. Among these seventeen elements, only four elements including "Background information", "Indicating the value of the service", "Describing the service" and "Endorsing the value of the service" focus on informing the readers of the directly course-related information, which indicates the predominance of promotional elements in the online course descriptions.

Elements in online descriptions also hold diverse frequency rates, with the elements "Indicating the value of the service" and "Describing the service" occupying a 100% frequency of occurrence. On the other hand, the lowest frequency rate, from 5% to 10%, can be found in the "Welcoming", "Closing" and "Indicating a gap" elements. The modest appearance of "Welcoming" and "Closing" suggests that the paragraph format is preferred by description writers rather than the letter or conversation format. Besides, the rare occurrence of "Indicating a gap", which refers to the absence of the course content from the formal curriculum, displays the writer's refraining from emphasizing the uniqueness of the course for fear of overgeneralization. It is also noticeable that the element "Social expectation" is absent from the corpus, which can be interpreted that an online course should be taken as a personal experience instead of a forceful journey.

The three obligatory elements present in the descriptions are "Describing the service", "Indicating the value of the service" and "Ensuring teaching quality". Among these three elements, the element "Ensuring teaching quality" plays the role of promoting the course, when the writers make an attempt to uphold the high quality of the course with facts, evidence and promises. On the other end of the spectrum, the informative purpose is displayed through the other two elements "Describing the service" and "Indicating the value of the service". An interesting feature of these two elements is the diversity in presentation. Instead of the common form of paragraphs, bullet points are also widely used for a clearer introduction of

the course content and requirements for prospective students.

Regarding optional elements, ten out of the remaining thirteen elements obtain this status. This wide range of optional elements indicates a high degree of personalization entrusted with writers. Among the recorded ten elements, "Endorsing the value of the service", "Background information" and "Soliciting responses" account for the highest frequency rate of between 50% and 60% of the total corpus. While the first two elements provide readers with information about entry requirements and some facts surrounding the topics, the last element is mostly used to maintain a connection between the writer and the reader.

Reiteration is frequently used in online course descriptions, with half of the recorded elements being reiterative as follows: "Establishing credentials", "Selling point", "Background information", "Ensuring teaching quality", "Endorsing the value of the service", "Describing the service", "Soliciting responses" and "Indicating the value of the service". The prevalence of repeating different elements with different goals signifies the important cyclicity of both communicative purposes: informative (essential information about the course) and promotional (promising the course quality, the course instructor and encouraging learners to register).

5. Answers to the research question

5.1. What is the generic structure potential of the course description?

The generic structure potential of forty course descriptions from faculty Y of University and online platform A is described below.

Figure 3

GSP of Course Description

$$\curvearrowright \qquad \curvearrowright \qquad\qquad \curvearrowright \quad \curvearrowright \curvearrowright$$
$$\{(BI\bullet)\ (EC\bullet)\ (SP\bullet)\}\ (T\bullet)\ (E\bullet)\ (A\bullet)\ (S)\ (EQ\bullet)\ (I\bullet)\ \mathbf{D\bullet}$$

The round brackets indicate the optionality of elements, which means that the following elements are optional: BI, EC, SP, T, E, A, S, EQ and I. The lack of accompaniment of round

brackets indicates the obligatory status of element D. The dot next to an element shows that this element is typically expressed in a number of sentences instead of solely a single clause or sentence. This means that all elements, except element S are in the form of paragraphs. The curved arrow ∩ symbolizes repetition, which shows that elements E, EQ, D and I may appear for more than once in the text. The modest number of available elements and the negligence of promotional aspect also indicates many times and at different locations throughout a description. On the other hand, the curved arrow accompanied by braces ∩} shows the equal quality of repetition, which means if BI occurs twice, so does EC and SP.

The inclusion of a total of ten elements in the generic structure shows a diverse amount of information, namely "Describing the service", "Background information", "Topic centrality", "Endorsing the value of the service". Among these elements, solely "Describing the service" emerges as being obligatory to the course description. Its status corresponds with the findings from research into university brochures (Osman, 2008) and international students' prospectus (Askehave, 2007), when it also appeared in every text of the corpus. Therefore, it can be concluded a brief description of the service is of utmost important to the academic-promotional genre.

Elements with promotional values such as "Establishing credentials", "Selling point", "Ensuring teaching quality", "Soliciting responses", and "Addressing needs" are also utilized extensively. Each of these elements is employed as a different approach for promoting the course. While "Ensuring teaching quality" and "Selling point" focus on ensuring the high quality of the course content and activities, "Establishing credentials" places emphasis on the instructors' qualifications and professional experience. The "Addressing needs" and "Soliciting responses", on the other hand, point towards the available demand from students and develop a conversation between learners and description writers. Among these five elements, "Ensuring teaching quality" and "Selling point" are most commonly used. While the element "Selling point" is a novel element compared to the previous research, the "Ensuring teaching quality" element has been found when analysing the "Why choose us?" section in university websites (Yang, 2013).

Commonly, this element is employed to introduce and guarantee the high teaching and learning quality of course providers and academic institutions, thus convincing students to enroll in the course.

Based on the above findings, it can be concluded that a course description mostly consists of information about the course content and targeted learners, proving its primary function as informative. The promotional goal is achieved through a range of communicative media, yet it does not serve as the main goal of the course description.

5.2. How are the generic structure potential of the conventional university course descriptions different from that of the online course descriptions?

The generic structure potential of the course description from faculty Y of University X is displayed below.

Figure 4

GSP of Traditional Course Description

$$\overset{\curvearrowright}{} \qquad\qquad \overset{\curvearrowright}{}$$

$$(BI\bullet)\ \{D\bullet \bullet [(T\bullet) \bullet (I)]\} \bullet (E\bullet)$$
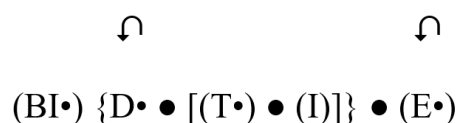
The pattern shows a total of five elements, including one obligatory element and four optional elements. It can be seen that informative elements dominate this generic structure, signaling the primary informative goal of the traditional course description. The modest number of available elements and the negligence of the promotional aspect also indicate the content-oriented and concise nature of the traditional course description, which corresponds with the course description writing guidelines from some universities and colleges (Stanford University, n.d..; Mohawk College, n.d.).

Solely, the element "Describing the service" is compulsory to achieve the communicative goal. A noticeable pattern is the flexible positions of each element with limited constraints. Therefore, it can be concluded that the informative goal is achieved to a certain extent. The absence of promotional elements can be detected in traditional course descriptions, which corresponds with the recorded negligence of Asian publicly-owned educational institutions to using promotional

literature in their products, especially in the globalizing Higher Education market (Mok, 2003; Osman, 2006; Teo, 2007).

Figure 5

GSP of Online Course Description

�

(DU•) (OI•) {(EC•) (SP•) (BI•)} (T•) (E•) (CA•) (A) (S) **EQ• D• I•**
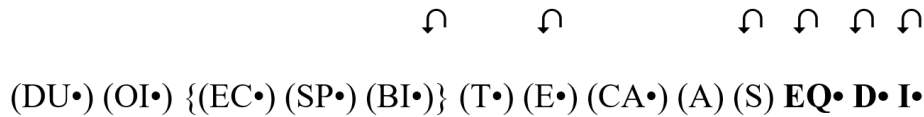
The generic pattern shows that the online course description contains thirteen generic elements with three obligatory elements and ten optional ones. The dominance of promotional elements indicates a novel approach that description writers can take to attract more students to their courses. However, the seemingly balance between promotional and informative elements in the obligatory elements recorded suggests the mixed goal of online descriptions: introducing the course while encouraging students' enrollment at the same time.

Apparently, the number of incorporated elements in the online course description outnumbers that in the online course description. The wide range of available elements indicates the diverse set of information that an online description is obliged to convey. In addition, compared to the sole presence of one obligatory element in the formal course description, the availability of three obligatory elements namely "Ensuring teaching quality" (a promotional element), "Describing the service" and "Indicating the value of the service" (two informative elements) proves the importance of combining the informative and promotional goal. The demand for dual communicative purposes is reasonable since the branding process is crucial for online course instructors. On the contrary, this

Displayed below is the generic structure potential of the course description from platform A.

process, which describes the demand for marketing and promoting oneself, is not prevalent in public institutions as their reputation has already been earned through history (Wernick, 1991).

Another notable pattern of these descriptions is the number of elements reflecting the description writer's emotions and perspectives such as "Demonstrating understanding", "Establishing credentials", "Claims" and "Addressing needs". The presence of elements carrying personal thoughts shows that the writer is given an extensive range of freedom and creativity to express themselves and establish a reciprocal communication between writers and readers. However, it should be noted that among these elements, the element "Claims", which seemingly shows the writers' ideas most directly, is usually accompanied by sentences with factual information. This sequence is also found in the research into entrepreneurial research articles (Osat, 2012) when element "Claims" only occurred after all the previous studies, the supporting and opposing viewpoints have been reviewed.

The most interesting finding is that the available elements in the online course introduction seemingly correspond with the customers' purchase decision-making process by Armstrong and Kotler in 2018.

Figure 6

Buyer-Readiness Stages (Armstrong & Kotler, 2018, p. 432)

The process begins with "Awareness" when customers acknowledge the presence of the course and identify their needs (with element "Indicating the value of the service"), followed

by "Knowledge" when they gain essential information about the course thanks to informative elements such as "Background information", "Describing the service". Next, in

the "Liking" stage, customers gain insights into the background of the topic and the course content, thus develop interest in the course with "Topic centrality" and "Endorsing the value of the course". The "Preference" and "Conviction" stages are where promotional elements exert their dominance when they provide potential learners with promises of teaching quality, credibility of the course instructors ("Ensuring teaching quality", "Establishing credentials") and recognition of feelings, needs and demands ("Demonstrating understanding", "Addressing needs"). Customers are compelled to register for the course when they are ensured consistently of their suitability for the course ("Indicating the value of the service") and have taken under consideration the unique points of the course compared to others ("Selling point", "Offering incentives"). Generally speaking, this decision-making process of course purchasers bears close resemblance to the steps one tends to take before buying any product.

In conclusion, the distinguishing elements between the formal and online descriptions are as follows.

Firstly, the number of emerging elements in online descriptions outweighs that in formal descriptions (thirteen compared to five). This statistical discrepancy indicates the gap between these two groups in terms of the amount of information to be covered.

Secondly, the major content and communicative purposes of these two groups of descriptions are different. While the formal description focuses on the informative goal, the online course descriptions have dual communicative aims: informative and promotional, thus cover a larger amount of information. All the available elements play their role in the customers' decision-making process and lure them to their purchasing decision.

6. Conclusion

The study investigated the generic structure potential of course descriptions and examined the differences between the formal and online course descriptions. From the analysis, it can be concluded that a typical generic structure of a course description consists of ten elements with one obligatory element, namely "Describing the service". Its original informative purpose, which is to provide readers with the major

course content and activity, maintains its dominance. The supplementary promotional goal is also added but with restraints. Regarding the difference between formal and online course descriptions, it mainly lies in the amount of information conveyed and their communicative goals. While the former has only five elements to focus on providing the audience with the course content and objectives; the latter includes up to thirteen elements to achieve its dual communicative goals of informing the audience and promoting the course at the same time.

With this study, the researchers hope to provide a source of reference for description writers to elevate the quality of course descriptions and ensure the degree of readability, specifically in the 21st century, when course description serves as a communicative channel for instructors and learners. The findings can also support students by providing them with a checklist of information to look for when registering for any course.

However, there exist some limitations due to time constraints and limited personnel. Firstly, the corpora are rather small, the modest number of 40 course descriptions in the text cannot persuasively guarantee the representativeness of the corpora. Accordingly an investigation into a larger and more diverse, such as cross-cultural corpora, in future research is likely to generate a more in-depth and comprehensive generic structure of course description. Secondly, the focus of the research is the macrostructure, leaving the microstructure features of course description mostly unexamined. Future research can consider looking into the microstructure or the lexical features of the course descriptions.

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APPENDIX 1: Source of online data

The online course provider platform, Udemy, was named A in this study.
Website: https://www.udemy.com/

APPENDIX 2: Examples of elements found in the corpus

No.	Elements	Description	Example	Short forms
1	Welcoming remark	Refers to the welcoming message from the course instructor	Hello and welcome to Military History of the Classical Greek World.	W
2	Background information	Introduces some general knowledge about the course content	Southeast Asia is a historical and cultural region, distinct from the two great cultures of the East –India and China.	BI
3	Topic centrality	Emphasizes the importance of the taught content	Understanding how to effectively communicate cross-culturally, is more important today than ever before!	T
4	Indicating a gap	Points out the lack of the taught content in the standard educational curriculum	And here is the truth most people don't know about: **"Knowing facts is NOT the same as having knowledge, understanding and ability".** What you mostly get by following the news are the simple facts of what happens, when, and who is involved.	IG
5	Claim	Refers to the writer's evaluation of the presented situation or fact	Most likely, they have training and practice.	CA
6	Establishing credentials	Focuses on the course instructor's qualifications (e.g, working experience, successful students, awards, etc.)	**ABOUT THE INSTRUCTOR** Shani Raja is a veteran journalist who has edited for The Wall Street Journal and contributed to The Economist, the Financial Times, and Bloomberg News, among other top news organisations. He has trained dozens of prominent journalists in the craft of writing, including at The Wall Street Journal. Shani's flagship course, **Writing With Flair**, has long been the bestselling writing course on Udemy, with many tens of thousands of passionate students learning how to become elite writers.	EC
7	Ensuring teaching quality	Describes the teacher-responsibility-related elements that will contribute to a motivating learning environment	I designed this course as a series of clear, non-jargon laden video lectures and texts	EQ
8	Indicating the value of the service	Refers to the entry requirements, fees and duration of the course	There is no prerequisite other than a good command of English.	I

9	Endorsing the value of the service	Refers to statements describing the course objectives	This course is designed to help students to develop an understanding of the fundamentals of English pragmatics and understanding of the fundamentals of English pragmatics and skills in pragmatic analysis.	E
10	Describing the service	Refers to statements about the course content and the teaching and learning methods	The course will systematically introduce students to some key concepts in the domains of pragmatics, discourse analysis, language acquisition, sociolinguistics, etc. and help them achieve an overview of the fundamental aspects of Applied Linguistics.	D
11	Offering attractive incentives	Describes the financial support or reward-related elements which motivate students to apply	You'll also get a **free ebook** to guide you in the course.	OI
12	Soliciting responses	Ends the description with invitations for enrolment or further questions about the course	I invite you to send me a message if you have any questions about the content of this course.	S
13	Closing remark	Refers to the last few words from the course descriptor to end the description	Thanks for having a look! -bl	C
14	Social expectation	Describes the course expectation to certain groups of students	Students of an honours program are entrusted with more flexibility and responsibility in course activities.	SE
15	Selling point	Refers to promises of exceptional outcome from the description writer	Your leadership abilities will expand dramatically …	SP
16	Demonstrating understanding	Describes the expected audience's reaction to the taught content	Do you need to write a literary analysis or participate in a book discussion, but you don't know where to start?	DU
17	Addressing needs	Outlines specific types of students with different needs	Even if you're not interested in demonstrating mastery…	A

TIỀM NĂNG CẤU TRÚC THỂ LOẠI
CỦA BẢN GIỚI THIỆU MÔN HỌC

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Tóm tắt: Tiềm năng cấu trúc thể loại (GSP) là "một chuỗi các cấu trúc văn bản (textual structures) có mặt trong một thể loại văn bản" (Hasan, 1984, tr. 79) và được xây dựng nhằm đáp ứng yêu cầu phải có "cấu trúc thể loại" của văn bản, từ đó có cái nhìn tổng quan về một thể loại (Halliday, 1978). Mặc dù đã có nhiều nghiên cứu về các thể loại văn bản học thuật và quảng cáo, chưa có nhiều nghiên cứu đề cập đến bản giới thiệu môn học. Nghiên cứu này tập trung vào xây dựng tiềm năng cấu trúc thể loại của bản giới thiệu môn học và tìm ra sự khác nhau giữa bản giới thiệu môn học truyền thống và bản giới thiệu môn học trực tuyến dựa trên một khung phân tích gồm 14 thành tố. Nghiên cứu tìm ra thêm 4 thành tố chưa xuất hiện khung phân tích gốc. Quan trọng hơn cả, nghiên cứu phát hiện thấy bản giới thiệu môn học tập trung vào mục tiêu chính là cung cấp thông tin cho người đọc, còn mục tiêu quảng cáo chỉ là phụ. Về sự khác biệt giữa hai hình thức, bản giới thiệu môn học trực tuyến chứa nhiều thành tố quảng cáo hơn, mặc dù vẫn tập trung vào cả hai mục tiêu. Ngược lại, bản giới thiệu môn học truyền thống tập trung vào mục tiêu cung cấp thông tin và gần như bỏ qua yếu tố quảng cáo.

Từ khóa: tiềm năng cấu trúc thể loại, giới thiệu môn học, khóa học truyền thống, khóa học trực tuyến

IMPLEMENTING INTEGRATED FORMAT
IN ASSESSING READING COMPREHENSION:
A CASE OF VIETNAMESE EFL LEARNERS

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Abstract: The present study evaluates the effect of test format on the performance of reading comprehension, which is the integrated format. Unlike the separation of text and test questions into two sections in the split format, the main modification of the integrated format is that the relevant text is integrated with test questions in each reading task. Through the comparison between learners' performance in the two test formats, this study tests the hypothesis that the overall test performance and task performance in the integrated format are higher than performance in the split format. Drawn on score data of 20 Vietnamese EFL learners, findings from the study showed no effect of test format on the overall test performance and marginally significant effect of test format on task performance. A further analysis on relevant aspects of test design is to be discussed.

Key words: cognitive load theory, split format, integrated format, reading comprehension

1. Introduction

The essence of comprehension is often observed in an indirect manner since the moment of comprehending a text takes place within a short time lapse (Pearson & Cervetti, 2017). In the notion of indirect observation, reading comprehension can be better assessed in the form of instruction as teachers can create teaching activities which can monitor comprehension or explicit teaching of reading skills and strategies (Palincsar & Brown, 1984; Afflerbach, Pearson & Paris, 2008). In the facilitation of reading skills and strategies, it was viewed reading comprehension itself is not a single entity involving reading ability but a combination of reader, text, and task factors (Kamhi & Catts, 2017) as well as the considerations of variables such as "content knowledge, motivation and interest, text organization, nature and content of the task, and characteristics of the setting in which reading occurs" (Lipson & Wixson, 1986; as cited in Kamhi & Catts, 2017, p. 1).

However, in the consideration of specific groups of learners, Carlson, Seipei, and McMaster (2014) indicated the necessity to analyze comprehension difficulties when

learners move up to new requirements in their learning levels and the attention to individual needs in the mastery of reading skill. It could be explained that the assessment of learner's performance in different reading conditions is more important than the control of variables in the measurement of comprehension abilities (Lipson & Wixson, 1986; Wixson, 2017). Furthermore, some other listed factors causing comprehension difficulties could be the type of necessary knowledge and the role of inference making (Pearson & Cervetti, 2017), the process of text decoding from bottom-up direction (Kintsch, 1998), and the process of meaning-making in the mental model (Carlson et al., 2014).

One particular aspect concerning the reduction of comprehension difficulties is the extent to which the format of instruction plays a role in allocating the necessary amount of cognitive loads given for the learning tasks (Chandler & Sweller, 1991). In particular, it is the extent to which instructions are likely to produce higher amount of intrinsic cognitive load (i.e. "the intrinsic nature of the learning task") and reduce the amount of extraneous cognitive load (i.e. "the manner in which the task is presented") while learners approach the learning materials (Van Merrienboer & Sweller, 2005, p. 150). The borderline between the intrinsic and extraneous cognitive load

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however possibly results in split-attention effect, the result of which is distraction when there are two separate sources of information presented in reading materials (Yeung, Jin & Sweller, 1997).

To reduce split-attention effect in reading materials, there should be an effective initiation for mental integration through referents. For instance, Sweller et al. (1998) reported a replacement for "a single, integrated source of information" instead of "multiple sources of information" (as cited in Van Merrienboer & Sweller, 2005, p. 150). In this replacement, the physical integration of isolated materials should be reformatted to reduce "the need to search for relevant referents and mentally integrate them" (Chandler & Sweller, 1991, p. 295) and to facilitate automation in learning-mediated intellectual performance after the acquisition of schemas (Sweller, 1994). Therefore, an attention to selecting appropriate elements for reading materials (Chandler & Sweller, 1991) can be also considered the key to enhance the intrinsic cognitive load for reading comprehension.

All things considered, the present study places theoretical concerns of minimizing comprehension difficulties by implementing the integrated format into the purpose of assessing reading comprehension. This study particularly examines whether the physical integration of appropriate text and comprehension questions can improve the overall test performance (i.e. the total score of test) and task performance (i.e. the score of the designed reading tasks) in reading comprehension. Furthermore, it also analyses relevant aspects of test design as contributors to the appearance of possible extraneous cognitive load.

2. Rationale of the present study

2.1. The original study

The present study replicates Huynh (2015)'s investigation on how to reduce extraneous cognitive load for reading assessment in classroom context. 21 Vietnamese EFL students were randomly allocated into split-attention and integrated

instruction formats in both the learning and testing phases.

In terms of research design, participants in Huynh (2015)'s study took part in the testing phase right after the learning phase. Choosing the same text "The early aborigines" as the reading material for the learning and testing phases, Huynh designed 10 questions for the learning phase and 12 questions for the testing phase. Concerning the design of the two test formats, it was noted that reading passage and the set of reading comprehension questions were physically separated as two sections in the split format of the reading questions. Meanwhile, smaller sets of reading comprehension questions are physically placed into relevant parts of the text in the integrated format. On the comparison of mean scores of assessment result in learning and testing phases, Huynh claimed the effectiveness of the integrated format in reducing extraneous cognitive load. In comparison with the split format, the integrated format proved its efficiency in reading performance in the learning phase and later on the testing phase.

Certain limitations were identified from the original study. The learning phase was immediately followed by the testing phase and even though there could be no significant interaction between the two phases, this condition could lead to cognitive effort in memorizing from the learning phase to answer the reading questions in a relatively short time span. Furthermore, the set of questions for reading comprehension in both the learning and testing phases required learners to provide written answers. The written form raised a concern of appropriate scoring due to a variety of responses and a lack of standard answers.

To remediate the above identified limitations, the research procedure in the present study would be modified as follows. Instead of administering learning and testing on the same day, the present study separated the two phases and designed more reading tasks for the test. The selection of various reading tasks possibly would reduce the flexibility of answers and thus enhance the standard of scoring.

2.2. Research questions

Following a similar research design in Huynh (2015)'s study, the present study evaluates the hypothesis whether the physical integration of relevant text with the reading questions in the integrated format could improve overall test performance (i.e. the total score of test) and task performance (i.e. the score of the designed reading tasks) in comparison with the separation between text and reading questions in the split format. For the purpose of hypothesis testing, two research questions for the present study are as follows:

RQ1: Is there a difference in the overall test performance between the integrated format and the split format?

RQ2: Is there a difference in task performance between the integrated format and the split format?

2.3. Data collection

This study employed the collection of secondary data from the homeroom teacher as the main provider of data. The main purpose was to reduce intrusive effects caused by the procedure of data collection. Furthermore, it would lead to a concern for conflict of interests if the researcher had direct contact with the participants.

The set of secondary data was collected from a group of 20 first-year English major students enrolling in an English reading course entitled Reading 1 at a local university in Ho Chi Minh City. Prior to the procedure of data collection, the participants enrolled in Reading 1 for six weeks of the first semester in 2015. In terms of reading ability, they should have mastered adequate training for reading skills and strategies for reading comprehension in order to complete all the procedures of data collection.

Discussion with the homeroom teacher was conducted to ensure that the designed instruments were appropriate to be used in the classroom or to be revised if necessary. A letter of consent was also sent to the homeroom teacher to seek for the agreement as the data provider and to indicate necessary actions for maintaining the code of research ethics.

2.4. Research instrument

An online free-access article entitled "Robin Hood: Fact or Fiction" from Linguapress publisher was chosen as the reading material for this study. This article was indicated for intermediate student-level and the text length was about 530 words. The present study incorporated IELTS reading test format into the design of reading tasks in the 20-minute reading mini-test at the classroom. Table 1 describes the task design of the test.

In terms of format, there were two versions to be used in the present study: the split format (test form A) and the integrated format (test form B). All three reading tasks were inserted after the reading text in the split format while relevant reading questions were physically integrated into relevant paragraphs of the reading text in the integrated format. For the purpose of scoring, each correct answer received 1 mark and 0 for each incorrect answer and the maximum score for each test version was 12.

2.5. Data analysis

The following steps were proposed to answer the two research questions. First, an Excel file was prepared to record the following information: name, student ID, diagnostic test result, test format (split-A or integrated-B), overall performance score (i.e. the total score out of 12), individual task performance (i.e. the score of task 1, task 2, and task 3-see Table 1), and records of wrong answers in each task. Second, the quantitative analysis for comparing the two test formats was conducted using one-way ANOVA Welch test because this test is appropriate for small sample size (less than 30). Finally, the discussion of overall performance and task performance was conducted on the basis of (1) calculation for the dependability of test items, (2) analysis of wrong answers, and (3) the writing of test items.

Table 1

Criterion-Referenced Design of the Classroom Reading Mini-Test

Task	Test items	Theoretical grounds	Description
1	Multiple choice questions (MCQs)	*MCQs* are common in the assessment for group settings and easy to administer with one correct choice and alternative distracters (Carlson et al., 2014). While answering MCQs, the retrieval of relevant information from the text is the major cognitive activity involved in the determination of the correct choice (Ferrer et al., 2017).	This task involves the selection of the correct answer among four choices (A, B, C, or D).
2	Validating (True-False-Not Given)	*Validating questions* are grounded on validation in text comprehension. Validation refers to a mechanism where readers are involved in the main cognitive activity of judging the plausibility of the given information (Richter, 2015) and balancing the controversies from inconsistent information in the mental representation (Richter & Maier, 2017).	This task involves the main activity of validating the accuracy of the given statements. The value True is applicable if the statement agrees with the information and False if the statement contradicts the information. Meanwhile, the value Not Given is defined when there is no information derived from the text on this statement.
3	Cloze-test (Fill in the blank with no more than two words)	*Cloze-test questions* include the gap-filling of the appropriate word and are applicable to assess reading comprehension for both lower and higher level of learners (Mizumoto, Ikeda & Takeuchi, 2016).Considering text readability, test designers may modify the original text across levels of learners (Crossley et al., 2017).	This task requires test-takers to fill in the gap with the appropriate word or group of words. The answer is limited within the length of two words and the gap-filled words should be appropriate and grammatical.

3. Findings

3.1. The integrated format and overall test performance

Due to the method of scoring (1 for correct and 0 for incorrect answers), the range of overall performance was supposed not to be considerably varied among individual performances. Therefore, with reference to results from the calculation of means and standard deviations (SDs), it was decided that the range of cut-score would be between the lower and upper levels of 1.6 SD for both the integrated and split formats. As a result, the range of the cut-score of split group was $3 < score\ split < 8$ (N=11, M=5.27, SD=1.76);

meanwhile, the cut-score of integrated group was $5 < score\ integrated < 9$ (N=9, M=6.78, SD=1.55).

Out of 20 participants, there were in total 3 outliers to be eliminated before the computation of ANOVA analysis. Two participants from the split and integrated groups achieved the overall score below the range of cut scores: their overall scores were 2 (split) and 4 (integrated) respectively. The other was eliminated because the performance of task 1 was uniquely recorded as zero. After eliminating outliers of overall test performance from both groups, 17 participants from both groups (N_{split}=9 & $N_{integrated}$=8) were left for

one-way ANOVA Welch analysis.

One-way Welch ANOVA test was computed with regards to small and unequal sample size for each group. The significant level of *p* value is set at 0.05. Although integrated group (M=7.12, SD=1.36) achieved a higher mean of overall test performance than split group (M=5.9, SD=1.36), there were no significant differences between group means as determined by one-way Welch ANOVA ($F(1,15)=3.496$, *p*>0.05). It can be concluded that there is no difference in the overall test performance between the two test formats.

Table 2

One-way Welch ANOVA for Overall Test Performance

	Sum of squares	df	Mean square	F	Sig.
Between groups	6.471	1	6.471	3.496	.081
Within groups	27.764	15	1.851		
Total	34.235	16			

3.2. The integrated format and task performance

The evaluation of the effect of integrated format on task performance was structuralized at individual (i.e. one single task) and collective (i.e. a pair of tasks) levels. Table 3 presents the report of mean score of task performance in split and integrated formats. The mean scores suggest a higher performance of task performance for the integrated format at individual and collective levels.

Although integrated group achieved a higher mean of task performance than split group across individual and collective levels, results from Table 4 overall indicated that the differences between group means for individual task 2 (validating questions) (F(1,15)=4.642, p=0.048<0.05) and for the pair of task 2 (validating questions) & task 3 (cloze-test questions) (F(1,15)=4.644, p=0.048<0.05) were marginally significant.

Table 3

Mean Score of Task Performance in Split and Integrated Formats

Test format		Task 1	Task 2	Task 3	Task 1 & 2	Task 1 & 3	Task 2 & 3
Split	Mean	2.00	1.33	2.56	3.33	4.56	3.89
	N	9	9	9	9	9	9
	SD	.866	.500	.726	1.000	1.333	.782
Integrated	Mean	2.12	2.25	2.75	4.38	4.88	5.00
	N	8	8	8	8	8	8
	SD	.641	1.165	1.165	1.188	1.356	1.309
Total	Mean	2.06	1.76	2.65	3.82	4.71	4.41
	N	17	17	17	17	17	17
	SD	.748	.970	.931	1.185	1.312	1.176

Table 4

Task Performance at Individual and Collective Measurements

		Sum of squares	Df	Mean square	F	Sig.
Task 1	Between groups	.066	1	.066	.112	.743
	Within groups	8.875	15	.592		
	Total	8.941	16			
Task 2	Between groups	3.559	1	3.559	4.642	.048
	Within groups	11.500	15	.767		
	Total	15.059	16			
Task 3	Between groups	.160	1	.160	.175	.682

	Within groups	13.722	15	.915		
	Total	13.882	16			
Task 1 & 2	Between groups	4.596	1	4.596	3.856	.068
	Within groups	17.875	15	1.192		
	Total	22.471	16			
Task 1 & 3	Between groups	.432	1	.432	.239	.632
	Within groups	27.097	15	1.806		
	Total	27.529	16			
Task 2 & 3	Between groups	5.229	1	5.229	4.644	.048
	Within groups	16.889	15	1.126		
	Total	22.118	16			

4. Discussion

4.1. Calculation of dependability index

In the previous one-way Welch ANOVA analysis of overall test performance, no significant difference was found in the group means of the score between the integrated format and the split format. It is assumed that there should be an effect of the dependability of test administration on overall test performance. Phi-lambda ($\varphi\lambda$) index was computed with reference to the following statistics from the original data of overall test performance from 20 participants left for the determination of cut-score: the number of items on the test (K=12), mean of the proportion scores as measured by the average of proportion of correct answers (Xp=0.5), standard deviation of the proportion scores (Sp=0.15), and cut-point expressed as a proportion (λ=0.6) (see Fulcher, 2010 for more details on the calculation of these statistics).

Applying the formula for calculating Phi Lambda index, the dependability index remained at 0.37 at the cut-score of 6. The dependability level at 0.37 could be interpreted that the test administration with split and integrated format reports some agreement value of dependability, and therefore results in no significant difference in the group means of the score for overall test performance.

4.2. Analysis of test items

The second finding concerning the effect of integrated format on task performance revealed a remarkable borderline to significant level of the individual task 2 (validating questions) and the pair of task 2 and task 3 (cloze-test questions). This finding assumed that the integrated format for the same sets of questions lowered the cognitive load for task performance. To clarify this claim, the frequency of wrong answers from 17 participants who were left after the determination of cut-score for the computation of ANOVA analysis was recorded in Table 5.

Statistics in Table 5 demonstrated a constant reduction of the number of wrong answers for task 2 in the integrated format. Except for item 3, the reduced number of wrong answers is consistent for other items in task 3.

In the evaluation of pairs of tasks, the constant reduction of wrong answers was found in items 1, 2, and 4 of both task 2 and 3 in the integrated format. These statistics also suggest that item 4 of task 2 is the most challenging question in the split format because 9 out 9 participants failed to answer this question. Also, item 3 in task 3 in the integrated format may attain problems with the identification of the correct answer for the participants.

Table 5

Statistics of Wrong Answers for Split and Integrated Format

Test Format	Test Items	Task 2 (x_1)	Task 3 (x_2)	$\sum$ Task 2 3 ($\sum x_1\, x_2$)	Summary	Items	Task 2 $x_{1\,split}$ – $x_{1\,integrated}$	Task 3 $x_{2\,split}$ – $x_{2\,integrated}$	$\sum$ Task 2 3
split (n=9)	1	8	6	14	Reduced wrong answers (raw data)	1	4	2	6
	2	2	5	7		2	2	2	4
	3	5	0	5		3	1	-3	-2
	4	9	4	13		4	3	4	7
integrated (n=8)	1	4	4	8	Reduced wrong answers (%)	1	50%	33%	43%
	2	0	3	3		2	100%	40%	60%
	3	4	3	7		3	20%	N/A	-40%
	4	6	0	6		4	33%	100%	55%

Table 6 showed further analysis of validating questions in task 2. Higher frequency of task performance score at 1 and 2 was found a popular norm in the split format.

Table 6

Frequency of Wrong Answers in Task 2 From Both Formats

Task 2	Test Format		Frequency
	Split	Integrated	
Item 1	6	3	9
Item 2	3	1	4
Item 3	0	3	3
Item 4	0	1	1
Total	9	8	17

4.3. The writing of test items

The statistics of item performance in Table 5 and Table 6 indicated the challenging level of the following test items: item 1 and item 4 in task 2 of the split format and item 3 in task 3 of the integrated format. Further analyses of the design for these test items are as follows:

4.3.1. Item 1 of task 2

Extracted text: Other stories claim that Robin was not an Anglo Saxon nobleman, but a common fugitive; they say that his real name was "Robert Hood", and that he only fought against his personal enemies, in particular the Sheriff of Nottingham, not against the Normans.

Item 1: The Sheriff of Nottingham were not the only enemies for Robin Hood. _____

Data on frequency of wrong answers from 6 participants achieving the score of 1 in the split group showed that these participants provided wrong answers for item 1 of task 2.

Answer: False

The writing of item 1 may fail to consider the identification of "other stories" for the determination of false value for the above written statement. Furthermore, the presentation of facts in the previous paragraph (paragraph 8) in line with this paragraph may puzzle participants whether there should be two enemies (the Sheriff of Nottingham, the Normans) for Robin Hood rather than one (the Sheriff of Nottingham). The addition of the phrase "In other stories" should have been included in the above statement for further clarity. It is also noted that the item writing in negative condition may also have contributed to the puzzlement for participants to determine the correct answer for item 1 of task 2.

4.3.2. Item 4 of task 2

Extracted text: Many old stories said that Robin lived in Yorkshire. However, later stories had him living in Sherwood Forest, near Nottingham; and today, Robin's name is definitely attached to the city of Nottingham, and to Sherwood Forest.

Structure: Sentence 1 [past simple]. <Compound sentence> However, sentence 2 [past simple PP1 PP2]; and today, sentence 3 [(source of answer) past simple PP3 PP4]

Item 4: There is a conclusion about where Robin Hood lived._____

Answer: True

Item 4 demands inference skill to answer the question because it is necessary to synthesize relevant details from the extracted test. The key word "a conclusion" in the item is initially designed to match with the source of answer from the phrase "is definitely attached" from the line "… and today, Robin's name is definitely attached to the city of Nottingham, and to Sherwood Forest."

There are three possible causes for the challenging level of item 4. First, it could be explained that the mixture of verb tense in item 4 is probably the potential factor which imposed cognitive demands for participants in the split group. The past tense "lived" in the noun clause of the prepositional phrase "…about where Robin Hood lived" of the test item may direct the attention to refer to sentence 1 [...that Robin lived in Yorkshire…]. Another explanation is due to the assumption that participants may have difficulty in processing a lengthy compound sentence where the clue to answer the question resided. Furthermore, the repetition of the proper nouns "Sherwood Forest" in PP1 and PP4 and "Nottingham" in PP2 and PP3 is also predicted to distract the attention to the relevant detail.

Concerning the clause "Robin's name is definitely attached", the revision from "a conclusion" to "a definite conclusion" could have reduced the frequency of wrong answers for item 4. Consideration for transforming words carrying the same root will provide more specific clues for participants to answer this item.

4.3.3 Item 3 of task 3

Extracted text: In Nottingham, Robin is now a very popular character. Visitors to the city can learn all about him at the "Tales of Robin Hood" exhibition, where Robin and his adventures are brought to life; and in Sherwood Forest, "the Major Oak", a massive old tree, is said to be Robin Hood's tree.

Structure: Sentence 1 [PP1 Main clause 1]. <Compound sentence> Sentence 2 [Main clause 2, Relative clause]; and PP2, Sentence 3[Subject (Appositive) + Passive Voice]

Item 3:_____is said to be the location of Robin Hood's tree.

Answer: Sherwood Forest

Item 3 requires participants to locate the proper noun "Sherwood Forest" from PP2 in order to fill in the gap with no more than two words. Although there was a physical integration of the relevant text boundary, the prepositional phrase "In Nottingham" in PP1 may distract participants to provide a correct answer for item 3. Another possibility could be addressed to the complexity of the compound sentence structure where the details with distractors come from the relative clause "…where Robin and his adventures are brought to life…", the appositive "…a massive old tree…", and the passive voice of sentence 3. Therefore, revising or simplifying sentences with complex structure is suggested for the purpose of eliminating unnecessary cognitive loads which potentially prohibit the process of reading comprehension.

5. Conclusion

The present study investigates whether the administration of physical integration of questions into its relevant part would improve reading comprehension performance. Replicating similar administration with modification in research design in Huynh's study (2015), findings from the present study further suggests relevant contributors to extraneous cognitive loads for the processing of the reading test materials, namely the design of reading tasks and the writing of test items.

Findings from the present study lead to the consideration on how task performance could be influenced by the writing of test items. Drawn from theory-based validity in language testing (Weir, 2005), these factors suggest more collection for prior evidence before assessing reading comprehension. Furthermore, this study also raises the concern to increase the dependability index in reading assessment and the increase of Phi-Lambda could contribute to the validation of test items in reading assessment (Ross & Hua, 1994).

Certain limitations are identified in the present study. First, the small size number of participants and the scoring method may limit the scatter plot of performance score, considerably affecting the calculation of mean and standard deviation. Moreover, findings in this study are subject to task design and the

recruited group of participants Therefore, generalizability to other contexts should take these factors into consideration.

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Appendix

Formula of calculation

1. $Reduced\ wrong\ answers\ (raw) = x_{split} - x_{integrated}$

2. $Reduced\ wrong\ answers\ (\%) = \dfrac{x_{split} - x_{integrated}}{x_{split}} \times 100$

Notes: x_{split} $\sum$wrong answers of task performance in split-format test

$x_{integrated}$ $\sum$wrong answers of task performance in integrated-format test

Dependability index

$$\Phi\lambda = 1 - \frac{1}{K-1}\left(\frac{\bar{X}p\,(1-\bar{X}p) - Sp^2}{(\bar{X}p - \lambda)^2 + Sp^2}\right)$$

Notes:

K number of items on the test

$\bar{X}p$ mean of proportion score
Sp standard deviation of the proportion score
λ cut − point expressed as a proportion

ỨNG DỤNG DẠNG BÀI TÍCH HỢP VÀO ĐÁNH GIÁ ĐỌC HIỂU TIẾNG ANH: TRƯỜNG HỢP NGƯỜI HỌC TẠI VIỆT NAM

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Tóm tắt: Nghiên cứu này đánh giá tác động của dạng bài tích hợp lên kết quả kiểm tra đọc hiểu tiếng Anh. Khác với dạng bài phân vùng ở phần thiết kế tách biệt văn bản đọc hiểu với các câu hỏi đọc hiểu thành hai phần riêng biệt, dạng bài tích hợp được thiết kế bằng việc gắn kết phần trích đoạn của văn bản bài đọc với câu hỏi kiểm tra đọc hiểu tương ứng. Việc so sánh kết quả kiểm tra đọc hiểu giữa hai dạng đề nhằm kiểm định lại giả thuyết kết quả kiểm tra đọc hiểu của dạng bài tích hợp cao hơn so với dạng bài phân vùng. Kết quả nghiên cứu từ 20 người học Việt Nam cho thấy không có tác động của dạng bài tích hợp lên kết quả kiểm tra đọc hiểu. Ngoài ra, dạng bài tích hợp có tác động không đáng kể lên kết quả thực hiện nhiệm vụ đọc hiểu. Nghiên cứu cũng thực hiện các phân tích bổ sung về những khía cạnh liên quan trong việc thiết kế đề kiểm tra đọc hiểu.

Từ khóa: thuyết tải nhận thức, dạng bài phân vùng, dạng bài tích hợp, đọc hiểu

ENGLISH-MAJORED STUDENTS' MOTIVATION IN ENGLISH LANGUAGE LEARNING AND THEIR USE OF READING STRATEGIES: RESEARCH PERSPECTIVES

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Abstract: Reading plays a vital role in improving second/foreign language learning as it can encourage the development of autonomous learners. Furthermore, ESL/EFL learners' use of reading strategies can be affected by their learning motivation, which can result in the high or low frequent use of reading strategies in reading comprehension. The present study, therefore, investigated the motivation in English language learning and the use of reading strategies among English-majored freshmen at a university in Bac Lieu province, Vietnam. A questionnaire was used to collect data from 180 English-majored freshmen, six of whom took part in semi-structured interviews. The results showed that participants had a high level of motivation in English language learning, and their metacognitive strategies worked better with their reading comprehension than their cognitive and social/affective strategies. The study further unraveled that the more participants were motivated in English language learning, the more they employed metacognitive and cognitive strategies in reading comprehension.

Key words: English language learning, English-majored students, motivation, reading comprehension, cognitive/metacognitive reading strategies

1. Introduction

Reading is considered to be the most important of the four skills, particularly in English as a second or a foreign language (Anderson, 2003), and it is the most essential skill and has a great impact on the EFL students' language development, especially for the young learners among four language skills (Al-Issa, 2006). Additionally, reading is the most important skill to master in order to ensure success in learning, and it has been considered as an interactive process with many different levels that readers can build a meaningful representation of text by using their background knowledge (Mart, 2012; Tran & Duong, 2018). Nevertheless, students need learning motivation to read. Yunus and Abdullah (2011) have pinpointed that motivation plays an important role in language learning, and students need to initiate the steps towards language learning. Pardo (2004) asserts that students' learning motivation is really important for teachers to

encourage them to improve their reading skills. Furthermore, it is supposed that reading strategies can be an influence on students' reading comprehension. Students' use for reading strategies has a vital role in boosting their reading comprehension (Anderson, 2003; Hong-Nam & Leavell, 2006; Wharton, 2000).

In the context of Vietnam, English as a foreign language is learned as the main and compulsory subject at different levels of education. The reading skill is one of the most common ones which is highly focused in English teaching and learning curricula; nonetheless, reading does not always interest students (Tran & Duong, 2018; Tran & Tran, 2018). Regarding English-majored students at a higher institution in Bac Lieu Province, reading is one of the English language skills that they have to study. Some are observed to be highly interested in this subject, while others seem reluctant to read, and they just read when being assigned reading tasks. The picture of how much English-majored students at a higher institution in Bac Lieu Province are motivated in English language learning and the extent to which they employ reading strategies is still

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unclear. This study, therefore, aims at exploring English-majored students' motivation in English language learning and their use of reading strategies at the context of a university in Bac Lieu Province. The research questions of this study are formed as follows:

　　1. What is English-majored students' level of motivation in English language learning at a university in Bac Lieu?

　　2. How are the reading strategies used by English-majored students at a university in Bac Lieu?

　　3. What is the relationship between English-majored students' motivation in English language learning and their use of reading strategies?

2. Literature Review

　　Motivation in language learning is understood as the combination of effort that is not only the desire to achieve the goal of learning the language but also favorable attitudes toward learning the language (Gardner, 1985). Within this definition, motivation is described as goal-directed behaviors; the students set goals before starting to read is also a way to learn the language. What is more, motivation in learning language is a state of cognitive and emotional arousal, which contributes to be aware of decision to carry out and gives rise to a stage of maintained intellectual and/or mental effort so as to obtain a previously set goal or goals (William & Burden, 1997). Additionally, motivation is the progress to which learners make choices about reaching goals to pursue and the effort they will devote to that pursuit (Brown, 2001). Therefore, motivation is considered as an indispensable role for successful language learning and may influence strongly on the way language learning use learning strategies (Dao, 2010), and a fully motivated student is a person who is ready or even eager to invest effort in learning activities and knowledge in advance (Ur, 1996). The motivation in learning language has been divided into two kinds: instrumental motivation and integrative motivation (Chambers, 1999; Crookes & Schmidt, 1991; Finegan, 1999). Integrative motivation is characterized by a positive attitude towards the speakers and culture of the target language, as long as instrumental motivation is characterized by

learning the language for practical purposes, such as gaining employment or passing a test (Ellis, 1994). That means if a person wants to learn a language only for their own purpose like getting a job or fulfilling an academic requirement, she or he will be affected by instrumental motivation. On the other hand, instrumental motivation refers to the motivation that acquire a language as the means of setting goals such as raising a career or job or reading academic texts while integrative motivation has to deal with being accepted by another community or integrating oneself within a culture to become a part of that society (Chambers, 1999).

　　The definition "reading comprehension" has been investigated under numerous perspectives by different linguists, educators and second language researchers; however, each definition can be only the reflection of its author's particular view of the reading process. Reading is regarded as a passive decoding process where "meaning is embodied in the text and the reader can extract the meaning from the print if he understands it letter by letter and word by word" (Goodman, 1988, p. 43). In addition, reading is considered as "a decoding process of reconstructing the author's intended meaning via recognizing printed letters and words, and building up a meaning for a text from the smallest textual units at the bottom, including letters and words, to larger and larger units at the top, such as phrases, clauses and intersectional linkages" (ibid., p. 44). In another aspect, reading is best described as "an understanding between the author and the reader. Reading is much more than just pronouncing words correctly or simply knowing what the author intends; it is the process whereby the printed page stimulates ideas, experiences and responses that are unique to an individual" (Richards & Thomas, 1987, p. 9). Deriving from above-discussed definitions, reading comprehension is a means of language acquisition, of communication, and of sharing information and ideas. It is a complex interaction between the text and the reader which is shaped by the reader's prior knowledge, experiences, attitude, and language community which is culturally and socially situated. The reading process requires continuous practices, development, and refinement.

Reading strategies can be divided into three groups, namely metacognitive strategies, cognitive strategies and social/ affective strategies. Metacognitive strategies are "higher order executive skills that may entail planning or, monitoring, or evaluating the success of a learning activity" (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990, p. 44). They are used for (1) planning: previewing the main ideas and concepts of the material to be learnt, often by skimming the text for the organizing principle; (2) monitoring: checking one's comprehension during listening or reading checking the accuracy and/ or appropriateness of one's oral or written production while it is taking place; (3) and self-evaluating: checking the outcomes of one's own language against a standard after it has been completed. Cognitive strategies are "more directly related to individual learning tasks and entail direct manipulation or transformation of the learning material" (ibid., p. 8). Typical strategies that have been discussed in the cognitive category for reading comprehension are (1) repetition: imitating a language model, including overt practice and silent rehearsal; (2) grouping: classifying words, terminology or concepts according to the attributes or meaning; (3) deduction: applying rules to understand or produce the second language making up rules based on language analysis; (4) imagery: using visual images (either mental or actual) to understand or remember new information; (5) elaboration: relating new information to prior knowledge, relating different parts of new information to each other, or making meaningful personal associations with the new information; (6) transfer: using previous linguistic knowledge or prior skills to assist comprehension or production; (7) inferencing: using available information to guess meaning of new items, predict outcomes or fill in missing information; (8) summarizing: making a mental, oral or written summary of new information gained through listening and reading. Social/affective strategies are referred to as "a broad grouping that involves either interaction with another person or ideational control over affect" (ibid., p. 45). The social/ affective strategies and their definitions are for (1) questioning for clarification: eliciting from a teacher or peer additional explanations rephrasing, examples or verification; (2) cooperation: working together with one or more peers to solve a problem, pool information, check a learning task, model a language activity, or get feedback on oral or written performance; (3) self-talk: reducing anxiety by using mental techniques that make one feel competent to do the learning task.

Prior studies have been conducted to explore the use of reading strategies. Sheorey and Mokhtari (2001) examined differences in the metacognitive and perceived use of reading strategies among 105 US and ESL university students in the US. The findings showed that both groups of participants had a high level of various reading strategies awareness. Additionally, participants who had high reading abilities used cognitive and metacognitive reading strategies more than those with low reading abilities. Cogmen and Saracaloglu (2009) investigated the use of reading strategies by college students. The sample included 320 students from a college in Turkey who participated in answering the reading strategies questionnaire. The results show that students often used reading strategies in reading academic materials. Guo and Zhang (2020) trained 37 students how to use cognitive and metacognitive reading strategies in EFL reading classes. The results revealed that participants had a high level of motivation in English language learning and tended to employ more cognitive and metacognitive reading strategies. In Vietnam, Ngo (2015) investigated the motivation in English language learning of tertiary students. There were 422 participants (180 non-English majored students; 242 English-majored students) taking part in this study. It was found out that participants had three types of motivation: personal/professional development motivation, intrinsic motivation, obligation/avoidance motivation, and their personal/professional development motivation was the highest level. Nguyen (2019) examined the motivation in English language learning of 371 first and second-year students of Vietnam National University, Hanoi. The findings indicated that participants were highly motivated in English language learning, and their level of motivation in English language learning was affected by their school year and parental English ability. In brief, different studies have been conducted to explore different aspects of motivation in English language learning and reading strategies. Nevertheless, the relationship between the motivation in English language learning and the use of reading strategies has not been much

explored in the EFL context of Vietnam; therefore, this study endeavors to find out the English-majored students' motivation in English language learning and their use of reading strategies as well as the relationship between the two research variables.

3. Methodology

3.1. Research context and participants

This study was conducted at a university in Bac Lieu province, Vietnam. Students had to learn 8 courses of reading from Reading 1 to Reading 8. For each semester, students had to learn 1 reading subject in 30 periods (2 periods a week), and they had to read a variety of materials and do different reading exercises.

Participants who were purposively sampled were 180 English-majored students (aged from 18 to 19). They were first-year students consisting of 120 females (66.7%) and 60 males (33.3%) as shown in Table 1. As seen from the table, 16 (8.9%) participants have learned English less than five years, 44 (24.4%) participants having learned English from five to seven years, 98 (54.4%) participants having learned English from seven to nine years, and 22 (12.3%) participants having learned English over ten years. Among 180 participants, only six students agreed to take part in interviews.

Table 1

Participants' General Information

No	Information		N = 180	
			Frequency	**Percentage**
1	Gender	male	60	33.3
		female	120	66.7
2	Years of learning English	less than 5 years	16	8.9
		5-7 years	44	24.4
		7-9 years	98	54.4
		more than 10 years	22	12.3
3	Hours of self-studying English in a day	less than 1 hour	118	65.6
		1-3 hours	41	22.8
		3-5 hours	13	7.2
		more than 5 hours	8	4.4
4	Hours of practicing reading English in a day	less than 1 hour	153	85
		1-3 hours	13	7.2
		3-5 hours	6	3.3
		more than 5 hours	8	4.5

3.2. Research Instrument

This study employed a questionnaire and semi-structured interview to collect data. The questionnaire consists of two parts: part I seeks for participant's personal information and part II includes 40 items divided into two groups: motivation (20 items) adapted from Vallerand et al.'s (1992) study and reading strategies (25 items) adapted from O'Malley and Chamot's (1990) study. was used to items of reading strategies. The motivation has two categories: instrument (11 items) and integrative (9 items), which were designed with a five-point Likert scale (strongly disagree to strongly disagree). The items of reading strategies fall into three categories: metacognitive strategies (items 3, 8, 12, 18, 5, 21, 6, 20, 9, 1, 4, 16 and 9), cognitive strategies (items 7, 15, 13, 2, 11, 14, 17 and 10) and social/affective strategies (items 22, 23, 24, and 25), which were designed with a five-point Likert scale from *never* to *always*. The semi-structured interview includes four main questions aiming to get an in-depth information of motivation and reading strategies. The questionnaire and interview questions were double-checked and translated into respondents' mother tongue so that respondents did not face any language difficulty in understanding and answering the questions.

3.3. Procedures for data collection and data analysis

With respect to data collection, the questionnaire and interview had been piloted before they were used in the main study. Two hundred copies of the questionnaire were administered in person to students. It took students 15 minutes to complete the questionnaire. However, 180 copies

were returned. After the preliminary analysis of questionnaires, the interviews took place one-on-one. Each interview lasted around 15 minutes. All interviews were recorded for later analysis.

Regarding data analysis, the quantitative data were processed by the SPSS version 20 in terms of descriptive statistics. The meaning of the interval mean scores is interpreted as 1-1.80: *Strongly disagree/Very low/Never*; 1.81-2.60: *Disagree/Low/Seldom*; 2.61-3.40: *Neutral/Average/Sometimes*; 3.41-4.20: *Agree/High/Usually*; and 4.21-5.00: *Strongly agree/Very high/Always*. The qualitative data were analyzed using the content analysis approach. The interviewees were coded as S1, S2 to S6.

4. Results and discussion

4.1. Results

4.1.1. English-majored students' level of motivation

As shown in Table 2, the mean score of integrative motivation (M = 3.62, SD = .85) is higher than that of instrument motivation (M = 3.51, SD = .72). This means that participants had a high level of motivation. To put it another way, English majored students were highly motivated in English language learning.

Table 2

English-Majored Students' Level of Motivation

	N = 180	
	M	**SD**
Instrument	3.51	.85
Integrative	3.62	.72

Note: N: sample; M: mean; SD: standard deviation

The results in Table 3 reveal that the participants strongly agreed that "English is useful to [them] in [their] future profession" (item A5: M=4.49, SD=.67), and they agreed that "being proficient in English can lead to success and achievements in life like higher salary, promotion, and position" (item A17: M=3.69, SD=.51), "studying English is important to [them] because it makes [them] knowledgeable and skillful person which will help [them] to have a better future (item A14: M=3.67, SD=.70), "other people respect [them] more if [they] know English" (item A15: M=3.65, SD=.67), "thanks to English [they] can broaden [their] cultural horizon" (item A8: M=3.57, SD=.60), "knowing English, [they] can read literary works in the original" (item A10: M=3.56, SD=.89) and "English enables [them] to communicate with many people" (item A1: M=3.36, SD=.34). On the other hand, the participants were in agreement with statements, "English helps [them] to be open-minded and sociable" (item A3: M=3.23, SD=.78), "[they] often use English to talk to foreigners" (item A4: M=3.24, SD=.88), "knowing English, [they] can read foreign magazines" (item A2: M=3.06, SD=.92), and "sometimes [they] translate English books or instructions on foreign-made machines" (item A11: M=3.06, SD=.73).

Table 3

English-Majored Students' Level of Motivation in Terms of Instrument Motivation

No	Statement	N = 180		
		M	**SD**	**Level**
A5	English is useful for me in my future profession.	4.49	.67	Very high
A17	Being proficient in English can lead to success and achievements in life like higher salary, promotion, and position.	3.69	.51	High
A14	Studying English is important to me because it makes me a knowledgeable and skillful person which will help me to have a better future.	3.67	.70	High
A15	Other people respect me more if I know English.	3.65	.67	High
A8	Thanks to English I can broaden my cultural horizon.	3.57	.60	High
A10	Knowing English, I can read literary works in the original.	3.56	.89	High
A1	English enables me to communicate with many people.	3.36	.34	High
A4	I often use English to talk to foreigners.	3.24	.78	Average
A3	English helps me to be open-minded and sociable.	3.23	.88	Average
A2	Knowing English, I can read foreign magazines.	3.06	.92	Average
A11	Sometimes I translate English books or instructions on foreign-made machines.	3.06	.73	Average

Note: N: sample; M: mean; SD: standard deviation

As what can be seen in Table 4, the participants agreed "[they are] determined to study English as best as [they] can to achieve proficiency" (item A7: M=3.98, SD=.61), "studying English is important to [them} because it helps [them] to better understand and appreciate the different cultures and traditions of any country in the world" (item A6: M=3.96, SD=.65), "Knowing English, [they] can travel all over the world" (item A9: M=3.79, SD=.57), "English can help [them] make friends with people around the world" (item A18: M=3.68, SD=.61), "studying English is important to [them] because [they] can understand stories understand stories, conversation, music,

movies, and lectures in English" (item A19: M=3.66, SD=.88), "thanks to English [they] can learn more about the life of the English, Americans, Australians etc." (item A12: M=3.56, SD=.71), and "studying English is fun because it helps [them] meet a lot of foreign friends who speak English" (item A13: M=3.46, SD=.89). However, they were neutral about statements: "studying English enables [them] to appreciate other country's arts and literature" (item A16: M=3.37, SD=.77) and "studying English enables [them] to share [their] knowledge with other people and communicate with foreigners better" (item A20: M=3.16, SD=.76).

Table 4

English-Majored Students' Level of Motivation in Terms of Integrative Motivation

No	Statement	N = 180		
		M	SD	Level
A7	I am determined to study English as best as I can achieve proficiency.	3.98	.61	High
A6	Studying English is important to me because it helps me to better understand and appreciate the different cultures and traditions of any country in the world.	3.96	.65	High
A9	Knowing English, I can travel all over the world.	3.79	.57	High
A18	English can help me make friends with people around the world.	3.68	.61	High
A19	Studying English is important to me because I can understand stories, conversation, music, movies, and lectures in English.	3.66	.88	High
A12	Thanks to English I can learn more about the life of the English, Americans, Australians etc.	3.56	.71	High
A13	Studying English is fun because it helps me meet a lot of foreign friends who speak English.	3.46	.89	High
A16	Studying English enables me to appreciate other country's arts and literature.	3.37	.77	Average
A20	Studying English enables me to share my knowledge with other people and communicate with foreigners better.	3.16	.76	Average

Note: M: mean; SD: Standard deviation

The data from interviews indicate that participants mentioned how they got trouble with their English learning process before getting motivated in learning English. For example:

> That was a great time when I traveled to Thailand. People communicated English really well and I realize that English is a benefit tool for everyone to learn another language. From that moment, I felt motivated to learn and improve English and I promised I would study harder when I returned. (S4)
> When I studied at primary school or secondary school, learning English was not a pressure for me but when I start to study at university, everything is getting more difficult. I am getting to be trained for the competition but it is not as easy as

in secondary school like I used to experience. Because of that, sometimes I feel depressed and disappointed in myself for not trying my best to compete and I really feel unmotivated. (S6)

Besides, interviewees had positive attitudes towards the learning of English before they studied at university, and they easily got the goals or achievements to study well; however, when they were disappointed about the results or they had less chances to perform their abilities, their mood seemed to be unmotivated.

> I often feel motivated in learning English when I set a goal in my mind and I have to get it because English was my favorite subject at high school. Even when I study at university right now, I always keep that habit and I believe that this will help me to have good results. However, when

I am in a sad or bad mood such as I have no reason to study anymore, I will stop and sit alone to find the reason why I have no motivation to learn. (S1)

English is my favorite one. When I studied at high school, I used to think that I had to get achievements such as the award given for province excellent student and for national excellent student when I had a chance because I believe that if I try hard right now, I will get achievements and honors in the future. (S2)

It is obvious that the findings from the interviews are consistent with the findings of the questionnaire. That means the findings revealed that the level of motivation to learn English among the students in BLU was high. Each of them had their own ideas to express motivation but most of them cared about their future careers, achievements or the purposes of learning English. Moreover, they also had the same reason why they felt unmotivated, like not getting the goal they planned in their mind or being pressured when their parents had a belief in them.

4.1.2. English-majored students' use of reading strategies

As shown in Table 5, the mean scores of metacognitive and cognitive strategies are 3.37 and 3.40 out of 5.00 respectively, while the mean score of social/affective strategies is 2.78. This can be interpreted that research participants sometimes employed metacognitive and social/affective strategies in reading comprehension, but they usually used cognitive strategies in reading comprehension.

Table 5

English-Majored Students' Use of Reading Strategies

	N = 180	
	M	**SD**
Metacognitive	3.37	.85
Cognitive	3.40	.75
Social / affective	2.78	.92

Note: N: sample; M: mean; SD: standard deviation

Specifically, Table 6 describes the results of English-majored students' use of metacognitive strategies. The participants usually used the title to predict contents (item B3: M=3.82, SD=.69), determined what to read and skip irrelevant details (item B8: M=3.61, SD=.52), tried to understand the implicit meaning (item B12: M=3.58, SD=.80), and read from the first to the last paragraph (item B18: M=3.43, SD=.85). Nonetheless, they sometimes set goals before reading (item B5: M=3.39, SD=.63), imaged or made a picture in their mind in order to understand the text (item B21: M=3.37, SD=.55), focused on every word, especially new words (item B6: M=3.34, SD=.70), and paid attention to the beginning and the end of each paragraph (item B20: M=3.29, SD=.91). Additionally, they sometimes considered the text type (item B9: M=3.28, SD=.61), figured out the main idea of each paragraph (item B1: M=3.27, SD=.66), paid attention to linking words (item B4: M=3.27, SD=1.26), predicted what would come next (item B16: M=3.13, SD=.80) and skimmed the text before reading for details (item B19: M=3.06, SD=.75).

Table 6

English-Majored Students' Use of Reading Strategies in Terms of Metacognitive Strategies

No	Metacognitive strategies	N = 180	
		M	**SD**
B3	I use the title to predict contents.	3.82	.69
B8	I determine what to read and skip irrelevant details.	3.61	.52
B12	I try to understand the implicit meaning.	3.58	.80
B18	I read from the first to the last paragraph.	3.43	.85
B5	I set goals before reading.	3.39	.63
B21	I imagine or make a picture in my mind in order to understand the text.	3.37	.55
B6	I focus on every word, especially new words.	3.34	.70
B20	I pay attention to the beginning and the end of each paragraph.	3.29	.91
B9	I consider the text type.	3.28	.61
B1	I figure out the main idea of each paragraph.	3.27	.66
B4	I pay attention to linking words.	3.27	.76
B16	I predict what will come next.	3.13	.80
B19	I skim the text before reading for details.	3.06	.75

Note: N: sample; M: mean; SD: standard deviation

Table 7 shows the results of English-majored students' use of cognitive strategies. The participants usually translated each sentence into Vietnamese (item B7: M=3.55, SD=.96), changed reading speed when they ran out of time (item B15: M=3.49, SD=.85), linked the content to prior knowledge (item B13: M=3.48, SD=.63), guessed words from context clues (item B2: M=3.44, SD=.85), and skipped sentences if they were not suitable for the answer (item B11: M=3.44, SD=.88). However, they sometimes guessed words from prior knowledge (item B14: M=3.39, SD=.65), they broke words into parts (item B17: M=3.30, SD=.72) and tried to understand without translating (item B10: M=3.14, SD=.63).

Table 7

English-Majored Students' Use of Reading Strategies in Terms of Cognitive Strategies

No	Cognitive strategies	N = 180	
		M	SD
B7	I translate each sentence into Vietnamese.	3.55	.96
B15	I change reading speed when I run out of time.	3.49	.85
B13	I link the content to prior knowledge.	3.48	.63
B2	I guess words from context clues.	3.44	.85
B11	I skip sentences if they are not suitable for the answer	3.44	.88
B14	I guess words from prior knowledge.	3.39	.65
B17	I break words into parts.	3.30	.72
B10	I try to understand without translating.	3.14	.63

Note: N: sample; M: mean; SD: standard deviation

The third reading strategy type included four social/affective strategies as seen in Table 8. The participants sometimes worked together with their classmates to solve the questions in the reading texts (item B22: M=3.13, SD=.81), asked the teacher, classmates or friends for help (item B23: M=2.87, SD=.73), made critical comments or evaluate the content of the text and then shared with their friends (item B25: M=2.59, SD=.76) and discussed the problems and difficulties with teachers or friends (item B24: M=2.51, SD=.62).

Table 8

English-Majored Students' Use of Reading Strategies in Terms of Social / Affective Strategies

No	Cognitive strategies	N = 180	
		M	SD
B22	I work together with my classmates to solve the questions in the reading texts.	3.13	.81
B23	I ask the teachers, classmates or friends for help.	2.87	.73
B25	I make critical comments or evaluate the content of the text and then share with my friends.	2.59	.76
B24	I discuss the problems and difficulties with teachers or friends.	2.51	.62

Note: N: sample; M: mean; SD: standard deviation

In order to confirm the findings from the questionnaire, the qualitative data helped give a broad view on the students' reading comprehension strategies. The idea that some parts of a text may be ignored or skipped is strange to some students, but efficient reading, and specifically the techniques of scanning and skimming, requires it. During the interview, interviewees agreed that using a scanning method was the best way to do a reading test.

> About reading strategies, I often use scanning. I realize that this is an effective method because when I use scanning, I can understand the main idea in the passage and then I can guess the answer quickly in each question. (S4)
> When facing the reading test, I usually use scanning the whole paragraph and then I look at the questions to find the key words. After that, I come back to the paragraph to find the key word and then choose the answer. (S5)

4.1.3. Relationship between English-majored students' motivation and their reading strategies

As indicated in Table 9, the results of the correlational analysis reveal that participants' motivation was correlated with their reading strategies. To be more specific, participants' instrument motivation and integrative motivation were positively correlated with their metacognitive (r = .27; p = .000 / r = .19; p = .000) and cognitive strategies (r = .41; p = .000 / r = .50; p =.000) but negatively correlated with their social /

affective strategies (r = -.30; p = .000/ r =-.22; p = .000). It can be understood that the more participants were instrumentally and integratively motivated in English language learning, the more they used metacognitive and cognitive reading strategies; nevertheless, the higher participants' level of instrumental and integrative motivation in English language learning was, the less they employed social / affective reading strategies. To put it simply, participants' motivation in English language learning affected their cognitive and metacognitive reading strategies but social / affective reading strategies.

Table 9

Relationship Between the English-Majored Students' Motivation and Their Reading Strategies

		Metacognitive strategies	Cognitive strategies	Social/Affective strategies
Instrument motivation	Pearson Correlation	.27	.41	-.30
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.00	.00	.00
Integrative motivation	Pearson Correlation	.19	.50	-.22
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.01**	.00**	.00**

**p<=.01; *p<=.05

4.2. Discussion

This study showed that participants had a high level of motivation in English language learning, and they agreed that integrative motivation was more important than instrument motivation in learning English. A possible explanation for this might be that students could overcome the common difficulties such as lack of opportunity to use English in their daily lives; being passive learners; being too shy to use English with classmates; and lack of responsibility for their own learning. The finding is supported by ideas of researchers such as Weiler (2005), Ngo (2015) and Nguyen (2019) who have asserted that students have a different vision of the world; they also become open minded and sociable because of their understanding and knowledge from traveling and finding the new world in the English contexts.

Furthermore, the participants used metacognitive strategies more frequently than cognitive strategies and social/affective strategies. This result may be explained that participants may practice doing reading comprehension texts when they self-study English, especially using the prediction, setting the goal, scanning or skimming the text before answering the questions. Another less frequently used was cognitive strategies. Even though the participants admitted that they often translated each sentence into Vietnamese and even when they ran out of time, they changed the speed to find the answers as quickly as they could or they try to link the content that they have known before into the prior knowledge in order to look for the key word in each sentence,

they still could become accustomed to it and they use less the other strategies like breaking words into parts, guessing words from previous knowledge or even they could do the answers without translating. Additionally, the participants did not frequently employ social/affective strategies. The social/affective strategies represented the cooperation with the classmates like working together with classmates to solve the questions in the reading texts or discussing the problems and difficulties with teachers or friends seemed like not highly being used. It may be due to limited time to do the reading texts, so doing in groups is not as effective as doing individual. Moreover, Traxler and his colleagues' study (2012) mentioned that doing reading comprehension text was an individual working and they concluded that when the students did the text, it depended on reading speed more than working memory capacity. Therefore, that might be the reason why the participants had a craving for doing reading comprehension text individually. They admitted that they wanted to reach the high scores so they had to do the text themselves.

Additionally, it was found out that metacognitive and cognitive strategies had a positive and correlation with instrument and integrative motivation. It can be explained that when the students get highly motivated to learn English, they may fancy on using metacognitive and cognitive strategies. Moreover, these strategies might be easy for them to use effectively and perform well in the reading comprehension texts. Although there was a negative correlation between social/affective strategies and motivation, it still had a

relationship together. Due to this finding, the reason can be proved that the participants often practice the reading texts themselves and they rarely need help or cooperate with their classmates if they have trouble in reading texts. This strategy seemed to be used less than the other strategies. This result was in alignment with that of Guo and Zhang's (2020) study which has revealed that students' motivation in English language learning influences their cognitive and metacognitive reading strategies positively.

5. Conclusion

This study unravels that English-majored students were motivated in English language learning, and they preferred metacognitive strategies in reading comprehension to cognitive and social/affective ones. What is more, the more English-majored students were motivated in English language learning, the more they used metacognitive and cognitive strategies, but the less they utilized social/affective strategies.

Several implications are drawn based on the findings. First, the teaching of reading should include reading materials which are relevant to students' life and interest so that they are motivated, which can entail the use of reading strategies in reading comprehension. Secondly, different pairwork and groupwork activities should be introduced to students in learning reading comprehension so that they can enhance the use of social/affective strategies as pairwork and groupwork activities can compensate for students' social/affective strategies (e.g., Cogmen & Saracaloglu, 2009; Dao, 2010). Students can learn from one another to solve the reading questions and share their reading strategies with one another. Thirdly, teachers should encourage students to share their reading experience and difficulties in reading comprehension, so good reading experience can be disseminated and difficulties in reading comprehension can be solved. Fourthly, a supportive and comfortable atmosphere in the classroom should be designed. Teachers should create the atmosphere in class in order to encourage students and avoid taking risk of mistakes as a part of learning. Only that way can boost students' comfort without worrying about being

criticized or embarrassed, which may affect their involvement in activities in the classroom. Fifthly, students should practice reading both at school and at home as the more they practice reading, the better their reading skills will be. Besides, they should determine reading strategies which are suitable for them and their reading purposes in order to use them effectively.

This study still bears some limitations. This study involved only six participants in taking part in interviews, and only freshmen participated in this study. It is recommended that participants from different levels of academic year should get involved in the study so that the results can be generalized.

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ĐỘNG CƠ HỌC TIẾNG ANH VÀ CHIẾN LƯỢC ĐỌC HIỂU CỦA SINH VIÊN CHUYÊN NGÀNH TIẾNG ANH

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Tóm tắt: Kỹ năng đọc đóng một vai trò quan trọng trong quá trình học ngôn ngữ thứ hai/ngoại ngữ vì nó giúp cho việc phát triển người học tự chủ. Ngoài ra, việc sử dụng chiến lược đọc của người học tiếng Anh là ngôn ngữ thứ hai có thể bị ảnh hưởng bởi động cơ học tập của họ, và có thể tác động đến mức độ sử dụng chiến lược đọc cao hay thấp. Do đó, nghiên cứu này tìm hiểu động cơ học tập và việc sử dụng chiến lược đọc hiểu của sinh viên chuyên ngành tiếng Anh tại một trường đại học ở tỉnh Bạc Liêu. Một bảng câu hỏi được sử dụng để lấy dữ liệu từ 180 sinh viên năm thứ nhất chuyên ngành tiếng Anh, và sáu sinh viên tham gia trả lời phỏng vấn bán cấu trúc. Kết quả cho thấy sinh viên chuyên ngành tiếng Anh có động cơ học tập cao và họ sử dụng chiến lược siêu nhận thức tốt hơn so với chiến lược nhận thức và chiến lược xã hội/tình cảm. Nghiên cứu còn cho thấy động cơ học tiếng Anh của sinh viên càng cao thì họ sử dụng chiến lược siêu nhận thức và chiến lược nhận thức càng cao.

Từ khóa: động cơ, chiến lược đọc, đọc hiểu, sinh viên chuyên ngành tiếng Anh, tiếng Anh

ENGLISH-MAJORED STUDENTS' ATTITUDES TOWARDS PRAGMATIC AWARENESS

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Abstract: Good command of language, e.g. vocabulary, grammar, does not always guarantee success in communication. Learners of language need to be equipped with both language and the knowledge of how to use it, i.e. pragmatics. This paper investigates the attitudes of English-majored students at a university in Vietnam towards the knowledge of pragmatics of language learners. Data was collected via a questionnaire and the software SPSS version 20 was used for the analysis. The results showed that the majority of investigated students were aware of the role of pragmatics in their language classes. First year students and fourth year students differed in 3 issues: 1) whether good knowledge of language being enough for communication; 2) willingness to take a course on pragmatics; 3) teachers presenting the knowledge of how to use language officially in classes of language. This indicates that instruction about pragmatic knowledge should be taken into consideration in material design and in language classes.

Keywords: pragmatics, communication, perspectives, language use

1. Introduction

In the era of globalization, the demand of learning a foreign language is as vibrant as it has never been. However, it could be a mistake to think that learning how to communicate is to learn word meanings, pronunciation, and sentence structures. In the mid-20th century, Chomsky (1965) distinguished the differences between language competence and language performance. The former concept refers to what a person knows and the latter refers to what a person does in terms of linguistic communication. The amount of knowledge about language a person owns does not guarantee that s/he will be successful in his/her communication. This partially depends on the knowledge of pragmatics s/he has. Pragmatic competence plays a vital role in one's success in communication (Bachman, 1990). Therefore, the issue of how to increase

learner's pragmatic knowledge has been of interest to many scholars so far.

This study is an attempt to discover English-majored students' awareness of pragmatic knowledge and their attitude toward the role of pragmatic knowledge in communication. It is also aimed at discovering whether there are differences, if any, between first- and fourth-year students in realizing the role of pragmatic knowledge in language learning and teaching.

In order to reach the aims set forth, the paper is going to seek the answers to the following two questions: 1) What are the attitudes of English-majored students towards the role of pragmatic knowledge in language learning and teaching? and 2) Are there any differences between first- and fourth-year students in their realization of the pragmatic role in language classes?

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2. Literature review

2.1. Pragmatic competence in communication

It is obvious that our communicative competence does not confine itself in vocabulary capacity or grammatical skills, but actually expands to social and cultural appropriateness in language use (Byram et al., 2002). Bardovi-Harlig and Dornyei (1997) state that in the process of language learning, grammatical development does not guarantee a corresponding level of pragmatic development. One utterance may be appropriate in this situation in this culture, but that might not be accepted in other situations or in other cultures. Linguists call this knowledge 'pragmatic competence'.

According to Taguchi (2009, p. 1), pragmatic competence is "the ability to use language appropriately in a social context". Different social contexts require different norms, i.e. specific utterances properly used in each situation. Bachman (1990) considers pragmatic competence to be independent from grammatical and discourse organization, and pragmatic competence is associated with the functional aspect of language which leads to success in communication. Grossi (2009) reports that pragmatic competence plays a significant role in second language acquisition, and accordingly in overall communicative competence.

As a result, in the context of language teaching and learning, the issue of pragmatics cannot be ignored. Barron (2003, p. 10) states that pragmatic competence in a second/ foreign language environment is the ability to use the target in a contextually appropriate fashion to understand the language in context and to attain communicative goals.

2.2. Pragmatic awareness and its role in language teaching and learning

According to Schmidt (2010, p. 27), pragmatic awareness is necessary for the acquisition of pragmatic knowledge because "people learn about the things that they pay attention to and do not learn much about the things they do not attend to". Pragmatic awareness is defined as L2 learners' "conscious and explicit knowledge about the appropriateness of language use constrained by communication contexts" (Li, Suleiman, & Sazalie, 2015). Obviously, it is not automatic that students studying a language would be able to learn the appropriateness of sentences/ utterances without consciously working on it.

It is clear that learning a language does not confine itself in learning vocabulary, pronunciation, grammar, or meanings, but it includes the issue of learning how to use that vocabulary or grammar properly in different contexts. Inappropriate use of language may lead to disaster in communication. Bardovi-Harlig et al. (1991, p. 13) state that "teaching pragmatics empowers students to experience and experiment with the language at a deeper level, and thereby to participate in the purpose of language - communication, rather than just words".

One different idea comes from Eslami-Rasekh (2005) who states that one important issue is "whether learners need to be taught pragmatics", and that "it can be argued that perhaps pragmatic knowledge simply develops alongside lexical and grammatical knowledge, without requiring any pedagogic intervention". However, Kasper (1997) states that the results from studies of the pragmatic competence of adult foreign and second language learners have indicated that the knowledge of pragmatics of learners and native speakers are quite different. Language learners need instruction for the understanding of how to use language appropriately.

In support to the role of pragmatic teaching, Vásquez and Sharpless (2009) reveal the

importance of teaching pragmatics to language learners. They indicate that pragmatic issues are more important and time consuming than grammatical ones; therefore, they require much longer time and efforts. In other words, to reach a certain level of pragmatic awareness in language usage, language learners need a certain amount of time and appropriate input in their language classrooms.

Regarding the level of awareness, Schmidt (1995) suggests that there are two elements, namely noticing and understanding. Noticing is the "conscious registration of the occurrence of some event", referring to the surface of the issue in language usage. Understanding is the "recognition of a general principle, rule or pattern", referring to the abstract level of learners in language usage. Therefore, it is obvious that language learners should be provided with opportunities to notice the patterns in language usage as well as to understand how language works.

As a result, the vital role of teaching/ learning pragmatics should be taken into account. Teachers and students of language should be equipped with the realization of the importance of studying pragmatics. This is, therefore, the motivation for this research to be carried out.

2.3. Previous studies about pragmatic knowledge in language learners

Le (2006) studies the effects of teaching communication strategies to Vietnamese students with the participants from Hue University. She finds that the group of students who are introduced to communication strategies are more willing to communicate with English-speaking tourists than the group who have not been previously introduced to communication strategies. She suggests that teaching communication strategies might boost learners' fluency in language use.

Nguyen, Pham, and Pham (2012) carry out a study to measure the impact of explicit and implicit form-focused instruction about the development of the speech act of constructive criticism. The study finds that the group with explicit metapragmatic explanation, and correction of pragmatic and grammatical errors outperform the group with implicit strategy.

Ifantidou (2013) carries out a study to discover the effects of explicit instruction on learners' different aspects of pragmatic competence. The study found that it is effective to use explicit instruction on developing learners' pragmatic competence.

Rezvani, Eslami-Rasekh, and Dastjerdi's study (2014) indicates that both explicit and implicit intervention could produce a significant improvement to the learners' production of requests and suggestions. This means that explicit or implicit instruction could bring about similar pragmatic achievement.

Li et al. (2015) find out that teachers concern more about the language accuracy and fluency of their students, and do not realize the role of pragmatic knowledge in communication. When they do, they are not clear about what their students have already learned and what students still need to know about pragmatics of the target language.

As there is not a clear-cut solution to the strategy of introducing pragmatic knowledge to students, this study focuses on the students' perception of the role of pragmatics in their language studies. This could hopefully add to the literature of the teaching and learning pragmatics in this English language dominating world.

3. Methodology

3.1. Research design

Quantitative approach was mainly applied in this research. Quantitative method was used to collect the data and produce the output

based on SPSS software. In order to maximize the significance of the research and to clarify the data collected, qualitative method was also used in analyzing and explaining the results.

3.2. Participants

The participants of the study included English-majored students at a university in Vietnam, who were learning English as a major for their future career. The participants came from two groups. The first one consisted of 102 students who just started their English major at the university. The second group consisted of 81 fourth year students who had been taking the course of *Introduction to Pragmatics*. They were, to a certain extent, able to understand the notions of pragmatics in language learning.

3.3. Instruments

Each group received a questionnaire consisting of questions related to pragmatic knowledge. The questionnaire for the first-year students consisted of 17 questions (see Appendix 1 for more information). The questionnaire was adapted from the instrument used by Schauer (2006) and Ekin and Damar (2013). The questions were classified into several criteria. The first was to ask their perspective on whether there should be a course about the use of language besides courses about writing, speaking, listening, reading, etc. or language learners should focus on language skills only. The second one posed the issue of whether teachers should be equipped with the knowledge of pragmatics and introduce it in language skill classes.

The last one asked participants whether they thought pragmatics was vital in the process of learning a language.

The questionnaire for the fourth-year students was added, besides the ideas posed to first year students, with some details since they were doing the course of pragmatics when they provided their response to the questionnaire. One issue posed to them was to ask their perspective on the importance of the course of pragmatics.

The questionnaires were designed in 5-point Likert type scale structure, with 1 representing 'completely disagree' and 5 'completely agree' regarding the participants' opinion toward the statements in the questionnaire. The Cronbach's alpha reliability coefficient for the questionnaire for 1st year and 4th year students were .704 and .603 respectively, which meant the reliability of the instruments was acceptable.

3.4. Data analysis

The SPSS software, version 20, was used to analyze the data. T-test was applied to see the differences between the two groups, i.e. first year and fourth year students.

4. Results

4.1. First year students' perspectives on pragmatic knowledge

Table 1 presents the summary of the result collected from the questionnaire submitted by first year students. Seventeen (17) questions of the questionnaire were grouped into five (5) issues.

Table 1: Descriptive Statistics of data collected from questionnaire

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
			Descriptive Statistics		
Q1	102	1.00	5.00	4.0784	.79212
Q2	102	2.00	5.00	2.8431	.84132
Q3	102	2.00	5.00	3.9902	.75117
Q4	102	3.00	5.00	4.0490	.72272
Q5	102	2.00	5.00	4.1569	.74122

Q6	102	3.00	5.00	4.1961	.59767
Q7	102	1.00	5.00	4.0392	.81958
Q8	102	2.00	5.00	3.9804	.75754
Q9	102	3.00	5.00	4.0588	.64214
Q10	102	2.00	5.00	4.0882	.56469
Q11	102	3.00	5.00	4.2059	.66509
Q12	102	1.00	5.00	2.9118	.93452
Q13	102	2.00	4.00	3.1373	.59767
Q14	102	1.00	5.00	3.9608	.90018
Q15	102	1.00	5.00	2.9412	.96291
Q16	102	1.00	5.00	4.0882	.73259
Q17	102	4.00	5.00	4.3725	.48587

Questions 1, 4, and 8 investigated the opinions of the participants about a course on pragmatics in their program. The results showed that students agreed with the idea of having a course about how to use language in their program (with a mean of 4.07, Std. deviation of .08). The majority of students surveyed were willing to take a course about how to use language (with a mean of 3.96, Std. deviation of .83). Also, they thought that it was essential to offer a course about how to use language to English-majored students (with a mean of 3.77, Std. deviation of 1.00).

Regarding the idea that only knowledge of language, namely vocabulary, grammar, etc., was needed for communication (Question 2), most students disagreed (with a mean of 2.5, and a Std. Deviation of .93). This means that most students thought it was necessary to include the knowledge of how to use language in their course to help them better communicate. On the other hand, most of them gave consent to the idea that the knowledge of how to use language should be included in the classrooms of language skills, and that only good knowledge did not guarantee success in communication (expressed in Question 3, 7, and 16 with means of 3.9, 4.0 and 4.0 respectively). We can infer that first-year students are aware of the role of pragmatics in their language competence.

Questions 5, 6, 9 and 10 posed the issues of exposing language learners to the knowledge of metalinguistics, such as culture, politeness, implicature, etc. The majority of participants (with means of 4.1, 4.1, 4.0, and 4.0 respectively) agreed that this kind of knowledge would help learners be more confident and successful in their communication. It is, therefore, obvious that freshmen did recognize the necessity of knowledge of pragmatics in their studies; they completely realized the importance of metalinguistic issues in their language learning.

Regarding the role of teachers in language classrooms, the issue was represented in three questions, each indicating a different aspect. Question 11 stated that teachers played a crucial role in helping learners understand issues related to culture or how to behave linguistically in language classrooms. The students indicated that they had a similar opinion, with a mean of 4.2 and a Std. Deviation of .66. Question 12 reversed the idea that it was the students' job to discover the issue of meta-linguistics. Dealing with this issue, students hesitated to express that they could discover the matter of language usage themselves, being illustrated by a mean of 2.9 and a Std. Deviation of .93. When asked to judge the strategy their teachers applied

in classes regarding the issue of how to use language (Question 15), the majority of students hesitated to express a clear opinion. They seemed to be reluctant at indicating this matter, with a mean of 2.94 and Std. Deviation of .96. This indicated that students were not sure how their teachers should act, which is understandable as students and teachers have different jobs and focus.

When asked whether teachers presented knowledge of how to use language in language classes (Question 13), the students stated that they did not know that for sure, with a mean of 3.13 and Std. Deviation of .59. This could be inferred that either first year students were not able to recognize the knowledge of pragmatics presented in classes by their teachers or that

teachers did not focus on the provision of pragmatic knowledge in their classes. As a result, most students preferred having the knowledge of pragmatics, e.g. politeness, implicatures (Question 14 and 17) included in their language classes, with a mean of 3.9 for Question 14 and 4.3 for Question 17 and a Std. Deviation of .9 for both.

4.2. Fourth year students' perspectives on pragmatic knowledge

Table 2 presents the summary of the result collected from the questionnaire submitted by fourth year students. Seventeen (17) questions of the questionnaire were grouped into five (5) issues.

Table 2: Descriptive Statistics of data collected from questionnaire

Descriptive Statistics					
	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Q1	81	3.00	5.00	4.1481	.57252
Q2	81	2.00	3.00	2.3086	.46481
Q3	81	3.00	5.00	3.9630	.66039
Q4	81	2.00	4.00	2.9630	.62138
Q5	81	3.00	5.00	4.0864	.47952
Q6	81	3.00	5.00	4.3457	.63562
Q7	81	2.00	5.00	4.1111	.72457
Q8	81	3.00	5.00	4.1111	.52440
Q9	81	3.00	5.00	4.1235	.59964
Q10	81	3.00	5.00	4.1728	.64788
Q11	81	2.00	5.00	4.3827	.64358
Q12	81	2.00	4.00	2.8148	.59395
Q13	81	3.00	5.00	3.9877	.53605
Q14	81	2.00	5.00	4.0864	.82458
Q15	81	3.00	5.00	4.1111	.41833
Q16	81	3.00	5.00	4.2716	.57036
Q17	81	3.00	5.00	4.4691	.52646

It should be noted here that fourth year students participated in this research six weeks after their course of pragmatics had started; therefore, they had a clear view of what pragmatics was. When asked about the role of the course of pragmatics (Question 1),

most of them agreed that it played a vital role in language learning in general and in English courses in particular, with a mean of 4.1 and a Std. Deviation of .57. They supported the idea of offering a course about how to use language to English-majored students (Question 8),

with a mean of 4.1 and a Std. Deviation of .52. However, participants hesitated when asked if they would like to take one more course about pragmatics (Question 4), with a mean of 2.9 and a Std. Deviation of .62. This could be explained that students felt that the amount of knowledge about pragmatics offered in this course was sufficient for them to be confident in real life communication.

Regarding the idea of only good knowledge of language being needed for success in communication (Question 2), the majority of students refuted this idea, with a mean of 2.3 and a Std. Deviation of .46. Students also consented that good knowledge about language did not guarantee success in communication (Question 7, with a mean of 4.1 and a Std. Deviation of .72). Most of them agreed that the knowledge of how to use language could help students better study the language skills (Question 3, with a mean of 3.9 and a Std. Deviation of .66), and that pragmatics should be included in language skills (Question 16, with a mean of 4.2 and a Std. Deviation of .57).

Questions 5, 6, 9 and 10 expressed the role of pragmatics, including culture, politeness, etc., in communication. The majority of students consented that pragmatics was necessary in language classrooms and could help them be more confident in their communication (with means of 4.0, 4.3, 4.1, and 4.1 respectively).

Regarding the role of teachers in language teaching and learning (Question 11), students confirmed that teachers played vital roles in helping students understand knowledge of pragmatics, with a mean of 4.3, and a Std. Deviation of .64. This goes accordingly with the fact that the majority of students disagreed with the idea that learners could achieve the knowledge of pragmatics (Question 12),

with a mean of 2.8 and a Std. Deviation of .59. When asked about the issue of presenting the knowledge of how to use language in language classrooms, students reported that their teachers had not focused on the matter of pragmatics (Question 15, with a mean of 4.1 and a Std. Deviation of .41).

Regarding the roles of teachers in language classrooms, students stated that they did not have chances to gain the knowledge of pragmatics presented officially by their teachers (Question 13), with a mean of 3.9 and a Std. Deviation of .53. Therefore, they preferred the teachers to include pragmatic knowledge in language courses (Question 14), with a mean of 4.0 and a Std. Deviation of .82. Also, students would like their teachers to use proper methods in introducing the knowledge of how to use language in language classrooms (Question 17), with a mean of 4.4 and a Std. Deviation of .52.

4.3. The two groups of students' perspectives on pragmatic knowledge

In order to see the differences between the two groups, i.e. first- and fourth-year students, in their viewpoints, the Independent Samples T-Test was carried out. The output is attached in Appendix 2.

The result showed that the two groups had similar opinions in the majority of issues discussed, i.e. 13 out of 17 questions posed. This means that the T Test did not show any statistically significant difference between the two groups in answers of 13 questions. Those questions are 1, 3, 5, 6, 7, 8, 10, 11, 12, 14, 16, and 17. (See Appendix 1 for more information).

The output indicated that there were 4 issues that the two groups showed statistically significant differences ($p = .00$). First, first year students could not make up their mind at

the issue of judging whether good knowledge of language was enough for communication (Question 2), with a mean of 2.8, and a Std. Deviation of .08, while fourth year students, after studying English as a major for several years, strongly believed that knowledge of language was not enough for communication. They completely disagreed with the idea, with a mean of 2.3 and a Std. Deviation of .08.

Second, when asked if they were willing to take a course on pragmatics (Question 4), first year students were willing to make up their mind to say yes, with a mean of 4.0. This is different from fourth year students ($p = .00$) who hesitated with the idea of taking another course in pragmatics, with a mean of 2.9. This could be explained that first year students were eager to take on new issues. Fourth year, answering the questionnaire while taking the course, might think one course was good enough and did not wish to take one more.

Third, regarding the issue of teachers presenting the knowledge of how to use language officially in classes of language, e.g. reading, writing, listening (Question 13), students from the two groups showed statistically significant difference ($p = .00$) in their perspectives. While first year students were not sure whether their teacher introduced the knowledge of pragmatics in their language classes, with a mean of 3.1, fourth year students were certain that their teachers did not do this in their language classes, with a mean of 3.9.

Fourth, when asked whether their teachers have included the knowledge of pragmatics in language classes or not (Question 15), first year students were not certain if that happened, with a mean of 2.9 and a Std. Deviation of .09. This is probably because first year students did not have a clear idea of what pragmatics was and they did not focus on this issue. This

is statistically significant different ($p = .00$) from fourth year students when they agreed that the knowledge of pragmatics was not paid much attention to in language courses at their school, with a mean of 4.1 and a Std. Deviation of .04. It is clear that fourth year students, after having had some time working with pragmatics, knew what it was about language use and they were able to realize those issues about pragmatics in language courses.

4.4. Discussion

The two groups showed similar perspectives on the role of pragmatics in language classes, which indicates that English-majored students are aware of the importance of the knowledge of how to use language in language classrooms. This in turn helps them succeed in their studies and eventually in their real-life communication. It is obvious that English-majored students realize the importance of pragmatics in their communication.

To a certain extent, language students participating in the study, especially fourth year students, have both practical and theoretical realization about pragmatic knowledge, which is quite different from Ekin and Damar (2013) who state that the students' "awareness was mostly on theoretical pragmatic knowledge". The evidence from this study is quite contradictory to Celis' (2017) result which states that "students with the most basic levels of English in linguistic terms display a higher pragmatic competence than those with more advanced levels".

Li et al. (2015) found out that Chinese EFL learners' socio-pragmatic competence is still underdeveloped due to students' ignorance of the different degrees of imposition present in different social contexts. This study validates their findings, regarding first year students who

have not taken a course of pragmatics. Also, as stated previously, Nguyen, Pham, and Pham (2012) confirm that students with explicit metapragmatic explanation, and correction of pragmatic and grammatical errors outperform the group with implicit strategy. This study supports their strategy since it is apparent that language learners would like to be instructed with explicit explanation about how to use language, which would aid them in their communication.

Regarding the first difference between the two groups, first year students hesitated to decide whether good knowledge of language, i.e. vocabulary, grammar, etc., may or may not lead to success in communication, while fourth year students disagreed with the idea that only knowledge of language may lead to success. This could be attributed to the fact that fourth year students have experienced real-life English for a while in their real-life activities; therefore, they understood the role of pragmatics in communication. In an era when cross country communication is booming, the need of being equipped with appropriate usage of language is vital; therefore, language book writers and teachers should take this issue into consideration so as to provide language learners with sufficient pragmatic knowledge in their language classes. Explicit knowledge of pragmatics should be clearly included in language tasks, which would assist learners to acquire the underlying meaning of utterances. This in turns would help learners succeed in communication.

When asked if they were willing to take a course in pragmatics, first year students were unsure if it was a good choice while fourth year students, who had been taking the course of pragmatics for a while, stated that they did not think that was a good idea. This could be explained that first year students were not sure

what pragmatics was and they could not make their mind whether it was necessary to take a course about pragmatics or it was enough to learn the knowledge of how to use language in language courses. Fourth year students had an idea what pragmatics was and how much was enough for them to be successful in their communication; therefore, they were sure that the course they were taking was enough for them in their usage of language when communicating in real life situations. As mentioned previously, explicit instructions about pragmatics should be provided to language learners as early as possible. If that is secured, language-majored students at higher education would be aware of the necessity of the knowledge of how to use language, thus promoting their willingness to take part in pragmatics courses or at least to be ready for the instruction of pragmatic knowledge at language classes.

The third difference between the two groups of students resided at the issue of whether the provision of pragmatic knowledge in language classes was carried out by language teachers. First year students had no idea if their teachers officially provided the knowledge of language usage, while fourth year students stated that they did not see the task of delivering pragmatic awareness in their language classes. It is quite obvious that it might be quite hard to recognize such subtle linguistic matters as pragmatic notions of presupposition, implicature, speech acts, etc. It is probably a fact that language teachers at secondary and high schools, and possibly in some classes at university may not save sufficient amount of time mentioning the pragmatic knowledge explicitly. This is possibly due to the amount of language knowledge they have to cover during limited time distributed in the program. Therefore, it is apparent that language teachers as well

as language program designers should take this issue into consideration to make sure the knowledge of pragmatics be introduced in language classes.

Regarding the issue of language teachers' paying attention to the provision of pragmatic knowledge in language classes, first year students were reluctant to confirm while fourth year students completely agreed that their teachers did not focus on that. After having studied the course of pragmatics for a while, fourth year students were well aware of the knowledge of language use, which helped them recognize the availability of pragmatic issues presented in language classrooms. This indicates that the issue of presenting pragmatic knowledge in language classrooms in general is not obvious. Only English-majored students who take the course of pragmatics know about this issue. It is obviously necessary that the knowledge of language usage be introduced in language materials and then language classes, which would both equip language students with the conscious awareness of pragmatics, and ultimately help them be familiar with the usage of language in appropriate context, thus promoting success in communication.

5. Conclusion

The paper has made an attempt to discover the attitudes of first- and fourth-year students towards the role of pragmatics and related issues. Most students agreed that the knowledge of how to use language plays a vital role in language classrooms. The study revealed that first year students were not well aware of the issue relating to pragmatics, which indicates that the notions of language usage were not officially discussed in language classrooms.

Therefore, it is obvious that in language classes, the knowledge of pragmatics should be included in the learning and teaching

activities to make sure that language learners are able to realize how to communicate appropriately, which plays a crucial part in the success of communication, the ultimate goal of language learning and teaching.

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THÁI ĐỘ CỦA SINH VIÊN CHUYÊN NGỮ TIẾNG ANH ĐỐI VỚI NHẬN THỨC VỀ NGỮ DỤNG HỌC

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Tóm tắt: Khả năng tốt về tiếng, như từ vựng, ngữ pháp, không nhất thiết đảm bảo cho sự thành công trong giao tiếp. Người học tiếng cần được trang bị về kiến thức ngôn ngữ cũng như kiến thức về cách thức sử dụng ngôn ngữ đó. Bài báo trình bày kết quả nghiên cứu về thái độ của sinh viên chuyên ngữ tiếng Anh tại một trường đại học ở Việt Nam đối với kiến thức ngữ dụng học. Dữ liệu được thu thập thông qua bảng khảo sát. Phần mềm SPSS phiên bản 20 được sử dụng để phân tích dữ liệu. Kết quả cho thấy phần lớn sinh viên chuyên ngữ nhận thức được vai trò của ngữ dụng học trong các học phần ngôn ngữ. Sinh viên năm 1 và sinh viên năm cuối khác nhau ở 3 vấn đề: 1) quan điểm về kiến thức ngôn ngữ đủ hay chưa đủ cho mục đích giao tiếp; 2) sự sẵn sàng để học về ngữ dụng học; và 3) vai trò của giảng viên trong việc truyền tải kiến thức ngữ dụng trong các lớp học ngôn ngữ. Từ đó cho thấy việc giới thiệu kiến thức về cách sử dụng ngôn ngữ đóng vai trò quan trọng trong biên soạn tài liệu và trong các hoạt động giảng dạy ngôn ngữ.

Từ khóa: ngữ dụng, giao tiếp, quan điểm, cách sử dụng ngôn ngữ

Appendices

Appendix 1: Questionnaire for first year English-majored students

Dear students,

We are conducting a study with English language learners about the use of language in teaching and learning language at Dalat University, i.e. English. We would like to have your opinion towards the following statements. We confirm that all information will be kept confidential and be used only for the purpose of the study.

Please circle 1 to 5 according to the following coding:

1. Completely disagree   2. Disagree   3. No idea   4. Agree   5. Completely agree

No.	Statements	Completely disagree	Disagree	No ideas	Agree	Completely agree
1	Apart from language courses like reading, writing, speaking, listening, grammar, etc., there should be courses about how to use language (related to culture, politeness, etc.)	1	2	3	4	5
2	We just need good knowledge of language (i.e. vocabulary, grammar, intonation, etc.) to help us succeed in communication.	1	2	3	4	5
3	If we have good knowledge of how to use a language, we will be able to better study language courses, e.g. Reading, Listening, Speaking, etc.	1	2	3	4	5
4	I am willing to take a course about how to use language.	1	2	3	4	5
5	Studying how to use language will help language learners be more confident and successful in communication.	1	2	3	4	5
6	If we are equipped with the culture of English speaking countries, we will be able to study English better.	1	2	3	4	5

7	Good knowledge about language (e.g. vocabulary, grammar, etc.) does not guarantee success in communication.	1	2	3	4	5
8	It is essential to offer a course about how to use language for English majored students.	1	2	3	4	5
9	The culture of English speaking countries should be included in all courses so that learners would know more about how to use language and therefore use it more appropriately.	1	2	3	4	5
10	Knowledge of how to use language, e.g. implicatures, politeness, etc. will help learners understand more about the language and be more confident in their communication.	1	2	3	4	5
11	Teachers play a crucial role in helping learners understand issues related to culture or how to behave linguistically in language classrooms.	1	2	3	4	5
12	It is teachers' main role to help learners get language knowledge of vocabulary, grammar. Other issues like politeness, implicatures, etc. will be the learners' job.	1	2	3	4	5
13	When studying courses like reading, writing, listening, etc., I do not have a chance to know how to use language presented by my teacher officially.	1	2	3	4	5
14	I think if teachers include the knowledge of how to use language in their language courses, learners will study the language more successfully.	1	2	3	4	5

15	I think my English teachers have not focused on how to use the language. They have just paid attention to language skills only, e.g. vocabulary, grammar, etc.	1	2	3	4	5
16	The knowledge of how to use language should be included in language classes of reading, listening, writing, grammar, etc.	1	2	3	4	5
17	Paralinguistic issues, i.e. politeness, implicatures, etc., are hard to acquire; therefore, teachers should employ proper methods to help students understand them.	1	2	3	4	5

THANK YOU FOR YOUR COOPERATION.

Questionnaire for fourth year English-majored students

Dear students,

We are conducting a study with English language learners about the use of language in teaching and learning language at Dalat University, i.e. English. We would like to have your opinion towards the following statements. We confirm that all information will be kept confidential and be used only for the purpose of the study.

Please circle 1 to 5 according to following coding:

1. Completely disagree   2. Disagree   3. No idea   4. Agree   5. Completely agree

No.	Statements	Completely disagree	Disagree	No ideas	Agree	Completely agree
1	This pragmatics course is necessary for learners of language in general and of English in particular.	1	2	3	4	5
2	We just need good knowledge of language (i.e. vocabulary, grammar, intonation, etc.) to help us succeed in communication.	1	2	3	4	5
3	If we have good knowledge of how to use a language, we will be able to better study language courses, e.g. Reading, Listening, Speaking, etc.	1	2	3	4	5

4	I am willing to take another course on pragmatics to learn more about pragmatics.	1	2	3	4	5
5	Studying how to use language will help language learners be more confident and successful in communication.	1	2	3	4	5
6	If we are equipped with the culture of English speaking countries, we will be able to study English better.	1	2	3	4	5
7	Good knowledge about language (e.g. vocabulary, grammar, etc.) does not guarantee success in communication.	1	2	3	4	5
8	It is essential to offer a course about how to use language for English majored students.	1	2	3	4	5
9	The culture of English speaking countries should be included in all courses so that learners would know more about how to use language and therefore use it more appropriately.	1	2	3	4	5
10	Knowledge of how to use language, e.g. implicatures, politeness, etc. will help learners understand more about the language and be more confident in their communication.	1	2	3	4	5
11	Teachers play a crucial role in helping learners understand issues related to culture or how to behave linguistically in language classrooms.	1	2	3	4	5
12	It is teachers' main role to help learners get language knowledge of vocabulary, grammar. Other issues like politeness, implicatures, etc. will be the learners' job.	1	2	3	4	5
13	When studying courses like reading, writing, listening, etc., I do not have a chance to know how to use language presented by my teacher officially.	1	2	3	4	5

14	I think if teachers include the knowledge of how to use language in their language courses, learners will study the language more successfully.	1	2	3	4	5
15	I think my English teachers have not focused on how to use the language. They have just paid attention to language skills only, e.g. vocabulary, grammar, etc.	1	2	3	4	5
16	The knowledge of how to use language should be included in language classes of reading, listening, writing, grammar, etc.	1	2	3	4	5
17	Paralinguistic issues, i.e. politeness, implicatures, etc., are hard to acquire; therefore, teachers should employ proper methods to help students understand them.	1	2	3	4	5

THANK YOU FOR YOUR COOPERATION.

Appendix 2. Output of Independent Samples T Test

Group Statistics					
	Year	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Q1	Year 1	102	4.0784	.79212	.07843
	Year 4	81	4.1481	.57252	.06361
Q2	Year 1	102	2.8431	.84132	.08330
	Year 4	81	2.3086	.46481	.05165
Q3	Year 1	102	3.9902	.75117	.07438
	Year 4	81	3.9630	.66039	.07338
Q4	Year 1	102	4.0490	.72272	.07156
	Year 4	81	2.9630	.62138	.06904
Q5	Year 1	102	4.1569	.74122	.07339
	Year 4	81	4.0864	.47952	.05328
Q6	Year 1	102	4.1961	.59767	.05918
	Year 4	81	4.3457	.63562	.07062
Q7	Year 1	102	4.0392	.81958	.08115
	Year 4	81	4.1111	.72457	.08051
Q8	Year 1	102	3.9804	.75754	.07501
	Year 4	81	4.1111	.52440	.05827
Q9	Year 1	102	4.0588	.64214	.06358
	Year 4	81	4.1235	.59964	.06663
Q10	Year 1	102	4.0882	.56469	.05591
	Year 4	81	4.1728	.64788	.07199

Q11	Year 1	102	4.2059	.66509	.06585
	Year 4	81	4.3827	.64358	.07151
Q12	Year 1	102	2.9118	.93452	.09253
	Year 4	81	2.8148	.59395	.06599
Q13	Year 1	102	3.1373	.59767	.05918
	Year 4	81	3.9877	.53605	.05956
Q14	Year 1	102	3.9608	.90018	.08913
	Year 4	81	4.0864	.82458	.09162
Q15	Year 1	102	2.9412	.96291	.09534
	Year 4	81	4.1111	.41833	.04648
Q16	Year 1	102	4.0882	.73259	.07254
	Year 4	81	4.2716	.57036	.06337
Q17	Year 1	102	4.3725	.48587	.04811
	Year 4	81	4.4691	.52646	.05850

Independent Samples Test

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
Q1	Equal variances assumed	3.677	.057	-.666	181	.506	-.06972	.10471	-.27632	.13689
	Equal variances not assumed			-.690	179.514	.491	-.06972	.10099	-.26899	.12956
Q2	Equal variances assumed	23.550	.000	5.128	181	.000	.53450	.10423	.32884	.74015
	Equal variances not assumed			5.453	163.135	.000	.53450	.09801	.34096	.72803
Q3	Equal variances assumed	.035	.851	.257	181	.798	.02723	.10604	-.18199	.23646
	Equal variances not assumed			.261	179.094	.795	.02723	.10448	-.17894	.23340
Q4	Equal variances assumed	3.754	.054	10.735	181	.000	1.08606	.10117	.88643	1.28568
	Equal variances not assumed			10.922	179.827	.000	1.08606	.09944	.88984	1.28227

Q5	Equal variances assumed	17.024	.000	.741	181	.460	.07044	.09509	-.11718	.25807
	Equal variances not assumed			.777	174.368	.438	.07044	.09069	-.10855	.24944
Q6	Equal variances assumed	3.556	.061	-1.635	181	.104	-.14960	.09149	-.33012	.03092
	Equal variances not assumed			-1.624	166.690	.106	-.14960	.09214	-.33151	.03231
Q7	Equal variances assumed	.064	.800	-.620	181	.536	-.07190	.11594	-.30066	.15687
	Equal variances not assumed			-.629	178.882	.530	-.07190	.11431	-.29747	.15368
Q8	Equal variances assumed	9.133	.003	-1.321	181	.188	-.13072	.09892	-.32590	.06446
	Equal variances not assumed			-1.376	177.892	.170	-.13072	.09498	-.31815	.05671
Q9	Equal variances assumed	.023	.879	-.696	181	.487	-.06463	.09283	-.24779	.11853
	Equal variances not assumed			-.702	176.266	.484	-.06463	.09210	-.24639	.11712
Q10	Equal variances assumed	6.051	.015	-.943	181	.347	-.08460	.08972	-.26164	.09244
	Equal variances not assumed			-.928	159.623	.355	-.08460	.09115	-.26462	.09541
Q11	Equal variances assumed	.135	.714	-1.812	181	.072	-.17683	.09758	-.36938	.01571
	Equal variances not assumed			-1.819	174.067	.071	-.17683	.09721	-.36870	.01503

		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
Q12	Equal variances assumed	12.196	.001	.812	181	.418	.09695	.11936	-.13857	.33247
	Equal variances not assumed			.853	173.280	.395	.09695	.11365	-.12738	.32127
Q13	Equal variances assumed	5.465	.020	-10.003	181	.000	-.85040	.08502	-1.01815	-.68264
	Equal variances not assumed			-10.128	178.290	.000	-.85040	.08396	-1.01609	-.68471
Q14	Equal variances assumed	.001	.973	-.973	181	.332	-.12564	.12912	-.38041	.12914
	Equal variances not assumed			-.983	177.296	.327	-.12564	.12782	-.37789	.12661
Q15	Equal variances assumed	28.476	.000	-10.193	181	.000	-1.16993	.11477	-1.39640	-.94347
	Equal variances not assumed			-11.030	144.416	.000	-1.16993	.10607	-1.37958	-.96029
Q16	Equal variances assumed	.002	.966	-1.851	181	.066	-.18337	.09909	-.37888	.01214
	Equal variances not assumed			-1.904	180.939	.059	-.18337	.09632	-.37343	.00669
Q17	Equal variances assumed	6.106	.014	-1.287	181	.200	-.09659	.07504	-.24465	.05148
	Equal variances not assumed			-1.275	165.022	.204	-.09659	.07574	-.24613	.05295

CONCEPTUAL METAPHORS OF SPRING
IN ENGLISH AND VIETNAMESE SONG LYRICS

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Abstract: This paper summarily reports the results of a study which attempts to identify conceptual metaphors of spring through their representations called metaphorical expressions in English and Vietnamese song lyrics from cognitive perspective based on the theory of conceptual metaphors initiated by Lakoff and Johnson, with the work *Metaphors We Live by* (1980a). The data collected from 205 English and Vietnamese songs (98 and 107 songs respectively) from the 20th century to the present consist of 736 metaphorical expressions. By employing description as the main method with the assistance of comparative method, and utilizing the procedure of conceptual metaphor identification (Steen, 1999, p. 73), the study unveils the similarities and differences of conceptual metaphors of spring in English and Vietnamese songs. The results reveal that English and Vietnamese share 12 conceptual metaphors of spring (out of 20 ones in total). Moreover, the explanations are given to elaborate on these results in terms of culture, including people's living experiences and environment.

Key words: metaphorical expression, conceptual metaphor, target domain, source domain, mapping

1. Introduction

Cognitive linguistics in general, cognitive semantics in particular, have made great strides in the past decades, which sets the foundation for conceptual metaphors to flourish recently. Therefore, a great number of studies have been conducted to examine conceptual metaphors focusing on both abstract and concrete concepts around our human worldwide and in Vietnam in particular. Especially, significant attention has been paid to abstract concepts as target domains in investigating conceptual metaphors, which can be easily understood because metaphorical conceptualization is a process of conceptualizing a more abstract domain in terms of more concrete domains (Lakoff & Johnson, 1980a).

Up to now, the abstract concepts which have been examined vary, e.g. life, emotion, sadness and so forth. Likewise, time, an abstract concept, also is widely investigated by both foreign and Vietnamese authors (Lakoff & Johnson, 1980a; Kövecses, 2010; Shinohara & Pardeshi, 2011, to name just a few). Being a time concept, however, seasons, including spring, have been limitedly examined so far. As a consequence, to enrich the body of literature of conceptual metaphors, this research is

conducted to identify conceptual metaphors of spring in English and Vietnamese. In other words, the source domains which are mapped onto spring in English and Vietnamese metaphorical expressions are found out. Accordingly, this paper can give some suggestions for research options in the area of English teaching to Vietnamese learners.

2. Theoretical background

2.1. Definition of Conceptual Metaphors

In Conceptual Metaphor Theory (CMT), metaphor in essence is the "understanding and experiencing one kind of thing in terms of another" (Lakoff & Johnson, 1980a, p. 5). The 'thing' that is to be understood is often an abstract concept which is referred to in CMT as the target domain (TD); the other concrete 'thing' which is used to understand the abstract concept is referred to as the source domain (SD); and according to Kövecses (2010) this phenomenon of conceptualizing one domain in terms of another is called conceptual metaphor.

For example, the metaphor TIME IS A MOVING OBJECT (Lakoff, 1994, pp. 56-58), illustrates that conceptual metaphor is defined "as understanding one conceptual domain in terms of another conceptual domain" (Kövecses, 2010, p. 21), as well as gives explanation for the fact that the metaphorical
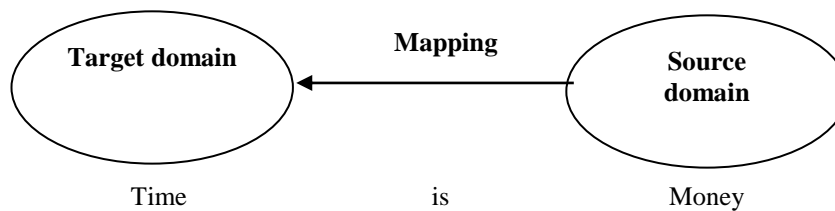
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process generally goes "from the more concrete to the more abstract but not the other way around" (ibid., p. 6). Here, the concept of time is conceptualized by concepts of space. More specifically, particular times are considered objects and the passing of time is considered the motion of these objects. This consideration becomes apparent in expressions like *the time has come*, *the time has arrived*, or *the coming week* (Lakoff, 1994, pp. 56-58). Actually, a *week* is not coming and a *time* does not arrive, at least not in a physical sense. But there are correspondences between the concepts of *space* and *time* that enable an understanding of the concepts of one domain by the concepts of the other domain. Here, the person experiencing time corresponds to the observer with a fixed location and time corresponds to the object that moves towards the observer. This similarity between a moving object and time is essential in allowing a conceptualization of time by the concept of space.

In short, the term *metaphor* is used in this study in the sense of the term ***conceptual metaphor*** (in which one conceptual domain is understood in terms of another conceptual domain). This understanding is achieved by seeing a set of systematic correspondences, or mappings, between the two domains. Conceptual metaphors can be given by means of the formula A is B or A as B, i.e., A denotes the TD and B the SD as in the metaphor *time passing as a moving object* mentioned above, where the concept of moving object is mapped to the concept of time passing (Lakoff & Johnson, 1980a; Lakoff, 1993; Kövecses, 2010).

2.2. Components of Conceptual Metaphor

As mentioned above, metaphor is identified as a process of mapping between two different conceptual domains: the target domain (the concept to be described by the metaphor), and the source domain (the concept drawn upon, or used to create the metaphorical construction). The original definition of domain is given by Lakoff and Johnson (1980a, p. 266) as follows:

> In a metaphor, there are two main domains: the target domain, which is constituted by the immediate subject matter, and the source domain, in which important metaphorical reasoning takes place and that provides the source concepts used in that reasoning. Metaphorical language has literal meaning in the source domain.

The cognitive mechanism of a conceptual metaphor is depicted via the relation between source and target domains as the following figure.

Figure 1

Metaphorical Mapping

A mapping is a systematic set of correspondences which exist between constituent elements of the SD and TD (Charteris-Black, 2004). It means that the systematic identification of the SD and TD is termed as a metaphorical mapping. Discussing metaphorical mappings, Lakoff argues that they preserve the cognitive topology of the source domain in a way consistent with the inherent structure of the target domain (1993, p. 215). Additionally, Kövecses (2010, p. 371) shares that conceptual metaphors are characterized by a set of conceptual correspondences between elements of the source and target domains. Such correspondences can also be found within a domain between two mental spaces. These correspondences are technically called mappings. The mapping links the two domains in the sense that aspects of the source are made to correspond with the target (Lakoff & Johnson, 1980a; Lakoff & Turner, 1989; Lakoff, 1993). For brevity, to create a metaphor, we try to code the mapping between the source and the target domains under the mechanism of conceptualization.

2.3. Types of conceptual metaphors

In actuality, metaphors can be classified in many ways. The types of conceptual metaphors are mentioned much by Lakoff and Johnson in

a number of works (Lakoff & Johnson, 1980a, 1980b; Lakoff, 1992). Notably, the classification is viewed in detail, significantly profoundly and adequately by Kövecses basing mainly on his predecessor's theories (Lakoff & Johnson, 1980a). He focuses on four different ways that play an especially important role in the cognitive linguistic view. Specifically, they rely on the conventionality, function, nature, and level of generality of metaphors (2010, p. 33).

Firstly, based on their cognitive functions, conceptual metaphors can be classified into 3 types, namely (1) structural metaphor (that maps the structure of the source domain onto the structure of the target and in this way allows speakers to understand one domain in terms of another); (2) ontological metaphor (that provides extremely fundamental but very crude understanding for target concepts); and (3) orientational metaphor (that has primarily an evaluative function).

Secondly, according to their nature, conceptual metaphors can be called *image-schema metaphor*. That is, conceptual metaphors may use both propositional knowledge and images of various kinds (including not only visual images). Images having extremely general schematic structure are called "image-schemas" that may structure many abstract concepts metaphorically. Images that are not based on recurrent experience with a generic structure but capture a specific experience are called "one-shot images." These can also participate in metaphorical understanding.

Thirdly, relying upon their level of generality, they are categorized into two types: specific-level and generic-level metaphors. Most conceptual metaphors employ concepts that are at a specific level of generality. For example, the metaphors: LIFE IS A JOURNEY, AN ARGUMENT IS WAR, IDEAS ARE FOOD, etc., are specific-level ones when *life*, *journey, argument, war, ideas*, and *food* are specific-level concepts. On the contrary, some conceptual metaphors are generic-level, e.g., EVENTS ARE ACTION, GENERIC IS SPECIFIC. Generic-level metaphors have special jobs designed for them in the working of our metaphorical conceptual system.

Finally, based on their conventionality, conceptual metaphors are classified into two kinds: conventional and novel metaphors (or unconventional metaphors). The classification considered in the degree of conventionality is deeply clarified with the assistance of the types briefly mentioned above. To be specific, the term "conventional" is used here in the sense of *well established* and *well entrenched*. Kövecses (2010, p. 34) concludes that "a metaphor is highly conventional or conventionalized (i.e., well established and deeply entrenched) in the usage of a linguistic community." According to Lakoff and Johnson (1980a), conventional metaphors are metaphors that make up the ordinary conceptual system manifested in our everyday language. In other words, the metaphors which are highly conventionalized are mostly used unconsciously, automatically, and effortlessly for the normal, daily purposes of the speaker. Similarly, each conventional conceptual metaphor involves in several conventional metaphorical expressions, the manifestation of conceptual correspondences across conceptual domains. In other words, the conventional metaphorical expressions are comprehended thanks to the knowledge of conventional conceptual metaphors based on our experiences (ibid., p. 151). Like the term "conventional", the term "novel" refers not just to conceptual metaphors but to metaphorical expressions. Novel metaphors (or called unconventional metaphors), which go beyond our conventional conceptual system, provide us with the new understanding of our experience (Lakoff & Johnson, 1980a). Hence, they are imaginative and creative.

3. Research methodology

3.1. Data Collection

The data collected comes from English and Vietnamese song lyrics from the 20th century to present. As an investigation of conceptual metaphors of spring, the samples selected come from song lyrics where spring conceptual metaphors are expected to be rich. There are several sources, namely, Internet-based records, CD/DVD-based records, and printed publications.

Actually, a great number of season song lyrics have been written in English from the 20th century to present. However, to make sure that the data is in native language, the song lyrics selected have to be composed by the authors who were born and grew up in the countries involved in the Inner Circle, including the USA,
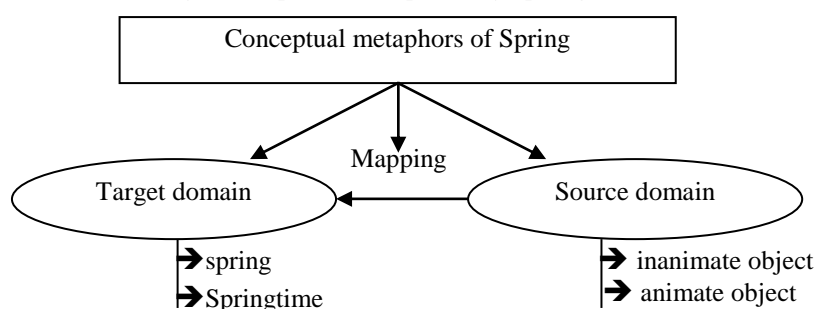
the UK, Canada, Australia and New Zealand in terms of the three-circle model of world Englishes (Kachru, 1985). The Vietnamese corpus is built from the song lyrics by famous composers, namely, Trịnh Công Sơn, Văn Cao, Phú Quang, Ngô Thụy Miên, Nguyễn Văn Tý, and so forth. In short, as an English-Vietnamese comparative and contrastive study, the two corpora in the two languages are quite equal with 98 songs, and 107 songs collected, equivalent to 288 and 448 expressions in English and Vietnamese.

3.2. Analytical Method

Descriptive and comparative methods are deployed to analyze the data both qualitatively and quantitatively. In this study, the data collected is described to set up a foundation for analysis, interpretation, and explanation. Thus, after metaphorical expressions (linguistic metaphors), and conceptual metaphors related to season are identified, semantic and cognitive factors were described and the mechanism of using, interpreting, and explaining metaphorical expressions and conceptual metaphors of spring in English song lyrics were explained. In addition, the comparative method is primarily exploited in this study so as to compare the conceptual metaphors of spring to find out the similarities, and the differences between them in the two languages.

3.3. Analytical Framework

It has been assumed that the world where human beings live can be categorized into concrete and abstract entities. This study will find concrete domains which are used to map onto target domain **spring** in English and Vietnamese. Concrete domain here is understood as entities that human beings can perceive via five senses: *vision*, *hearing*, *touching*, *smelling* and *tasting* by their visual, auditory, tactile, olfactory and gustatory organs. Actually, these SDs are divided into two categories: animate and inanimate.

In terms of CMT, spring, one of four seasons in a year, is TD which is manifested by virtue of another (called source domain) through conceptual mapping. Here words *spring* and *springtime* in English, and *xuân, mùa xuân* in Vietnamese refer to this season. This study will find out the SDs used to map on spring entities in terms of concrete domains, namely, *inanimate objects* (for example, physical entities, natural substances, etc.), and *animate objects*, including *human beings* and *plants*. In other words, within the scope of study, *animate objects* are understood as *living entities*. In short, the analytical framework of this study can be visualized in the following figure.

Figure 2

Analytical Framework of Conceptual Metaphors of Spring

4. Findings and discussion

4.1. Inanimate domain

4.1.1. Physical entities

That spring is conceptualized as a physical entity is found to be common in both languages with fairly high quantities; however, the number of metaphorical expressions in Vietnamese nearly doubles that in English, namely 165 and 95 metaphorical expressions

respectively. In this case, *spring* is an abstract concept, and it is mapped through the image of a concrete object that human beings can easily perceive by virtue of physical experiences. Take the following expressions as typical examples:

*(1) Let me **see** what spring's like* (Bart, *Fly Me to the Moon*)

*(2) Mùa xuân **trên** vành môi tươi thắm* (Nguyễn Ngọc Thiện, *Ta đã thấy mùa xuân*)

    'Spring is on the ruddy lip rim'

*(3) Em đứng lên mùa xuân vừa **mở*** (Trịnh Công Sơn, *Gọi tên bốn mùa*)

'*By the time I stood up, spring had been open*'

According to *Cambridge Advanced Learner's Dictionary* (2005), the verb **see** in (1) means "to be conscious of what is around you by using your eyes". It can be understood that the thing which is seen must be concrete. Similarly, in Vietnamese, the prepositional phrase **trên vành môi**, consisting of the preposition **trên** "*on*" combining with the noun phrase **vành môi** "*lip*", which create an adverb phrase of place, in (2) reveals that **mùa xuân** "***spring***" here can be seen via human's eyes (called visual organ). It is apparent that things people are able to perceive by at least one of their five sensory organs are concrete. Likewise, the expression **mùa xuân vừa mở** "***spring had been open***" in (3) leads to this manifestation of **spring**. According to the *Vietnamese Dictionary* (Vietnam Institute of Linguistics, 2003), the adjective **mở** "*open*" is used to describe bounded objects. Thus, with the analysis of these cases, it can be concluded that **spring** is considered a **concrete object**.

Noticeably, with regard to physical entities, **spring** is manifested as a container with a big number of metaphorical expressions in English. However, that is much smaller in Vietnamese. In other words, the number of metaphorical expressions of spring leading to metaphor SPRING IS A CONTAINER in English predominates that in Vietnamese. Precisely, the metaphorical expressions account for 29 in English and 8 in Vietnamese respectively. The preposition **in** (in English), **trong** (in Vietnamese), which are utilized with a big frequency in the corpus, indicates that **spring** is conceptualized as a bounded region. Actually, it has ever been claimed that the container image schema is a vital reflection in the conception of limited time as a container (Johnson, 1987; Lakoff & Kövecses, 1987; Lakoff & Johnson, 1999). Therefore, that metaphor SPRING IS A CONTAINER is ubiquitous in English, and also applicable in Vietnamese as in the examples below:

*(4) We gathered **in** spring* (Gibb, *We Gathered Here in Spring*)

*(5) And there's something about the Southland **in** the springtime* (Saliers, *Southland in the Springtime*)

*(6) Giấu em **vào** mùa xuân, vùi trong bao kẽ lá* (Quốc Nam, *Chơi vơi*)

'*Hide me **in** spring, bury me in leaves*'

*(7) Lạc về đâu tôi như lá thu **trong** mùa xuân* (Trần Minh Phi, *Gửi mùa xuân*)

'*Lost in nowhere, I am like an autumn leaf **in** spring*'

The prepositions **in** and **vào, trong** here indicates that **spring** is portrayed as a bounded region. The expressions (4, 6) show that **spring** contains **we** and **me** (contained things); or in (5, 7) **the Southland** and **autumn leaf** are portrayed as an object contained in the **spring** entity, leading to the metaphor SPRING IS A CONTAINER, which is a conventional metaphor.

Besides being viewed as a container, **spring** is considered a **thing contained**. However, this mapping occupies a smaller number with 12, compared to CONTAINER case with 29 expressions in English. Interestingly, the number of expressions for the two cases is the same, namely, 8 expressions. It can be clarified in some examples as follows:

*(8) It's spring **in person** that makes it bright* (Hart, *Yours Sincerely*)

*(9) For their hearts were **full of** spring* (Troup Jr., *Their Hearts Were Full of Spring*)

*(10) Xuân **trong** tôi đã khơi trong một đêm vui* (Phạm Duy, *Xuân ca*)

'*Spring **in me** awoken on a happy night*'

The entities **person** and **me** here are containers which contain the entity **spring**. With the sense of the adjective phrase **full of**, the expression (9) also points that **spring** is in the entity's heart. It means that **spring** in (8), (9) and (10) is portrayed as a **corporeal entity** contained in a container.

Especially, the MOTION metaphor occupies the biggest number in the two languages, with 39 expressions, equivalent to 55 frequencies in English, and 120 expressions, equivalent to 127 frequencies in Vietnamese. Like time, an abstract domain that is conceptualized as motion (Lakoff & Johnson, 1980a; Kövecses, 2010; Evans & Green, 2006), the mapping of spring is also taken from the domain of MOTION. As a matter of fact, according to Lakoff and Johnson (1999), there are two subtypes of the conceptualization, namely, moving time metaphor, and moving observer metaphor. Accordingly, metaphor

SPRING IS MOTION is classified into two cases above.

In terms of moving objects, spring is talked about as a passage in some forms. In this conceptualization, spring is viewed as something moving. Thus, this yields the metaphor SPRING IS A MOVING OBJECT with the following mapping:

Objects → spring

The motion of objects past the observer → the passage of spring

The motion here is expressed by senses of verbs: *arrive, come, go, return, pass, fall,* and adverbs: *over, through* in English or *sang, đến, tới, về, qua, đi qua, ra đi* in Vietnamese via the following expressions:

(11) Spring arrived on time (Landesman, *Spring Can Really Hang You Up The Most*)

(12) How like the spring

To return in a day (Kirkland, *Dienda*)

(13) Spring has come, the good fountain flows (Lewis, *Hebridean Sun*)

(14) Ta hẹn mùa xuân sang mình sẽ cưới nhau (Nhật Ngân, *Một lần dang dở*)

'We promise that when spring comes, we will get married'

(15) Xuân về cho cây xanh lá (Lữ Liên, *Lạc mất mùa xuân*)

Spring returns, plants become greener.

On the contrary, moving observer metaphor (or the Moving Ego Metaphor) means that the observer/ego moves to *spring*, meanwhile *spring* is stationary. This conceptual metaphor is only found in Vietnamese. It can be illustrated by the following example:

(16) Cánh én bước tới chào xuân mới (Nguyễn Nam, *Mùa xuân sang*)

'Swallow wings approached nearer, and greeted the new spring'

In this expression, basing on the verb *bước tới* "*approach*", spring here which does not move, is approached by the agent of moving action - swallow wings. However, the Vietnamese corpus shows that the number of expressions for moving observer metaphor is much smaller than the former. There are only 3 expressions compared with 120 ones of *moving spring*.

In terms of physical entity, the source domain mapping onto this season is also found as the manifestations of colored objects in both corpora. However, the conceptual metaphor SPRING IS A COLORED OBJECT in

Vietnamese has expressions nearly four times as many as those in English, with 11 and 3 cases respectively. This manifestation of spring can be clarified with the following expressions.

(17) Waiting for the color of spring (Baez, *April 5th*)

(18) Xuân còn thắm tươi; Anh còn mong chờ (Phạm Duy, *Xuân ca*)

'Spring is still ruddy, I still look forward to seeing you'

(19) Xuân xanh lơ, hắt hiu trong trời nắng mưa (Nguyễn Bá Khiêm, *Chiều hạ vàng*)

'Spring is blue, and gloomy in the sun and rain'

Obviously, the expression (17), with the phrase *the color of spring*, proves that spring is a concrete object having colors. In addition, the adjectives *thắm tươi* "*ruddy*", and *xanh lơ* "*blue*" in (18, 19) denote colors which are recognized via the sight (vision) of the living entity, namely human beings. It is obvious that *spring*, an abstract object from the perspective of physical season, however, here is depicted with numerous colors, which evokes the image of colored objects mapped onto *spring*.

Surprisingly, the data reveal that two metaphors: SPRING IS A SCENTED OBJECT, and SPRING IS TASTED OBJECT are applicable in Vietnamese, yet totally absent in English corpus. Consider the following Vietnamese expressions:

(20) Trong hương xuân ta vẫy chào (Nguyễn Ngọc Thiện, *Mùa xuân ơi*)

'We greet each other with spring scent'

(21) Hương mùa xuân lan tỏa, gọi hồn ong bướm qua (Quốc Nam, *Chơi vơi*)

'The scent of spring spreads and calls for the soul of bees and butterflies'

The sense of the noun phrases *hương xuân* in (20) or *hương mùa xuân* in (21) "*scent*" gives rise to the metaphor SPRING IS A SCENTED OBJECT. It can be understandable because Vietnam belongs to the tropical weather pattern. It means that it becomes warmer with a great deal of drizzle, which makes every living creature grow and develop properly, and human life also becomes lively. For example, *hương mùa xuân lan tỏa* "*the scent of spring spreads*" in (21) implies that plants and trees flush, which appeals to insects, including bees and butterflies.

Spring is depicted as a tasted object with 2 expressions as follows:

(22)Em là cánh én mỏng
  'You are a thin swallow'
  Chao xuống giữa đời anh
  'Hover down in the middle of my life'
  Cho lòng anh xao động
  'Making my heart flutter'
  *Thành mùa xuân **ngọt ngào*** (Hoàng Hiệp & Diệp Minh Tuyền, *Mùa chim én bay*)
  *'Making a **sweet spring**'*
  *(23)Ghi từng phút mùa xuân **đậm đà*** (Hoài An, *Ngày xuân thăm nhau*)

*'Remember every moment of the **tasty spring**'*

The above expressions describe spring as food with its tastes such as **ngọt ngào** "*sweet*" in (22), **đậm đà** "*tasty*" in (23). In other words, the food attributes are used for spring ones when people regard the sound quality of spring as sweet and flavor of food. In brief, **spring** is conceived as a *physical entity*, as the following table shows:

Table 1

Domains of Physical Entities Used for SPRING in English and Vietnamese

No	Domains of physical entity	Number of expressions	
		English	Vietnamese
1	CONCRETE OBJECT	95	165
2	CONTAINER	29	8
3	THINGS CONTAINED	12	8
4	MOTION	39	120
5	COLORED OBJECT	3	11
6	SCENTED OBJECT	0	5
7	TASTED OBJECT	0	2
	Total	**139**	**319**

4.1.2. Natural substance

In view of natural substance, the statistical evidence from the corpora reveals that this study discovers 6 main source domains used to express spring in English and Vietnamese as in the table below:

Table 2

Domains of Natural Substance Used for SPRING in English and Vietnamese

No	Domains of natural substance	Number of expressions	
		English	Vietnamese
1	AIR	1	0
2	LIQUID	3	3
3	SUNLIGHT	12	7
4	HEAT	9	4
5	SOUND	0	4
6	FIRE	3	0
	Total	**28**	**18**

Regarding NATURAL SUBSTANCE, as seen in Table 2, there are 8 subcases with 8 domains i.e., *heat*, *air*, *liquid*, *sunlight*, *sound*, and *fire* mapped onto *spring*. English and Vietnamese share the metaphors: SPRING IS LIQUID, SPRING IS SUNLIGHT, and SPRING IS HEAT. First of all, *spring* is manifested as *liquid*. However, the conceptual metaphor SPRING IS LIQUID is supported by

the same number of expressions in both languages. It can be seen in the expressions below:

*(24)Spring has **showered** frae a drip*
  Splash and trickle running (Leitch, *The Lullaby of Spring*)
  *(25)Someday in the **flush of the spring*** (Clark, *Some Day*)
  *(26)**Xuân tuôn rơi**, trên đôi vai, trên đôi tay, trên đôi chân*
  ***Spring is falling on** the shoulders, on the hands, on the feet*
  ***Cho trôi đi** bao đa đoan, bao ưu phiền* (Minh Châu, *Vũ điệu mùa xuân*)
  ***Washing away** much tangle, much sorrow*

The expressions (24, 25, 26) give rise to the metaphor SPRING IS LIQUID when the description for liquid is employed to portray this season. It is apparent that in (24, 25), the concept of *spring* associated with *rain*, a kind of natural substance. The conceptualization is manifested by virtue of the senses of the verbs *shower* in (24*)*, *tuôn rơi*, and *trôi đi* in the word-by-word translation, '*wash*' for the equivalent in English in (26). According to *Vietnamese Dictionary* (Vietnam Institute of Linguistics, 2003), and *Cambridge Advanced Learner's Dictionary (2005)*, the verbs *tuôn rơi*, *trôi*, and *shower* are used to describe

raining. Accordingly, spring here can be understood as rain, a subtype of liquid.

In addition, the corpora show that spring is understood as sunlight. The number of expressions for this spring conceptualization in English nearly doubles that in Vietnamese, with 13 in English, and 7 cases in Vietnamese. It can be illustrated by the examples as follows:

(27)It's spring in person that makes it ***bright*** (Hart, *Yours Sincerely*)

*(28)Xuân ơi hãy **sáng** trên đời tôi* (Minh Châu, *Vũ điệu mùa xuân*)

*'Spring, be **bright** in my life!'*

*(29)**Ánh xuân** đem vui với đời* (Phạm Đình Chương, *Đón xuân*)

'Spring light brings joy to life'

The senses of ***bright*** in English (27), ***sáng*** in (28) shows that spring is depicted as sunlight because it can make the light. In the expression (29), ***ánh xuân*** denotes spring is the object also having light, which gives rise to the metaphor SPRING IS SUNLIGHT. This conceptualization can be explained that there is more sunshine in spring than that in winter when every living entity, including people, experiences a duration of cold with little sun. That is the reason why people pay much attention to the sunlight creating warmth they look forward to. Accordingly, spring is conceived as sunlight, which is conventional mapping.

Likewise, if it is cold without much sunshine in winter, it seems to be sunny frequently in spring. As a result, it becomes warmer in this period of a year. Hence, it comes as no surprise that SPRING is associated with warmth, a degree of heat, which gives rise to the conceptual metaphor SPRING IS HEAT in both English and Vietnamese, with 9 and 4 expressions respectively.

*(30)Spring fever, it's Spring **fever** time* (Baum, *Spring Fever*)

*(31)The industrious beaver puts it down to Spring **fever*** (Paul, *Spring Spring Spring*)

*(32)Mùa xuân **ấm áp** mai nở muôn nơi* (Huy Phương, *Gửi Huế*)

*'Spring is **warm**, apricot blossoms bloom everywhere'*

From the data statistics, in English the noun ***fever*** is used densely with 7 frequencies out of 15 ones from all lexemes denoting the ***heat*** like in (30, 31). Perhaps, it is because Westerners are extroverts, and enjoy engaging in outdoor activities, they reveal their strong emotion for the comfort of warmness that spring brings. Meanwhile, Vietnamese people conceive the warmness of this season by employing the adjective ***ấm áp*** for 4 cases like in (32). They share their feeling about it more softly since in nature, they are more introverted than Westerners are. In short, the metaphor SPRING IS HEAT is coherent with Kövecses's statement 'Given a certain kind of habitat, speakers living there will be attuned (mostly subconsciously) to things and phenomena that are characteristic of that habitat; and they will make use of these things and phenomena for the metaphorical comprehension and creation of their conceptual universe' (2010, p. 79).

In the same way, the metaphor SPRING IS FIRE is available; however, it is applicable only in English with only 3 expressions as follows:

*(33)And she's caught in the **fires** of spring* (Rea, *Fires of Spring*)

*(34)In the soft **flames** of spring*

Spring has swept the scarlet side streets (Schmid, *A Summer's End*)

It can be seen that the senses of ***fire*** and ***flame*** in (33, 34) evoke the image of ***fire*** which is used to transfer to the entity ***spring***. As discussed above, Westerners feel and enjoy the warmness as if it were fire when they are thirsty for it, which entails that ***spring*** is viewed as ***fire*** in English like the prior finding: SPRING IS HEAT.

Similarly, from Table 2, the conceptual metaphor SPRING IS AIR is found in English with a minority, namely 1 expression, yet totally absent in the Vietnamese data. It can be seen in the expression: (35) *Let me breathe the color of spring* (Baez, *April 5th*).

In contrast to the two cases above, the metaphor SPRING IS SOUND is only existent in Vietnamese with 4 expressions. The corpus data reveal the way Vietnamese people cognize spring is similar to the way they perceive sound. It is obvious that spring is an abstract entity people are not able to recognize by one of their five senses, including hearing one; however, here it can be perceived via human' hearing organ like in the expressions below:

*(36)Mùa xuân là **tiếng hát** em bên anh* (Hoài An, *Bên em mùa xuân*)

*Spring is the **singing** when I am with you.*

*(37)Phút giây lặng lẽ mong chờ, **lắng nghe** mùa xuân về* (Dương Thụ, *Lắng nghe mùa xuân về*)

*This is the expected moment, **listening to** spring arriving.*

In (37), the verb ***lắng nghe*** "**listen to**" is used for the object spring, the predicate in this expression. It evokes that sound is employed to denote spring. Similarly, ***mùa xuân là tiếng hát 'spring is singing'*** in (36) clearly exposes that SPRING IS SOUND.

In brief, the available evidence in the corpora suggests that spring is conceptualized as natural substance or phenomenon, which is in tune with Kövecses' viewpoint that the natural and physical environment shapes metaphors because it shapes a language, primarily its vocabulary, in an obvious way (2010, p. 79).

4.1.3. Other domains

First, ***spring*** is conceptualized as ***a force*** (sometimes called agent of action or changer), with the same number of expressions in the two languages, namely 15 ones when the image of spring is portrayed as an agent or changer of an action. It can be illustrated by virtue of the typical examples in both languages as follows:

*(38)How will I stand the summer when the spring just **made me dumber**?* (Gano, *4 Seasons*)

*(39)Spring has **swept the scarlet side*** (Nyro, *Upstairs by a Chinese Lamp*)

*(40)Spring can really **hang you up** the most* (Landesman, *Spring Can Really Hang You Up The Most*)

(41)Ánh mắt mơ trông nơi xa vời

'Far-away eyes'

*Chờ mùa xuân **đến đem** nguồn vui* (Quốc Dũng, *Điệp khúc mùa xuân*)

*Look forward to spring **bringing** excitements'*

*(42)Và mùa xuân đã **trao** cho em ánh mắt anh* (Ngọc Châu, *Thì thầm mùa xuân*)

*'And spring **has given** me your eyes'*

(43)Mùa xuân đang đến

'Spring is coming'

Cho nhánh cây đâm chồi (Nguyễn Ngọc Thiện, *Lời chúc xuân*)

'Making buds sprout'

It is apparent that the senses of the verbs ***make, sweep, hang up***, ***đem đến***, and ***trao*** in (38, 39, 40, 41, 42) indicate that ***spring*** is the agent of actions. Specifically, the author of the lyric in (38) became ***dumber***, and the one in

(40) can be hung up due to the effect of spring. In addition, **sweep** in (39) implies that ***spring*** impacts physically on the object ***scarlet side*** by sweeping. In Vietnamese expressions, with the meaning of the verb ***trao 'give'*** in (42), ***spring*** is understood as the provider that ***em*** (***I*** in English) received a glance from his/her eyes. Similarly, in (43) that spring comes makes buds sprout on the trees, which can draw on that spring is considered the changer creating physical change of things. Hence, the evidence gives rise to the conceptual metaphor SPRING IS A FORCE, which is coherent with TIME IS A CHANGER/FORCE (Kövecses, 2010), when considering it as a notion of time.

Next, ***space*** is also used to map onto ***spring***. Among the conceptual metaphors in terms of inanimate objects, the SPRING IS SPACE conceptual metaphor predominates in English, making up 37 expressions, that is a lower number of expressions in Vietnamese, with 10 ones. They are depicted by virtue of typical examples as follows:

(44)Spring ahead or fall behind (Brennan, *You Can Never Hold Back Spring*)

*(45)Keep me alive **through** the spring* (Watkins, *Through the Spring*)

*(46)Vì mình xa nhau nên **xuân vẫn mãi xa vời** chốn nao* (Quốc Dũng, *Em đã thấy mùa xuân chưa*)

*'Because we are apart, spring is still **far away'***

*(47)Dặm đường xa ta đi **giữa mùa xuân*** (Tạ Minh Tâm, *Đường chúng ta đi*)

*'Miles away, we go **in the middle of spring'***

As a matter of fact, as mentioned above, spring is an abstract concept; nevertheless, the corpus data show that it can be recognized as a concrete entity which is ahead, behind, far or near observers in space. Moreover, some linguistic devices are employed to express the relation between entities and space via senses of the words *ahead, behind, through, near, far* in English; ***trước, sau, đầu, cuối, giữa,*** etc. in Vietnamese. Thus, these expressions above are linguistic manifestations of SPRING IS SPACE metaphor which evokes the image of spring in a certain space.

In addition, the source domain found from the two corpora to conceptualize the spring entity is ***landscape*** or ***place***. The distribution of these expressions in both languages is similar, with nearly the same quantity, namely, 4 and 5

in English and Vietnamese respectively. It is elaborated by the following examples:

*(48)Khi trước **thềm xuân** chỉ mình tôi* (Trần Hữu Bích, *Thềm xuân*)

'There is only me in front of **the perron of spring**'

The (48) show that **spring** has a perron, which implies that this season is portrayed as a place, maybe like a house although there are not any perrons belonging to spring in reality. Likewise, **spring** is also described as a ***river*** as it has been scrutinized in detail in the discussion below:

(49)And spring grows

*Out of winter **it flows*** (Robbins, *Spring*)

*(50)Đã mấy lần xuân **trôi chảy** mãi*

'Spring has **flowed** several times'

Mấy lần cô lái mỏi mòn trông (Nguyễn Đình Phúc & Nguyễn Bính, *Cô lái đò*)

'The ferry/boatwoman has languished for news from her boyfriend'

As can be seen in *Cambridge Advanced Learner's Dictionary (2005)* as well as in the *Vietnamese Dictionary* (Vietnam Institute of Linguistics, 2003), ***flow***, ***trôi chảy*** are employed to indicate one of the activities of a river. However, in (49, 50) it is deployed to depict a season which is spring. Namely, the passage of time (including spring) is compared to the flowing of a river.

Finally, some domains deployed to map onto **spring** are existent in English only, yet not applicable in the other language. In fact, the English linguistic material of this paper reveals that conceptualization ***existence, money*** can also be applied to SPRING metaphors like in following the expressions:

*(51)Spring is **here*** (Chaplin, *Spring Song*)

*(52)Get up, get out spring is **everywhere*** (Kaye, *Spring Fever*)

The metaphor SPRING IS EXISTENCE has a significant number of expressions: 11 cases. Adverb of place ***here*** like in (51) is used highly frequently, i.e., 15 times. It can be inferred that Western people believe that spring really is existent in a certain place as a concrete entity.

Another domain that **spring** is treated as is money, which is coherent with the metaphor TIME IS MONEY that has been popular in many studies so far (Lakoff & Johnson, 1980a; Kövecses, 2005; Kövecses, 2010; Evan, 2005, etc.).

Similarly, English corpus data reveals this conceptualization:

*(53)Then we **spend** all spring* (Olliges Jr., *Spring (Among the Living)*)

(54)But in the spring she took off her disguise

Well I'll never forget you looking my way

*And the time that we **spent** in the absence of games* (Watkins, *Through the Spring*)

In fact, the sense of verb **spend** is used to express valuable commodities including money. Nevertheless, in (53, 54) it is used to describe **spring** in English. On the contrary, the findings show that this metaphor is not available in Vietnamese. That is consistent with the explanations of Lakoff and Johnson when they share that people use their everyday experiences with money to conceptualize time when they explain their work in association with the time it takes. In particular, the payment is normally based on "serving time" (1980, p. 8). They also add:

> These practices are relatively new in the history of the human race, and by no means do they exist in all cultures. They have arisen in modern industrialized societies and structure our basic everyday activities in a very profound way. Corresponding to the fact that we *act* as if time is a valuable commodity – a limited resource, even money – we *conceive of time* that way. Thus, we understand and experience time as the kind of thing that can be spent, wasted, budgeted, invested wisely or poorly, saved, or squandered. (ibid., p. 8)

In short, regarding inanimate objects, some other source domains are found from the two corpora as in the table below:

Table 3

Other Domains Used for SPRING in English and Vietnamese

No	Other Domains	Number of expressions	
		English	Vietnamese
1	FORCE	15	15
2	SPACE	37	10
3	PLACE/LANDSCAPE	4	5
4	EXISTENCE	11	0
5	MONEY	4	0
	Total	**71**	**30**

4.2. Animate object and living entity

In terms of animate objects, that spring is conceptualized as a living entity is dominant in both English and Vietnamese corpora, 50, and 81 expressions respectively. This type is coherent with the type of ontological metaphor (Kövecses, 2010, p. 38) which are those where the physical object is further specified as being a person (Lakoff & Johnson, 1980a, p. 33), for example, (55) *Then spring can never die*. When it comes to being considered living entities, spring, in particular, is manifested by virtue of a person and plant.

4.2.1. Person

As mentioned above, cognitive mechanism of ontological metaphor allows people to comprehend a wide variety of experiences with nonhuman entities in terms of human motivation, characteristics, and activities (Lakoff & Johnson, 1980a, p. 33). Accordingly, *spring,* time domain, is viewed as human beings, which occupies the biggest number with 45 expressions in English, and 66 in Vietnamese. The statistics from the data expose that the verbs of saying such as *hát, nói, thì thầm, bảo, ngỏ lời*, etc. in Vietnamese, and *tell, say, whisper* and so forth in English are used for the actor/agent *spring*. Besides, the subject complements for the entity spring (as a subject) are nouns related to persons like *girl, boy, singer, dancer, lover*, etc. It can be scrutinized via the examples below:

(56) *I never knew the **charm** of spring* (Vernon, *April in Paris*)

(57) *Spring is the **dancer** the lover of men* (Bartholdy, *Spring song*)

(58) *Spring **whispered** in her ear* (Nyro, *Upstairs by a Chinese Lamp*)

(59) *Mùa xuân **nói** với em điều gì?* (Trần Tiến, *Mùa xuân gọi*)

'What did spring **tell** you?'

(60) *Xuân đã về, xuân vẫn **mơ màng*** (Văn Phụng, *Xuân họp mặt*)

'Spring has come, spring is still **dreaming**'

(61) *Em về én lại xa*

'You are back, yet swallows are far away'

*Mùa xuân không **ở lại*** (Hoàng Hiệp & Diệp Minh Tuyền, *Mùa chim én bay*)

'Spring does not **stay**'

(62) ***Lòng** xuân lơ đãng, má xuân hồng* (Từ Vũ & Nguyễn Bính, *Gái xuân*)

'Spring's **heart** is absent-minded, spring's cheek is rosy'

As a matter of fact, (56, 57, 58, 59, 60, 61) prove that *spring* is mapped through characteristics of human beings. As can be seen, in (55), spring is considered a charming girl, and a dancer in (57). Moreover, it is clear that the verbs *whisper, nói, mơ,* and *ở lại* are those whose actions are only done by human. Especially, *lòng* 'intestine' in the word-by-word translation or 'heart' in English translation equivalent in (62) refers to one of the organs belonging to the human's viscera. Here *spring's heart* is understood as the girl's one whom the songwriter of this lyric falls in love with. Hence, *lòng xuân lơ đãng* 'spring is absent-minded' means the girl is absent-minded; *má xuân hồng 'spring's cheek is rosy*' means the girl's cheek is rosy. In other words, spring in (56, 61, 62) is personified into a lover in English and Vietnamese. It is understandable because Kövecses ever states that personification which is a metaphorical device used commonly in literature permits people to use knowledge about themselves to comprehend other aspects of the world, such as time, death, natural forces, inanimate objects, etc. (2010, p. 56).

4.2.2. Plant

Regarding living entity, another domain employed to conceptualize the target domain *spring* is *plant* that is manifested in terms of its parts: *mầm, nụ 'buds', hoa 'flower', lá 'leaf'* in Vietnamese. The verbs *live*, *die*, or *grow* are deployed to describe this season in English. Surprisingly, the number of Vietnamese metaphorical expressions triples that of English, namely, 15 and 5 cases respectively. It can be illustrated through the following expressions:

(63) *And spring grows* (Robbins, *Spring*)

(64) *Vừa **tàn** mùa xuân rồi tàn mùa hạ* (Trịnh Công Sơn, *Một cõi đi về*)

'Spring **withered**, then summer did too'

The available evidence in Vietnamese shows that *spring* is conceptualized as a *flower* that becomes faded in the last period of its life cycle as in (64) when the verb *tàn* 'wither' is used to portray the end of this season. The sense of *grow* in (63) gives rise to the spring manifestation, as a plant.

(65) *Phải chăng **mầm non mùa xuân** đang hé nở* (Dương Thụ, *Lắng nghe mùa xuân về*)

'Are **spring buds** sprouting?'

Obviously, it is not so difficult to reason at this conceptualization for spring as a bud in (65). As discussed earlier, spring has ideal climate conditions for plants to grow in Vietnam. After a severe winter with coldness when most living entities, including plants, try their best to keep alive nearly without any development, even without their leaves, their buds sprout dramatically in spring, which gives rise to the metaphor SPRING IS A BUD. Hence, these metaphors from (64, 65), entailing metaphor SPRING IS A PLANT, is available in Vietnamese when the natural and physical environment also takes part in shaping metaphor (Kövecses, 2010, p. 79).

5. Conclusion

From the CMT perspective, 736 expressions of metaphor of spring have been identified and collected from 205 English and Vietnamese songs. They are distributed into 20 conceptual metaphors in the two languages as in the following table.

Table 4

Conceptual Metaphors of SPRING in English and Vietnamese

Conceptual Metaphors	English	Vietnamese
SRPING IS A CONCRETE OBJECT	+	+
SRPING IS A CONTAINER	+	+
SRPING IS AN CONTAINED OBJECT	+	+
SRPING IS MOTION	+	+
SPRING IS A COLORED OBJECT	+	+
SPRING IS A SCENTED OBJECT	-	+
SPRING IS A TASTED OBJECT	-	+
SRPING IS HEAT	+	+
SRPING IS AIR	+	-
SRPING IS LIQUID	-	+
SRPING IS SUNLIGHT	+	+
SRPING IS SOUND	-	+
SRPING IS FIRE	+	-
SRPING IS FORCE/CHANGER	+	+
SRPING IS SPACE	+	+
SRPING IS A PLACE/LANDSCAPE	+	+
SRPING IS EXISTENCE	+	-
SRPING IS MONEY	+	-
SRPING IS A PERSON	+	+
SRPING IS A PLANT	+	+

Table 4 shows the commonality in the use of conceptual metaphors to express SPRING in English and Vietnamese clearly in terms of concrete domains of both animate and inanimate entities. However, the domains related to inanimate entities are much more than those of animate ones in the two languages. Accordingly, the number of metaphorical expressions related to inanimate objects is much higher than that about animate ones, with 605 cases compared to 131 ones. Besides, it can be seen that both languages share 12 source domains used to map onto this season, namely, CONCRETE OBJECT, CONTAINER, CONTAINED OBJECT, MOTION, COLORED OBJECT, HEAT, SUNLIGHT, FORCE/CHANGER, SPACE, PLACE/LANDSCAPE, PERSON, and PLANT. Yet, the metaphors: SPRING IS AIR, SPRING IS FIRE, SPRING IS EXISTENCE, SPRING IS MONEY are applicable in English, and totally absent in the Vietnamese data. Conversely, the source domains: LIQUID, SOUND, SCENTED OBJECT and TASTED OBJECT are found only in the Vietnamese corpus. Obviously, both Westerners and Vietnamese share the same way to conceptualize the spring entity with many common spring metaphors, which is maybe because their living environment and experiences they have for this season are

similar. On the other hand, they show certain differences between their feelings about the period of time in a year. While the Vietnamese conceive spring with its scent and sound, the Westerners expose their yearning for the warmth of spring when they become lively, and they consider it a commodity. In conclusion, the findings uncover the similarities as well as differences for the conceptual metaphors of spring between English and Vietnamese, based on the culture-bound nature of these metaphors, whose cross-cultural variations include different experiences, physical environments having enormous impact on the choice of metaphors.

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ẨN DỤ TRI NHẬN VỀ MÙA XUÂN
TRONG CA TỪ BÀI HÁT TIẾNG ANH VÀ TIẾNG VIỆT

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Tóm tắt: Nghiên cứu này phát hiện ẩn dụ tri nhận về mùa xuân qua các ca từ bài hát tiếng Anh và tiếng Việt. Nghiên cứu dựa trên cơ sở lý thuyết về ẩn dụ tri nhận do Lakoff và Johnson khởi xướng vào năm 1980 với tác phẩm kinh điển *Ẩn dụ từ cuộc sống quanh ta* (*Metaphors We Live by*). Nghiên cứu tiến hành dựa trên số liệu được thu thập từ 205 bài hát, trong đó 98 bài tiếng Anh và 107 bài tiếng Việt từ thế kỷ 20 đến nay, bao gồm 736 biểu đạt ẩn dụ và tuân thủ theo phương pháp nhận biết ẩn dụ của Steen (1999). Phương pháp mô tả và so sánh được sử dụng chính trong bài. Kết quả nghiên cứu cho thấy có 20 ẩn dụ tri nhận được tìm ra thông qua việc tìm các miền nguồn mang tính cụ thể đã ánh xạ lên miền đích - mùa xuân, trong đó có 12 ẩn dụ giống nhau trong hai ngôn ngữ. Nghiên cứu cũng đã chỉ ra được sự giống và khác nhau của ẩn dụ về mùa xuân giữa hai ngôn ngữ này, đồng thời đưa ra những giải thích cho sự tương đồng và khác biệt này dưới góc nhìn văn hóa, gồm kinh nghiệm và môi trường sống của con người.

Từ khóa: biểu đạt ẩn dụ, ẩn dụ tri nhận, miền đích, miền nguồn, ánh xạ

THE CONCEPTUALIZATION OF LIFE
IN ENGLISH AND VIETNAMESE PROPAGANDA SLOGANS

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Abstract: This paper sets out to examine the conceptualization of *life*, one of the most complicated concepts that require a number of domains to get mapped, in 600 English and Vietnamse propaganda slogans addressing social policies and purposeful activities in life, mostly collected from street banners and the Internet. The research is based on the principles of the Conceptual Metaphor Theory (Lakoff & Johnson, 2003) and Metaphor Identification Procedure (Pragglejaz group, 2007; Steen, 1999, 2009). The study aims at finding the conceptual preferences that English-speaking people and Vietnamese people have for *life* and trying to justify the similarities and differences in the way life is conceptualized in the two languages from social and cultural perspectives. The results suggest that metaphors of life are frequently used in both English and Vietnamese slogans on an almost equal basis. Specifically, life is conceptualized as A LIVING ORGANISM, AN OBJECT, PATH-SCHEMA, BUILDING AND WAR/STRUGGLE and some other isolated domains. Though most source domains are fundamentally similar, the distribution and frequency of use, the number of metaphorical linguistic expressions and even the minor cases reveal a great deal of cultural variation, which is mostly connected with the history of Vietnam and Western countries, and the lifestyles of their people.

Key words: conceptual metaphor, conceptualization, life, slogan

1. Introduction

In the famous poem ***The Road Not Taken*** by Robert Frost, there is a philosophical statement about life: "*Two roads diverged in a wood, and I; I took the one less travelled by.*" Figuratively, the road is symbolic of life and the fork in the wood represents the choices the traveller has to make in his or her life. The question is, why can one understand this poem in this way but not another? That is because of a conceptual metaphor that underlies the expressions in the poem and thereby shapes the way we think: LIFE IS A JOURNEY. Our life is universally conceptualized as a journey in which we start from a particular point (when we are born) and travel to reach a destination (where we want to be in life), and we only stop moving when we die. This is one of the most prevalent conceptualizations of life (Lakofff & Johnson, 2003; Lakoff & Turner, 1989; Kövecses, 2002, 2005).

However, LIFE IS A JOURNEY metaphor is only one of many possible ways to conceptualize life. According to Lakoff and Turner (1989), the target domain of life can be understood through different conceptual sources like BUILDING, GAMBLING GAME, PLAY, STORY, BURDEN, etc. There are two reasons that account for this. First, Kövecses (2002) explains that a single concept lacks the ability of grasping all aspects of such a complex concept as life, resulting in a system of concrete source domains through which intangible things are experienced. Second, metaphor is culture-specific and contextually-influenced (Kövecses, 2005, 2015). He classifies possible causes for different types of metaphorical variations as differential experience and differential cognitive preferences or styles. It is believed that metaphorical conceptualizations emerge from the interaction of different contexts like the physical environment, the social and cultural setting and differential concerns and interests (Benczes & Ságvári, 2018). As a result, the same underlying conceptual metaphor of life may be realized by a variety of linguistic expressions, which is fundamentally affected by cultures.

Over the last twenty years, the conceptualization of life has been investigated from different angles and in different languages. Most of the research deals with the

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discrepancies between English and another language, and aims at figuring out cultural variations, or investigates how the concept of life is experienced in different types of discourse. A large amount of research on the conceptualization of life has been done through different genres of discourse like essays (Kövecses, 2002, 2005), poems and plays (Tran Thi Lan Anh, 2017; Nguyen Thi Quyet, 2012), song lyrics (Nguyen Thi Bich Hanh, 2015), Holy books (Al-Khaldi, 2014), advertising slogans (Yu, 2009), and even through visual manifestations like paintings (Poppi & Kravania, 2019), etc. These studies about metaphors of life reveal much of cultural variety in the way life is conceptualized in each language, and more broadly, each culture.

Since we believe that the genre has a great influence on the way life is conceptualized, and slogans are a special discourse genre, we would like to investigate conceptual metaphors of life in English and Vietnamese cultures through propaganda slogans used to address social policies and purposeful activities in life. The concept of life is understood in three ways: the state of being alive (*sự sống*), the period of time between a person's birth and their death (*cuộc đời*) and the experience and activities that are typical of all people's existence (*cuộc sống*) (according to Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary, 9th edition). Clearly, life does not only refer to an individual but also a society because people live in a community, which, to some extent, shapes their ways of living. Thus, in this study, the conceptualization of life means that all metaphors related to different aspects of and issues in both individual and social life will be taken into consideration.

To address the conceptualization of life in slogans, two questions are raised:

1) What conceptual preferences do English-speaking people and Vietnamese people have for life in slogans and to what extent are they similar and different?

2) What social and cultural aspects could justify those similarities and differences?

2. Theoretical background

2.1. Conceptual metaphor

Lakoff and Johnson (2003) are considered those who took initiatives in developing the theory of conceptual metaphor, which then became the subjects of many studies carried out by the same writers (2003, 2008) and other well-known researchers like Kövecses (2002), Fauconnier (1997), Goatly (1997, 2007), etc. The central point of this theory is to view metaphor as a method of cognition, i.e. we understand one conceptual domain, which is usually more abstract, in terms of another more concrete and familiar conceptual domain (Kövecses, 2002, p. 4). This is realized by the structure A IS B, in which A is the target domain and B is the source domain; for example, the concept of life is understood through the metaphor LIFE IS A JOURNEY. But in everyday life people do not often say to each other that life is a journey; instead, this metaphor is realized by metaphorical expressions such as: *We are at the crossroads of life*; *He's gone too far*; *Get out of my way*.

However, what sources these expressions are derived from remain a problem. According to Lakoff and Johnson (2003), conceptual metaphors are systematic mappings across conceptual domains. These mappings are the unidirectional correspondences between the source and the target domains. Thanks to this process, the relatively abstract target domain is made more concrete (Kövecses, 2002). For example, some features of the domain JOURNEY are mapped on the the domain LIFE: the travelers are the people, the starting point is the birth, the obstacles encountered are the difficulties met, different routes are different choices, the destination is the goal, and the end of the journey is the death, etc.

In conclusion, conceptual metaphor is one of the forms of conceptualizing the world, a cognitive process that functions as a representation and formation of new concepts without which there will not be new knowledge (Tran Van Co, 2007). As a cognitive tool, it is believed to represent attitudes and convey ideologies and other socio-political constructions through language (Charteris-Black, 2012).

2.2. Conceptual metaphors and linguistic metaphors

Even though Lakoff states that "metaphor is fundamentally conceptual, not linguistic, in nature" (1993, p. 244), most of the evidence for conceptual metaphor is based on linguistic data. Even the well-known example taken in the

classic work *Metaphors We Live by* (2003) ARGUMENT IS WAR supports the existence of conceptual metaphors with a wide variety of expressions in everyday language such as "*Your claims are indefensible*", "*He attacked every weak point in my argument*", or "*His criticisms were right on target*". Linguistic metaphors are believed to underlie and motivate conceptual metaphors (Lakoff, 1993).

Thus, it is important that linguistic metaphors be identified in order to realize the conceptual metaphor underlying them. Steen (1999, p. 57) claimed that the linguistic examples cited in traditional conceptual metaphor theory literature were produced intuitively and functioned as demonstration; "they have not been systematically and exhaustively collected from large stretches of discourse." Linguistic metaphors that are found in a linguistic dataset play an important role in the construction of conceptual metaphors. Steen (1999, 2009) proposed a procedure to decode conceptual mappings from metaphorical expressions in discourse. The five-step method, first introduced in 1999, then revised in 2009, basically is as follows:

- Step 1: Metaphor focus identification, whose aim is to identify metaphorical linguistic expressions;

- Step 2: Metaphorical idea identification, whose aim is to identify the relation between linguistic expressions and the conceptual tenor;

- Step 3: Non-literal comparison identification, whose aim is to identify the relation between target domains and source domains;

- Step 4: Non-literal analogy identification, whose aim is to produce an analogy and interpret the metaphor focus;

- Step 5: Non-literal mapping identification, whose aim is to construct the source-target domain mapping.

This procedure is claimed to help the analyst avoid the trap of finding examples to illustrate the well-known conceptual metaphors in previous studies. However, the movement from step 4 to step 5 still depends much on the intuition of the analyst because a linguistic expression may be indicative of more than one conceptual domain. For example, such expressions as *attack, win, strategy, etc.* may suggest both GAME and WAR domains.

Having said that, linguistic metaphors are closely related to conceptual metaphors. According to Steen (1999), in order to determine a metaphorical

expression as part of a general systematic conceptual metaphor, it is essential to analyse a huge amount of data with numerous examples.

2.3. Cross-cultural variation in metaphor

Metaphor and culture have long been a concern of many researchers such as Gibbs (1994), Boers (2003), Lakoff and Johnson (2003), Kövecses (2005, 2015), Li (2010), Phan Van Hoa and Ho Trinh Quynh Thu (2017), etc. Many studies that compare metaphors across languages reveal that schematic metaphors are more universally used than specific metaphors, and the more specific a metaphor is, the more culture-specific it becomes. For instance, in Li's comparative research of the metaphor of happiness, besides some widely-used metaphors like HAPPINESS IS UP or HAPPINESS IS A FLUID IN A CONTAINER, Li finds that HAPPINESS IS OFF THE GROUND is popular in English while HAPPINESS IS A FLOWER IN ONE'S HEART is only used in Chinese. Also, Phan Van Hoa and Ho Trinh Quynh Thu (2017, p. 62), in the study of poetic metaphors of love in English and Vietnamese, suggest that LOVE IS A PLANT is far more popular with novel images in Vietnamese than in English because "Vietnam is a country of rice-based civilization."

Kövecses (2005) and Gibbs (1994) argue that cross-cultural variation in the conceptualization of a thing is the result of different experiences in cultural-social aspects. Moreover, though humans around the world mostly share bodily experiences, their ideology and political-social beliefs differ a great deal, resulting in culture-specific characteristics of metaphors. According to Ly Toan Thang (2015), similarities among metaphors are basic; they just differ in the aspects that are activated, and this depends greatly on cultural variations.

2.4. Propaganda slogans

As aforementioned, a large amount of research has shown the importance of taking genre into consideration when studying conceptual metaphor. Slogans are a special kind of discourse with various definitions. Sherif (1937, p. 450) states that "*we shall consider a slogan to be a phrase, a short sentence, a headline, a dictum, which, intentionally or unintentionally, amounts to an appeal to the person who is exposed to it to buy some article, to revive or strengthen an already well-*

established stereotype, to accept a new idea, or to undertake some action", which covers the most salient purpose of slogans: to propagate. By taking propaganda slogans addressing social issues and purposeful activities as the material for this study, we expect to see how this genre affects the way life is conceptualized.

3. The corpus and methodology

3.1. The corpus

This study is corpus-based since corpus methodology has been proposed as one way toward generating a reliable description of the typical context and use of linguistic metaphors (Deignan, 1999; Steen, 1999). A corpus is "any large collection of texts that arise from natural language use" and "data are not invented for the benefit of a model but rather a model emerges from large and representative samples of language" (Charteris-Black, 2004, p. 31). It helps solve the problem of adopting idealized, isolated examples that are purposefully invented by the researchers (Quin, 1991).

The corpus of this study comprises 300 English slogans and 300 Vietnamese slogans which are used to propagate social issues. English slogans are picked up mainly from two websites https://www.thinkslogans.com and https://www.indiacelebrating.com/english-slogans/. Vietnamese ones are collected from standees, street banners, newspapers and the Internet as well. These slogans focus on social issues like road and labor safety, environment protection, women and children's rights, marriage and family, reading and education, and social problems such as smoking and drugs, prostitution, corruption, bullying, etc., which cover almost all aspects of life. They serve the purpose of propagandas, which aim to raise people's awareness and call them to actions.

Although the corpus is rather small with a limited number of metaphorical expressions, it is expected to make a considerable contribution as starting points in an investigation of a larger corpus because both small and large corpora "are potentially enormously rich sources of data for the metaphor analyst" (Cameron & Deignan, 2003, p. 151).

3.2. The methodology

This study was conducted both qualitatively and quantitatively. First, the Metaphor

Identification Procedure (MIP) suggested by Pragglejaz group (2007) is adopted. We searched for metaphorically-related words by hand since the corpus is small enough, and then used the 5-step identification procedure (Steen, 1999, 2009) to infer the underlying conceptual metaphors. After that, the metaphors collected will be categorized, analyzed and described in terms of how they are grounded and elaborated, using the contemporary theory of metaphor (Lakoff, 1993). Then the data will be computed quantitatively in order to reveal the frequency and distribution of use of life metaphors in each language. The metaphorical linguistic expressions found in different slogans will be counted, even though they are the same because the repetition of language structures and vocabulary is one typical feature of slogans.

Also, the method of comparison and contrast is employed since this study aims at determining the similarities and differences in the way life is conceptualized in English and Vietnamese slogans. Because conceptual metaphors participate in producing cross-cultural variation (Kövecses, 2005), the study tries to demonstrate which source-target mappings are common in the two languages, which correspondences are transferable or not transferable and explain what contexts or experiences ground them. The parameters of comparison exploited in this paper are as follows: 1) the same conceptual metaphors and the same linguistic expressions, 2) the same conceptual metaphors and different linguistic expressions, 3) different conceptual metaphors and linguistic expressions (Gabrys, Solska & Deignan, 1997). The potential subtle differences will also be evaluated and justified.

4. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

4.1. An overview of findings

This section presents the results obtained from a quantitative analysis of the conceptual metaphors of life in English and Vietnamese propaganda slogans. As aforementioned, 300 slogans in each language are taken into consideration, and through manual search we have found 202 metaphors related to life in English slogans and 204 metaphors in Vietnamese ones. This shows that metaphors of life are almost equally frequently used in both languages. Then all the retrieved metaphors are

classified according to both their level of generality and the source domains. Specifically, life in English and Vietnamese slogans is conceptualized as A LIVING ORGANISM, AN OBJECT, PATH-SCHEMA, BUILDING AND WAR/STRUGGLE. In addition, there are some minor cases labeled as OTHERS because there are insufficient linguistic expressions to generalize detailed conceptual mappings underlying them. However, this group of metaphors will also be investigated because it reveals much of cultural variation.

The following table shows the differences in the distribution and percentage of life metaphors in both corpora.

Table 1

Conceptual Metaphors for LIFE in English and Vietnamese Slogans

ENGLISH SLOGANS		
Source domains	**Number**	**Percentage**
LIVING ORGANISM	24	11.88%
OBJECT	50	24.75%
PATH-SCHEMA	90	44.55%
BUILDING	9	4.46%
WAR/STRUGGLING	22	10.89%
OTHERS	7	3.47%
Total	**202**	100%

VIETNAMESE SLOGANS		
Source domains	**Number**	**Percentage**
LIVING ORGANISM	28	13.73%
OBJECT	45	22.06%
PATH-SCHEMA	48	23.53%
BUILDING	29	14.22%
WAR/STRUGGLING	37	18.14%
OTHERS	17	8.33%
Total	**204**	100%

It can be seen from the table that most of the source domains employed to conceptualize life are similar in both English and Vietnamese; they just differ in the OTHERS category, which will be discussed in part 4.2., where a cross-linguistic and cross-cultural comparison is given in more detail. The most favorable source domain is PATH-SCHEMA, but there is quite a big difference in the frequency in that English slogans have 90 cases related to PATH-SCHEMA, which accounts for nearly half of all the metaphors found in English and approximately doubles those in Vietnamese. The metaphors LIFE IS A LIVING ORGANISM and LIFE IS AN OBJECT are

quite similarly favored in both languages with very little difference in percentages. In contrast, the WAR/STRUGGLE and BUILDING metaphor in Vietnamese are more often used with 18.14% and 14.22% respectively while in English, there is only 10.89% for WAR/STRUGGLE and 4.46% for BUILDING. We would also like to explain the name of this source: WAR and STRUGGLE are put together since WAR is a sub-type of STRUGGLE and many examples do not directly relate life to war but to some kind of struggle against a disaster or an intangible opponent.

In the next part we are going to compare the use of life metaphors in English and Vietnamese propaganda slogans both linguistically and culturally. Specific linguistic expressions will be taken into account and the similarities and differences in both languages will be discussed, based on culture-specific features. For the convenience of comparison, Vietnamese slogans or metaphorical expressions will be translated *literally* to English (with further explanation about meaning if necessary) so that the translation does not affect the lexical, or to some extent, grammatical features.

4.2. Cross-linguistic and cross-cultural comparison

At the generic-level, both English and Vietnamese exploit the same source domains to conceptualize life; however, at the more specific-level, one can see a number of differences in how distinct aspects of life are conceived.

4.2.1. LIFE IS A LIVING ORGANISM

This metaphor is largely ontological. Life is an extremely abstract concept, so it makes more sense when viewing it as something physical and close to us like a living thing which can breathe, eat, or die, or can have blood, roots or diseases. There are two specific-level metaphors derived from the source of living things: HUMANS ARE PLANTS and PROBLEMS IN LIFE ARE DISEASES. In those propaganda slogans, problems in life refer to social ones like poverty, corruption, unsafety, war, drugs and smoking, etc. The metaphorical expressions of LIFE IS A LIVING ORGANISM metaphor are presented in the following table.

Table 2

Metaphorical Expressions of LIFE IS A LIVING ORGANISM in English and Vietnamese Slogans

English	thrive, sow, seed (2), reap (2), healthy, plant, predator, suffer, grow (2), strong, dangerous, virus, cure, medicine (3), vaccine, perish, flourish (2), bud, bloom, flower, nourish, prevention, disease, breed, rot, harvest
Vietnamese	lành mạnh (*healthy*) (3), gốc rễ (*root*), (2), nhân (*kernel*), máu (*blood*), nhu cầu (*need*), hơi thở (*breath*), măng non (*bamboo sprout*), búp trên cành (*bud*), giống nòi/nòi giống (*breed*) (3), nguyên khí (*vitality*), nuôi dưỡng (*nourish*), trồng (*plant*), tế bào (*cell*) (2), tươi đẹp (*fresh/beautiful*) (2), mồ chôn (*tomb*) (2), tàn (*fade/wither*)

Note: the number in brackets indicates the number of occurrences of the item.

From the results retrieved from our manual search, it is clear that many English expressions have Vietnamese equivalents: *healthy (lành mạnh), nourish (nuôi dưỡng), plant (trồng), bud (búp), breed (giống nòi)*, etc, but many do not. Vietnamese slogans often use plant-related or animal-related nouns and adjectives while English slogans tend to use more verbs. For example, a Vietnamese slogan says "*Nước là máu của sự sống*" (*Water is the blood of life*), but an English slogan would go "*Allow life to thrive, don't drink and drive.*" This could be justified with the difference between Western culture where positive action (*tung*) is favored and Eastern culture where passiveness (*ching*) prevails (Li Ta-chao, quoted in *The Last Confucian: Liang Shu-ming and the Chinese Dilemma of Modernity,* Alitto, 1986).

Another difference is that there is no metaphor of PROBLEMS IN LIFE ARE DISEASES in Vietnamese. Instead, Vietnamese slogans often refer to problems in life as a disaster or an enemy, which belongs to the field of war and struggle. For instance, while English-speaking people view corruption as "*a disease having no medicine*", in Vietnamese, it is more common to see "*Thực hành tiết kiệm, phòng chống tham nhũng, chống lãng phí*" (*Practice thrift, stave off corruption, fight against wastefulness*), "*Thuốc lá là kẻ thù của sức khỏe*" (*Smoking is an enemy against health*) or "*hiểm hoạ tai nạn giao thông*" (*the disaster of traffic accidents*). This is going to be discussed in the section about the WAR/STRUGGLE metaphor.

4.2.2. LIFE IS AN OBJECT

Another ontological metaphor that is prevailing is LIFE IS AN OBJECT. Objectifying an abstract concept is salient in our conceptual system, because it gives us a chance to sense, quantify, rank, measure, etc., it (Lakoff and Johnson, 2003). Slogans, with its outstanding feature of conciseness, objectify life as a tangible thing so that the audience can visualize it more vividly.

Figure 1

The System of LIFE IS AN OBJECT Metaphor in English and Vietnamese Slogans
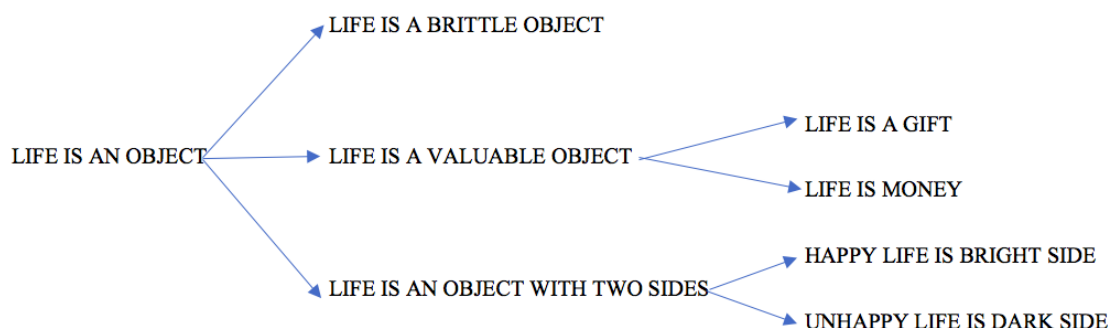
The following list of metaphorcial expressions realizing LIFE IS AN OBJECT proves that life is conceptualized and expressed in almost the same way in the two languages:

Table 3

Metaphorical Expressions of LIFE IS AN OBJECT in English and Vietnamese Slogans

English	gift (6), give , break, pay (3), save (3), cost (2), hand over, pay heavy fees, throw away, trash, count, cut, bleak, waste (5), conserve, spend (2), shine, bright (3), destroy, steal, precious, treasure, keep, pass on, valued, devalue, pro-life, light, shape, cherish, rich (2), precious, how many, share, secure, brighter, gain, own, stolen, worth, utilize, pricey
Vietnamese	nếp (sống) (*crease – referring to a habit*) (3), văn minh (*radiant – referring to a civilized world*) (7), đánh mất (*lose*), đảm bảo (*ensure*), bảo vệ (*protect*) (6), cướp đi (*rob*) (2), tươi sáng (*bright*) (3), bảo tồn (*preserve*), phá tan (*break*), giá trị (*value*) (2), trong tay (*in hand*), chất lượng (*quality*) (5), sàng lọc (*screen*), đẹp (*beautiful*), có ích (*helpful*), của cải (*riches*), cứu (*save*), chia sẻ (*share*) (2), kết nối (*connect*), gửi (*send/give*), trao (*hand over*), lưu giữ (*store*), tỏa sáng (*shine*), yêu thương (*love*), giữ gìn (*keep*), ý nghĩa hơn (*more meaningful*), thắp (*light*), đốt (ngắn) (*burn something short*)

Note: the number in brackets indicates the number of occurrences of the item.

Most of the linguistics expressions in both languages are equivalents. One can find the idea of "*saving life*" or "*cost life*" easily in such English slogans as "*Save water, Save life*" or "*Trying to make up time could cost your life*". Similarly, they are also ubiquitous in Vietnamese as in "*Cho giọt máu, cứu cuộc đời*" (*Give blood, save life*) or "*Tai nạn giao thông hàng năm cướp đi sinh mạng của hàng ngàn người*" (*Every year traffic accidents cost/steal thousands of lives*). It can be concluded that LIFE IS AN OBJECT, and more specifically LIFE IS A VALUABLE OBJECT is very common in both languages. For people of each culture, life is so precious and fragile that they treasure it like a possession, which results in a very high frequency of use of such words as "*save*" and "*(don't) waste*".

The only minor difference noticed when LIFE IS AN OBJECT WITH TWO SIDES metaphor is examined is that in Vietnamese slogans, unhappy life as the dark side of an object is not mentioned, and there is only one example in the English corpus as in "*Leaks make your future bleak*". It is supposed that slogans are made to encourage and motivate people to live well rather to warn them of an unhappy future.

4.2.3. THE PATH-SCHEMA METAPHOR

The PATH-SCHEMA is one of the most popular image-schema metaphors, which are particularized as IN-OUT, FRONT-BACK, UP-DOWN, CONTACT, MOTION and FORCE (Kövecses, 2002). In slogans, we realize that the SOURCE-PATH-GOAL schema dominates. This metaphor is specified as LIFE IS A VERTICAL PATH and LIFE IS A JOURNEY. Cross-culturally and cross-linguistically, these

metaphors derive from the EVENT STRUCTURE metaphor (Lakoff, 1993).

LIFE IS A VERTICAL PATH is actually an orientational metaphor in which GOOD THINGS IN LIFE ARE UP and BAD THINGS IN LIFE ARE DOWN, which are in accordance with the metaphors GOOD IS UP and BAD IS DOWN suggested by Lakoff and Johnson (2003). However, the number of these metaphors in English slogans is fairly larger than in Vietnamese one, and one can find both directions *up* and *down* in English but only *up* in Vietnamese.

Table 4

Metaphorical Expressions of LIFE IS A VERTICAL PATH in English and Vietnamese Slogans

English	down (6), evolve up, rise, raise, up (5), tear down, build up, stand (2), uphold, arise, elevate, drag down, high, higher, stand up, fall (2), lift up
Vietnamese	trên (hết) (*above all*), nâng cao (*uplift*) (7), vun đắp (*build up*), vươn tới đỉnh cao (*reach for the top*), vươn cao (*rise*), cao đẹp (*lofty/elevated*), lên (*up*)

Note: the number in brackets indicates the number of occurrences of the item.

With the dominating word *nâng cao (uplift)*, which occurs seven times in Vietnamese slogans, and the existence of expressions of UP only, it seems that Vietnamese slogans tend to encourage people to look at the bright side of life instead of thinking about unhappiness or difficulty, which coincidentally supports the supposition discussed in part 4.2.2.

Meanwhile, LIFE IS A JOURNEY is a structural metaphor, which constructs LIFE as a path with a starting point and a destination. As Johnson (2013) argues, one of the most important conceptualizations that people use to make sense of life refers to a PURPOSIVE ACTIVITY in terms of MOVING FORWARD TOWARD A DESTINATION. In this process, different aspects of a journey are taken into account.

Table 5

The Mappings of LIFE IS A JOURNEY Metaphor

JOURNEY (source)	LIFE (target)	Examples
movement along the path	living a life	(E) If someone is going down the wrong road, he doesn't need motivation to speed him up. What he needs is education to turn him around. (V) Giọt máu cho đi, cuộc đời ở lại (Blood given, Life stays)
starting to go	starting a life event	(E) Life is very short, so put worries apart and give your life a kick start. (V) Thay đổi văn hoá giao thông, bắt đầu từ chính bạn (To change traffic culture, start from you.)
destination	purpose of life	(E) Education is a right path to reach to the destination. (V) Hướng tới một xã hội không có trẻ em nghèo khó và thất học (Head for a society without poverty-stricken and illiterate children).
different routes	different choices	(E) Take a better route, put that smoke out. (V) Nơi nào có ý chí, nơi đó có con đường (There's a will, there's a path)
obstacles on the path	difficulties in life	(E) We shall overcome. (V) Lớp tôi thống nhất đạp đổ thách thức (Our class is determined to overthrow challenges)
companions	support	(E) Good books are good companions. (V) 55 năm công tác dân số đồng hành cùng hạnh phúc mỗi gia đình (55 years of population and family planning goes together with every family's happiness)
length of the journey	length of life	(E) Life's short. Don't rush it. (V) Nhanh một phút, chậm cả đời. (1 minute faster, one life slower)
motions	changes	(E) What goes around comes around: Keep the sea clean. * No Vietnamese examples

These different mappings are expressed via a number of metaphorical linguistic items, demonstrating the complexity and diversity of this metaphor of life.

Table 6

Metaphorical Expressions of LIFE IS A JOURNEY in English and Vietnamese Slogans

English	lead the way, reach, journey, destination, lead (6), on the brink, go (4), go around (2), come around (2), take positive steps, rough, stop (7), advance, get on the right track, end, short (2), long, a kick start, rush, way (3), walk in different directions, walk in, walk out, get, go side by side, guide, at right path (2), reach to the destination, go down, road, speed up, turn around, track, block (2), go forward, step (2), place (3), line, fill, go forth, bring ahead, drive, companions, take … places, sail away, sail on a sea, exceed, put an end (2), keep on track, come first, come second, come up on the short end, put a step back, leave behind, rewind, route, come, join the race, carry on, step up, step on, overcome
Vietnamese	bắt đầu (*start*) (2), đi đôi (*go side by side*) (2), nhanh (*fast*), chậm (*slow*), hướng đến/hướng tới (*head for*) (3), nhịp cầu (*bridge*), đồng hành (*go together*), từng bước (*step by step*), chặng đường (*path*), thi đua (*race*), đạp đổ (*overthrow*), con đường (*path*), tiếp sức (*relay*), vững bước (*step firmly into*), tiến bộ (*progress*) (3), lùi (*step back*), đi (*go*), ở (*stay*), thúc đẩy (*push forward*), điểm tựa (*fulcrum*), đẩy lùi (*push backward*), bờ vực (*brink*), về (*return*), dừng lại (*stop*), dẫn đến (*lead to*)
	Note: the number in brackets indicates the number of occurrences of the item.

As aforementioned in the overview, the most notable difference in the use of the PATH-SCHEMA metaphor in English and Vietnamese slogans lies in the number of cases. 90 metaphors are found in English while there are only 48 in Vietnamese. Table 6 also suggests that there is a much wider variety of metaphorical expressions of this metaphor of life in English slogans than in Vietnamese ones. It could be indicated that English-speaking countries are closely associated with movements and exploration. In the past, they travelled everywhere to explore new worlds, and this imprinted the notion of life as a journey or an adventure in their minds. On the contrary, the term "*luỹ tre làng*" *(village's bamboo fence)* surrounding Vietnamese communities hint that they prefered stability to movement. This could probably be verified, as Kövecses suggested in his study (2005) that cultural history plays a central part in shaping the conceptualization of life.

4.2.4. LIVING IS STRUGGLING AND LIVING IS BUILDING

The reason why we put these two metaphors in the same discussion is that they go together and share the same features. As figured out through our investigation, these metaphors in Vietnamese outnumber those in English. From a cultural and historical perspective, Vietnamese people have a strong mindset about fighting and building. They have a long-standing history of fighting against invaders and developing countries after war. Therefore, in Vietnamese slogans, it is easy to encounter such phrases as "*Sống, chiến đấu và làm việc ...*" (*Live, fight and work ...*) or "*Xây dựng nếp sống văn hoá ...*" (*Build a civilized way of life ...*). However, it is undeniable that both languages share the same conceptual metaphor of life.

Table 7

The Subtypes of LIVING IS STRUGGLING AND BUILDING Metaphor

LIVING IS STRUGGLING	LIVING IS BUILDING
LIFE IS A BATTLE FIELD	LIFE IS A BUILDING
DEALING WITH SOCIAL PROBLEMS IS WAR	FUTURE IS A BUILDING
SOCIAL PROBLEMS ARE ENEMIES/ DISASTERS	DEVELOPING A COUNTRY IS BUILDING

Though based on similar mappings, English and Vietnamese metaphors of life are still distinctive in not only the preferences of use but also the employment of metaphorical linguistic expressions. For example, there are only nine cases of LIFE IS A BUILDING in English but they are realized by different linguistic items like *hammer, nail, open the door, key, build, make a door, base, lock, remove*. In contrast, there are 29 metaphors related to the domain of building in Vietnamese slogans while statistics show that there are only a few linguistic expressions that are repetitively used, including "*xây dựng*" (*build*) (used 11 times), "*bền vững*" (*solid*) (used 10 times) and some other items like *chìa khoá (key), mở cửa (open the door), tổ (nest), nền tảng (foundation)*. However, it is noticeable via these expressions that Vietnamese slogans put an emphasis on calling people to act for a sustainable development, which is vital to a developing country like Vietnam.

Likewise, in English, linguistic items related to war, especially the actions of attacking and winning the enemy are more preferable: *win, defeat, weapon, banish, disarm, destroy, fortify, jeopardize, conquer, fight, strive, victory*. This reveals an active success-

oriented attitude (Kövecses, 2005) towards the war against social problems. In contrast, Vietnamese slogans exploit such words as *phòng chống (stave off), ứng phó (cope with), ngăn chặn (stop), phòng ngừa/ngăn ngừa (prevent), pháo đài (bunker), thành trì (baster), etc.*, which demonstrates a position of defense of a country constantly facing attacks from outside.

4.2.5 Minor cases of metaphors of life

This part will present some isolated cases with very few linguistic expressions. Though the examples searched from the corpora are insufficient to make any generalizations, they still serve as clear hints for these conceptual metaphors, summarized in the following tables.

Table 8

Minor Cases of Life Metaphors in English and Vietnamse Slogans

Conceptual metaphors	English	Vietnamese
LIFE IS ENTERTAINMENT	+	-
HAPPINESS IN LIFE IS WARMTH AND	-	+

FULLNESS		
HUMAN ARE TOOLS	-	+
LIFE IS BUSINESS	-	+
Note: + (existent); - (non-existent)	Total: 7	Total: 17

As Kövecses pointed out in his study (2005), there is a tendency of American people using positive domains, which originated in the consumption-oriented culture of the 20th-century America, to conceptualize life, and we reckon that this is also true for English-speaking countries in general because consumerism caused widespread "leisure time" values to Western Europe and the United States at the turn of the 20th century (Veblen, 1899). Hence, it is not surprising to know that life to them is viewed as entertainment. In the English corpus, we found these: *When you **gamble** with safety you **bet** your life* (LIFE IS A GAMBLING GAME), *Life is a **game**, **play** it happily* (LIFE IS A GAME), ***Character** is best shown when nobody is **watching*** (LIFE IS A PLAY). However, with a country that experienced numerous wars and difficulties in the past like Vietnam, life is contrastive to entertainment; it is a struggle. To the Vietnamese people, happiness in life is having enough food (*(ăn) no – (eat to) full*), and warm clothes (*ấm - warm*). It is therefore common practice to use the phrase "*no ấm*" (*full and warm*) to express happiness in Vietnamese. Also, experiencing severe hardships in life leads to the idea of humans as tools which need to be *rèn* (*forged*) and *luyện* (*refined*) as in ***Rèn thầy trước, luyện** trò sau (Forge teachers first, Refine students later).*

Surprisingly, LIFE IS BUSINESS metaphor does not exist in English slogans while hinted in Vietnamese ones with the term of *đầu tư* (*invest*) like in ***Đầu tư** cho con người là **đầu tư** cho tương lai tươi sáng của dân tộc (Investing in people is investing in the bright future of the nation).* Vietnam is now a fast-growing economy, it is understandable that business terms go into life; however, we cannot produce any explanation for the non-existence of this metaphor in English slogans at the moment, which requires further research.

5. Conclusion

The results of this study and the discussion have made it clear that even though English and

Vietnamese slogans contain the same generic-level conceptual metaphors of life such as LIFE IS A LIVING ORGANISM, LIFE IS AN OBJECT, LIFE IS A PATH, LIVING IS STRUGGLING AND LIVING IS BUILDING, there are still a number of differences at a more specific level, in the frequency of use and metaphorical linguistic expressions, which are susceptible to cultural and historical influences. There are some specific-level metaphors which exist in one language but not in the other like LIFE IS ENTERTAINMENT, SOCIAL PROBLEMS ARE DISEASES in English or HAPPINESS IN LIFE IS WARMTH AND FULLNESS, HUMAN ARE TOOLS, LIFE IS BUSINESS in Vietnamese. Together with the detailed analysis of metaphorical linguistic expressions and the number of occurrences of specific items, the study shows that English-speaking people view life from a more dynamic and success-oriented perspective while Vietnamese people perceive it more statically, protectively and hopefully. It is, therefore, evident that our study results have made a meaningful contribution to the understanding of conceptual metaphors in general and the conceptualization of life in English and Vietnamese in particular, for those who are interested in English and Vietnamese languages and cultures.

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SỰ Ý NIỆM HOÁ CUỘC SỐNG
TRONG KHẨU HIỆU TUYÊN TRUYỀN TIẾNG ANH
VÀ TIẾNG VIỆT

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Tóm tắt: Bài viết trình bày kết quả nghiên cứu về sự ý niệm hoá *life* (*sự sống, cuộc sống, cuộc đời*) trong 600 khẩu hiệu tuyên truyền tiếng Anh và tiếng Việt được sưu tầm từ các băng rôn, biểu ngữ trên đường phố và mạng Internet. Nghiên cứu được thực hiện dựa trên khung lý thuyết về ẩn dụ ý niệm của Lakoff và Johnson (2003), sử dụng quy trình nhận diện ẩn dụ ý niệm của nhóm Pragglejaz (2007) và nhà nghiên cứu Steen (1999, 2009) nhằm tìm ra các ẩn dụ về cuộc sống được người bản ngữ sử dụng trong khẩu hiệu, đồng thời tìm cách lý giải cho những điểm tương đồng và dị biệt trong cách ý niệm hoá cuộc sống ở hai ngôn ngữ từ góc độ xã hội và văn hoá. Kết quả cho thấy ẩn dụ ý niệm về cuộc sống được sử dụng với tần suất cao trong cả khẩu hiệu tiếng Anh và tiếng Việt, với các miền nguồn chung như CƠ THỂ SỐNG, VẬT THỂ, LƯỢC ĐỒ ĐƯỜNG ĐI, XÂY DỰNG, CHIẾN TRANH/ĐẤU TRANH. Mặc dù vậy, sự phân bố tỉ lệ ở mỗi miền nguồn, số lượng các biểu thức ngôn ngữ và các tiểu loại ẩn dụ có sự khác biệt tương đối rõ nét, phản ánh sự biến thiên văn hoá liên quan đến lịch sử và lối sống của con người Việt Nam và các nước phương Tây.

Từ khoá: ẩn dụ ý niệm, ý niệm hoá, cuộc sống/cuộc đời, khẩu hiệu

DISCUSSION

A PRELIMINARY STUDY ON LEXICAL COHESIVE DEVICES IN READING TEXTS IN THE TEXTBOOK *TIẾNG ANH 10* PUBLISHED BY VIETNAM EDUCATION PUBLISHING HOUSE

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Abstract: The research examines the lexical cohesive devices in the textbook *Tiếng Anh 10* published by Vietnam Education Publishing House. This study employs a documentary method of analysis to answer the research question. In particular, Halliday and Hasan's framework of cohesion in discourse (1976) was adopted to investigate ten reading texts in the reading section. The findings show that in terms of reiteration, repetition is the most frequently used device in all reading texts to make the reading semantically related, while collocation cohesion produces cohesive effects among words and phrases in the same collocational environment. As a result, students will benefit greatly from such lexical cohesion in terms of grasping the meaning of the reading texts, and boosting their reading comprehension and theme-based vocabulary. Hopefully, this article is a preliminary study for further research on applying lexical cohesion in teaching and learning reading comprehension or writing skills.

Key words: reading skills, cohesive devices, lexical cohesive devices, discourse analysis, *Tiếng Anh 10*

1. Introduction

In the technology-driven world, students are given great opportunities to access learning tools and authentic materials such as songs, films, news, podcasts, or E-books on the Internet and on a daily basis. However, one of the major and compulsory learning materials for Vietnamese students to acquire language is the textbook. Thanks to the educational reform in 2013, the new series of the textbook for Vietnamese high school students were published by the Vietnam Education Publishing House with Hoang Van Van as the chief editor and until now almost all students over the country have been studying these books. These new textbooks have been nationally acclaimed for their more interesting content with more focus on developing students' English skills. Therefore, how to make the most of the reading texts to improve vocabulary, grammar and writing skills based on some linguistic features,

especially cohesive devices, seems to be a topic of great concern for both teaching and learning English. In addition, many people have done research on this field; however, they focused on grammatical cohesion (Soraya, 2012), lexical cohesion in reading comprehension (Adel & Saeide, 2013), and cohesive devices in reading texts in *Tiếng Anh 12* (Bui, 2011). To the best of the researchers' knowledge, no studies have analyzed cohesive devices in reading texts in the textbook *Tiếng Anh 10*, hence this article was conducted to address this gap.

2. Literature review

2.1. Reading

There are a number of different definitions of reading. Among them, Koda (2005, p. 4) views that reading is the procedure of extracting and connecting countless information from the reading text and prior knowledge while Smith (2004, p. 27) states that reading is a special thinking process in which thought is prompted

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by a written text, which includes literal, evaluative and inferential comprehension.

With regard to reading skills, Clark and Rumbold (2006) notes that they refer to the ability to comprehend a written text. When students are able to understand a piece of written text and combine their understanding with prior knowledge, they are able to perform the following reading comprehension skills, namely literal comprehension, evaluative comprehension and inferential comprehension. To master these skills, knowing strategies is of great importance. Duffy (2009) identifies strategy as a plan to follow and adjust if necessary. In the context of reading, there are plenty of strategies leading to successful reading. Some are predicting, inferring, summarizing, scanning and skimming.

2.2. Discourse and cohesion in discourse

Discourse has been increasingly common in the academic and non-academic fields. The term "discourse", far and wide, has been defined in various ways. Crystal (1992, p. 25) claims that discourse is "a continuous stretch of language larger than a sentence, often constituting a coherent unit". According to Halliday and Hasan (1989, p. 38), discourse is simply defined as "language that is functional". From the aforementioned extracts, discourse tends to be defined in terms of meaning, and coherence is considered an irreplaceable element to form meaning as a whole. What is more, discourse is often described as "language-in-use", thus referring to the interpretation of the communicative event in context.

From these definitions of discourse, it is understandable that discourse analysis is defined as "the study of the relationship between language and the contexts in which it is used" (McCarthy, 1991).

According to Halliday and Hasan (1976, p. 4), the concept of cohesion is a semantic one that points out the relations of meaning existing within a text. Cohesion, along with coherence, plays an integral role in defining a text. In the discourse, if the interpretation of certain elements depends on that of others, cohesion occurs, then the relation of cohesion is established. In other words, one item presupposes the other. Take the following text as a telling example:

"Sam didn't come to the party. He came back home to visit her grandmother".

The interpretation of the item "He" completely depends on the lexical item "Sam". Therefore, the text is considered cohesive as readers cannot understand who is "he" if "Sam" does not exist in the text.

According to Halliday and Hasan (1976, p. 13), cohesive devices are elements that have the "property of signaling that the interpretation of the passage in question depends on something else". In much other research, the term can be attributed to other names such as "cohesive ties", "cohesive connectors", "cohesive markers"; however, the function and meaning remain the same.

Halliday and Hasan (1976, p. 6) state that cohesion is expressed partly through grammar and partly through vocabulary. Hence, it is divided into grammatical cohesion and lexical cohesion.

Lexical cohesion is one of the main types of cohesion dealt with in Hasan and Halliday (1976). Unlike the sub-types of grammatical cohesion, namely reference, ellipsis, substitution, and conjunctive cohesion, lexical cohesion is not associated with any syntactic classes of elements. Lexical cohesion occurs when words in discourse are semantically related in some way. Lexical cohesion is divided into two main types: reiteration and collocation.

According to Halliday and Hasan (1976), reiteration is "the repetition of a lexical item, or the occurrence of a synonym of some kind, in the context of reference; that is, where the two occurrences have the same referent". Reiteration consists of repetition, synonyms or near synonyms, super-ordinate and general words.

Reiteration

Repetition is the restatement of the same lexical item. This is demonstrated by the following example.

As a result of this process, radiant energy from the sun is stored as chemical energy. In turn, the chemical energy is used to decompose carbon dioxide and water. (Pamela, 2004, p. 273)

"Chemical energy" is entirely repeated in this example. However, it is claimed that

reiterated items need not to be in the exactly same morphological shape to be recognized as repeated. Take the following as an example.

In turn, the chemical energy is used to decompose carbon dioxide and water. The products of their decomposition are recombined into a new compound, which successively builds up into the more and more complex substances that comprise the plant. (Pamela, 2004, p. 273)

"*Decompose*" and "*decomposition*" are all the same item, and occurrence of any one constitutes a repetition of any of the others. Inflectional and derivational variants are also considered repeated.

Synonym is used to refer to items of similar meaning. This is created by the selection of a lexical item which is in some way synonymous with the proceeding one. Synonymous items can be total or partial. This is illustrated in the sentences below.

A jazz band commonly includes four to twelve musicians with a relatively large proportion of the group in the rhythm section. Customarily, there are a drummer, a bass player, and a pianist. (Pamela, 2004, p. 232)

The shade of meaning of the two items "*commonly*" and "*customarily*" is relatively similar, which can be considered partial synonym.

Superordinate refers to any item whose meaning includes that of the earlier one (Halliday & Hasan, 1976, p. 280). There is a close tie between superordinate and so-called hyponym which refers to items of general-specific or an example of relationship (Paltridge, 2012, p. 119). As it can be seen in the following sentences.

In May 1966, the World Health Organization (WHO), an agency of the United Nations, was authorized to initiate a global campaign to eradicate smallpox. The goal was to eliminate the disease in one decade. (Pamela, 2004, p. 414)

In the extracted sentence above, "disease", which is a more general term, is a superordinate of "smallpox".

General words, which correspond to the major classes of lexical items, are commonly used with cohesive force. They possibly belong to lexical items and substitutes. According to

Halliday and Hasan (1976, p. 280), there are some common general words such as *thing, person, make, do, stuff, ideas* and so forth. David (1993, p. 29) gave an example to clarify this point.

A: Did you try the steamed buns?
B: Yes, I didn't like the things much.

The general word "things" is used to refer to the presupposed item itself "*steamed buns*".

Collocation

Halliday and Hasan (1976, p. 284) define collocation in its most elemental form as "lexical items that regularly co-occur". As it can be seen in lexical reiteration, the occurrence of different lexical items systematically stands in some kind of semantic relation to one another, yet according to Halliday and Hasan, for textual purposes, such relations do not matter much. There is always possibility of cohesion between any lexical items which are related to others in some way, for example "*laugh... joke, blade... sharp, garden... dig, ill... doctor, try... succeed...*" (Halliday & Hasan, 1976, p. 285). The cohesive effect of these pairs does not depend much on meaning relations, but on their sharing the same lexical environment. Hence, collocation in discourse is not "the combination of words formed when two or more words are often used together in a way that sounds correct".

Thus, Halliday and Hasan (1976, p. 287) emphasize that collocation or collocational cohesion is "simply a cover term for the cohesion that results from the co-occurrence of lexical items that are in some way or other typically associated with one another, because they tend to occur in similar environment". There is a need to indicate that collocational cohesion is not restrained to pairs of words nor dependent on grammatical structures. Collocation patterns in terms of discourse can occur freely within sentences or across the whole text. As such, its exact function has always remained problematic (Halliday & Hasan, 1976, p. 284), Sharing the same viewpoint, David Nunan (1993, p. 30) explains this is due to "collocation is expressed through open rather than closed class items".

2.3. Previous studies

There is a plethora of research regarding the analysis of cohesion in reading in different languages and different genres as well. In this

piece of analysis, it is suggested to review two pieces of research from foreign researchers and one document analysis of a Vietnamese researcher.

Adel and Saeide (2013) conducted a study with the aim of determining if making students aware of lexical cohesion devices in a text can better their reading ability. In this study, 30 male EFL learners aged between 17 and 30 were chosen out of 180 intermediate students at Iran Language Institute. The selection was carried out on the basis of their final scores on the reading section of Intermediate 2 and all of them were Intermediate 3 students at the time of this study performed. The researchers randomly assigned them to two control and experimental groups with 15 students in each group. 10 passages were taught during the term to both groups with the same method predetermined at the Institute. Nevertheless, in the experimental group, they were also given various examples for lexical devices and were asked to identify them in the texts via oral questions and group work. At the end of the term, a T-test was taken to compare the mean scores of subjects in both groups. The results showed a significant improvement in the reading scores in the experimental group. The study mainly focuses on the positive effects of the instructions on lexical cohesive devices in reading comprehension.

Another research focusing on another type of cohesion which is grammatical cohesion was conducted by Soraya in 2012. The research aims at investigating the importance of teaching grammatical cohesive devices to foreign language university learners. The assessment was determined by a two-part test taken by first-year university groups. They were assigned to an experimental group and a control one. The students in the experimental group were taught the major connective ties whereas the control group ones were not. At the end of the study period, both two groups underwent the same tests. The results show that the experimental group could perform better when answering the two tests: the cloze procedure and text comprehension test whereas the control group failed.

On the basis of these findings, some suggestions have been given. Explicit teaching of the connective ties may weaken students' apprehension of reading comprehension. Intense practice of the connective ties through cloze procedures, inference and reference questions, multiple-choice questions are highly recommended. In addition to teaching the grammatical cohesive devices, instructors should also draw more attention to other elements to teach such as vocabulary, spelling, and pronunciation, in order to realize an effective comprehension of the reading passages. Therefore, it is advised to be aware of lexical cohesive devices as well.

In the context of Vietnamese research on cohesive devices, a preliminary analysis (Bui, 2011) is reviewed to have a closer look at the topic. The study aims at describing and analyzing the cohesive devices including grammatical and lexical cohesive devices in reading texts in the new English textbook 12. The data is collected then synthesized to lead to the findings and implications. The findings show that in this book of all 6 sub-types of grammatical and lexical cohesion, reference and collocation are the two most frequently used. Therefore, in teaching, it is suggested that teachers should equip students with this piece of knowledge and provide enough practice.

In this article, it was the researchers' intention to investigate lexical cohesive devices in an entirely new document material, which is the textbook *Tiếng Anh 10*. Hopefully, this study will fill the gap which all aforementioned studies have not addressed yet.

3. Methodology

With the aim to analyze cohesive devices in the English textbook for grade 10 students in terms of lexical cohesion without discussing grammatical one, the research question that the study intends to address is: ***What are the lexical cohesive devices used in the textbook Tiếng Anh 10?***

Tiếng Anh 10 is the first of a three-level English language set of textbooks for the Vietnamese upper secondary school. It follows the systematic and theme-based curriculum approved by the Minister of Education and Training on 23rd November 2012. *Tiếng Anh 10* includes 10 topic-based units in total, and each comprises 8 sections taught in eight 45-minute sections. They are arranged in order as follows:

1. Getting started
2. Language

3. Reading
4. Speaking
5. Listening
6. Writing
7. Communication and culture
8. Looking back and project

Reading is the part right after getting started and language, when students have already been introduced to the topic and vocabulary, grammar and pronunciation. The length of the reading texts may vary, depending on the topic and required tasks, but each reading passage is frequently about 200 to 250 words.

Within the limited time, only lexical cohesion in the textbook *Tiếng Anh 10 -* published by Vietnam Education Publishing House was investigated in the study. Furthermore, not all reading texts of this book were analyzed but the authors focused only on reading texts in Reading sessions in each unit. The book consists of 10 units; each has a reading text, thus there would be 10 reading texts to go over to serve as data in this study.

Quantitative approach was applied to get the statistics from lexical cohesive items in the reading texts. Analytical and synthetic methods were also employed to draw some main features from the linguistic analysis. The process of the research was to follow several steps. First, the researchers obtained profound knowledge through referring to various resources in the field of cohesion and discourse analysis. Then, among these materials, the next task was to decide which one could be applied to set the framework of analyzing lexical cohesive devices. The choice of the research was the theoretical base in cohesion by Halliday and Hasan (1976). The following steps would be for researchers to dig deeper into details in each reading text by analyzing lexical cohesive devices then count the number of occurrences in each category. After that, the researchers could synthesize these figures in the form of tables and give comments and draw some main features of lexical cohesive devices used in the reading texts.

4. Findings and discussion

4.1. Reiteration

As aforementioned, according to Halliday and Hasan (1976, p. 288), reiteration cohesive devices consist of repetition, synonym, superordinate and general words.

As shown from the analysis of the reading texts in the textbook, reiteration includes 124 items with the contribution of each type shown in the table below:

Table 1

Number of Reiteration's Occurrence in the Reading Texts

Types of reiteration	Number of items	Percentage (%)
Repetition	86	69.3
Synonym	24	19.3
Superordinate	11	8.9
General words	3	2.5

From Table 1, it is obvious that the number of repetition items outnumbers that of the others by a wide margin. Its percentage of frequency is up to 69.3%. This figure can be explained by the fact that the textbook is designed for students at pre-intermediate levels. Therefore, the language used in reading texts should be as clear and simple as possible for students to easily follow. Moreover, these repeated words are theme-based and directly related to the topic, making the texts more coherent. For example, in Unit 1 students are introduced to the topic named family life. In the reading lesson of the unit, students read about household chores and duties. That is why we find many repeated words relating to the topic such as 'family' (5 times), 'share' (4 times), 'household chores' (twice), 'responsible' (twice) and so on. Below are some examples:

Acupuncture is one of the oldest medical treatments in the world. It originated in China more than 2,500 years ago. The practice of acupuncture is rooted in the idea of promoting harmony between humans and the world around them and a balance between yin and yang. Although there are unanswered questions, acupuncture appears to work. Scientific studies offer evidence that it can ease pain and treat from simple to complicated ailments. (Hoang, 2013, p. 19)

People volunteer for a number of different reasons. One of the more obvious reasons why people volunteer is because they find something they are passionate about and want to do something good for others. Many people who volunteer think that they are very fortunate to live the way they do and want to give something

back to society, as a way of balancing the scales. (Hoang, 2013, p. 41)

However, the excessive use of repetition makes reading texts monotonous. Thus, synonym can be an alternative way to make the texts hang together in terms of language. Synonym, which consists of 24 pairs of words, is the second most common reiteration item used. It is recognizable that most synonyms are of nouns while some are verbs and adjectives. The sentences below are the prime examples:

*In many cultures, doing **housework** is considered a woman's duty. The mother is usually the homemaker, who has to do most of the **household chores**, while the father is the breadwinner, who is responsible for the family finances.* (Hoang, 2013, p. 9)

*Acupuncture is one of the oldest medical treatments in the world. It **originated** in China more than 2,500 years ago. The practice of acupuncture is **rooted** in the idea of promoting harmony between humans and the world around them and a balance between yin and yang.* (Hoang, 2013, p. 19)

Superordinate takes up a slightly smaller percentage of 8.9%. Below are two examples of superordinate used in reading texts.

*The most common **side effects** with acupuncture are **soreness, slight bleeding**, or **discomfort.*** (Hoang, 2013, p. 19)

The phrase 'side effects' is the superordinate of 'soreness', 'slight bleeding', and 'discomfort'.

*Volunteer work is a great way to gain experience in a broad range of **fields**. You can gain experience in **education**, **social work**, **health care**, **marketing**, and **web design.*** (Hoang, 2013, p. 41)

The phrases 'education', 'social work', 'health care', 'marketing', and 'web design' are hyponyms of the superordinate 'fields'.

General words are less frequently used compared to the other types of reiteration. Below are two examples of general words.

*One of the more obvious reasons why people volunteer is because they find **something** they are passionate about and want to do something good for others.* (Hoang, 2013, p. 41)

*Animals can do many **things** humans cannot, like flying or staying underwater for a long time.* (Hoang, 2013, p. 51)

The findings of this study are in line with those in the research titled "Cohesive devices in reading texts in the book *Tiếng Anh 12 Ban cơ bản*" (Bui, 2011). Both indicate that repetition is the most frequent reiteration used in all analyzed reading texts, followed by synonym or near synonym. The least commonly used items are superordinates and general words. Besides, all types of reiteration have one thing in common, that is one lexical item refers back to another in the preceding sentence. The high occurrence of reiteration appears to make lexical items in the reading text semantically related. This assists students in enhancing reading comprehension by strategies such as skimming, scanning and summarizing because of their tendency to base on keywords and referents to deal with follow-up exercises. Take *Tiếng Anh 10* volume 1, Unit 1: Family Life (Hoang, 2013, p. 9) as a prime example:

In this unit, the aim of the reading lesson is to read and understand the text about the roles of the family by skimming and scanning the text to get some specific ideas. In exercise 2, students are required to find the title of the passage.

A. Doing housework is good for children

B. Husbands who share housework make their wives happy

C. Sharing housework makes the family happier

Students are advised to use skimming and predicting strategies based on repetition and synonyms. The cohesive devices can be shown in this text as below.

Repetition: 'family' (5 times), 'share' (4 times), 'relationships' (3 times), 'children' (3 times), 'husbands' (3 times), 'women' (2 times), 'household chores' (2 times), 'mother' (2 times), 'responsible' (2 times) and 'better' (2 times)

Synonym: 'household chores' - 'housework', 'duty' - 'responsibility', 'dad' - 'father', 'mum' - 'mother'

The presence of repeated words and synonyms highlights the topic of the reading text, making it easier for students to grasp the overall meaning, thus choosing title C.

4.2. Collocation

Collocational items are used in all investigated reading texts; however, the density varies greatly in each unit due to different

reading topics and the number of words. According to Halliday and Hasan (1976, p. 287), the specific items occurring in collocational environment are variable and complex. For this point, it is hard to exactly count the number of occurrences of all collocations; therefore, the researchers can only synthesize the chains of collocational cohesion in each unit as below.

Table 2

Collocational Items in the Reading Texts

Unit	Reading topics	Collocational items
1	Household chores and duties	do housework... share household chores; homemaker... breadwinner... mother... father... dads... moms... children... husbands... wives... family; responsible... sociable... good... happy
2	Acupuncture	acupuncture... acupoints... needles; ease... pain... treat ailment... promote the body's natural healing capabilities... enhance its functions... medicine; side effects... soreness... slight bleeding... discomfort... feel tired; scientific... studies... real evidence; harmony... balance... yin and yang
3	TV shows	idol... pop... idol... American... idol... Vietnam idol... viewers... programme... rating... seasons... auditions... semi-finals... finals... contestants... stage... audience... competition; launched... watched... aired... performed live; countries... territories... worldwide... global
4	Why people do volunteer work	volunteers... passionate... dedicated... do something good for others... give something back to society... volunteering... volunteer work... work for free... gain experience... gain valuable skills;
5	Inventions based on nature	aeroplane... submarine... self-cleaning glass window... hook-and-loop fastener... spacesuits; observing... design... scientists... invented... engineer... inventors... technologies; lotus plants... leaves... seeds; dolphins... underwater... undersea... submarine
6	Gender equality and employment	girl... gender preference... boy... gender discrimination... female... women... male... man... gender differences; gender discrimination...; applied for a position... failed the test... passed... do the same job... work hard... pursuing a job.
7	Superstition in Viet Nam	superstitions... superstitious... mysteries... legends... belief... rituals... believe; weddings... funerals... house moving days... Vietnamese New year... Tet holiday... festivals; altar... ancestors... death... souls
8	New ways to learn English	technology... new applications... digital... media player... mobile devices... apps... voice recognition... screen... software... recorder... cameras... recording; technology... useful... portable... excellent.... easier... faster... more effective... more enjoyable; learning English... electronic dictionary... digital lesson... words... wordlists... exercises... tests... games... pronunciation... native English speakers... English learning software... accents... English speech... song... English language films... download... listen... study... improve pronunciation... practice... record... learn
9	Threats to the nature environments	environmental pollution... air pollution... water pollution... pollutants... soil pollution... noise pollution... environmental problems... greenhouse effect... global warming... polar ice melting... rise of sea level... loss of land... unclean... contaminated... destruction; plastic and inorganic waste... chemical fertilizers... pollutants... detergents... pesticides... chemicals; soil pollution... ground... agriculture... contaminated vegetation... decrease of soil fertility; diseases... stress... psychological and health problems... increased heart rate... hearing damage
10	The benefits and principles of ecotourism	tourism... ecotourism... tourists... national parks... tour guides... travel brochures... ecotourism destinations; forests... beaches... fauna and flora... nature... wildlife... rainforests... volcanoes...; destructions... destroy... harming... preservation... protection; culture... lifestyles... ways of life... traditions

It is noted that collocational items in all reading texts are largely independent of neither the grammatical structures and words such as pronouns, prepositions, conjunctions nor reiteration like synonyms or superordinates. Another remarkable point is that the occurrence of collocational items is not limited in pairs but across sentence boundaries. Hence, collocational items in lexical cohesion is not the combination of adjacent words. On the contrary, they tend to appear in similar contexts to generate a cohesive effect, making the

reading texts cohesive. To demonstrate the cohesive effect formed by collocational items, the authors analyzed the following part of the reading text in *Tiếng Anh 10*, volume 2, Unit 9: Preserving the environment.

Soil pollution is a result of dumping plastic or other inorganic waste in the ground and the overuse of chemical fertilizers in agriculture. The long-term effects of soil pollution are contaminated vegetation and the decrease of soil fertility. (Hoang, 2013, p. 41)

The chain of collocational items in the example is "*soil pollution… plastic… inorganic waste… chemical fertilizers… contaminated vegetation… decrease of soil fertility*". It is obvious that they are not adjacent words nor reiteration, but they all indicate the collocational environment "*soil pollution*". When the topic of soil pollution is discussed, these aforementioned words tend to co-exist with each other. "Chemical fertilizers" ties with "plastic" and "inorganic waste" in the preceding part, and less directly, with the words "soil pollution", "contaminated vegetation", "decrease of soil fertility". The reason for this comes from the meaning of these two sentences. While "chemical fertilizers", "plastic" and "inorganic waste" in the first sentence are causes of soil pollution, "contaminated vegetation" and "decrease of soil fertility" in the second one are regarded as "long-term effect". The use of collocational items in this example enables students to easily find out the answer for sentence 3 in exercise 3 in which they are asked to identify whether 6 given sentences are true or false. Sentence 3 is "Using a lot of fertilizers can reduce soil fertility" and based on collocational items students can effortlessly decide it is false.

In addition to these above-mentioned findings, it is revealed from the analysis of the reading texts that the number of lexical cohesive devices and their types in each text vary greatly according to the text's length and topic. With reference to the former, it is obvious that the longer the text is, the higher number of lexical cohesive items' occurrence the authors can find out. Also, the number of these items tends to be more densely distributed in, for example, a 250-word text than a 150-word one. It is easy to find lexical cohesion in almost every sentence of the longer texts. As a result, they seem to include more types of lexical cohesive devices, in other words, wide-ranging

reiterations and collocations are more used than in the shorter ones. This is because the longer the text is, the more cohesive elements it needs to remain the continuity between a part of it and another. Therefore, the higher number of lexical cohesive devices is required to fulfill this task in a way that a lexical item is related to one occurring previously. In terms of reading topics, there are 10 different ones in the textbook *Tiếng Anh 10* ranging from something directly related to students to less familiar issues. It is worth noting that there is a marked difference in the number of lexical cohesion's distribution in each text. Certain topics seem to have more collocational items than the others, whereas some have more reiterations. However, the reading texts about some seemingly less common topics for students (acupuncture, inventions based on nature, superstition, etc.) tend to comprise a higher number of reiterations than familiar ones (household chores, TV shows, etc.). The reason for this may come from the fact that unfamiliar reading topics are mostly out of students' interest or students have little background knowledge of them. There is a high tendency for these kinds of reading texts to include more technical terms and advanced vocabulary, so the wide range of reiterations will turn texts of difficult topics into easy-to-understand ones. Coupled with chains of collocational items, the use of repetitions, synonyms, superordinates and general words can assist students immensely in interpreting the text based on lexical environment and related words occurring previously.

The following examples illustrate this relationship between lexical cohesive devices and the text's length and topic. The researchers choose to analyze two reading texts from *Tiếng Anh 10* volume 1, one is a 160-word text about TV shows from Unit 3 (Hoang, 2013, p. 29) and another has 350 words of acupuncture from Unit 2 (Hoang, 2013, p. 19). Apart from collocational items shown in Table 2, it is evident that the later has a more frequent occurrence of reiterations than the former. For example, in the text of Unit 3, repetition is used for 6 words including "contestants", "countries", "became", "aired", "viewers" and "Idol" with the word "Idol" is repeated most (4 times), whereas the reading passage in Unit 2 has 10 repeated words such as "acupuncture", "points", "acupoints", "treatment", "body", "promote", "needles", "people", "medicine"

and "survey" with the highest number of repeated times is "acupuncture". Synonyms are used in both reading texts but the text about TV shows has two pairs of synonyms ("countries"-"territories" and "global"-"worldwide") while another text consists of more synonyms ("originated"-"rooted", "enhance"-"promote", "inside"-"inner", "pressure points"-"acupoints", "care"-"precautions"). Also, a higher number of superordinates can be seen the longer text in which there are 2 items ("side effects" is a superordinate of "soreness", "slight bleeding" and "discomfort" and "treatment" is a superordinate of "acupuncture"), while the shorter one has "the show" as a superordinate of "Idol", "Pop Idol" "Viet Nam Idol" and "American Idol". In addition to reiterations, chains of collocational items in the text of acupuncture are more than those of TV shows. This can be seen in Table 2. Another interesting point is that the more frequently lexical cohesive devices occur, the more demanding topic the text has. While the reading topic of Unit 3 related to music is more of students' interest and understanding, the other is a more challenging topic which is about a kind of treatment for the body. The higher number of lexical cohesion's occurrence enables students to easily have a better grasp of the text related to acupuncture based on the link between one part and another preceding. Therefore, it is unnecessary for them to understand every single word to function successfully on reading texts of complex or unfamiliar topics. However, these texts themselves include lexical cohesive devices as reading guides and it is the readers' task to take full advantage of them.

From the above-mentioned findings and discussions, some conclusions of lexical cohesive devices' meaning for the reading texts and students' reading skills could be drawn. Cohesion provides for a text a semantic unit or the sort of continuity that exists between a part of the text and another (Halliday, 1976, p. 209). This enables readers to understand all missing pieces which are not present in the text but are necessary to its interpretation. For example, cohesion in a reading passage of Unit 10 Ecotourism, *Tiếng Anh 10* volume 2 (Hoang, 2013, p. 51) provides a semantic unit of the

benefits and principles of ecotourism, which allows students imagine the context and use their background knowledge related to this topic to interpret the text more easily. More specifically, lexical cohesion is established through the structure of vocabulary and involves the selection of lexical items that is in some way related to one occurring previously (Halliday, 1976, p. 303). The use of reiterations and collocations makes a word associate with another in the preceding in many ways such as directly repeating, creating synonyms, or occurring in the same lexical environment. This makes the reading texts more cohesive and more importantly, students can benefit greatly from the occurrence of lexical cohesive devices. In the reading lessons studying the textbook *Tiếng Anh 10*, students are supposed to get familiar with different types of reading questions using some strategies namely scanning, skimming, inferring, and summarizing. Question types may range from matching words with their meaning, choosing the text's title, deciding whether sentences given are true/false/not given, giving short answers, and doing multiple-choice questions. In the process of reading, students cannot avoid encountering new words especially in the texts of unfamiliar topics, but thanks to the high occurrence of cohesive devices, they can guess their meaning based on context generated by the other words occurring previously. In particular, based on repeated words and synonyms, students tend to find it easier to grasp the main idea of the test, and with the aid of chains of collocations they can locate information accurately to deal with questions related to detailed information. If a text fails to use lexical cohesive devices, not only does it lack continuity of lexical meaning but also students will find difficulty in interpreting the text and finding the answer to reading questions. Besides, all reading texts in the textbook are useful learning materials for students in improving both their reading skills and other skills. When students frequently get exposed to reading texts with a high distribution of lexical cohesive items, it is a great opportunity to learn from the use of cohesion in writing more cohesive essays as well.

5. Conclusion and implications

The study results show that there is a high occurrence proportion of lexical cohesive devices in 10 analyzed reading texts in Tieng Anh 10. It seems that repetition - a type of reiteration and collocation are densely used throughout all the reading texts. Not only does this provide a semantic unit of the text but such lexical cohesion also generates a marked cohesive effect across sentence boundaries. Added to this, it can be safely assumed that lexical cohesive devices are an essential tool to aid students' reading comprehension with regard to understanding texts at ease. It is unnecessary for them to grasp the meaning of every single word, but they can use the surrounding words and the link among sentences and ideas as reading guides. As a result, students are likely to manage the reading tasks effectively and their lexical resources are boosted significantly.

Due to limited time, the study investigates only lexical cohesive devices without analyzing grammatical ones. The research would have been of more importance if there had been analysis of both grammatical cohesion and lexical cohesion so that it offers deeper insights into the use of cohesion in reading texts in *Tiếng Anh 10*. Another point to bear in mind is this article is basically a preliminary study in the way that it solely figures out the lexical cohesive devices without proposing suggestions for applications on teaching. Thus, this article's findings will hopefully offer recommendations for further studies on applying lexical cohesion in teaching and learning reading comprehension or writing.

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NGHIÊN CỨU SƠ BỘ
VỀ PHƯƠNG TIỆN LIÊN KẾT TỪ VỰNG
TRONG CÁC BÀI ĐỌC TRONG SÁCH GIÁO KHOA
TIẾNG ANH 10 CỦA NHÀ XUẤT BẢN GIÁO DỤC VIỆT NAM

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Tóm tắt: Nghiên cứu xem xét các phương tiện liên kết từ vựng trong sách giáo khoa *Tiếng Anh 10* do Nhà xuất bản Giáo dục Việt Nam xuất bản. Nghiên cứu này sử dụng phương pháp phân tích tài liệu để trả lời câu hỏi nghiên cứu. Đặc biệt, mười bài đọc trong phần kỹ năng đọc được nghiên cứu dựa trên lý thuyết của Halliday và Hasan (1976) về liên kết trong diễn ngôn. Kết quả nghiên cứu cho thấy phép lặp được sử dụng nhiều nhất trong tất cả các bài đọc để tạo nên liên kết về ngữ nghĩa, trong khi đó liên kết về trường từ vựng tạo hiệu ứng gắn kết giữa các từ và cụm từ trong cùng một trường nghĩa. Dựa vào sự gắn kết từ vựng đó, học sinh sẽ dễ dàng nắm bắt ý nghĩa của các bài đọc, và nâng cao khả năng đọc hiểu và vốn từ vựng theo chủ đề. Hy vọng rằng bài báo này là một nghiên cứu sơ bộ cho những nghiên cứu sâu hơn về việc áp dụng liên kết từ vựng trong dạy và học kỹ năng đọc hiểu hoặc viết.

Từ khóa: kỹ năng đọc, phương tiện liên kết, phương tiện liên kết từ vựng, phân tích diễn ngôn, *Tiếng Anh 10*

INTELLIGIBLE PRONUNCIATION:
TEACHING ENGLISH TO VIETNAMESE LEARNERS

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Abstract: L1 (first language) phonological transfer in L2 (second/foreign language) learning appears unavoidable; concerns are whether it is positive or negative and which strategies could help to deal with negative transfer. This paper discusses the exploitation of an innovative approach to English pronunciation teaching named the L1 point of reference (L1POR) approach, in which L1 phonological impacts on L2 pronunciation are taken into account in the teaching process. Teaching points and strategies to improve the intelligibility of Vietnamese-accented English are recommended with reference to the L1POR and literature in teaching English as an international language.

Key words: English, Vietnamese, pronunciation, vowel, consonant

1. Introduction

Unintelligible pronunciation containing native-like features of the target language does not make any sense; it is intelligible pronunciation, not native-like pronunciation, which essentially contributes to communicative competence. This is particularly true in the present-day context where non-native speakers of English have outnumbered native counterparts and this number will certainly increase in the coming years. In this context, shared non-standard features (e.g. the use of full vowels in function words and the clear bi-syllabic pronunciation of triphthongs) actually enhance intelligibility among non-native speakers (Deterding & Kirkpatrick, 2006). This actuality is challenging the traditional nativist approach and encourages the intelligibility principle to L2 pronunciation teaching, which maximizes communicative potentials rather than attempts to reach native-like productions of the target language.

L1 negative phonological transfer in the L2 acquisition harms learners' L2 speech, whereas L2 learners tend to modify their L2 productions towards their L1 (Rogerson-Revell, 2011). The problem is worse to Vietnamese learners whose L1 sound system is greatly different from that of the English language. Traditionally, this

impediment is tackled by emphasizing descriptions of L2 sound articulations and imitation of L2 sounds, but Cunningham (2009) suggests that international intelligibility is a more useful target for teaching English pronunciation to Vietnamese L2 learners. For this reason, this paper discusses the utilisation of an alternative approach for pronunciation teaching to Vietnamese learners: the L1 point of reference (L1POR) approach, which 'acknowledges English as an international language (EIL) by making native speaker dialects optional as models' (Carey et al., 2015) and where L2 teachers could use their intelligible, comprehensible English as models for pronunciation instruction.

2. The L1 Point of Reference (L1POR) Approach

The L1POR is a non-nativist, learner-centered approach, which exploits language learners' L1 phonology as a scaffold to teach an L2, appreciates learners' becoming metalinguistic about their pronunciation needs, and involves initially developing an acceptable approximation of the target speech sounds (Carey et al., 2015). Its features include:

(a) L1 sounds are exploited as the cognitive points of reference for L2 ones.

(b) Speech production needs to precede perception. (Deterding & Kirkpatrick, 2006)

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(c) Input engages multiple senses whenever possible.

Explicit instruction of phonology has significant impacts on L2 speech intelligibility (Saito, 2011), enables language learners to notice the difference between their own L2 productions and those of proficient speakers (Derwing & Munro, 2005), and develops their phonological awareness (Venkatagiri & Levis, 2007). The L1POR furthers all these advantages by establishing a linkage between language learners' L1 and an L2, providing them with reliable and long-standing points of reference for their L2 learning, and enabling them to notice and avoid L1 negative transfer to their L2 production. Besides, it supports L2 instructors by enabling them to predict their students' phonological difficulties, reflect on their own English learning experiences as successful L2 learners, and integrate the approach with many other teaching techniques easily (Carey et al., 2015). This allows L2 instructors to notice the phonological aspects that need to be emphasized and provide their L2 learners with effective strategies to modify their L2 productions, and so L2 teachers can see themselves as multicompetent language users in their classroom.

3. Teaching points and strategies

3.1. Focus on length

Figure 1 shows that Vietnamese /i, u, ɔ/ and their BBC English counterparts occupy nearly the same region in the vowel space; however, they slightly differ in roundedness and closeness. Besides, they all have two English equivalents: a long vowel and a short one. Vietnamese L2 learners could use their /i/ for both English /ɪ/ and /iː/; /u/ for /ʊ/ and /uː/; and /ɔ/ for /ɒ/ and /ɔː/. Rounding and tongue advancement are, in fact, virtually identical in terms of acoustic quality (Lindblom & Sundberg, 1971; Lisker & Rossi 1992); therefore, Vietnamese /i, u, ɔ/ are likely to be positively transferred to English /ɪ, ʊ, ɒ/ respectively. For example, the Vietnamese word *hít* 'breathe' pronounced by certain speakers of the Southern Vietnam dialect may

sound the same as the English one *hit*; *phút* 'minute' sounds the same as 'foot', and *hót* 'sing' and *cót* 'a bamboo mat' sounds like 'hot' and 'cot' respectively. Similarly, Vietnamese /ɛ/ could be positively transferred to English /e/. For instance, the Vietnamese word *men* 'yeast' is pronounced exactly the same as the English one 'men'. Also, Vietnamese /æ/ and its English counterpart /æ/ can be categorised as identical thanks to their adjacency in the vowel space, and the English /æ/ may present no problems to Vietnamese learners of English. Actually, Vietnamese /æ/ only exists in some dialects such as the Binh Dinh accent, a Vietnamese accent in Central Vietnam. English /æ/ may, therefore, be perceived as Vietnamese /æ/ to some dialects but Vietnamese /a/ to the others. Vietnamese L2 learners from other regions can imitate the Binh Dinh /æ/ and produce the Vietnamese word *hang* 'cave' with the Binh Dinh accent, then articulate the word the English word 'hang'. However, it seems that English /æ/ is a bit longer than the Vietnamese dialectal /æ/. In short, Vietnamese /i, u, ɔ, ɛ, æ/ could be positively transferred into English /ɪ, ʊ, ɒ, e, æ/, so no requirements for modifying these vowels might be needed.

In contrast, Vietnamese /i, u, ɔ/ and English /iː, uː, ɔː/ can be negatively transferred owing to their great difference in quantity because vowel length is not linguistically significant in Vietnamese. Hence, teaching English vowel pairs /ɪ/ and /iː/, /ʊ/ and /uː/, /ɒ/ and /ɔː/ to Vietnamese L2 learners needs a focus on quantity rather than quality to improve the intelligibility of Vietnamese-accented English. Even an overemphasis on vowel lengthening would be better than shortening since the latter results in a much larger drop in vowel intelligibility than the former (Hillenbrand, Clark & Houde, 2000). Bilingual minimal pairs, whose examples are listed in Table 1, could be helpful for Vietnamese L2 learners to be able to distinguish the difference in length of these vowels in the two languages. Further, the pairs could be inserted into sentences such as 'I *ít mít* (eat jackfruit) every day.' and 'I *eat meat* every day.' so that students could see their difference in the sentence context.

Figure 1

English and Vietnamese Monophthongs (Adapted from Maddieson & Sandra, 1984 and Rogerson-Revell, 2011)
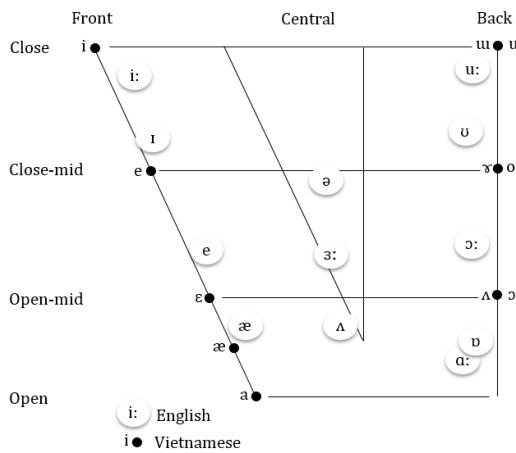

Table 1

Vowels' Bilingual Minimal Pairs

/i/ vs /iː/	
tim (heart)	team
ít (little)	eat
hít (breathe)	heat
mít (jackfruit)	meet or meat
/u/ vs /uː/	
Mun (ebony)	moon
Tu (meditation)	two or too
/ɔ/ vs /ɔː/	
lo (worried)	law
co (shrink)	core
so (compare)	saw

English /ɑː/ and its Vietnamese counterpart /a/ differ in *frontness* and length; however, the latter can be exploited to teach the former. English /ɑː/ can be acquired by asking students to pronounce the Vietnamese words like *ca* 'a mug' or *pha* 'mingle' with their tongue being pulled back and again with an extra length, which results in the English words 'car' and 'far'.

Vietnamese has three true diphthongs (Dinh & Nguyen, 1998), including /ie/ as in *biển* 'sea', /uo/ as in *cuốn* 'roll' and /ɯɤ/ as in *ướt* 'wet', whereas English has six diphthongs (Rogerson-Revell, 2011): /eɪ/ as in 'hay', /əʊ/ as in 'hoe', /ai/ as in 'high', /aʊ/ as in 'how', /ɔɪ/ as in 'toy', and /ɪə/ as in 'here'. Actually, Vietnamese 2-vowel combinations (Dinh & Nguyen, 1998) which have the *ngang* (level) tone are pronounced similar to the English

diphthongs. Samples of these pairs are provided in Table 2. The dissimilarity between these words is that English diphthongs are pronounced longer than these Vietnamese 2-vowel combinations. English diphthongs could, therefore, be achieved by articulating these Vietnamese 2-vowel combinations containing the *ngang* (level) tone with an extra length.

Table 2

Bilingual Minimal Pairs for Diphthongs

Vietnamese	English
hay (good)	hay
lâu (long)	low
sai (wrong)	sigh
ai (who)	eye
hao (waste)	how
toi (die)	toy
bia (target)	beer

3.2. Focus on centrality

Vietnamese has no central vowels, so familiarising L2 Vietnamese learners with this new tongue movement is vital. English central vowels /ɜː, ə, ʌ/ can, however, be negatively affected by Vietnamese back vowels /ɤ/ and /ʌ/. Vietnamese /ɤ, ʌ/ can be exploited to teach Vietnamese L2 learners English central vowels. Articulating Vietnamese /ɤ/ with the tongue tip hung down which results in the centre of the tongue slightly rising would sound like English /ə/. This modification with an extra length would make Vietnamese /ɤ/ sound like English /ɜː/. For example, the Vietnamese words *hớt* 'cut' and *phớt* 'ignore', modified as above, will sound like the English words 'hurt' and 'first'. The English central vowel /ʌ/ can be also acquired in this way with bilingual minimal pairs listed in Table 3. The tongue movement for these central vowels can be visualised by using one hand as the plate with the figures being the teeth, and the other is the tongue.

Table 3

Bilingual Minimal Pairs for /ʌ/

Vietnamese	English
mâm (tray)	mum
gân (sinew)	gun
sân (yard) or *săn* (hunt)	son

3.3. Focus on aspiration

Table 4 shows that Vietnamese and English share /m, n, ŋ, f, v, s, z, h, l, j/. Besides, the Vietnamese alveolar flap /ɾ/ as in *rắn* 'snake' could be positively transferred to the English approximant consonant /r/. For example, the two consonants as in the Vietnamese word *ria* 'moustache' and the English word 'rear' sound the same. Mispronunciations of the /r/ and /l/, in fact, have little potential for confusion in communication (Schairer, 1992). Hence, no modifications are probably required for these consonants.

Vietnamese and English also share /p, t, k/, but they are unaspirated in Vietnamese. It is, therefore, of significance to teach Vietnamese L2 learners the rules of aspiration of English /p, t, k/ and show them how to aspirate these sounds. The aspiration can be visualised by putting an A4-sized paper in front of the mouth when such a word like 'people' is pronounced. After the successful acquisition of English /p, t, k/, their voiced counterparts /b/, /d/, and /g/, can be gained by adding voicedness to the English /p/, /t/, /k/, that is, by attempting to make vocal cords vibrate when producing these consonants, which could be checked by putting fingertips on the Adam's apple.

Table 4

Vietnamese and BBC English Consonants

		Bilabial	Labiodental	Dental	Alveolar	Postalveolar	Palatal	Velar	Glottal
Plosive	V	p			t			k	
	E	p b			t d			k g	
Nasal	V		m		n			ŋ	
	E		m		n			ŋ	
Fricative	V		f v		s z				h
	E		f v	θ ð	s z	ʃ ʒ			h
Affricative	V								
	E					ʧ ʤ			
Approximant	V						j		
	E				r		j		
Lateral Approximant	V				l				
	E				l				

Notes: Where symbols appear in pairs, the one on the right represents a voiced consonant.
Adapted from Maddieson and Sandra (1984) and Rogerson-Revell (2011).

3.4. Start with /ʃ/ and /θ/

English /θ/, /ð/, /ʃ/, /ʒ/, /ʤ/, /ʧ/ do not exist in Vietnamese, so they are potentials for communication breakdowns resulting from negative phonological transfer. For the postalveolar consonants, the /ʃ/ should be dealt with prior to any others and can be taught through the Vietnamese fricative /s/. First, teachers should enable students to notice their tongue position when they articulate their /s/ by asking them to say a Vietnamese word containing the /s/ like *sáng* 'morning' slowly. Then show them the manner of articulation of the English /ʃ/. Finally insert the /ʃ/ into a Vietnamese word like '/ʃ/áng' to help students recognise the auditory difference between the phonemes. Students, producing the /ʃ/ successfully, could work with the manners of articulation of /ʧ/, /ʒ/, and /ʤ/ with the same tongue position. It is noteworthy that Vietnamese learners of English could mispronounce their retroflex /tr/, as in *trâu*, to the English /ʧ/ (Hwa-Froelich, Hodson & Harold, 2002). This could be prevented by inserting the /ʧ/ into a Vietnamese word like *trâu* as in '/ʧ/âu' so that learners can notice the auditory differences. The movement of the tongue and its position for the English postalveolar consonants can be visualised by using one hand as the plate with the fingers being the teeth, and the other is the tongue.

Several studies found that Vietnamese L2 learners tend to substitute English /θ/ and /ð/ for /s, z, t, d/ owing to their adjacency. My teaching experience, however, witnesses a common practice that Vietnamese learners of English mispronounce the /θ/ to their Vietnamese aspirated dental /tʰ/ and the English /ð/ to their voiced alveolar implosive /ɗ/; many even add

the schwa /ə/ after these consonants, which makes them produced as tʰə˨˩ *thờ* 'worship' and /ɗə˨˩/ *đờ* 'motionless'. Vietnamese /tʰ/ can be exploited to teach English /θ/. Firstly show students the place of articulation for English /θ/. Then, ask them to pronounce the Vietnamese word *thờ* /tʰɤ˨˩/ using that teeth and tongue position. Next, clarify the manner of articulation for the /θ/. Finally, put an A4-sized paper in front of the mouth and pronounce the Vietnamese word /tʰɤ˨˩/ without the /ɤ/ blowing the paper without any aspiration and noise causing by friction. The /ð/ could be achieved by adding voicedness to the /θ/ and can be checked as done with the previous voiced consonants.

3.5. Focus on consonant endings and clusters

Vietnamese and English share six syllable-final consonants: /p/, /t/, /k/, /m/, /n/, /ŋ/ (see Table 5), but Vietnamese syllable-final consonants are produced unreleased (Hwa-Froelich, Hodson & Edwards, 2002). Hence, ending sounds are problematic to Vietnamese L2 learners, and so they tend to substitute their L1 existing sounds for the L2 ending sounds or completely omit them (Flipsen, 1992). As a result, teaching rules of pronouncing English consonants in a sentence is helpful so that Vietnamese learners know when a final ending sound is needed to be pronounced. Also, it is crucial to teach Vietnamese learners the rules of pronouncing the final consonant and endings, e.g. native English speakers also frequently use strategies of consonant deletion to simplify rapid, natural speech when the central consonant in a three consonant cluster (Rogerson-Revell, 2011) so that learners know that when it is and it is not appropriate to make such deletions. This can also help prevent the overgeneralisation of the rules of pronunciation of ending sounds in English.

Table 5

Vietnamese and English Syllable Structure

	Pre-initial (C)	Initial (C)	Post-initial (C)	Vowel V	Pre-final (C)	Final (C)	Post-final 1 (C)	Post-final 2 (C)
E	/s/	/p/, /t/, /k/	/l/, /r/, /w/, /j/	V	/m/, /n/, /ŋ/, /l/, /s/	Any (except /h/, /j/, /r/, /w/)	/s/, /z/, /t/, /d/, /θ/	/s/, /z/, /t/, /d/
V	-	Any (except /p/, Hanoian /j/)	-	V	-	/p/, /t/, /k/, /m/, /n/, /ŋ/	-	-

Notes: 1. "-" means "impossible"
2. Adapted from Maddieson and Sandra (1984) and Rogerson-Revell (2011).

Vietnamese does not have any pre- and post-initial and final consonants. Thus, both initial and final consonant clusters, including those formed by the closeness between words, are new categories to Vietnamese L2 learners. They tend to add a schwa between the two consonants (Flipsen, 1992) and omission of final consonants or endings together (Hwa-Froelich, Hodson & Edwards, 2002). Therefore, Vietnamese L2 learners should be informed that both adding vowels and deleting consonants impede intelligibility and sometimes sound ridiculous. For instance, mispronouncing /striːm/ to /sətriːm/ sounds quite impolite in their L1. Vowel insertion can be avoided by dividing clusters into smaller units to practise like /s…s…s...striːm/ for 'stream'.

3.6. Focus on consonant-to-vowel linking

Language instructors might avoid teaching this feature of connected speech since it might make English pronunciation become more complicated to their students. However, teaching appropriate linking of word-final consonants and vowels is particularly helpful to Vietnamese learners of English since this can be considered as a good strategy for restricting their habits of omitting final endings. Moreover, teaching this feature of connected

speech facilitates comprehensibility (Schairer, 1992).

4. Conclusion

In case L2 pronunciation instruction targets the approximation of L2 sounds, not imitation, then learning L2 pronunciation is L2 learners' effort to modify their personalised L2 speech in the manner in which it is understandable to other L2 speakers. Thus, teaching L2 pronunciation should develop students' capacity to modify their L2 productions. To this end, the L1POR approach for pronunciation instruction can help L2 instructors do their job well. Nevertheless, empirical data on how effective the L1POR approach is for pronunciation teaching or how the approach could be modified to be better applied in an actual classroom is recommended.

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PHÁT ÂM DỄ HIỂU:
DẠY TIẾNG ANH CHO NGƯỜI HỌC VIỆT NAM

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Tóm tắt: Sự chuyển di âm vị từ ngôn ngữ thứ nhất (L1) khi học ngôn ngữ thứ hai hoặc ngoại ngữ (L2) là dường như không thể tránh khỏi; mối quan tâm là liệu các âm được chuyển di mang tính tích cực hay tiêu cực và các chiến lược sư phạm nào có thể giúp người học điều chỉnh các âm chuyển di tiêu cực. Bài báo này thảo luận việc khai thác một cách tiếp cận mới trong dạy phát âm tiếng Anh, trong đó các âm ở L1 được dùng làm tham chiếu (L1POR) và các ảnh hưởng âm vị học của L1 đến phát âm L2 được tính đến trong quá trình giảng dạy. Khuyến nghị về các điểm cần lưu ý trong giảng dạy và các chiến lược giảng dạy nhằm cải thiện mức độ hiểu tiếng Anh của người Việt được đề xuất dựa trên L1POR và các tài liệu về dạy tiếng Anh như một ngôn ngữ quốc tế.

Từ khóa: tiếng Anh, tiếng Việt, phát âm, nguyên âm, phụ âm