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

Xuất bản 01 kỳ/02 tháng

CONTENTS

MỤC LỤC

RESEARCH

"METAFUNCTIONS OF LANGUAGE" IN SYSTEMIC FUNCTIONAL LINGUISTICS: A FRAMEWORK FOR THE INTERPRETATION OF MEANING OF TEXT IN SOCIAL CONTEXT

Hoang Van Van*

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

Abstract: This article is concerned with how "metafunctions of language" is theorized by M.A.K. Halliday in his Systemic Functional Linguistics (SFL) theory, and how the metafunctional framework can be used to analyse and interpret the meaning of text in social context. The paper consists of five sections. Section one introduces the topic of the article. Section two briefly examines the notion of "functions of language" in formal and non-systemic functional (non-SF) models of language. Section three explores in some detail the notion of "metafunctions of language" in the SFL model. The study shows that unlike formal and non-SF models of language, SFL conceptualizes metafunctions of language not just as "uses of language" but as a fundamental property of language itself. To illustrate the applicability of the metafunctional framework to the interpretation of meaning of text in social context, Section four conducts an analysis of two stanzas in the famous Vietnamese poem "Hai sắc hoa ti-gôn" (Two Colours of Antigone) in terms of experiential, interpersonal, textual, and logical meanings. Section five provides a résumé of the issues studied in the article, pointing out the advantages of Halliday's metafunctional framework. The study aims to contribute to our understanding of language as a system of metafunctions, opening up vast potential for the application of the SFL model to language teaching, learning, and research.

Key words: formal and non-SF models, metafunctions of language, SFL, meaning of text in social context

1. Introduction

For many people, when asked the question: "What function does language have?", the answer would normally be, "It has the function of communicating information". Communicating information is perhaps the most visible function of language that anyone could readily notice. This way of understanding about the function of language is not wrong but incomplete. This is because if understood in this way it would seem that language has only one single function. A closer inspection of any natural language, however, will reveal that language is "multifunctional" (Halliday & Hasan, 1989, p. 23). Now, if we accept the view that language is multifunctional, the next question that arises at once will be: "What and how many

functions does language have?" Different scholars seem to offer different answers to the question. There are scholars who answer the question implicitly, integrating functions of language into their definitions of the sentence. In contrast, there are other scholars who address the question explicitly, identifying specific functions of utterances which occur in specific situations such as greeting, offering, complimenting, criticizing, thanking, etc.; and there are still other scholars who attempt to approach the problem in some general manner, conceptualizing functions of language through the general roles they serve in communication. The rest of the article is organized as follows. Section 2 will briefly examine some foremost formal and non-SF models of functions of language. Specifically, it will delve into what we would like to refer to as "the traditional grammar models", "the pragmatics model", "the Malinowski model", "the Bühler model", "the Jakobson model", "the Morris model", and "the Britton model". Section 3 will present in some detail how the metafunctional framework is conceptualized by the renowned British-born Australian linguist M.A.K. Halliday in his SFL model. To illustrate the applicability potential of the SFL metafunctional framework to the interpretation of meaning of text in social context, Section 4 will present an analysis of some parts of the Vietnamese poem "Hai sắc hoa ti-gôn" (Two Colours of Antigone). Section 5 provides a résumé of the issues discussed, and points out the advantages of Halliday's metafunctional framework both

in theoretical conceptualization and practical applicability to language teaching, learning, and research.

2. Functions of Language in Formal and Non-SF Models

2.1. The Formal Grammar Models

It is often claimed that formal grammars are concerned only with language structures, with the syntagmatic axis in de Saussure's (1983) formulation. But it is not quite true. The following definitions of the sentence taken from various sources by formal grammarians, both foreign and indigenous Vietnamese, will somehow serve to prove the point:

> A sentence is a complete unit of speech which is constructed in accordance with the grammatical rules of a language, acting as the most important vehicle for structuring, reflecting and conveying ideas. In the sentence not only is there an expression of ideas but also a relationship between the speaker and reality.[1] (Vinagradov, 1954, as cited in K. T. Nguyễn, 1964, p. 147)

> (…) a sentence is a linguistic level which is grammatically and semantically complete and is constructed with an intonation in accordance with the rules of a language; it is a means for expressing and conveying ideas about reality and about the attitude of the speaker towards reality.[2] (T. P. Hoàng, 1980, p. 19)

---

[1] This passage appears in the Vietnamese original (page 147) as follows:

Câu là một đơn vị hoàn chỉnh của lời nói được hình thành về mặt ngữ pháp theo các quy luật của một ngôn ngữ nhất định, làm công cụ quan trọng nhất để cấu tạo, biểu hiện và truyền đạt tư tưởng. Trong câu không phải chỉ có sự truyền đạt về hiện thực mà còn có cả mối quan hệ của người nói và hiện thực.

[2] This passage appears in the Vietnamese original (page 19) as follows:

(…) câu là ngữ tuyến được hình thành một cách trọn vẹn về ngữ pháp và về ngữ nghĩa với một ngữ điệu theo các quy luật của một ngôn ngữ nhất định và phương tiện diễn đạt, biểu hiện tư tưởng về thực tế và về thái độ của người nói đối với hiện thực.

A sentence is a linguistic unit which has an independent grammatical structure (internal and external) and a terminal intonation contour, expressing a relatively complete thought, and may contain an evaluation of reality by the speaker which helps to form and convey ideas.[3] (Diệp, 1987, p. 19)

A **simple sentence** (*emphasis in original*) is one that is made up of only one **independent clause**. An independent clause is formed from a **noun phrase subject** that names the topic of the sentence, and a **verb phrase** predicate. If the main verb is an **action verb**, the purpose of the sentence is to describe an action. If it is a **stative verb**, the purpose is to state a description. If the main verb has a **modal**, the purpose of the sentence is to express an attitude or opinion about an event or condition. (Wilson, 2007, p. 540)

A **sentence** is a unit of speech whose grammatical structure conforms to the laws of the language and which serves as the chief means of conveying a thought. A sentence is not only a means of communicating something about reality but also a means of showing the speaker's attitude to it. (Kaushanskaya et al., 2008, p. 264)

As can be seen from the above definitions of the sentence, besides the grammatical and phonological characteristics that can be observed such as "grammatically and semantically complete", "independent grammatical structure", "grammatical structure", "made up of one independent clause", "terminal intonation", we can find the functional features that are expressed in such phrases as "conveying ideas about reality", "communicating something about reality", "expressing a relatively complete thought", "express an attitude or opinion about an event or condition", and "showing the speaker's attitude". It is clear from the above definitions of the sentence that formal grammars do recognise functions of language. But what seems to be a problem with these definitions of the sentence is that functions of language are not explicitly specified, making it difficult to understand what they are, what they look like, and, in particular, how many functions language has.

2.2. The Pragmatics Model

The following natural parent-child exchange in Vietnamese (field-noted by the author of this article) would hardly draw a notice of the formal grammarian, but it would certainly attract the attention of the functional grammarian for it would lead to insights about our abilities to use language. A father, intent on viewing something in his iPhone, was interrupted by his four-year-old son, eager to borrow his father's iPhone to view some favourite children's programmes on YouTube:

Son: *Bố cho con mượn [điện thoại] đi-i-i!* (Dad, let me borrow [your iPhone], please.)

Father: *Bố đang xem.* (I'm viewing.)

If we examine closely this simple exchange in the immediate context in which

---

[3] This passage appears in the Vietnamese original (page 5) as follows:

Câu là đơn vị của ngôn ngữ, có cấu tạo ngữ pháp (bên trong và bên ngoài) tự lập và ngữ điệu kết thúc, mang một tư tưởng tương đối trọn vẹn và có thể kèm theo sự đánh giá hiện thực của người nói, giúp hình thành và biểu hiện, truyền đạt tư tưởng.

it occurs, a noticeable fact emerges: the second speaker – the father – does not seem to cooperate (in the Gricean sense) with the first speaker – the son. Looking simply at the words on the page from the point of view of formal grammar, however, we can see that the two utterances in the exchange are simple sentences; the first is an imperative sentence which can be analysed in formal terms as Subject (*Bố*) + Verb (*cho con mượn*) + [Object (*điện thoại*)] + imperative particle (*đi*); and the second is a declarative one which can be analysed as Subject (*Bố*) + Verb (*đang xem*). Until now, this formal approach to the analysis of language still prevails in the academic world and in primary, secondary, and tertiary classrooms as well. Is this a sound approach to language analysis? The normal answer to this question is "Yes, it is; but inadequate" for it fails to account for the purposes the two speakers want to achieve by their utterances. To be more specific, it fails to account for human beings' ability to translate what is structurally an imperative sentence (the son's utterance) into what is functionally a request and a declarative sentence or a statement of fact (the father's response) into what is functionally a decline of a request. Nor does it take into account the father's ability to make an oblique answer: by stating that he is viewing, the father refuses the son's request to borrow his iPhone. In other words, there is more to a speaker's knowledge of his language than a knowledge of the structure of the code. A speaker must know how to use his language; he must know how to exploit the resources of his language so that he can make it work for him. In other words, he must know the functions of his language (cf. Halliday, 1970, 1973, 1975, 1978). This approach to the analysis of language affirms the idea that "A statement, spoken in real life, is never detached from the situation in which it has been uttered. For each verbal statement by a human being has the aim and function of expressing some thought or feeling actual at the moment and in that situation" (Malinowski, 1923, p. 307): when we say something, we do something (Austin, 1962; Searle, 1969), and when we say something, we want to achieve a function or a (communicative) purpose (Halliday & Hasan, 1989; Hasan & Perrett, 1994; Thompson, 2014). This is perhaps one of greatest achievements pragmatics has contributed to modern linguistics.

2.3. The Malinowski Model

Malinowski, whose influence on British functional linguistics is considerable, represents an anthropological school of thought in which language played a much more significant role. His position in British functional linguistics can in some ways be likened to that of Boas and Sapir in American descriptive linguistics in the USA. Like Boas, Malinowski was convinced that field work demanded familiarity with the tribal language. At the same time, he believed that an understanding of the language was impossible without constantly relating it to the culture in which it was operative. In his famous supplement (Supplement I) to an influential philosophical work of the early nineteen twenties by Ogden and Richards (1923) which explored the relations between language, thought, and reality entitled *The Meaning of Meaning: A Study of the Influence of Language upon Thought and of the Science of Symbolism*, Malinowski (1923) laid the foundation for research on functions of language. His eloquent argument for the close relationship between language and culture can be seen in the following quotes:

> "… language is essentially rooted in the reality of the culture, the tribal life and customs of the people, and … it cannot be explained without constant reference to these broader

contexts of verbal utterance" (1923, p. 305).

"[An utterance] becomes only intelligible when it is placed within its *context of situation*". … the situation in which words are uttered can never be passed over as irrelevant to the linguistic expression" (1923, p. 306).

"A statement, spoken in real life, is never detached from the situation in which it has been uttered. For each verbal statement by a human being has the aim and function of expressing some thought or feeling actual at that moment and in that situation" (1923, p. 307).

Approaching language from the ethnographer's perspective and using *context of situation* as the central concept, Malinowski was able to identify four main uses (functions) of primitive language. The first use of language is *speech of action* – speech used by fishermen during a fishing expedition in the Trobriand Islands where Malinowski did field work. The second is *narrative*: "incidents are told or discussed among a group of listeners, … to create new bonds and sentiments by the emotional appeal of the words". Malinowski claimed that narrative is primarily a mode of social action rather than a mere reflection of thought. A narrative can be either directly or indirectly associated with one situation to which it refers. The third use of language is *phatic communion*. It is "a type of speech in which ties of union are created by a mere exchange of words" (op.cit., p. 315). Malinowski claimed that words in phatic communion are used to fulfil a social function and "language appears to use in this function not as an instrument of reflection but as a mode of action" (op.cit., p. 315). The fourth use of language in Malinowski's model is *the ritual use of words* in word

magic and the use of spells. Malinowski's model has influenced greatly the London school of linguistics, in particular on Firth's (1957, 1968) ideas of language, and later on Halliday's Systemic Functional Linguistics model.

2.4. The Bühler Model

From another perspective, based on Plato's conceptual framework of rhetorical grammar which distinguished first person, second person, and third person, the famous German-born Austrian psychologist and linguist, Carls Bühler (1934) developed a functional model of communication known as the "organon model". In this model, Bühler identified three functions of language which are referred to respectively as *expressive function* (Ausdrucksfunktion), *conative function* (Appellfunktion, i.e. appealing function), and *representational function* (Darstellungsfunktion). The expressive function, according to Bühler (1934), is language that is oriented towards the self, the speaker; the conative function being language that is oriented to the addressee; and the representational function being language that is oriented towards the rest of reality. Bühler's organon model was widely accepted by scholars of the Prague school of linguistics (Halliday & Hasan, 1989). In particular, his organon model was adopted and expanded by the famous Russian-born American linguist Roman Jakobson.

2.5. The Jakobson Model

Jakobson (1960), based a classification of functions on the model of the communication process in which a speaker and a hearer in a speech event (for example, a conversation, discussion) exchange messages, developed a model of functions of language which distinguishes six attendant elements or factors of communication, that are necessary for communication to occur: (1) context, (2)

addresser (sender), (3) addressee (receiver), (4) contact, (5) common code, and (6) message. Each factor is the focal point of a function, that operates between the message and the attendant factor. Briefly, Jakobson's model of six functions of language are the following, in order:

1. The *referential function*, a predominant function of language, is oriented towards the context of the speech event. It relates to the ability of language to impart ideas about a situation, a thing or a mental state as in the statement *The earth moves around the sun.*

2. The emotive or expressive function highlights the addresser's feelings as in the interjection *Oh!*

3. The *conative* or *directive function* focuses on the person addressed. This function is expressed grammatically as vocative (calling the attention of the person spoken to such as *David* in *David, come here please.*) and the imperative (requesting or requiring the addressee to perform some action such as *Hurry up!*).

4. The *phatic function* indicates that the addressee is well-disposed and favourably inclined toward the addressee. This function serves to establish, prolong or discontinue communication as in *Hello, how are you?*

5. The *poetic function* centres on the message itself. It is the most important function in poetry. It relates to the verbal art and the aesthetics of language.

6. The *metalingual function* focuses on the linguistic code – the use of language to discuss language itself. This function is used to establish mutual agreement on the code; for example, *What do you mean by "social context"*?

2.6. The Britton Model

So far, we have outlined several models of language functions which are concerned primarily with spoken language. We now turn our attention to examining a model of language functions that is concerned mainly with the functions of the written word – the Britton model. As with the Jakobson model, the Britton model drew on the Bühler model, but it was developed to serve language teaching and learning purposes.

In a lucid and succinct book entitled *Language and Learning*, the British educationalist James Britton (1993), in the course of classifying 2122 pieces of writing from 500 boys and girls aged from eleven to eighteen, proposed his own model of three language functions which are referred to respectively as *expressive function*, *transactional function*, and *poetic function*. According to Britton (1993), the expressive function (expressing personal attitudes, feelings, reasons, reactions, etc.) is the starting point in one's linguistic experience. It is the neutral ground from which one moves out to meet the demands made by larger language needs. When the needs of the moment call for action to be taken, the expressive function gives way to the transactional function which is concerned with one's use of language to do something. In the transactional function, communicators participate in informing, analyzing, planning, teaching, arguing, persuading, or any other kinds of activity where a practical outcome is to be achieved. And when the interest focuses on the form and shape of a linguistic experience for its own sake, rather than on what is accomplished, we find the expressive function shifting ground to the poetic function. Here the role of the writer is more that of spectator. By standing detached from a linguistic experience, the spectator can evaluate it in terms of the larger value systems it holds for him. Thus released from

the need to achieve an outcome or interact with another participant, the writer as spectator can be free to attend to the linguistic experience *as linguistic experience*: the forms and structures of individual utterances and the discourse as a whole. The language expressed by the poetic function might also be called "verbal art". Britton maintained that for the child beginning to write, the expressive function is the natural starting point. It is the dominant function in our daily interchanges with others. It is a neutral point from which a process of increasing differentiation would take place towards the utility of the transactional mode on the one hand or the self-consciously formal mode of the poetic on the other. (For more detail about these three language functions in the Britton model, see Britton, 1993: Chapters 1, 3, and 4).

2.7. The Morris Model

In his entertaining book entitled *The Naked Ape*, Morris (1999) studied language functions from an animal behaviourist's point of view. He recognized four main language functions: *information talking*, *mood talking*, *exploratory talking*, and *grooming talking*. Information talking, according to Morris (1999, p. 203), is the method of communication which enabled primitive people to refer to the objects in the environment and also to the past and the future as well as to the present. This is the most important human communication function of language for it involves a collaborative communication exchange between speaker and listener. Morris suggests that the function of information talking seems to appear first, although in the child's history of development it appears last of all. Information talking has evolved, but it doesn't stop there. It has added a number of additional functions, one of which is mood speaking – a form of speech that expresses a speaker's mood and attitude. Mood speaking can be non-verbal mood signals; but these messages can be augmented with verbal confirmation of our feeling; for example, a yelp of pain is closely followed by a verbal signal that "I am hurt" or a roar of anger is accompanied by the message "I am furious". Exploratory talking is a third language function. This is "talking for the sake of talking, aesthetic talking, or play talking". And groom talking refers to "the meaningless, polite chatter of social occasions"; for example, "Nice weather today, isn't it?" or "Have you read any good books lately?" Morris (1999, p. 204) noted that grooming talking is "not concerned with the exchange of important ideas or information, nor does it reveal the true mood of the speaker, nor is it aesthetically pleasing. Its function is to reinforce the greeting smile and to maintain the social togetherness. It is "the most important substitute we have for social grooming" (Morris, 1999, p. 206); it is used to oil the social process and to avoid friction (Halliday & Hasan, 1989, p. 16) so that communicators can carry out their conversations naturally and smoothly.

2.8. Summary

The conceptualization of language functions in formal and non-SF models of language presented above allow the following remarks:

First, although these models seem to be differently formulated, and each one uses different terminologies, they all have the following features in common: they all recognize that language is multifunctional, reflected in three aspects (i) language is used to talk about things (informative, narrative, representational, expressive); (ii) language is used for interactional purposes "between speaker and listener, writer and reader", expressing the self and influencing others (expressive, mood, conative, active); and (iii) language is used to express imaginative or aesthetic function (see Halliday & Hasan, 1989).

Secondly, the demands of human beings for language as speakers or writers, listeners or readers are diverse. Therefore, what functions and how many functions language has depend largely on the perspective of the researcher. What is presented above shows that the problem of functions of language is approached from different perspectives: ethnographical, psychological, communicational, educational, biological, and so on. Therefore, it would not be surprising to see that if the researcher looks at the problem of language functions from the point of view of ethnography, and is more interested in linguistic functions, then he or she will adopt the functions of language as recognized in the Malinowski model. In contrast, if the researcher approaches the problem of language functions from the psychological point of view, and views language as being used to serve the life of the individual in the community, he or she will arrive at formulating a model of language functions like the Bühler organon model. If the researcher approaches the problem of language functions from the point of view of the communication process in which a speaker and hearer in a speech event exchange messages, he or she will arrive at the Jakobson model. If the researcher is interested in the problem of language functions from the educational perspective, then he or she must classify language functions into the transactional, the expressive, and poetic functions as they are detailed in the Britton model. And if the researcher wishes to tackle the problem of language functions from the point of view of the evolution of communication in biology, then he or she will adopt the Morris model, classifying language functions into information talking, mood talking, exploratory talking, and grooming talking.

And thirdly, what seems to be a problem with most of such above models is that they were essentially constructed on a

kind of conceptual framework in non-linguistic terms, looking at language from the outside, and using this for interpreting the different ways in which people use language. And as Halliday & Hasan (1989, p. 17) have aptly put it, "In all these interpretations of functions of language, function equals use: the concept of function is synonymous with that of use". This way of conceptualization of language functions is unable to characterize language as a system. "For a theory to be functional in the proper sense of the word, the term function needs to be more abstract than function equated with specific language use. It is only when functions are identified at a high level of abstraction that they can be recognised as essential to all *uses* of language, becoming the property of the entire linguistic social process as such, that they can be viewed as integral to the system of language, serving to explain the nature of its internal structure by relation to its social uses" (Hasan & Perrett, 1994, p. 183). With these remarks, we now turn to explore the notion of "metafunctions of language" in Systemic Functional Linguistics.

3. The SFL Model

Among the scholars who study language functions, Halliday is perhaps the foremost writer. He has developed a world famous linguistic theory known as Systemic Functional Linguistics in which he incorporates the social dimension into his linguistic theory, connecting children's functions of language with adults' generalized functions of language. It is precisely his model of functions of language that we will consider below.

3.1. Children's Functions of Language

In his studies of children's language development, Halliday (1973, 1975) made two important observations. First, young children's proto-languages are semiotic systems of the primary kind: they are systems with two levels only – content and

expression – and lack a level of lexicogrammar. Secondly, children early on acquire a wide range of functions, but typically each of their utterances serves only one function. For Halliday, to say that a child knows language is to say that he or she knows how to mean, how to use language to perform these functions. Halliday (1975, pp. 18-20) recognized seven distinct functions early in a child language development:

1. *Instrumental* (the "I want" function of language): language as a means by which the child satisfies his material needs or requirements. Example: *Mum, I want that cake*.

2. *Regulatory* (the "do as I tell you" function): language used to influence and control the behaviour of others. Example: *Let's play this game*.

3. *Interactional* (the "me and you" function): language as a means of maintaining ties with other people. It reveals the child's awareness of others and his relation to them. Example: the greeting, *Hello, dad*, and also the response, *Yes*.

4. *Personal* (the "here I come" function): language for expressing one's own individuality and for developing awareness of the self and of personality. Example: *Yeah. They are mine, not yours*.

5. *Heuristic* (the "tell me why" function): language as a means of exploration, both inside and outside oneself; language used to discover and learn about things. Example: *Daddy. What are roots used for?*

6. *Imaginative* (the "let's pretend" function): language used to create one's own world or environment, including meaningless sounds, rhyming and other linguistic play. "Story' and "pretend" and "make up" become elements of the imaginative function. Example:

(a child says about her elder brother Jim: *Naughty, naughty, boydy, naughty Jimy*.

7. *Informative* (the "I've got something to tell you" function): language used to communicate information to someone who does not already possess that information, to express propositions and to convey a message which makes reference to the world surrounding the child. Example: *Daddy has gone to work*.

According to Halliday (1975), children are motivated to develop language because it serves certain purposes or functions for them. The first four functions help them to satisfy physical, emotional and social needs. The next three functions help them to come to terms with their environment, to ensure their survival and to take their place in interactional communication. Halliday (1975, p. 21) noted: "The young child has a very clear notion of the functions of his own linguistic system. He knows very well what he can do with it. But what he can do with it is not at all the same thing as what the adult does, still less as what he thinks he does, with his linguistic system".

3.2. Grown-Ups' Generalized Functions of Language

Halliday (1975) claims that as children move into the mother tongue, the seven functions mentioned above give way to the generalized functions of language. In this process, in between the two levels of the simple proto-language system: content and expression, an additional level of content is inserted. Instead of one level in the content plane, adult language now has two: semantics and lexicogrammar. The expression plane now also consists of two levels: phonology and phonetics. These planes of content and expression of adult language in relation to social context can be presented in Figure 1 below:

Figure 1

Levels of Language in Relation to Social Context (V. V. Hoang, 2018b, p. 4)
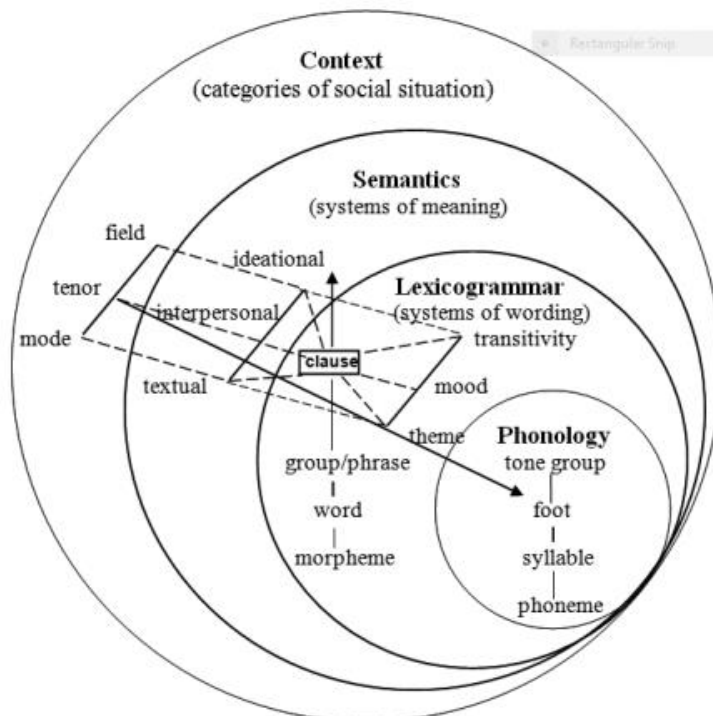
Figure 1 shows that adult language is multifunctional. Halliday (1978 and elsewhere) claims that every utterance does several things at once, in an integral way. He recognizes three generalized functions of language which he calls "metafunctions": (1) *ideational metafunction*, (2) *interpersonal metafunction*, and (3) *textual metafunction*. Since detailed discussions of these are available (e.g. see Halliday, 1970, 1978, 1985, 1998; Martin, 1992; Matthiessen, 1992, 1995; Halliday & Hasan, 1989; Hasan, 2011; Halliday & Matthiessen, 2014; V. V. Hoang, 2012, 2018a, 2018b), only a brief account of each metafunction is provided here.

The first metafunction – the *ideational* – has two components: the *experiential* and the *logical*. The experiential metafunction of language is the resource speakers/writers draw on to construe their experience of the world – both the real world of physical phenomena and the inner world of their consciousness, feelings, beliefs, and reflections. Human language acts as resources for the construal of classes of things (e.g. "autumn", "twilight", "petal"); qualities (e.g. "beautiful", "lovely", "good"); quantities (e.g. "one", "each", "some"); doings and happenings (e.g. "pick", "dye", "wait"); behavings (e.g. "laugh", "cry", "kiss"); knowing, feeling, and thinking (e.g. "understand", "love", "think"); sayings (e.g. "say", "tell", "show", "inform"); being, having and being at (e.g. "be", "have", "belong"); and existing (e.g. "appear", "remain") which imply certain participants and incumbent circumstances. These language resources help speakers to construct complex things into groups/phrases (e.g. "a beautiful autumn", "in the glow of the afternoon sunlight"), and groups/phrases into clauses (e.g. "A beautiful Autumn has come"). The *logical metafunction* is the resource speakers/writers draw on to construe and create relations of phenomena and events such as "x and y" (e.g. "you and I"), "x or y"

(e.g. "trick or cheat"), "If x [then] y" (e.g. "(If you) drink to me with thine eyes, and (then) I will pledge with mine" (Ben Jonson, as cited in Halliday & Hasan, 1989, p. 21), "say that x" (e.g. "She said that he was a good teacher", "think that x" (e.g. "He thought that she would come"), and so on.

The second metafunction – the *interpersonal* – is the resource speakers/ writers draw on to establish and maintain social relations: for the expression of social roles, which include the communication roles created by language itself, the role of questioner and respondent which speakers take on by asking and answering questions (e.g. "Is it hot in Autumn in your country?", "No, it isn't."); and also for getting things done (e.g. "Get out here, please!"). Further, language acts as a potential for the expression of their subjectivity: their expression of probability, obligation, and commitment; their attitudes and evaluation (e.g. "I must go.", "He should have told me about it.").

The third metafunction of language – the *textual* – is the resource speakers/writers draw on to construct "texts" or connected passages of discourse that is situationally relevant (Halliday, 1970, 1978; Halliday & Hasan, 1976; Martin & Rose, 2013). It enables listeners/readers to distinguish a text from a random set of clauses or sentences. In any social use of language speakers/writers indicate what information can be taken as **Given** and what information can be **New**, what is point of departure – the **Theme** and what can be the exposition of the point of departure – the **Rheme**. One aspect of the textual metafunction is concerned with how the various parts of the discourse relate to each other coherently and cohesively: with whether information is presented as retrievable from what has been already been said (i.e. Rheme in the preceding message becomes theme in the succeeding message) is or whether more information is to be presented in the on-going discourse (i.e.

Rheme in the preceding message becomes Theme in the succeeding message). In other words, the textual metafunction is concerned with creating relevance between the parts of what is being said/written, and between the text and the context of situation, "breathing life into language and giving it its sense of realness, cohesion and texture" (Halliday, 1998: xiii; see also Fries, 1981; Halliday & Hasan, 1989; Martin & Rose, 2013; V. V. Hoang, 2018a, 2018b).

These three metafunctions – the *ideational*, the *interpersonal*, and the *textual* – work together in individual utterances/clauses, giving rise to three kinds of downward linguistic structure: *transitivity*, *mood*, and *theme*. They are related upwards to three aspects of speech situation which influence the way they are realized in particular instances (see Halliday, 1978): *field of discourse*, *tenor of discourse*, and *mode of discourse*. The *field of discourse* refers to what is going on in the particular speech situation. It is therefore associated with the ideational metafunction realized in the grammatical patterns and vocabulary denoting "who does what to whom". The *tenor of discourse* signifies the role relationships of the people involved in the speech situation. It is therefore associated with the interpersonal metafunction realized in the mood (including modality) patterns. And the *mode of discourse* points to the channel of communication (whether written or spoken or some combination of the two). It is therefore associated with the textual metafunction realized in the theme and information patterns. Taken together, field of discourse, tenor of discourse, and mode of discourse are the social variables which comprise the "register" of a text (Halliday et al., 1964; Halliday, 1978; Halliday & Hasan, 1989; see also Matthiessen et al., 2010) whose job is to provide the framework for the selection of meanings of the text realized in structural forms.

3.3. Metafunctions of Language and the Interpretation of Meaning of Text in Social Context

"Practice without theory is blind, but theory without practice is empty" (Neubert, 2000, p. 26). We need to illustrate the SFL model of metafunctions at work to see how it can be applied to the interpretation of the meaning of text in social context. To do this, we have chosen the poem "Hai sắc hoa ti-gôn" (Two Colours of Antigone). There are three reasons for our choice of the poem. First, "Hai sắc hoa ti-gôn" is a famous Vietnamese poem written by an anonymous Vietnamese poetess[4] (known to readers only by the acronym "TTKh"). Secondly, the poem is written in a simple narrative style whose meanings can be uncovered through linguistic analysis. And thirdly, by using the SFL metafunctional framework for analysis, we can uncover not only the meaning of the poem but also the metafunctional basis of language. The poem consists of eleven stanzas (see Appendix 1). For illustration purposes, however, only the first and a second part of the third stanzas are selected for analysis. We are aware that there may be the danger that some accidental features that are the property of a particular instance of language (the two portions of the poem in this case) will be taken as if they are representative features of grammar in general. But as it will stand, the features that are displayed in the two text portions of the poem can only be accidental in relation to the linguistic system as a whole. So in interpreting them, we will try to relate what we will say about them in general categories that are found in the grammar of the language. We will undertake a two-phase operation: (i) to analyse the two text portions into clause complexes and clause simplexes ("clauses" for short), and their combining patterns to uncover logico-semantic meanings (see Appendix 2); and (2) to analyse the clauses in terms of transitivity, mood, and theme to uncover the ideational, interpersonal, and textual meanings. The notational conventions used for the analysis of the text portions are provided in Appendix 3.

To assist English readers who have limited or no knowledge of Vietnamese, wherever needed, the presentation of each clause is organised into four lines: 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 these functions appear in bold type; and the fourth line provides an English semantic translation. It should be noted that as discourse unfolds, the three metafunctions or strands of meaning are interwoven with each other in a very dense fabric, so that they can achieve all three social metafunctions of language simultaneously (Martin & Rose, 2013, p. 7). As a way of start, we will begin by examining the experiential metafunction; then we will deal with the interpersonal metafunction, the textual metafunction, and finally the logical metafunction. One more thing that should be noted is that what we are trying to do here is not as a piece of literary commentary but rather as a linguistic exercise in which we identify features that illustrate the general point: that language is metafunctionally organised and that the metafunctional framework can be applied to interpreting the meaning of text in social context.

3.3.1. The Experiential Metafunction

Let us consider the first stanza of the poem:

---

[4] Whether the writer who composed this poem was a male or a female is unclear. Based on evidence in the text, however, we can guess that the writer was a woman.

||| (1) Một mùa thu trước mỗi hoàng hôn

Nhặt cánh hoa rơi || (2) chẳng thấy buồn ||

(3) Nhuộm ánh nắng tà qua mái tóc ||

(4) Tôi chờ || (5) người đến với yêu đương.|||

The analysis shows that the stanza is of a seven-beat metre style, a fairly common style in Vietnamese poetry. It is presented in four lines, and according to the convention of traditional layout, each line begins with a capital letter. Structurally, the entire stanza constitutes a clause complex which consists of five clauses. Analyzing the stanza from the point of view of the experiential metafunction (that is, analyzing the content of the stanza in terms of the experience of the outer as well as the inner world of the poetess' consciousness through process types such as material, behavioral, mental, mental, relational, and existential process; their corresponding participants and incumbent circumstances) gives us the result presented in Figure 2 below.[5]

Figure 2

Experiential Meaning of the Stanza

(1)

Một	*mùa thu*	*trước*	*mỗi*	*hoàng hôn*	*Nhặt*	*cánh hoa*	*rơi*
one	autumn	past	each	twilight	pick	flower petal	fall
Circumstance: time 1			**Circumstance: time 2**		**Process: material**	**Goal**	

At each twilight in a last autumn, (when I picked) picking up a fallen flower

(2)

chẳng	*thấy*	*buồn*
not	find/feel	sad
Process: relational		**Attribute**

(I did) not feel sad.

(3)

Nhuộm	*ánh nắng*	*tà*	*qua*	*mái tóc*
dye	sunlight	afternoon	through	hair
Process: material	**Goal**		**Circumstance: location**	

(I dyed) Dyeing the sunlight through the hair/filtering my hair in the glow of the afternoon sun.

(4)

Tôi	*chờ*
I	wait
Actor	**Process: material**

I waited

(5)

người	*đến*	*với*	*yêu đương*
person	come	with	love
Actor	**Process: material**	**Circumstance: accompaniment**	

for him to come with (his) love.

---

[5] The capitalized letters of the stanza are retained in our analysis.

As the analysis in Figure 2 indicates, clause (1) begins with two nominal groups *Một mùa thu trước* (At each twilight) and *mỗi hoàng hôn* (in a last Autumn). These nominal elements set local contexts, locating the points of time for the actions and events not only in clause (1), but perhaps in the remaining clauses of the stanza as well (but in our analysis, they are treated as belonging to the first clause). In the SFL model, these nominal groups are assigned the function of **Circumstance of time**. Following these circumstantial elements is the verb *Nhặt* (pick). Considering *Nhặt* alone from the point of view of the experiential meaning, we can interpret it as a type of process, or more specifically, a type of physical action that is tangible when it is performed in real-life situations. This action element of the clause takes on the function of **Process: material**. Following this material process *Nhặt* is the nominal group *cánh hoa rơi* (fallen flower), a concrete object that can be observed in real life consisting of the noun *cánh hoa* and the adjective *rơi*[6]. This nominal group represents the range affected by the action of the verb *Nhặt* or the target that the action *Nhặt* directs at. This element of the clause, therefore, is assigned the function of **Goal**.

Clause (2) has a process type which is quite different from clause (1). It begins with the verb *thấy* (see/feel) – a process which does not express material action like *Nhặt* but some kind of perceptive mental activity realized in the structure of a relational process *(tôi) chẳng thấy buồn* (I didn't feel sad). But unlike relational process of the type "x is (a)" or "x has (attribute a)", *thấy* construes a relational process that expresses the inner emotional state of the poetess which can be assigned the function of **Process: relational: inner emotion**. Following *thấy* is *buồn* (sad), an adjective

indicating "negative emotion" (P. Hoang et al., 2002, p. 90) or "an inner state of emotion" (V. V. Hoang, 2012, p. 248) of the **Carrier** (*tôi* – which is not present in the clause). It therefore can be assigned the function of **Attribute**.

Clause (3) has the experiential structure similar to clause (1). Like clause (1), clause (3) starts with the verb *Nhuộm* (literally, "dye"). Like *Nhặt* in clause (2), *Nhuộm* is a type of tangible physical action, and is therefore assigned the function of Process: material. Following *Nhuộm* is the nominal group *ánh nắng tà* (the glow of the afternoon sunlight), a kind of observable thing, but not a palpable thing like *cánh hoa rơi* in clause (1). In the SFL model, this observable but not palpable *ánh nắng tà* is assigned the function of Goal. Following *ánh nắng tà* is the prepositional phrase *qua mái tóc* (literally, "through the hair") – the element indicating the location through which the Goal *mái tóc* is dyed in the sun, and is therefore assigned the function of Circumstance: place. But unlike clause (1) where the two circumstantial elements *Một mùa thu trước* and *mỗi hoàng hôn* are placed at the beginning of the clause to highlight their thematic prominence, in clause (3) the circumstantial element *qua mái tóc* is placed at the end of the clause to highlight its rhematic information, and thus giving thematic prominence to the action verb *Nhuộm* (for more detail on thematic and rhematic information of the Vietnamese clause, see V. V. Hoang, 2007).

Clause (4) begins with the personal pronoun *Tôi*. Relative to the process *chờ*, *Tôi* can be interpreted as the causer or instigator of the action *chờ*, and therefore can be assigned the function of Actor. Moving back to clauses (1), (2) and (3) of the stanza, we can see that *Tôi* is not just the element that

---

[6] It should be noted that although *rơi* is normally treated (in dictionaries) as a lexical verb, in this particular context it can be interpreted as an adjective post-modifying the noun *cánh hoa*.

causes the transitive action of *chờ* in clause (4) *chờ người*, it is also the agent that causes the transitive action of *Nhặt* in clause (1) *Nhặt cánh hoa rơi*, the transitive action of *Nhuộm* in clause (3) *Nhuộm ánh nắng tà*, and the element carrying the attribute *chẳng thấy buồn* (not feeling sad) in clause (2). Following the personal pronoun *Tôi* – indicating the poetess – is the verb *chờ*, a transitive action, and is therefore assigned the function of Process: material. Unlike the transitive material processes in clauses (1) and (3) where the process stops at the Goal *cánh hoa rơi* and *ánh nắng tà*, in clause (4) *người* – indicating the poetess's ex-lover – which is Goal takes part in the next clause: clause (5), functioning as Actor involving in the intransitive action process *đến* whose function is Process: material. So, here we have two clauses: *Tôi chờ người* and *(người) đến với yêu đương* as shown in clauses (4) and (5); and unlike traditional grammar analysis where *người đến với yêu đương* is normally assigned the function of object, in the SFL model, it is treated as a separate dependent clause – clause (5).

Clause (5) starts with the personal pronoun *người*. Considered in relation to *đến* (come), *người* can be interpreted as the causer of the action *đến*, and can therefore be assigned the function of Actor. This element is followed by the verb *đến*, a tangible intransitive material process, and can be assigned the function of Process: material. This material process is followed by the prepositional phrase *với yêu đương* (with love) which in this context can be assigned the function of Circumstance, but unlike the two Circumstances of time in clause (1) and the Circumstance of place in clause (3), *với yêu đương* is a kind of circumstance which is encoded as if it were a companion of the Actor *người*. It therefore can be assigned the function of Circumstance: accompaniment: *(Tôi chờ) người đến với yêu đương* can be reworded as *Người và sự yêu đương đến (với tôi)*.

The experiential meaning of the first stanza of the poem realized in transitivity structures can be summarized as follows:

- clause (1) has the configuration of Circumstance of time 1 (*Một mùa thu trước*) ^ Circumstance of time 2 (*mỗi hoàng hôn*) ^ Process: material (*Nhặt*) ^ (affected) Goal (*cánh hoa rơi*);
- clause (2): Process: material (*chẳng thấy*) ^ Attribute (*buồn*);
- clause (3): Process: material (*Nhuộm*) ^ (affected) Goal (*ánh nắng tà*) ^ Circumstance of location (*qua mái tóc*);
- clause (4): Actor (*Tôi*) ^ Process: material (*chờ*) ^ Goal (*người*);
- clause (5): Actor (*người*) ^ Process: material (*đến*) ^ Circumstance of accompaniment (*với yêu đương*).

3.3.2. The Interpersonal Metafunction

We are now analyzing the stanza from the point of view of the interpersonal metafunction, considering it as a social interactional process in which the communicators take on one of the two basic functions: "giving" or "demanding". The function of giving includes "giving information" realized through a declarative clause or "giving goods-&-services" realized through an interrogative clause; and the function of demanding includes "demanding information" realized also through an interrogative clause or "demanding goods-&-services" realized through an imperative clause. (For more detail about the nature of the interactive language and the four concepts of "giving", "demanding", "information", and "goods-&-services", see Halliday (1998, pp. 173-77; Halliday & Matthiessen, 2014, pp. 134-39). Analyzing the stanza for interpersonal meaning (that is, analyzing the clauses of the stanza in terms of speech functions of the clauses; and their corresponding functions of the elements in terms of Subject, Predicator,

Complement, and Adjunct) gives us the result presented in Figure 3 below.

Figure 3

Interpersonal Meaning of the Stanza

(1) [Giving information: declarative mood]

Một	*mùa thu*	*trước*	*mỗi*	*hoàng hôn*	*Nhặt*	*cánh hoa*	*rơi*
one	autumn	past	each	twilight	pick	flower petal	fall
Adjunct 1			**Adjunct 2**		**Predicator**	**Complement**	

At each twilight in a last Autumn, (when I picked) picking up a fallen flower

(2) [Giving information: declarative mood]

chẳng	*thấy*	*buồn*
not	find/feel	sad
Predicator		**Complement**

(I did) not feel sad.

(3) [Giving information: declarative mood]

Nhuộm	*ánh nắng*	*tà*	*qua*	*mái tóc*
dye	sunlight	afternoon	through	hair
Predicator	**Complement**		**Adjunct**	

(I dyed) Dyeing the sunlight through the hair/filtering my hair in the glow of the afternoon sun.

(4) [Giving information: declarative mood]

Tôi	*chờ*
I	wait
Subject	**Predicator**

I waited

(5) [Giving information: declarative mood]

người	*đến*	*với*	*yêu đương*
person	come	with	love
Subject	**Predicator**	**Adjunct**	

for him to come with (his) love.

The analysis in Figure 3 shows that there is another type of meaning encoded in the stanza – the interpersonal or interactive meaning between communicators (in this case, between the poetess and readers). While in the experiential domain, language has reflective function, in the interpersonal domain, language has enacting function, that of "establishing and maintaining social relations" (Halliday, 1970, p. 143). Looked at from the point of view of the interpersonal meaning, there are two points to note here. First, all the five clauses of the stanza have speech function of "giving information" realized in "declarative mood" in which the poetess takes on the role of one giving the information, describing and asserting the events that happened to her in the past realized in *Một mùa thu trước* and *mỗi hoàng hôn*, and the readers (probably including the poetess' ex-lover) are assigned the role of ones receiving the information. Secondly, of the five information-giving clauses, four are realized as declarative: positive (clauses 1, 3, 4, and 5), and one (clause 2) is realized as a declarative: negative.

The analysis in Figure 3 also shows that the interpersonal elements corresponding to the experiential ones take on different functions, because their jobs

now are not to represent experience, but to realize the interactive relationships between the information giver and the information receiver. Thus, instead of assigning the clause elements in the experiential domain such functions (taking the material process as representative) as Actor, Process, Goal, and Circumstance, the respective elements in the interpersonal domain are assigned the functions of **Subject** – the element "by reference to which the proposition can be affirmed or denied" (Halliday, 1998, p. 76; Halliday & Matthiessen, 2014, p. 145); **Predicator** – the element which "specifies the process (action, event, mental process, relation) that is predicated of the Subject" (Halliday, 1998, p. 79: Halliday & Matthiessen, 2014, p. 152); **Complement** – "the element that has the potential of being Subject but is not" (Halliday, 1998, p. 80; Halliday & Matthiessen, 2014, p. 153) or the complementary component which "completes the action specified by the verb" (Crystal, 2008, p. 67); and **Adjunct** – the element that "has not got the potential of being Subject" (Halliday, 1998, p. 80; Halliday & Matthiessen, 2014, p. 154), because it is "an optional or secondary element in a construction" (Crystal, 2008, p. 12).

One point should be noted here; that is, looked at from the point of view of tenor of discourse, there are three parties (voices) involved in the stanza representing two distinct pairs or dyads of communicators. The first pair is between the poetess and general readers, and the poetess adopts herself as an equal of her readers reflected in *Tôi* (I) ↔ *readers* (unseen). The second pair is between the poetess and her ex-lover, and

the poetess adopts herself also as an equal of him reflected in *Tôi* ↔ *người* (he) (also unseen). And since the poetess is the giver of the information, in the first four clauses, the first personal pronoun *Tôi* takes on the function of Subject (which is left out in the first three clauses). In clause (5), the poetess' ex-lover *người* (him) appears, taking on the function of Subject, but it is the Subject of a hypotactic (dependent) clause: *người đến với yêu đương*.

From the above analysis, we can summarize the interpersonal meaning of the stanza realized in mood structures as follows:

- clause (1) has the configuration of Adjunct 1 (*Một mùa thu trước*) ^ Adjunct 2 (*mỗi hoàng hôn*) ^ Predicator *Nhặt* ^ Complement (*cánh hoa rơi*);
- clause (2): Predicator (*chẳng thấy*) ^ Complement (*buồn*);
- clause (3): Predicator (*Nhuộm*) ^ Complement (*ánh nắng tà*) ^ Adjunct (*qua mái tóc*);
- clause (4): Subject (*Tôi*) ^ Predicator (*chờ*);
- clause (5): Subject (*người*) ^ Predicator (*đến*) ^ Adjunct (*với yêu đương*).

3.3.3. The Textual Metafunction

We are now moving on to examine the stanza from the point of view of the textual metafunction, analyzing the organization of information in the clauses in terms of Theme – Rheme, Given – New. The result is provided in Figure 4 below.

Figure 4

Textual Meaning of the Stanza

(1)

Một mùa thu trước	*mỗi hoàng hôn*	*Nhặt*	*cánh hoa rơi*
Theme		**Rheme**	
Given ⟶			**New**

(2)

chẳng thấy	*buồn*
Theme	**Rheme**

Given ⟶	**New**

(3)

Nhuộm	*ánh nắng tà*	*qua mái tóc*
Theme	**Rheme**	

Given ⟶		**New**

(4)

Tôi	*chờ*
Theme	**Rheme**

Given ⟶	**New**

(5)

người	*đến*	*với yêu đương*
Theme	**Rheme**	

Theme ⟶		**New**
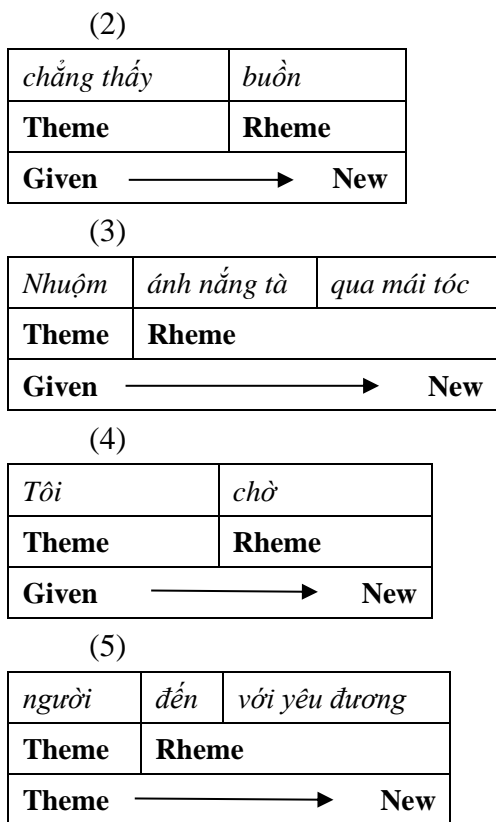
The analysis of the stanza in Figure 4 shows that the basic unit of language in use is not a word or a clause but a "text", and the textual elements in language are the choices through which the speaker or writer produces texts and uses language appropriate to the context. In this textual metafunction, the clause is said to be organized as a message. As a message, the clause, in normal or unmarked conditions, begins with the element assigned the function of **Theme** – the fulcrum or starting point of the message. The remainder of the message – the element which tells about the Theme, is referred to (to use the terminology of the Prague school of linguists) as **Rheme**. "A message consists of a Theme combined with a Rheme" (Halliday 1998, p. 28; see also Cao, 2004; V. V. Hoang, 2007).

The analysis in Figure 4 also shows that the Theme-Rheme structure is closely related to another aspect of the textual organization of language referred to in SFL as "information structure" which relates to the two functional components of **Given** (or Old) and **New** (information). Like the Theme-Rheme structure, the Given-New structure includes an optional Given (information whose presence in the clause is not required, and which can be recovered from the context) and an obligatory New (information whose presence in the clause is required, because if there is not something new, there would be no information at all). In the Theme-Rheme structure, the Theme is the prominent component which means "here is the heading to what I am saying" and the Rheme means the exposition of the Theme. In contrast, in the Given-New structure, the New is the prominent component which means "this is point of contact with what you know". Under normal conditions, Theme conflates with Given (Theme/Given) and Rheme with New (Rheme/New). (For more detail, see Halliday, 1970, p. 163; see also Halliday, 1998; Halliday & Matthiessen, 2014). These theoretical statements are true to our analysis for the Theme-Rheme and Given-New structures of the stanza in Figure 4 which can be elaborated in some more detail below.

Clause (1) starts with the two nominal groups *Một mùa thu trước* and *mỗi hoàng hôn*. These elements both function as Theme/Given, and the remaining segment *Nhặt cánh hoa rơi* functions as Rheme/New. In clause (2), the verbal group *chẳng thấy* functions as Theme/Given and the adjective *buồn* as Rheme/New. In clause (3), the verb *Nhuộm* functions as Theme/Given and the remaining segment *ánh nắng tà qua mái tóc* as Rheme/New. In clause (4) the first personal pronoun *Tôi* functions as Theme/Given and the verb *chờ* as Rheme/New. And in clause (5) the third personal pronoun *người* functions as Theme/Given and the remaining segment *đến với yêu đương* as Rheme/New.

A closer inspection of the stanza will reveal that there is a difference between the components assigned the function of Theme/Given in clause (1) and those assigned the same function in clauses (2) and (3) and in clauses (4) and (5). In clause (1), *Một mùa thu trước* and *mỗi hoàng hôn* are assigned the function of Circumstance: time 1 and Circumstance: time 2 experientially, Adjunct 1 and Adjunct 2 interpersonally, and Theme/Given textually. In clauses (2) and (3), in contrast, *chẳng thấy* and *Nhuộm* are assigned the function of Process: mental and Process: material experientially, Predicator interpersonally, but Theme/Given textually; and in clauses (4) and (5) *Tôi* and *người* are assigned the function of Actor experientially, Subject interpersonally, but Theme/Given textually. The different components assigned the function of Theme/Given in the clauses of the stanza can be summarized below.

- Clause (1):   Theme/Given = Adjunct = Circumstance
- Clauses (2) and (3):   Theme/Given = Process = Predicator
- Clauses (4) and (5):   Theme/Given = Actor = Subject

3.3.4. The Logical Metafunction

In Sections 2, 3, and 4, we presented the metafunctions of language and their lexicogrammatical patterns within the clause, in which the groups and phrases together constitute the experiential meaning, the interpersonal meaning, and the textual meaning. In this section, we will be concerned with another aspect of the ideational metafunction – the logical metafunction which relates to "the possibilities of combining messages into the clusters of clauses we call complexes" (Butt et al., 2003, p. 160).

Natural languages contain an inexhaustible resource that allows users to construe not only classes of things such as *house*, *door*, *rose*, *history*, *time*, *space*; qualities, shapes, sizes, and colours such as *beautiful*, *ugly*, *long*, *short*, *round*, *square*, *white*, *black*; and quantities (specific and non-specific) such as *one*, *two*, *three*, *some*, *many*, *all*, but also what is going on in the real world, including the inner world of the speaker's own consciousness such as action, event, behavior, relationship, existence, etc. expressed through components taking on the functions of the participant, process, circumstance in the experiential domain as described in Section 2. In daily communication, the speaker rarely focuses on construing things as single phenomena. Rather, he or she makes use of the infinite resource of language to create complex categories such as *all those five beautiful white chickens*, in which the Thing (*chickens*) is characterized by a combination of qualities (*beautiful* and *white*), quantities (*all* and *five*) and the location of the Thing relative to the speaker (*those*) (for more detail of the meaning and structure of the nominal group, see Halliday 1998, pp. 353-77; Halliday & Matthiessen, 2014, pp. 364-96 in relation to English, and T. C. Nguyen, 1999; V. V. Hoang, 2006 in relation to Vietnamese); or *If you came early, remember to wait for me,* where two single events *If you came early* and *remember to wait for me* are combined to create a complex forming an inter-clausal logico-semantic relationship of the pattern "*If* A *then* B". Thus, clause complex is a resource for creating systems of general logico-semantic relationships such as "parataxis", "hypotaxis", "expansion", and "projection". "parataxis" refers to the relationship of equal status between clauses in the clause complex as in ||| (1) *John didn't wait*; || (2) *he ran away* |||; "hypotaxis": the relationship of unequal status between clauses in the clause complex where there is one main (primary)

clause and one or more than one dependent (or secondary) clauses as in ||| α *John ran away* || β *because he was scared* |||; "expansion" which includes relationships such as "elaboration": one clause elaborates the meaning of the other by describing it or further specifying it as in ||| (1) *She didn't answer*; || = (2) *she said nothing*; "extension": one clause extends the meaning of the other by adding something new to it as in ||| (1) *I stayed at home*; || + (2) *and my wife went to work* |||; "enhancement": one clause qualifies the meaning of the other by reference to time, place, manner, etc. as in ||| (1) *She had been reading for two hours* || x(2) *when he came* |||; and "projection" which includes two modes: "quoting" ("direct speech" in traditional grammar): one clause (the projecting clause) projects the other clause(s) (the projected clause(s)) where the projected clause(s) represent(s) that which is/are said, and the projecting clause and projected clause(s) are of equal status as in ||| (1) *She said to him*: || "(2) "*Go away.*" |||; and "reporting" ("indirect speech" in traditional grammar): one clause projects the other clause(s) where the projected clause(s) report(s) what is/are said, and the projecting clause and the projected clause(s) are of unequal status as in ||| (1)α *She thought that* || (2)β *he would go away* ||| (for more

detail, see Halliday, 1985, 1998; Halliday & Matthiessen, 2014).

Turning now to the logical meaning of the stanza, it can be seen that in Section 2, we have only interpreted the stanza as the representation of experiential meaning in single clauses, one by one. However, from the point of view of the logical metafunction, we will see that the wording of the stanza forms a clause complex with two layers of logico-semantic relationship. The first layer consists of three clauses: ||| (1) *Một mùa thu trước mỗi hoàng hôn, Nhặt cánh hoa rơi* || (2) *chẳng thấy buồn,* || (3) *Nhuộm ánh nắng tà qua mái tóc*||; these are in hypotactic relationship of enhancement with the clause complex consisting of two clauses: ||| (4) *Tôi chờ* || (5) *người đến với yêu đương* |||, represented by the sequence xβ ^ α. The second layer consists of two types of logico-semantic relationship; the first type is the paratactic relationship of extension between clauses (1), (2) and (3), represented by the sequence (1)β + (2)β + (3)β; and the second type is the hypotactic relationship of extension where (5) extends the meaning of (4), represented by the sequence (4)α + (5)β. These layers of logico-semantic relationship of the clause complex in the stanza can be shown in Figure 5 below.

Figure 5

Logico-Semantic Relationships of the Clause Complex in the Stanza

xβ	||| (1)β Một mùa thu trước mỗi hoàng hôn Nhặt cánh hoa rơi || + (2)β chẳng thấy buồn || + (3)β Nhuộm ánh nắng tà qua mái tóc ||
α	(4)α Tôi chờ || + (5)β người đến với yêu đương. |||

If we do the bracketing analysis, the logico-semantic relationships of the clauses of the stanza can be presented as follows:

xβ((1)β + (2)β + (3)β) ^ α((4)α + (5)β)

In the above analysis, we have been concerned only with the logico-semantic

relationships of the expansion mode. There is another mode of logico-semantic relationship which contributes to the formation of the logical metafunction of language: that of projection mode. Let us consider the second part of the third stanza of the poem below.

(6)   (7)

||| *Bảo*	*rằng:*	|| *"Hoa,*	*dáng*	*như*	*tim*	*vỡ* ||
say	that	flower	appearance	like	heart	break

(He) said that "the fallen flower looks like a broken heart".

(8)   (9)

||| *Anh*	*sợ*	|| *tình*	*ta*	*cũng*	*vỡ*	*thôi"* |||
brother (senior)	fear	love	we	also	break	stop

I'm afraid that our love will be broken too.

The above lines of the third stanza constitute a clause complex of projection mode in which clause (6) *Bảo rằng* is the reporting clause, and clauses (7) *Hoa, dáng như tim vỡ*, (8) *Anh sợ*, and (9) *tình ta cũng vỡ thôi* are the reported ones. Like the first stanza, this clause complex of projection consists of two layers of logico-semantic relationship. The first layer is the projection relationship of "quoting" in which clause (6) is the projecting clause, and clauses (7), (8), and (9) are the projected ones, represented by the pattern (6)α ^ "(7)β1 + (8, 9)β2. The second layer is the projection relationship of "reporting" in which clause (8) is the reporting clause, and clause (9) is the reported one, represented by the pattern (8) ^ '(9). The projection relationships in the clause complex can be represented by the following pattern:

$$\alpha(6) \ ^\wedge \ "(7)\beta1 + ((8) \ \beta2\alpha \ ^\wedge \ '(9) \ \beta2\beta).$$

4. Conclusion

In this paper, we have made an attempt to explore how metafunctions of language are theorized in SFL, and how the theory of metafunctions of language are applied to the analysis of text in social context. To lay the ground for our work, we have examined a number of formal as well as non-SF models of language functions. It is clear from our examination that although these models look very different and they use different terminologies; they have one important thing in common: they all recognize that language is multifunctional. However, how many and what functions language has depend largely on how scholar of each model approached language: Malinowski approached language from the point of view of ethnography, and he recognized four language functions: *speech of action*, *narrative*, *phatic communion*, and *the ritual use of words*; Bühler approached language from the point of view of psychology, and he recognized three language functions: *expressive function*, *conative function*, and *representational function*; Jakobson approached language from the point of view of communication process, and he recognised six language functions: *referential function*, *emotive function*, *conative function*, *phatic function*, *poetic function*, and *metalingual function*; Britton approached language from the point of view of education, and he recognized three language functions: *expressive function*, *transactional function*, and *poetic function*; and Morris approached the problem from the point of view of the evolution of communication, and he recognized four language functions: *information talking*, *mood talking*, *exploratory talking*, and *grooming talking*. In discussing the advantages of these models, we have as well pointed out their drawbacks, the most inherent and visible one among them is that except for the traditional grammar models, all these models have constructed some kind of functional framework in non-linguistic

terms, conceptualizing the functions of language from the outside and using this as a grid for interpreting the different ways in which people use language. That explains why in their interpretations, function of language is equated with use of language.

Having explored functions of language as conceptualized in formal and non-SF models, we turned to look in some detail at the model of functions of language as theorised in SFL by the eminent linguist M.A.K. Halliday. Our examination of the model has shown that although SFL shares with the other models in that it recognises that language is multifunctional; it differs from the other models in a number of ways. First, SFL is a theory of language that relates the functions of language the child employs to satisfy his or her needs to the generalized functions of language of the grown-up. Secondly, in SFL function is interpreted not just as the use of language, but as a fundamental property of language (Halliday & Hasan, 1989, p. 17) hence the concept "metafunctions" of language. And thirdly, as evident in our analysis of the poem "Hai sắc hoa ti-gôn", the applicability potential of SFL is vast. When scholars of the other models claim that their models of language functions should ultimately be related to a semiotic or pragmatic theory, and this remains largely programmatic, Halliday's multifunctional model goes some way towards consistently relating linguistics to sociology. Conceptualizing language as a social semiotic system, Halliday is able to incorporate the social dimension into his linguistic theory and he holds that without it the nature of language and language development cannot satisfactorily be explained. Further, he has developed a number of concepts bridging the social system and the linguistic system such as "register", "system or semantic network", and, in particular, "metafunction" (see Davidse, 1987). As has been shown in our study, Halliday's concept of metafunctions

of language is much deeper and more abstract than "functions of language equated with specific uses of language" in most formal and non-SF models. It is the concept that faces upwards to the social context (context of situation and context of culture), and downwards to the linguistic system (semantics, lexicogrammar, and phonology). Thus, whereas in the work of the formal and non-SF scholars, the references of language to context of situation and context of culture remain largely *ad hoc*, Halliday has offered a comprehensive linguistic theory that relates language to social situation and culture systematically, enabling users to apply the SFL theory to their relevant fields of study to serve their specific purposes. Our analysis for the meanings of the two stanzas of the poem "Hai sắc hoa ti-gôn", using Halliday's metafunctions of language as the theoretical framework has in part suggested the applicability potential of SFL in text analysis, enriching the already vast applicability potential of the SFL theory in other fields of human knowledge such as language description, language teaching and learning, language comparison, and translation studies.

References

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

Britton, J. (1993). *Language and learning* (2nd ed.). Boynton/Cook Publishers Inc.

Butt, D., Fahey, R., Feeze, S., Sprink, S., & Yallop, C. (2003). *Using functional grammar: An explorer's guide* (2nd ed.). Robert Burton Printers.

Bühler, K. (1934). *Sprachtheorie: die Darstellungsfunktion de Sprache* (The theory of language: The representational function of language). Jena.

Cao, X. H. (2004). *Tiếng Việt: Sơ thảo ngữ pháp chức năng* (Vietnamese: An outline of functional grammar). Nhà xuất bản Giáo dục.

Crystal, D. (2008). *A dictionary of linguistics and phonetics* (3rd ed.). Blackwell.

Davidse, K. (1987). M. A. K. Halliday's functional grammar and the Prague school. In R. Dirven & V. Fried (Eds.), *Linguistic and literary studies in Eastern Europe: Functionalism in linguistics* (Vol. 20, pp. 39-79). John Benjamins.

De Saussure, F. (1983). *Course in general linguistics* (R. Harris, Trans.). Stanford University Press.

Diệp, Q. B. (1987). *Câu đơn tiếng Việt* (The simple sentence in Vietnamese). Nhà xuất bản Giáo dục.

Firth, J. R. (1957). *Papers in linguistics 1934-1951*. Oxford University Press.

Firth, J. R. (1968). *Selected papers of J. R. Firth 1952-59*. Longman.

Fries, P. H. (1981). On the status of theme in English: Arguments from discourse. *Forum Linguisticum, 6*(1), 1-38.

Halliday, M. A. K. (1970). Language structure and language function. In J. Lyons (Ed.), *New horizons in linguistics* (pp. 140-64). Penguin.

Halliday, M. A. K. (1973). *Explorations in the functions of language (Explorations in language study)*. Edward Arnold.

Halliday, M. A. K. (1975). *Learning how to mean: Explorations in the development of language*. Edward Arnold.

Halliday, M. A. K. (1978). *Language as social semiotic: The social interpretation of language and meaning*. Edward Arnold.

Halliday, M. A. K. (1985). *An introduction to functional grammar* (1st ed.). Edward Arnold.

Halliday, M. A. K. (1994). Systemic theory. In R. E. Asher (Ed.), *The encyclopedia of language and linguistics* (pp. 4505-8). Pergamon Press.

Halliday, M. A. K. (1998). *An introduction to functional grammar* (2nd ed.). Edward Arnold.

Halliday, M. A. K., & Hasan, R. (1976). *Cohesion in English*. Longman.

Halliday, M. A. K., & Hasan, R. (1989). *Language, context, and text: Aspects of language in a social-semiotic perspective*. Oxford University Press.

Halliday, M. A. K., & Matthiessen, C. M. I. M. (2014). *Halliday's introduction to functional grammar* (4th ed.). Routledge.

Halliday, M. A. K., McInntosh, A., & Strevens, P. (1964). *The linguistic sciences and language teaching*. Longmans.

Hasan, R. (2011). *Selected works of Ruqaiya Hasan on applied linguistics*. Foreign Language Teaching and Research Press.

Hasan, R., & Perrett, G. (1994). Learning to function with the other tongue: A systemic functional perspective on second language teaching. In T. Odlin (Ed.), *Perspectives on pedagogical grammar* (pp. 179-226). Cambridge University Press.

Hoang, V. V. (2006). Nominalisation in scientific discourse and the problems related to the translation of nominal group from English into Vietnamese. *VNU Journal of Science, 5E*, 11-23.

Hoang, V. V. (2012). *An experiential of the Vietnamese clause*. Nhà xuất bản Giáo dục.

Hoang, V. V. (2018a). "Bánh trôi nước" and three English versions of translation: A systemic functional comparison. *VNU Journal of Foreign Studies, 34*(4), 1-35. https://doi.org/10.25073/2525-2445/vnufs.4279

Hoang, V. V. (2018b). The language of school science textbooks: A transitivity analysis of seven lessons (texts) in Biology 8. *Linguistics and the Human Sciences, 14*(1), 1-35. https://doi.org/10.1558/lhs.31751

Hoàng, V. V. (2007). Về khái niệm đề ngữ trong ngôn ngữ học chức năng (On the concept of theme in functional linguistics). *Tạp chí Ngôn ngữ, 2*(213), 1-10.

Hoàng, P. et al. (2002). *Từ điển tiếng Việt* (A dictionary of Vietnamese) (In lần thứ 8). Nhà xuất bản Đà Nẵng.

Hoàng, T. P. (1980). *Ngữ pháp tiếng Việt: Câu* (A grammar of Vietnamese: The sentence). Nhà xuất bản Đại học và trung học chuyên nghiệp.

Jakobson, R. (1960). Closing statement: Linguistics and poetics. In T. A. Sebeok (Ed.), *Style in language* (pp. 1-27). MIT Press & Wiley. https://silo.tips/download/12392

Kaushanskaya, V. L. et al. (2008). *A grammar of the English language*. Airis Press.

Malinowski, B. (1923). Supplement I: The problem of meaning in primitive languages. In C. K. Ogden & I. A. Richards (Eds.), *The meaning of meaning: A study of the influence of language upon thought and of the science of symbolism* (pp. 298-336). Routledge & Kegan Paul.

Martin, J. R. (1992). *English text: System and structure*. John Benjamins.

Matthiessen, C. M. I. M. (1992). Interpreting the textual metafunction. In M. Davis & L. Ravelli (Eds.), *Advances in systemic functional linguistics: Recent theory and practice* (pp. 37-81). Pinter Publishers.

Matthiessen, C. M. I. M. (1995). *Lexicogrammatical cartography: English systems*. International Language Sciences Publishers.

Matthiessen, C. M. I. M., Teruya, K., & Lam, M. (2010). *Key terms in systemic functional linguistics*. Continuum.

Morris, D. (1999). *The Naked Ape*. Delta.

Neubert, A. (2000). Theory and practice of translation studies revisited: 25 years of translator training in Europe. In A. Beeby, D. Ensinger & M. Presas (Eds.), *Investigating translation: Selected papers from the 4th International Congress on Translation, Barcelona, 1998* (pp. 13-26). John Benjamins.

Nguyễn, K. T. (1964). *Nghiên cứu về ngữ pháp tiếng Việt* (Studies in Vietnamese grammar) (Tập 2). Nhà xuất bản Khoa học xã hội.

Nguyễn, T. C. (1999). *Ngữ pháp tiếng Việt: Tiếng – từ ghép – đoản ngữ* (A Vietnamese grammar: Words – compounds – phrases). Nhà xuất bản Đại học Quốc gia Hà Nội.

Ogden, C. K., & Richards, I. A. (1923). *The meaning of meaning: A study of the influence of language upon thought and the science of symbolism*. Routledge & Kegan Paul.

Searle, J. (1969). *Speech acts*. Cambridge University Press.

Thompson, G. (2014). *Introducing functional grammar* (3rd ed.). Routledge.

Wilson, H. (2007). *American English grammar*. Homibooks Publication Company.

"CÁC SIÊU CHỨC NĂNG NGÔN NGỮ" TRONG NGÔN NGỮ HỌC CHỨC NĂNG HỆ THỐNG: KHUNG LÍ THUYẾT DÙNG ĐỂ GIẢI THÍCH Ý NGHĨA CỦA NGÔN BẢN TRONG NGÔN CẢNH XÃ HỘI

Hoàng Văn Vân

*Trung tâm Nghiên cứu giáo dục ngoại ngữ, ngôn ngữ và quốc tế học,
Trường Đại học Ngoại ngữ, ĐHQGHN, Phạm Văn Đồng, Cầu Giấy, Hà Nội, Việt Nam*

Tóm tắt: Bài báo này liên quan đến cách "các siêu chức năng ngôn ngữ" được học giả M.A.K. Halliday phát triển như thế nào trong lí thuyết Ngôn ngữ học Chức năng Hệ thống, và khung lí thuyết siêu chức năng được sử dụng như thế nào để phân tích và giải thích ý nghĩa của ngôn bản trong ngôn cảnh xã hội. Bài báo gồm năm phần. Phần một giới thiệu chủ đề của bài báo. Phần hai kiểm tra vắn tắt khái niệm "các chức năng ngôn ngữ" trong các mô hình ngôn ngữ học hình thức và phi chức năng hệ thống. Phần ba nghiên cứu chi tiết khái niệm "các siêu chức năng ngôn ngữ" trong mô hình Ngôn ngữ học Chức năng Hệ thống. Nghiên cứu chỉ ra rằng không giống với các mô hình ngôn ngữ học hình thức và phi chức năng hệ thống, Ngôn ngữ học Chức năng Hệ thống khái luận hoá khái niệm "các siêu chức năng ngôn ngữ" không chỉ như là "các cách sử dụng ngôn ngữ" mà còn như là một đặc tính căn bản của chính ngôn ngữ. Để minh hoạ cho khả năng ứng dụng của khung lí thuyết siêu chức năng vào việc phân tích và giải thích ý nghĩa của ngôn bản trong ngôn cảnh xã hội, Phần bốn tiến hành phân tích hai khổ thơ trong bài thơ tiếng Việt nổi tiếng 'Hai sắc hoa ti-gôn'. Phần năm tóm tắt lại những nội dung đã được nghiên cứu trong bài báo, chỉ ra những lợi thế của khung lí thuyết đa siêu chức năng của Halliday. Nghiên cứu này nhằm góp phần vào sự hiểu biết của chúng ta về ngôn ngữ như là một hệ thống các siêu chức năng, mở ra tiềm năng to lớn cho việc áp dụng mô hình Ngôn ngữ học Chức năng Hệ thống vào giảng dạy, học tập, và nghiên cứu ngôn ngữ.

Từ khoá: các mô hình hình thức và phi chức năng hệ thống, các siêu chức năng ngôn ngữ, Ngôn ngữ học Chức năng Hệ thống, ý nghĩa của ngôn bản trong ngôn cảnh xã hội

Appendix 1

Source of Data for Illustration

T. T. Kh. (1937, October 30). Hai sắc hoa ti-gôn. *Tiểu thuyết thứ bảy*, (179). Retrieved June 27, 2020, from https://www.thivien.net/T-T-Kh/Hai-s%E1%BA%AFc-hoa-tig%C3%B4n/poem-WHkchEOXvnLcnoBDnAnHww.

Appendix 2

Clause Complexes and Clause Simplexes and Their Logico-Semantic Relationships

Stanza 1

xβ ^	‖‖ (1)β Một mùa thu trước mỗi hoàng hôn Nhặt cánh hoa rơi ‖ + (2)β chẳng thấy buồn ‖ + (3)β Nhuộm ánh nắng tà qua mái tóc ‖
α	(4)α Tôi chờ ‖ + (5)β người đến với yêu đương. ‖‖

Stanza 3

	‖‖ α(6) Bảo rằng: ‖ ^ "(7)β1 "Hoa, dáng như tim vỡ, ‖ ‖‖ "β2α(8) Anh sợ ‖ ^ 'β2β (9)tình ta cũng vỡ thôi!" ‖‖

Appendix 3

The Notational Conventions

- The symbol ‖‖ indicates the boundary of the clause complex.
- The symbol ‖ indicates the boundary of the clause simplex.
- The bold-typed Roman numerals (**I**), (**II**), **(III)**, etc. indicate clause complexes.
- The Arabic numerals (1), (2), (3), etc. indicate clause simplexes.
- The Greek letters α and β indicate hypotactic relationship between clauses where α indicates the main (or primary) clause and β indicates the dependent (or secondary) clause.
- The symbol = indicates the expansion: elaboration relationship between clauses in the clause complex.
- The symbol + indicates the expansion: extension relationship between clauses in the clause complex.
- The symbol x indicates the expansion: enhancement relationship between clauses in the clause complex.
- The symbol " indicates quoted clause in the quoting clause complex.
- The symbol ' indicates reported clause in the reporting clause complex.

PORTFOLIO ASSESSMENT AS A TOOL FOR PROMOTING REFLECTION IN TEACHER EDUCATION: A LITERATURE REVIEW

Nguyen My Binh*

Department of Foundation English, School of Foreign Languages, Hanoi University of Science and Technology, No. 1 Dai Co Viet Street, Hai Ba Trung District, Hanoi, Vietnam

Abstract: This paper aims to explore the inextricable link between teaching and learning via the use of portfolios as a form of assessment for pre-service and in-service teachers' professional practice. Specifically, it reviews the body of literature that conceptualizes and defines reflection and reflective practice in the context of teacher education and examines the portfolio's role as a conduit for teachers' reflection and professional transformation. The reviewed literature suggests that the use of the portfolio provides formative assessment while, to some extent, promoting professional development and improved practice via enhanced reflection, although the quality of such reflection may not reach a critical level. With careful attention to the introduction of the portfolio and guided support throughout the portfolio process, the use of portfolio assessment can be valuable in the context of teacher education in the higher education system.

Keywords: reflection, reflective practice, portfolio, assessment, teachers' professional education

1. Introduction

Over the past three decades, reflection and reflective practice have been regarded as an approach to practice towards which teachers and teacher educators must strive (Gore & Zeichner, 1991; LaBoskey, 1993; Rodgers, 2002). The origin of the notion of reflection dates back to the early twentieth century, when psychologist and educationalist John Dewey (1933) highlighted the need for practitioners to not only question their experience but also to apply their reflective thinking to practice. Many eminent authors of the twentieth century have since looked at reflection as a multi-faceted mental phenomenon that manifests itself in various difficult situations of human practice, mostly in activities and communication, allowing practitioners to gain conscious understanding of themselves as individuals and also of people around them. Dimova and Loughran (2009), upon reviewing a large volume of work by major authors, arrived at the conclusion that by developing deeper understandings of reflection in workplace settings, practitioners' learning about their professional knowledge of practice would be enhanced, and claimed that "… the complex nature of reflection can be embraced and offer a new and different framework for enhancing practice. In practice settings, teaching and learning are inextricably linked

---

* Corresponding author.
Email address: binh.nguyenmy@hust.edu.vn

and, as such, reflection is clearly a central pedagogic imperative" (p. 216).

On the other hand, the use of portfolios in teacher education has been widely embraced by many countries in the world as an effective tool for the assessment of teachers' professional practice. A considerable amount of literature has addressed the benefits of portfolio assessment in promoting quality learning (e.g., Ashford & Deering, 2003; Jones, 2009; Smith & Tillema, 1998; Strijbos et al., 2007; Wade & Yarbrough, 1996; Woodward, 1998, 2000). The process of compiling the portfolio, which involves collecting and reflecting on evidence, is believed to not only encourage trainee teachers to take responsibility for their own learning, but also allow them to connect their personal theories with practice (Davies & LeMahieu, 2003; Shulman, 1998). A large body of research also claims the benefits of a portfolio in promoting reflective practice (Antonek et al., 1997; Biggs, 1998; Borko et al., 1997; Jones, 2010; Mokhtari et al., 1996; Setteducati, 1995; Winsor et al., 1999). The portfolio is thus regarded as an important tool for formative assessment in teacher education (Zeichner & Wray, 2001).

In that light, the introduction of the portfolio as a tool for the assessment of teachers' professional practice in Vietnam could be of great value in the reform of our national education system. Teacher education programs in higher education must produce qualified professionals who can respond appropriately to new and changing settings by integrating knowledge, skills, and personal traits (Stephenson, 1998). For this to be accomplished, the reflective practitioner approach which combines experiential learning, metacognitive learning, and constructivist learning theories can be a good paradigm of choice. This approach emphasizes the need of including real-life experiences in the curriculum, allowing student teachers to

figure out principles, theory, and knowledge from the analysis of their own actions and the influence of those actions on others (Hall, 2004). However, the teacher education curriculum in general and the assessment for teachers in training in particular in many countries, including Vietnam, has been mainly summative, in that both pre-service and in-service teachers are assessed based on traditional theoretical tests, the development of one (or more) lesson plan, and one (or more) teaching session in a simulated classroom while being observed by a panel of assessors. In the writer's opinion, this form of assessment is heavily theoretical and does not facilitate a holistic judgment of the student teachers' competence. Furthermore, it does not promote learning and professional development. While it is impossible, and by no means necessary, to reform the entire system, the portfolio can be incorporated into a practical component of the teacher education programmes.

In that context, this paper aims to explore the inextricable link between teachers' teaching and learning in their professional education via the use of portfolios as a tool for assessment of professional practice. Specifically, it investigates the body of literature that addresses reflection and reflective practice in the context of teacher education, both for pre-service teachers who are being prepared for their future profession in teaching and in-service teachers who are undertaking higher education programmes (for example, masters programmes and other professional development programmes). This paper is particularly relevant to the practical components of those teacher education programmes. It also examines the portfolio's role as a vehicle for pre-service and in-service teachers to reflect, learn and professionally transform. In the scope of this study, student teachers and in-service teachers take on the role as the portfolio compilers.

2. Reflection and Reflective Practice

2.1. The Conceptualization of Reflection and Reflective Practice

The terms "reflection" and "reflective practice" have been used interchangeably in most of the reviewed literature in the field of teacher education and professional development, although according to Fook (2015), reflection has a greater scope as a method of approaching a deeper understanding of one's own life and conduct, while reflective practice is primarily concerned with professional practice. In this paper, these two terms are used indiscriminately.

John Dewey (1933) first introduced the concept of reflection as a distinctive form of thinking that involves "(1) a state of doubt, hesitation, perplexity, mental difficulty, in which thinking originates, and (2) an act of searching, hunting, inquiring, to find material that will resolve the doubt, settle and dispose of the perplexity" (p. 12). According to Dewey, a reflective practitioner is characterized as someone who is open to new ideas and findings, and willing to listen to opinions different from their own; engage whole-heartedly in the process of thinking and reflection; and is responsible for the consequences of their actions.

Van Manen (1977) contributes to the conception of reflection by identifying three distinctive levels of reflections, the first of which focuses on the technical side of teaching, (i.e., treating teaching episodes as isolated events). The second level appears to be more advanced, since it puts into consideration the theory and rationale for the current practice. The highest level incorporates the ethical, social and political aspects of one's practice into their reflection. In van Manen's argument, this level is the most important because it leads the practitioners towards more informed understandings of their practice (1977, 1991).

Another writer whose work has greatly influenced the conceptual development of reflective practice is Donald Schön (1983, 1987), who suggests that it involves thoughtful considerations of one's own experiences in applying knowledge to practice. Schön thus sees reflective practice as a critical process that allows novice practitioners to draw from others' experience in order to refine their own skills and professionalism. Schön also emphasizes the "complexity, uncertainty, instability, uniqueness, and value-conflict" (1983, p. 39) in regard to professional practice. His viewpoint thereby challenges the traditional positivist view of professionalism as a decision-making process that is solely based on the expertise obtained from previous training. In Schön's argument, a reflective practitioner must combine textbook expertise and field knowledge to define the important issues and the contexts in which these issues should be positioned. Accordingly, a reflective practitioner must be able to deal flexibly with a changing environment by asking himself/herself questions about the basis of his judgment, as well as the influences and considerations that impact his choices. This point of view is further supported by Lyons (1998) who asserts that reflective thinking requires linking together experiences to make conscious the teacher's knowledge and understanding of practice. Accordingly, a reflective practitioner must learn not only the subject knowledge, but also the way to engage in dynamic professional relationships and to establish meaningful connections between theory and practice in order to provide a rationale for their actions.

Schön (1983, 1987) also took the initiative in introducing the concepts of reflection-in-action and reflection-on-action. Reflection-in-action, as defined by Schön, is the reflection that occurs somewhat consciously while a professional

is addressing a problem in the so-called "action-present." It challenges the professional's assumptions that are based on previous experience, and causes him to "restructure strategies of action, understandings of phenomena, or ways of framing problems" (1987, p. 28). Reflection-on-action, on the other hand, occurs consciously after the action and may involve documentation.

Atkins and Murphy (1993) pointed out a common point in different theorists' definitions of the term "reflection" - a process in which an awareness of uncomfortable feelings and thoughts is followed by a critical analysis of feelings and knowledge, leading to the development of a new perspective. Reflection, therefore, involves the self and must lead to a change in perspectives. With the focus on reflection in practice settings, it can be defined as a process in which the practitioner critically examines his or her past and present practice in order to gain knowledge and understanding, thus improving practice (Buysse et al., 2003). According to Mezirow (1990), it involves critically questioning the content, process, and premise underlying the experience in an attempt to make sense of or better understand the experience. As assumptions are what we instinctively believe in, recognizing and questioning them can understandably be a challenging task.

This point of view is supported by Brookfield (1995), who claims that the most distinctive feature of the reflective process is the focus on "hunting assumptions", or examining what has generally been thought to be true (common sense assumptions) in order to obtain a more reliable guide to action. A reflective teacher, therefore, ought to be someone who is constantly on the hunt for assumptions.

Brookfield (1995) identifies three categories of assumptions:

- Paradigmatic: assumptions of the teachers' paradigmatic approach to the profession. Examples include assumptions such as: adults are self-directed learners; critical thinking is an intellectual function characteristic of adult life; good adult educational processes are inherently democratic; and education always has a political dimension.

- Prescriptive: Assumptions of what is believed to be the best practice. Examples include what should be done in certain situations, or what constitutes a good educational process.

- Causal: Assumptions of the causal relationship between practice and outcomes. Brookfield claims that this type of assumption is the easiest to uncover and closest to reflective practice.

Brookfield (1995) argues that while these assumptions are valid in certain situations, it is also worthwhile to examine them from different angles. Only by doing so can teachers reach a critical level of reflection, which serves two distinctive purposes: firstly, "to understand how considerations of power undergird, frame and distort educational processes and interactions", and secondly, "to question assumptions and practices that seem to make our teaching lives easier but actually work against our own best long-term interests" (Brookfield, 1995, p. 8). In a similar vein, Dervent (2015) also claims that reflective practice is a developmental process that occurs at varying levels of sophistication and complexity - from a technical level of reflection to a more contextual and deliberative one. As a teacher reaches a more critical level of reflection, he or she may be more driven to apply more appropriate classroom practice. Therefore, reflection must be done over time in order for the practitioner to build the mental growth required to attain the most complicated and

sophisticated levels of practice.

Brookfield (1995) particularly draws attention to the role of critical dialogues and theoretical literature in promoting teachers' critical reflection. He asserts that the engagement in critical dialogues with colleagues, if carefully structured and guided, could be of great value to critical reflection. He also believes that by delving into theoretical literature on critical pedagogy, reflective practice, and adult learning and education, teachers can enhance their understanding and define their own assumptions. It also gives them the opportunity to learn from the practices and lessons of others. This is further supported by Benade (2015) who suggests that individual reflection has little value outside of certain professional requirements; it is becoming more collaborative.

2.2. Benefits of Reflection in Teacher Education

It is claimed that the overall benefit of reflective practice is that it will enrich, systematize and construct professional knowledge (Carr & Kemmis, 1988; Cochran-Smith & Zeichner, 2005; Elliot, 1991; Kemmis & McTaggart, 1988). In the context of teacher education, reflection is believed to help teachers gain a deeper understanding of their own practice on an on-going basis, including an understanding about the assumptions and knowledge upon which their practice is based, as well as their aims, values and beliefs (Buysse et al., 2003; Loughran, 1995; Mclntyre, 1993; Zeichner, 1996).

Many studies have also credited reflection for confronting and subsequently changing practice (e.g., Francis, 1997; Taylor, 1997). Because the reflection process involves self-assessment and justification of practice, the practitioner gradually develops new theories that change and improve their practice (Korthagen, 2001; Lester, 1995). Other benefits include the validation of a teacher's ideals, the recognition of teaching as artistry, and respect for diversity in applying theory to classroom practice (Ferraro, 2000).

Jones (2007) further asserts that reflection played the role of an important "ingredient" in the development of capability, which can be linked to long-term professional development. However, Jones points out that while reflection does enhance practice, that impact relies on the practitioner's ability to build an adequate knowledge base for them to reflect on, as well as the skills to take effective action. She also puts emphasis on the reflection process as a means of informing and improving practice rather than a deliberative problem framing and solving process.

More recently, a research by Slade et al. (2019) claims that reflective practice has a tremendous impact on teacher education programs in a variety of ways. It firstly improves student teachers' learning, as evidenced by the acquisition of educational knowledge, abilities, and dispositions. As a result, because the two objectives are so closely linked, the beneficial effects on their learning become a stimulant for demonstrating program effectiveness.

3. The Role of Portfolio Assessment in Promoting Reflection

3.1. Definitions of Portfolio

To enhance reflection and reflective practice, the educational literature has focused on the medium of writing (diaries, journals and portfolios) as potential approaches. In that context, portfolios, in particular, have been embraced as an effective tool for the assessment of teachers' professional practice. There are many diverse interpretations of the portfolio that makes it difficult to arrive at one universal definition of the term (Smith & Tillema, 2003; Wade & Yarbrough, 1996; Zeichner & Wray, 2001). However, Wade and

Yarbrough (1996) provide a list of some generally accepted notions about portfolios in the context of teacher education as follows:

- Portfolios demonstrate student teachers' growth and learning over a certain period of time and they should include more than one or two items.
- Portfolios are a tool for student teachers to document and reflect on their learning while at the same time serve as a means of assessment that allows their teachers to evaluate their growth and achievement.
- Portfolios allow student teachers to make their own choices regarding the items to be included and the organization of their portfolios. They also have the opportunity to voice their opinion regarding what parts of the portfolio are to be evaluated and what criteria are to be used.
- Portfolios allow authenticity in student teachers' work which cannot be revealed through tests.
- Portfolios provide evidence of self-reflection as student teachers examine their own work and reflect on it to set further goals. The documentation allows them to follow the changes that they make along the way, thus facilitating learning and reflection.

(Wade & Yarbrough, 1996, p. 65)

3.2. Portfolios as a Tool for Assessment of Professional Practice in Teacher Education

The use of portfolios as an assessment tool has been widely advocated because of the learning that it promotes (Loughran & Corrigan, 1995; Paulson et al., 1991; Woodward, 1998). The process of compiling the portfolio generates different learning outcomes from other traditional forms of assessment and contributes to the increased responsibility among students for their own learning (Davies & LeMahieu, 2003; Winsor et al., 1999). This increased responsibility is triggered by the construction of a portfolio that allows them to articulate and demonstrate what they are learning about themselves as teachers. It also encourages student teachers to self-assess the learning that they have gained, the goals that they have set, and the extent to which they have achieved those goals. As pointed out by Jarvinen and Kohonen (1995), this self-assessment process helps novice teachers develop their professional identities and skills.

According to Smith and Tillema (2001), the most important advantage of the portfolios is "the way they capture achievements under realistic circumstances and record them using authentic evidence and tangible products" (p. 184). They also highlight the portfolio's ability to document strengths and weaknesses in performance, to develop awareness of competence, and to resolve discrepancies between standards and achieved performance. Other benefits of the portfolio as an assessment tool include the way it encourages teachers to integrate theory and practice (Antonek et al., 1997; Barton & Collins, 1993; Ladbrook & Middleton, 1997; Winsor et al., 1999), allows students to articulate and express their beliefs, and promotes transformative learning (Freidus, 1998). Finally, the preparation of a portfolio has been widely acknowledged for promoting reflection (e.g., Antonek et al., 1997; Biggs, 1998; Borko et al., 1997; Mokhtari et al., 1996; Setteducati, 1995; Winsor et al., 1999).

Because of its role as a form of assessment, it is also important to consider the validity and reliability of the portfolio in order to deem it trustworthy. Meeus et al. (2009), in a study that addresses the issue of validity and reliability of portfolio assessment for pre-service teachers, argue

that the validity of portfolio assessment for teaching and partnership competencies is low while the validity for learning competencies can be high. Therefore, portfolios are more suitable for the assessment of students' capacity to execute a self-regulated learning process, whereas when it comes to assessing teaching competencies, they should be used as a complement to other tools.

A number of threats to the portfolio's validity has been identified, one of which is the limited understanding of its purpose and values among both students and teachers, given the fact that it is a rather unconventional form of assessment (e.g., Freidus, l998; Krause, 1996; Ladbrook & Middleton, 1997; Loughran & Corrigan, 1995; Lyons, 1998; Wade & Yarbrough, 1996). In many cases, students' lack of understanding about the requirements and process negatively impacts their motivation to perform the task. This issue has been recognized in a number of studies that suggest teachers who are developing portfolios often need a lot of scaffolding during the process (Klecka et al., 2007). In addition, specific strategies for reflection should be taught to both pre-service and in-service teachers (Ellsworth, 2002). As discussed earlier, teachers initially may not have an adequate understanding of reflection as a skill and how they are expected to reflect during the process. This is likely to add more pressure on them from the outset of the portfolio experience. It is therefore recommended that proper mentoring on these issues is provided to students to improve the portfolio's validity in this aspect (Freidus, 1998).

Another threat to validity is the fact that constructing a portfolio is a very time consuming process, which to some extent affects the assessment of students' work (Winsor et al., 1999). Furthermore, there are aspects of practice that can be quite difficult to demonstrate in the form of a portfolio entry (Wade & Yarbrough, 1996). The fact that the portfolio is done as an assessment task also manifests itself as a threat because it involves the use of models and therefore may make the process too instructional (Baume et al., 2004; Daro, 1996). Finally, concerns about grades may hinder the sharing of certain information on the students' part during mentoring and supervision (Boud & Walker, 1998).

Regarding the reliability of portfolio assessment, Meeus et al. (2009) assert that portfolios are "incapable of fulfilling the classic psychometric requirement of reliability" (p. 411) since portfolios and standardization are essentially incompatible. However, they suggest that the reliability of portfolio assessment, despite being problematic, can still be brought to an acceptable level if the following measures are taken:

- using a common assessment protocol (prior moderation);
- using a common checklist of assessment criteria;
- holistic marking;
- adequate training of assessors; and
- use of various assessors (retrospective moderation)

(Meeus et al., 2009, p. 411)

3.3. The Relationship Between Portfolio Assessment and Reflection

A large body of research has explored the relationship between portfolio assessment and reflection. Throughout the 1990s, researchers generally embraced the benefits of portfolios in promoting learning and reflective practice (e.g., Antonek et al., 1997; Biggs, 1998; Borko et al., 1997; Mokhtari et al., 1996; Setteducati, 1995; Winsor et al., 1999). Particularly, the study by Borko et al. in 1997 reported that an impressive majority of participants (71% in written statements, 100% in interviews) explicitly mentioned reflection as a benefit

of the portfolio process. According to Huba and Freed (2000), reflection occurs at three stages of the portfolio process: selection of evidence, annotation of evidence for presentation in the portfolio, and during conversations with peers, faculty advisors and others about their portfolio entries. Gupta et al. (2001) further assert that the portfolio encourages the compilers to write down reflection on their own experiences, thus improving the quality of reflections and avoiding "single loop reflection" (p. 3). Single loop learning refers to the search for another strategy that will address and work within the governing variables when a problem occurs, as opposed to double loop learning which subjects those variables to critical scrutiny (Argyris & Schön, 1974). Dialogues with others throughout the process also contribute to reflection in two aspects: critical conversations that question portfolio entries and their significance, and collaborative inquiry (Lyons, 1998).

A number of other studies have also been conducted over the past decades on the multi-facets of portfolio use that influences learning and reflection. A quasi-experimental research project with 174 teacher education students and 44 supervisors by Meeus et al. (2008) reveals that the learning portfolio can significantly increase student teachers' capacity for autonomous learning, given that supervisors give them enough autonomy to do so. On a different note, a comparative study was specifically designed and carried out by Groom and Maunonen-Eskelinen (2006) to explore the impact of the portfolio on reflective practice in different ecological settings. The findings suggest that portfolios can have an impact on the development of reflective practice of student teachers and the way they perceive their roles in the classroom. Different contexts, national priorities, approaches and policies cannot be overemphasized as significant factors in how portfolios are perceived and used for critical

reflection of their practice. Orland-Barak (2005), on the other hand, takes a different approach in search for "untold" evidence of reflective practice in portfolios. The study suggests that the quality of reflection resides less in the use of different types of portfolios to address different purposes, and more in the collaborative process of participation in constructing a group portfolio. Orland-Barak also points out the absence of critical reflection in portfolios as evidenced by the predominance of descriptive reflective language, indicating reflection at technical level only. This finding aligns with those made by Nagle (2009), who links this phenomenon to pre-service teachers' beliefs about teaching and learning.

In order to better understand the role of portfolios in promoting professional development and the quality of the reflection that they stimulate, Smith and Tillema's (2001) investigation into the sustained use of a portfolio as an instrument to support professional development in the long term seeks to reveal why and how professionals continue to maintain their portfolio. The study focuses on four main issues: documentation of professional competence and development, systematic self-reflection, maintaining a reflective dialogue with peers, and learning from mistakes by analytic reflection. As the findings suggest, documentation of evidence is seen as the most profound incentive for sustained portfolio use, followed by reflection and improved awareness, the chance for collegial dialogues on professional performance, and lastly development and learning. The main reasons for discontinued portfolio use, on the other hand, are because it is time consuming, not mandatory, and not helpful in short-term professional development. The authors also point out that while voluntary use of the portfolio is better in enhancing professional development, it is more likely to be sustained if it is mandatory. They therefore suggest that a balance can be

reached by the inclusion of a coach in the assessment context who provides instructions for the compilation of the portfolio and at the same time offers professional and personal support in a non-threatening way.

4. Implications and Conclusion

The reviewed literature suggests that the use of the portfolio provides formative assessment while, to some extent, promoting professional development and improved practice via enhanced reflection, although the quality of such reflection may not reach a critical level. With careful attention to the introduction of the portfolio and guided support throughout the portfolio process, the use of portfolio assessment can be valuable in the context of teacher education in the higher education system. It will not only fulfill the basic purpose of assessment but also enhance teachers' reflective thinking and their enthusiasm for learning about themselves, others, and the process of teaching (Wade & Yarbrough, 1996).

The use of portfolios in the higher education context can be particularly useful for the assessment of pre-service teachers. Most teacher education programmes include an internship period in which teachers in training spend a few months teaching at schools to gain practical experience. In many cases, the assessment of their learning and practice in this period is done solely via a formal report to be submitted by the end of the internship. In this context, the portfolio seems more likely to be appropriate and useful. Instead of writing a formal, heavily theoretical report, student teachers could be required to compile a portfolio to demonstrate their competency with regard to what they have been trained to do in the previous components of the education programme. By doing so, student teachers can gain a more holistic and accurate insight into their own learning and competence, thus

benefiting from the formative aspects of this form of assessment. On the other hand, teaching portfolios can also be useful for the appraisals of in-service teachers since they can effectively demonstrate and clarify their efforts which may not be showcased during classroom observations or by any other forms of evaluation. Using portfolios as an assessment tool for professional practice can also allow teachers to be professionally competent and capable of continuing to learn on a life-long basis.

However, certain issues need to be taken into account when applying this form of assessment into practice for both pre-service and in-service teachers. Firstly, portfolios are time consuming; therefore appropriate time should be allotted for teachers to work on this assessment task. Pre-service teachers, in particular, should have adequate time to practise and become comfortable with the process of compiling the portfolio. Secondly, because portfolio assessment can be unfamiliar to the portfolio compilers and assessors alike, the purpose, requirements and process must be made explicit to both parties. Also, it is particularly important to model what the compilers are expected to do so they have a clear understanding of the requirements and expectations. Finally, support from peers, faculty and colleagues is crucial to the successful implementation of portfolio assessment. It is thus important to create a supportive environment in which the necessary conditions for reflection and inquiry are provided.

References

Antonek, J., McCormick, D., & Donato, R. (1997). The student teacher portfolio as autobiography: Developing a professional identity. *The Modern Language Journal, 81*, 15-27.

Argyris, C., & Schön, D. (1974). *Theory in practice: Increasing professional effectiveness.* Jossey-Bass.

Ashford, A. N., & Deering, P. D. (2003, April 21-25). *Middle level teacher preparation: The impact of the portfolio experience on teachers' professional development* [Paper presentation]. Annual Meeting of the American Educational Research Association, Chicago, IL, United States.

Atkins, S., & Murphy, K. (1993). Reflection: A review of the literature. *Journal of Advanced Nursing, 18*, 1188-1192.

Barton, J., & Collins, A. (1993). Portfolios in teacher education. *Journal of Teacher Education, 44*(3), 200-210.

Baume, D., Yorke, M., & Coffey, M. (2004). What happens when we assess, and how can we use our understanding of this to improve assessment? *Assessment and Evaluation in Higher Education, 29*(4), 451-477.

Benade, L. (2015). Teachers' critical reflective practice in the context of twenty-first century learning. *Open Review of Educational Research, 2*(1), 42-54.

Biggs, J. (1998). A role for summative assessment. *Assessment in Education, 5*(1), 103-110.

Borko, H., Michalec, P., Timmons, M., & Siddle, J. (1997). Student teaching portfolios: A tool for promoting reflective practice. *Journal of Teacher Education, 48*(5), 345-357.

Boud, D., & Walker, D. (1998). Promoting reflection in professional courses: The challenge of context. *Studies in Higher Education, 23*(2), 191-206.

Brookfield, S. (1995). *Becoming a critically reflective teacher*. Jossey-Bass.

Buysse, V., Sparkman, K., & Wesley, P. (2003). Communities of practice: Connecting what we know with what we do. *Exceptional Children, 69*(3), 263-277.

Carr, W., & Kemmis, S. (1988). *Becoming critical: Knowing through action research*. Deakin University Press.

Cochran-Smith, M., & Zeichner, K. M. (Eds.) (2005). *Studying teacher education: The report of the AERA Panel on Research and Teacher Education*. Lawrence Erlbaum.

Daro, P. (1996). Standards and portfolio assessment. In J. Baron & D. Wolf (Eds.), *Performance-based student assessment: Challenges and possibilities* (pp. 239-260). The University of Chicago Press.

Davies, A., & LeMahieu, P. (2003). Assignment for learning: Reconsidering portfolios and research evidence. In M. Segers, F. Dochy & E. Cascallar (Eds.), *Optimising new modes assessment: In search of qualities and standards.* Kluwer Academic Publishers.

Dervent, F. (2015). The effect of reflective thinking on the teaching practices of preservice physical education teachers. *Issues in Educational Research, 25*(3), 260-275.

Dewey, J. (1933). *How we think.* Heath and Co.

Dimova, Y., & Loughran, J. (2009). Developing a big picture understanding of reflection in pedagogical practice. *Reflective Practice, 10*(2), 205-217.

Elliott, J. (1991). *Action research for educational change*. Open University Press.

Ellsworth, J. (2002). Using student portfolios to increase reflective practice among elementary teachers. *Journal of Teacher Education, 53*(4), 342-355.

Ferraro, J. M. (2000). *Reflective practice and professional development* (ED449120). ERIC. https://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/ED449120.pdf

Fook, J. (2015). Reflective practice and critical reflection. In J. Lishman (Ed.), *Handbook for practice learning in social work and social care: Knowledge and theory* (3rd ed.). Jessica Kingsley.

Francis, D. (1997). Critical incident analysis: A strategy for developing reflective practice. *Teachers and Teaching, 3*(2), 169-88.

Freidus, H. (1998). Mentoring portfolio development. In N. Lyons (Ed.), *With portfolio in hand* (pp. 5l-68). Teachers College Press.

Gore, J., & Zeichner, K. (1991). Action research and reflective teaching in pre-service teacher education: A case study from the United States. *Teaching and Teacher Education, 7*(2), 119-136.

Groom, B., & Maunonen-Eskelinen, I. (2006). The use of portfolios to develop reflective practice in teacher training: A comparative and collaborative approach between two teacher training providers in the UK and Finland. *Teaching in Higher Education, 11*(3), 291-300.

Gupta, S., Ecclestone, K., & Greaves, D. (2001, July). *Portfolio based learning as a tool for insider practitioner research: Developing professional knowledge* [Paper presentation]. Third International Interdisciplinary Evidence-based Policies and Indicator Systems Conference, Gateshead, England.

Hall, C. (2004). *Two professional development paradigms and a merging of the approaches.* Victoria University of Wellington.

Huba, M., & Freed, J. (2000). *Learner-centered assessment on college campuses.* Allyn and Bacon.

Jarvinen, A., & Kohonen, V. (1995). Promoting professional development in higher education through portfolio assessment. *Assessment and Evaluation in Higher Education, 20*(l), 25-37.

Jones, E. (2007). *A portfolio for assessment of the practice of the special education resource teachers* [Doctoral dissertation, Victoria University of Wellington].

Jones, E. (2009). Can portfolios promote quality learning? In L. H. Meyer, S. Davidson, H. Anderson, R. Fletcher, P. Johnston & M. Rees (Eds.), *Tertiary assessment & higher education student outcomes: Policy, practice & research.* Ako Aotearoa.

Jones, E. (2010). Personal theory and reflection in a professional practice portfolios. *Assessment and Evaluation in Higher Education, 35*(6), 699-710.

Kemmis, S., & McTaggart, R. (Eds.). (1988). *The action research planner* (3rd ed.). Deakin University.

Klecka, C., Donovan, L., & Fishee, R. (2007). In their shoes: Teacher educators' reframing portfolio development from the students' perspective. *Journal of Computing in Teacher Education, 24*(1), 31-36.

Korthagen, F. (2001). *Linking practice and theory: The pedagogy of realistic teacher education.* Lawrence Erlbaum.

Krause, S. (1996). Portfolios in teacher education: Effects of instruction on preservice teachers' early comprehension of the portfolio process. *Journal of Teacher Education, 47*(2), 130-138.

LaBoskey, V. (1993) A conceptual framework for reflection in preservice teacher education. In J. Calderhead & P. Gates (Eds.), *Conceptualizing reflection in teacher development.* Falmer Press.

Ladbrook, J., & Middleton, S. (1997). *Portfolios: Promoting the role of reflection in the pre-service education of graduate teachers* [Paper presentation]. NZARE Conference, Auckland.

Lester, S. (1995). Beyond knowledge and competence: Towards a framework for professional education. *Capability, 1*(3), 44-52.

Loughran, J. (1995). Practising what I preach: Modelling reflective practice to student teachers. *Research in Science Education, 25*(4), 431-451.

Loughran, J., & Corrigan, D. (1995). Teacher portfolios: A strategy for developing learning and teaching in persevere education. *Teaching and Teacher Education, 11*, 565-577.

Lyons, N. (1998). Portfolios possibilities: Validating a new teacher professionalism. In N. Lyons (Ed.), *With portfolio in hand* (pp. 1-21). Teacher College Press.

McIntyre, D. (1993). Theory, theorizing and reflection in initial teacher education. In J. Calderhead & P. Gates (Eds.), *Conceptualizing reflection in teacher development* (pp. 39-52). Falmer Press.

Meeus, W., Van Petegem, P., & Engels, N. (2009). Validity and reliability of portfolio assessment in pre-service teacher education. *Assessment and Evaluation in Higher Education, 34*(4), 401-413.

Meeus, W., Van Petegem, P., & Meijer, J. (2008). Portfolios as means of promoting autonomous learning in teacher education: A quasi-experimental study. *Educational Research, 50*(4), 361-386.

Mezirow, J. (1990). *Fostering critical reflection in adulthood: A guide to transformative and emancipatory learning.* Jossey-Bass.

Mokhtari, K., Yellin, D., Bull, K., & Mongomery, D. (1996). Portfolio assessment in teacher education: Impact on preservice teacher's knowledge and attitudes. *Journal of Teacher Education, 47*(4), 245-251.

Nagle, J. F. (2009). Becoming a reflective practitioner in the age of accountability. *The Educational Forum, 73*, 76-86.

Orland-Barak, L. (2005). Portfolios as evidence of reflective practice: What remains 'untold'. *Educational Research, 47*(1), 25-44.

Paulson, F., Paulson, P., & Meyer, C. (1991). What makes a portfolio a portfolio? *Educational Leadership, 48*(5), 60-63.

Rodgers, C. (2002). Defining reflection: Another look at John Dewey and reflective thinking. *Teachers College Record, 104*(4), 842-866.

Schön, D. (1983). *The reflective practitioner: How professionals think in action.* Basic Books.

Schön, D. (1987). *Educating the reflective practitioner: Toward a new design for teaching and learning in the professions.* Jossey-Bass.

Setteducati, D. (1995). Portfolio self-assessment for teachers: A reflection on the Farmingdale. *Journal of Staff Development, 16*(3), 2-5.

Shulman, L. (1998). Teacher portfolios: Theoretical activity. In N. Lyons (Ed.), *With portfolio in hand* (pp. 23-49). Teacher College Press.

Slade, M., Burnham, T., Catalana, S., & Waters, T. (2019). The impact of reflective practice on teacher candidates' learning. *International Journal for the Scholarship of Teaching and Learning, 13*(2), Article 15. https://doi.org/10.20429/ijsotl.2019.130215

Smith, K., & Tillema, H. (1998). Evaluating portfolio use as a learning tool for professionals. *Scandinavian Journal of Educational Research, 42*(2), 193-205.

Smith, K., & Tillema, H. (2001). Long-term influences of portfolios on professional development. *Scandinavian Journal of Educational Research, 45*(2), 183-203.

Smith, K., & Tillema, H. (2003). Clarifying different type portfolio use. *Assessment and Evaluation in Higher Education, 28*(6), 625-648.

Stephenson, J. (1998). The concept of capability and its importance in higher education. In J. Stephenson & M. Yorke (Eds.), *Capability and quality in higher education* (pp. l-13). Kogan Page.

Strijbos, J., Meeus, W., & Libotton, A. (2007). Portfolio assignments in teacher education: A tool for self-regulating the learning process. *International Journal for the Scholarship of Teaching and Learning, 1*(2), Article 17.

Taylor, I. (1997). *Developing learning in professional education: Partnerships for practice.* Society for Research into Higher Education & Open University Press.

van Manen, M. (1977). Linking ways of knowing with ways of being practical. *Curriculum Inquiry, 6*(3), 205-228.

van Manen, M. (1991). *The tact of teaching: The meaning of pedagogical thoughtfulness.* State University of New York Press.

Wade, R., & Yarbrough, D. (1996). Portfolios: A tool for reflective thinking in teacher education? *Teaching and Teacher Education, 12*(1), 63-79.

Winsor, P., Butt, R., & Reeves H. (1999). Portraying professional development in preservice teacher education: Can portfolios do the jobs? *Teachers and Teaching: Theory and Practice, 5*(1), 9-31.

Woodward, H. (1998). Reflective journals and portfolios: Learning through assessment. *Assessment and Evaluation in Higher Education, 23*(4), 415-423.

Woodward, H. (2000). Portfolios: Narratives for learning. *Professional Development in Education, 26*(2), 329-349.

Zeichner, K. (1996). Teachers as reflective practitioners and the democratization of school reform. In K. Zeichner, S. Melnick & M. Gomx (Eds.), *Currents of reform in pre-service teacher education* (1st ed., pp. 199-213). Teachers College Press.

Zeichner, K., & Wray, S. (2001). The teaching portfolio in US teacher education programs: What we know and what we need to know. *Teaching and Teacher Education, 17*, 613-621.

BÀN VỀ ĐÁNH GIÁ HỒ SƠ HỌC TẬP – CÔNG CỤ THÚC ĐẨY CHIÊM NGHIỆM TRONG ĐÀO TẠO SƯ PHẠM

Nguyễn Mỹ Bình

Bộ môn Tiếng Anh cơ sở, Viện Ngoại ngữ, Đại học Bách khoa Hà Nội,
Số 1 Đại Cồ Việt, quận Hai Bà Trưng, Hà Nội, Việt Nam

Tóm tắt: Bài viết nghiên cứu mối liên hệ không thể tách rời giữa việc dạy và học của giáo viên thông qua việc sử dụng hồ sơ học tập (portfolio) như một công cụ kiểm tra đánh giá đối với giáo sinh và giáo viên trong thực hành nghề nghiệp. Cụ thể, bài viết tổng hợp, đánh giá các công trình nghiên cứu liên quan tới khái niệm và định nghĩa sự chiêm nghiệm và thực hành chiêm nghiệm trong giảng dạy, từ đó tìm hiểu vai trò của hồ sơ học tập như một tác nhân thúc đẩy sự chiêm nghiệm và phát triển chuyên môn của giáo viên. Kết quả cho thấy hình thức kiểm tra đánh giá này có thể là một công cụ đánh giá thường xuyên, đồng thời phần nào khuyến khích phát triển chuyên môn và cải tiến giảng dạy thông qua việc tăng cường chiêm nghiệm, mặc dù chất lượng của sự chiêm nghiệm có thể chưa đạt mức độ sâu sắc. Nếu có chỉ dẫn cụ thể và hỗ trợ trong suốt quá trình xây dựng hồ sơ học tập, hình thức đánh giá này có thể có giá trị trong lĩnh vực giáo dục và đào tạo giáo viên trong hệ thống giáo dục đại học.

Từ khoá: chiêm nghiệm, thực hành chiêm nghiệm, hồ sơ học tập, đánh giá, giáo dục chuyên môn của giáo viên

AN ANALYSIS OF SONGS ABOUT MOTHER
BY NGUYEN VAN TY FROM SYSTEMIC FUNCTIONAL
LINGUISTICS PERSPECTIVE

Ta Thi Thu Hang*

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

Abstract: This paper explores experiential meaning realized in transitivity resource and interpersonal meaning realized in the mood and modality resources of two songs about mother by Nguyen Van Ty. The discussion of the experiential and interpersonal meaning explored will enable the researcher to have a better understanding of the image of mother depicted in the two songs. The theoretical framework employed for analysis is Systemic Functional Linguistics. The data for analysis is all clause simplexes collected from the two songs. The findings show that material process is mostly used in both songs and followed by mental, relational and behavioural processes. There are no verbal and existential processes found in both songs. In terms of interpersonal meaning, there is a very high frequency of declarative clauses and a very small number of interrogative and exclamative clauses. Although the occurrence of modality is very humble, it is deployed in both songs. It is recommended that the two songs can be used as an effective source for students who take an interest in studying the Vietnamese language from Systemic Functional Linguistics view.

Key words: systemic functional linguistics, experiential meaning, interpersonal meaning, transitivity, mood and modality

1. Introduction

A lot of linguistic approaches have been developed in an attempt to analyze different genres of texts effectively. Over the past decades, a prominent linguistic approach that has been adopted widely by a number of researchers is Systemic Functional Linguistics (SFL) developed by Halliday in the 1960s. This approach has shown its effectiveness by being employed as the theoretical framework in the analysis of other kinds of texts under both written and spoken forms. For instance, in literary

texts, two researches by Nguyen (2012, 2018) named "Transitivity Analysis of "Heroic Mother" by Hoa Pham" and "Femininity and Female Sexual Desires in "The Lang Women": An Analysis Using Halliday's Theory on Transitivity" also adopt Halliday's theory as the theoretical framework. Additionally, the application of SFL in investigating song lyrics is not the exception. The reason for the popularity of SFL in text analysis is derived from the differences between SFL and traditional grammar. SFL considers language as a system of meanings (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2014) or a meaning-making resource (Schleppegrell, 2004) while traditional grammar sees language as a set

---

* Corresponding author.
  Email address: hang2013dhnn@gmail.com

of rules. In addition, SFL is concerned with the operation of language in different cultural and social contexts; however, traditional grammar deals with rules of language in the process of writing or speaking only. Hence, it can be concluded that under the perspective of SFL, both form and meaning are important and closely related because meaning is realized through form. For these reasons above, the researcher has decided to employ SFL as the theoretical framework to examine the function of language in expressing two strands of meanings of two songs named *Me yeu con* (1956) and *Tam ao chien si me va nam xua* (1973) by Nguyen Van Ty.

In reviewing the literature, no research has been conducted on two mother song lyrics by Nguyen Van Ty. This reason has motivated the writer to conduct the study. As mentioned above, the aim of the study is to examine experiential and interpersonal meanings realized through Transitivity resource and mood and modality, respectively. Therefore, two research questions below will help to clarify the aim of the study:

a. How are two mother songs by Nguyen Van Ty constructed in terms of experiential meaning and interpersonal meaning?

b. How is the image of mother represented in two mother songs by Nguyen Van Ty?

2. The Theoretical Framework

The theoretical framework adopted in the study is SFL. SFL is a model of language in context. According to Halliday and Matthiessen (2014), language is organized with three main functions. Firstly, language construes our outer and inner experience and we call it the ideational metafunction. The ideational metafunction involves two other components: that of experiential meaning in the clause, and that of logical meaning between clauses in clause complexes. In this research, the unit of analysis is clause simplex; hence, the researcher limits the study to the experiential meaning. Secondly, while construing, language also establishes our personal and social relationships with other people around us. This function of language is called interpersonal metafunction. Last but not least, whether the construing and establishing is successful or not depends on how the discursive flow is cohesive and continuous. It means that the speaker or the writer has to decide sequences of discourse. We call it textual metafunction (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2014). The detailed description of this model has been provided in many researches. Hence, this part of the study aims at focusing on describing the aspects of SFL directly involving features of two mother song lyrics by Nguyen Van Ty. Specifically, experiential and interpersonal meanings will be presented below.

2.1. Experiential Meaning and Transitivity System

The experiential meaning is realized through transitivity system. The transitivity of a clause is its process type. Each process type constitutes a distinct model or schema for construing a particular domain of experience. The primary options in process type include material, mental, and relational. In addition, there are three subtypes of process: behavioural, verbal, and existential. The types of process in English can be illustrated in the following figure:

Figure 1

The Grammar of Experience: Types of Process in English (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004, p. 172)

In Vietnamese, Hoang (2012) draws on Halliday's model to describe experiential meaning in Vietnamese clauses. Basically, the structure of process types in Vietnamese clauses is similar to that in English. However, English is an inflecting language while Vietnamese is an isolating language. Hence, some notable differences between the structure of process types in English and Vietnamese are inevitable. Despite adopting Halliday's theory to analyze two songs, we still refer to some distinct features in Vietnamese clauses shown by Hoang (2012) during the analysis process. Now we will proceed to describe each process type with illustrated examples.

Material process is the process of "doing and happening" which has the general structure: **Actor^Process: material^other Participants**. Apart from number and nature of participants or the probe as in English, in Vietnamese, another criterion is suggested by Hoang Van Van. It is the strong tie between material verbs and co-verbs of direction. Co-verbs of direction consist of words such as *"lên", "đi", "xuống"...* The following example will clarify this point.

bóng dáng bao người	đang	vươn	lên
silhouette of many people	is	rising up	
Actor	**Aspectual particle (Asp.ptcl)**	**Process: material**	

(Nguyen, 1956)

Such co-verbs of direction cannot combine with other process types. Additionally, it is not difficult to recognize voice in English based on grammatical structure. However, this must be careful in Vietnamese. Two passive particles *bị, được* are considered as typical signs to distinguish active and passive voice. Nevertheless, in Vietnamese, two particles also own different meanings *desirable* and *undesirable*. In the data of the research, we do not find the case of these two particles.

Mental process is the process of sensing with the general structure: **Senser^Process: mental^Phenomenon. Senser** should be human or any entity endowed with "consciousness". Like in English, there are four main sub-types of **Mental** process in Vietnamese namely: "perceptive", "cognitive", "desiderative" or "emotive".

Mẹ	thương
Mother	loves
Senser	**Process: mental (emotive)**

(Nguyen, 1956)

Relational process is the process of being, having and being at. There are three

subtypes of relational process that come into two modes. Based on Halliday's model, Hoang (2012) represents the system of relational process as the figure below. In his model, Halliday and Matthiessen (2014) classify two modes named attributive and identifying. In this figure, Hoang (2012) replaces attributive with ascriptive.

Figure 2

Relational Process in Vietnamese (Hoang, 2012, p. 238)
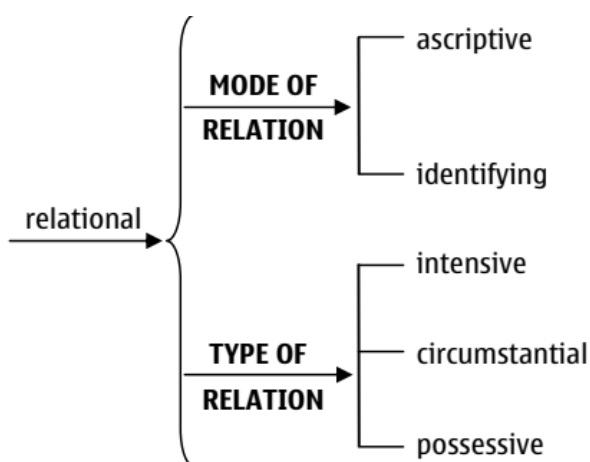
One point that needs to be noticed is that in English, if an attribute is realized with an epithet, the presence of *"tobe"* or a linking verb is inherent. However, in Vietnamese case, there is no presence of this element *(là)*.

Đời mẹ	nghèo
Mother's life	poor
Carrier	**Attribute (Process: relational)**

(Nguyen, 1973)

It is odd to say that:

Đời mẹ	là	nghèo
Carrier	**Process: relational**	**Attribute**

(Nguyen, 1973)

As mentioned above, three subtypes emerging are behavioural, verbal and existential. The reason is there seems not to have a clear cut in the distinction of different processes. Following are the general structure of these subtypes.

Behavioural process: **Behaver^Process: behavioural^Range/Phenomenon**

Verbal process: **Sayer^Process: verbal(^Receiver)(^Verbiage)**

Existential: **Process: existential^Existent**

Vietnamese existential process often employs verbs such as *có, còn*. Nevertheless, when the nominal group realizing existent is premodified by indefinite numeratives such as *nhiều, ít...,* the presence of verbs mentioned above is optional (Hoang, 2012).

Besides the inherent elements including actor and process, circumstantial elements that clarify the material process in terms of place, time, manner... are optional in process type. The eight types of circumstances that are examined by Hoang (2012) consist of extent, location, manner, cause, accompaniment, matter, role and stance.

2.2. Interpersonal Meaning and The Mood – Modality

In addition to construing human experience, language also helps to establish our social relationship with other people around us. Two most fundamental speech roles that can be found in a conversation are *"giving (inviting to receive)"* and *"demanding (inviting to give)"* (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2014). The nature of commodity in *"giving"* and *"demanding"* process is *"information"* or *"goods and services"*. These roles are specified in the following figure.

Table 1

Giving or Demanding, Goods & Services or Information (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004, p. 107)

Role in exchange	Commodity exchanged	
	goods -&-services	**information**
giving	"offer" would you like this teapot?	"statement" he's giving her teapot
demanding	"command" give me that teapot!	"question" what is he giving her?

When we exchange information, the clause will take the form of a proposition. A proposition is something that can be argued. When we exchange goods and services, the clause will take the form of a proposal. While we argue something IS or IS NOT in the proposition, we argue something HAPPEN or DOESN'T HAPPEN in a proposal (Eggins, 1994). The major grammatical system that realizes Interpersonal function is called MOOD system. Figure 3 illustrates MOOD system in English.

Figure 3

Mood System in English (Hoang, 2006, p. 55)
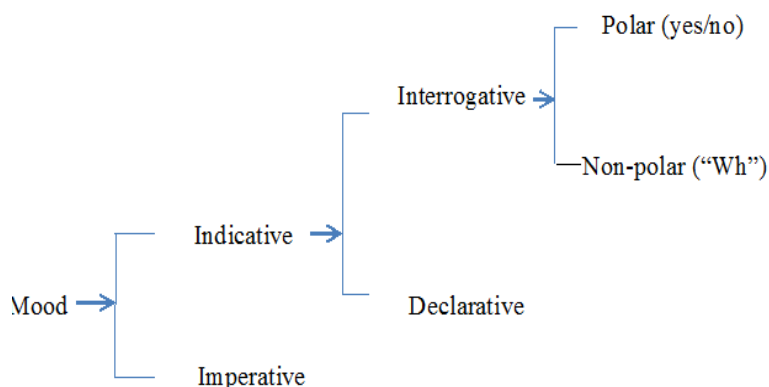
Besides two main choices of Mood are Indicative and Imperative, Halliday and Matthiessen (2014) supplement a sub-type of declarative that is exclamative clause.

There are two main elements in MOOD system: the Mood element and the Residue. The Mood is the component whose function in the clause is to carry the syntactic burden of the exchange and to carry argument forward. Two parts in the Mood are the Subject and the Finite operator.

As mentioned in the preceding pages, English is an inflecting language with a finite system. Therefore, to identify mood types, the analyst will rely on the position of Subject and Finite in a clause. However, Vietnamese does not have a finite system; hence, mood types will be identified based on a system of particles. Thai (2004) has suggested common particles in Mood types as listed below.

- **Polar interrogative particles:** *phải không, có không, hả, hở, ư, sao, hay sao, chưa, à, chớ, chứ,...*
- **Elemental interrogative items:** *khi nào, tại sao, ai, ở đâu, làm thế nào, chuyện gì, cái gì,...*
- **Imperative particles:** *nào, đi nào, nhé, nhá, nghe*

In addition, Diep (2005) also included exclamation particles.

Specifically, exclamation expressions consist of words or phrases such as *ô, ôi, úi, chà, trời đất ơi...*

As illustrated in Figure 3, Mood is involved with polarity (Yes or No). However, there are not only two poles but other "intermediate possibilities" between them which is called Modality or the assessment/the judgement of the speaker.

- In a proposition, two main kinds of "intermediate possibilities" are "degree of possibilities" (possibly/probably/certainly) and "degree of usuality" (sometimes/usually/always). Halliday and Matthiessen (2014) distinguish them from other types of Modality by naming them Modalization. This can be expressed by a finite modal operator, by a modal adjunct or by both.

- In a proposal, based on the speech function of "demanding" or "offering", Halliday and Matthiessen (2014) divide into "degree of obligation" (allowed to/supposed to/required to) and "degree of inclination" (willing to/anxious

to/determined to). This second choice in Modality is called Modulation. This can be expressed by a finite operator or by an expansion of the Predicator through verbal group complexing.

- Typically by a passive verb: *You're supposed to do that*
- By an adjective: *I'm anxious to help them*

Figure 4

Modality (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2014, p. 182)
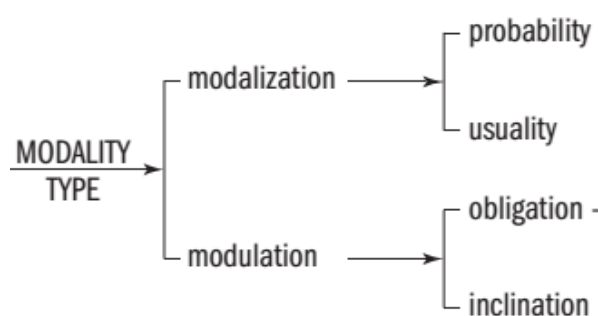
Halliday classified finite modal operators and adverbs serving as mood adjuncts into three degrees: low, median and high that can be illustrated in table 2 and 3 below.

Table 2

Modal Operators (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2014, p. 145)

Modal operators		
	Low	**Median**	**High**
positive	can, may, could, might, (dare)	will, would, should, is/was to	must, ought to, need, has/had to
negative	needn't, doesn't/didn't + need to, have to	won't, wouldn't, shouldn't, (isn't/wasn't to)	mustn't, oughtn't to, can't, couldn't, (mayn't, mightn't, hasn't/hadn't to)

Table 3

Adverbs Serving as Mood Adjuncts of Modality (Halliay & Matthiessen, 2014, p. 189)

	Median	Outer: high	Outer: low
probability	probably	certainly, definitely, no way (no how)	possibly, perhaps, maybe, hardly
usuality	usually	always, never	sometimes, occasionally, seldom, rarely

As mentioned in the preceding pages, the model SFL of Halliday is drawn on for the research; therefore, we will follow the classification proposed by Halliday. Finite modal operators and mood adjuncts of modality are composed of *probability, usuality, inclination* and *obligation.* Common words of these cases will be translated into Vietnamese. The following table illustrates some examples of modality in Vietnamese that are equivalent to mood adjuncts of modality.

Table 4

Examples of Modality in Vietnamese (Adapted from Ngo, 2007, p. 96)

Probability	chắc là, có nhiều khả năng (probably), có thể (possibly)
	chắc chắn (certainly), có lẽ (perhaps), có thể là (maybe)
Usuality	thường là (usually), đôi khi, thỉnh thoảng (sometimes)
	luôn luôn (always), hiếm khi (seldom), chưa bao giờ, không bao giờ (never), ít khi (rarely)
Inclination	bằng lòng, vui lòng (willingly), sẵn lòng, sẵn sàng (readily), dễ dàng (easily)
Obligation	dứt khoát (definitely), tuyệt đối (absolutely), có thể phải (possibly), bằng mọi giá (at all costs), bằng mọi cách (by all means)

In addition, Hoang (2018) has supplemented other cases of modulation expressing obligation and inclination in Vietnamese that are equivalent to finite modal operators in English such as *cần* (need), *nên* (should), *phải* (must) or *sẽ* (will), *sẽ không* (won't), and *có thể* (may).

3. Research Design and Methodology

3.1. Unit of Analysis

There are a number of certain reasons why the author has chosen two mother songs written by Nguyen Van Ty. Nguyen Van Ty was born in a musical family and famous for many great works. Before his departure, he had made a major contribution to Vietnamese music. Among his compositions, the songs *Me yeu con* (1956) and *Tam ao chien si me va nam xua* (1973) are two popular ones that are symbols of maternal love. Songs about mother have always drawn attention of listeners and learners as they not only entertain people but also educate them in terms of language knowledge and moral values. In this research, the author would like to get access to lyrics in Nguyen Van Ty's songs from a different perspective -

Systemic Functional Linguistics.

The researcher takes clause simplexes as unit of analysis; therefore, lyrics in two songs are broken into clauses and a close analysis is carried out to identify process types, mood types and modality in clause simplexes. There are several main reasons why clause simplexes are chosen as unit of analysis. Firstly, Halliday and Matthiessen (2014) show that the clause is the most fundamental unit of analysis. We see three strands of meaning in every clause. Like English, the Vietnamese clause that is located on the lexicogrammatical stratum is the highest unit of grammar analysis (Hoang, 2012). Secondly, from the first point, it can be concluded that the clause is an effective unit to analyze a text.

3.2. Data Collection and Analysis

The collection and analysis of two songs are implemented in the following steps.

Step 1: The lyrics of two songs are collected from official videos of well-known singers in Vietnam such as Anh Tho and Trong Tan uploaded in

https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=O9bdCujMlrw and https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=javaYP9IDEk.

To make sure of the accuracy of the lyrics, the writer has made a thorough check in different popular websites that also upload the whole or a part of the videos.

http://www.lyrics.vn/lyrics/7720-me-yeu-con.html

https://tinmoi.vn/loi-bai-hat-me-yeu-con-mot-khuc-su-thi-ve-tinh-mau-tu-cua-nhac-si-nguyen-van-ty-011397737.html

https://www.nhaccuatui.com/bai-hat/tam-ao-chien-sy-me-va-nam-xua-trong-tan.dsPPS2YWBC6j.html

https://nhac.vn/bai-hat/tam-ao-chien-si-me-va-nam-xua-trong-tan-soYyzdx

Step 2: Two strokes (//) are used to identify the number of clause simplexes in two songs

Step 3: The clause simplexes in each song are analyzed in terms of transitivity system with 6 types of process and mood and modality.

Ac = Actor

Attr = Attribute

Beh = Behaver/Behavioural

Car = Carrier

Circ = Circumstance

Circ: accomp = Circumstance of accompaniment

Circ: Adjct = Circumstance of adjunct

Circ: cse = Circumstance of cause

Circ: ext = Circumstance of extent

Circ: loc = Circumstance of location

Circ: man = Circumstance of manner

Circ: mat = Circumstance of matter

Circ: rl = Circumstance of role

Circ: st = Circumstance of stance

Cli = Client

Compl = Complement

Dec = Declarative

Excl = Exclamative

Existt = Existent

Go = Goal

Id = Identified

Imp = Imperative

Inter = Interrogative

Ir = Identifier

Mod = Mood

Phen = Phenomenon

Pred = Predicator

Pro: beh = Process: behavioural

Pro: existl = Process: existential

Pro: mat = Process: material

Pro: ment = Process: mental

Pro: rel = Process: relational

Pro: vrb = Process: verbal

Rec = Receiver/Recipient

Sa = Sayer

Sco = Scope

Sen = Senser

Subj = Subject

Ta = Target

Vrbge = Verbiage

Step 4: The process types and mood-modality of the clause simplexes in each song will be counted and presented in the table.

Step 5: The findings collected from analysis are discussed to figure out the features of two songs

4. Findings and Discussions

4.1 Findings

4.1.1. Transitivity in Two Songs

Table 5

Process Types in the Song "Me yeu con"

Process types	Number	Percent
Pro: mat	6	32%
Pro: beh	3	16%
Pro: ment	5	26%
Pro: rel	5	26%
Pro: vrb	0	0%
Pro: existl	0	0%
Total	**19**	**100%**

As can be seen from table 5, material process accounts for the largest percentage (32%). At the second rank are mental and relational processes with 26% for each. Behavioural process makes up 16% ranking third among processes. There are no verbal and existential processes found in the song. Table 6 illustrates the number and the percentage of process types in the song *"Tam ao chien si me va nam xua."*

Table 6

Process Types in the Song "Tam ao chien si me va nam xua"

Process types	Number	Percent
Pro: mat	8	44%
Pro: beh	2	11%
Pro: ment	4	22%
Pro: rel	4	22%
Pro: vrb	0	0%
Pro: existl	0	0%
Total	**18**	**100%**

It can be observed that in the second song, the highest percentage (42%) is material process while both mental and relational processes comprise 22% for each. Behavioural process ranks third with 11%.

There are also no verbal and existential processes found in the song.

The percentage of processes in two songs shows that the outstanding similarity between two songs is the rank of processes. Specifically, material process is found highest among the processes. At the second position are mental and relational processes. The next position belongs to behavioural process while both verbal and existential are not found in two songs. In the next part (Data discussion), the researcher will give an in-depth discussion about the findings.

4.1.2. Mood Patterns and Modality in Two Songs

Table 7

Mood Patterns in the Song "Me yeu con"

Mood patterns	Number	Percent
Dec	17	89%
Inter	1	5%
Imp	0	0%
Excl	1	5%
Total	**19**	**100%**

Table 7 provides the information about the percentage of mood patterns in the first song. It can be seen that the author used mostly declarative sentences in the song (89%). Interrogative and exclamative types are used once for each. Imperative sentence is not found in the song.

Table 8

Mood Patterns in the Song "Tam ao chien si me va nam xua"

Mood patterns	Number	Percent
Dec	18	100%
Inter	0	0%
Imp	0	0%
Excl	0	0%
Total	**18**	**100%**

Table 8 shows a rather interesting result with 100% of declarative clauses. In short, two tables reveal two noticeable features. First, declarative mood accounts for the highest proportion. Second, there is no presence of imperative mood in both songs.

In terms of modality, the occurrences of modalization and modulation are very modest. Three instances of modalization expressing probability *"hình như"*, "*sẽ*" together with usuality *"thuong"* and one instance of modulation expressing obligation *"phải"* are found in two songs.

Table 9

Types of Modality in Two Songs

Songs	Number of clauses	Modalization		Modulation	
		Probability	Usuality	Obligation	Inclination
S1	19	2	0	0	0
S2	18	0	1	1	0

4.2. Discussions

In this part, the writer will not mention these findings again but demonstrate remarkable features in two songs about mother in wartime by Nguyen Van Ty.

4.2.1. Transitivity Discussion in Two Songs

As shown in table 5 and 6, the difference in the number of material process, mental process as well as relational process in the two songs is not considerable. The frequency of each process is understandable with the content of each song.

Material process in the first song is expressed in the following verbs *"giành, ôm, góp phần, rung, ôm ấp, đi"*. As mentioned above, two songs are about mothers in the war period. The material clauses in the first song are used to describe the success of the resistance and the mother's belief in what the child can contribute to his/her country in the future.

Kháng chiến	đã giành	đất nước	về cho đời
The resistance	won	country	for life
Ac	**Pro: mat**	**Go**	**Circ: cse**

Con	sẽ góp phần
You	will contribute
Ac	**Pro: mat**

đi	trên con đường mới
go	on the new road
Pro: mat	**Circ: loc (spatial)**

It can be said that the victory of the resistance has brought the mother new hope for the bright future of her child. She draws a picture in mind about what her child can do to contribute to the country. The actor in the second and third example is *"Con"*, which shows that the child will become the future owner of the country and the main force to build a stronger country. The circumstantial element of spatial *"trên con đường mới"* implies a new future waiting for the child.

In addition, mental process presents a mother's love for her child with verbs such as *"thương, thấy, có hay, thấy."* These mental verbs fall into three subgroups: emotive, perceptive and cognitive.

Mẹ	thương
Mother	loves
Sen	**Pro: ment (emotive)**
con	có hay
Do you	know
Sen	**Pro: ment (cognitive)**

Out of five instances of mental verbs, the word *"thương"* repeats two times emphasizing love the mother saves for her child. The circumstantial element of temporal *"từ khi mới lọt lòng"* is also deployed to indicate that the mother has cherished her child since he/she was in the womb.

The number of relational process is equal to the number of mental process. Relational clauses found in the song are classified into subgroups: intensive attributive and intensive identifying modes. These relational clauses are employed to describe the hardship of the resistance as well as a mother's pregnancy period. Additionally, the growth of the child and the mother's happiness are also expressed in relational clauses. The intensive attributive in two songs has the structure: **Carrier^Attribute (an epithet)**. The intensive identifying is present one time in the first song with the structure: **Identified^Process: relational^Identifier**. In the case of the intensive identifying, the process is realized by the word *"như"*.

Chín tháng so chín năm	gian khó	đến khôn cùng
Nine months compared with nine years	hard	extremely
Car	**Attr (Pro: rel)**	**Circ: man (quality)**

Bóng đất nước	như	hình bóng dáng con tôi
The shadow of country	is like	the shadow of my child
Id	**Pro: rel**	**Ir**

The occurrences of verbal and existential processes are not found in the song.

The rank of processes in the second song is the same as that of the first song. The song tells a story about the sewing army shirts of mothers' for their children, soldiers and the soldiers' participation in the resistance. It is the reason why material clauses are mainly found in the song. Material clauses depict the activities of both of the mothers and soldiers.

Tấm áo ấy	bấy lâu nay	con	thường	vẫn mặc
This army shirt	for ages	I	often	wear
Sco	**Circ: loc (temporal)**	**Ac**	**Circ: ext**	**Pro: mat**

vá	áo
sew	shirt
Pro: mat	**Sco**

Các con	ra đi	đã mấy chiến trường

You	have gone	a number of battlefields
Ac	**Pro: mat**	**Circ: loc (spatial)**

In the first song, readers and listeners witness a mother's love for her child through mental process. In the second song, mental clauses are employed not only to show the mothers' love for their children but the children's sentiment for their mothers. All mental verbs belong to emotive type *"quý, thương, nhớ(x2)."*

Tấm áo ấy	bấy lâu nay	con	quý	hơn cơm gạo
That army shirt	for ages	I	love	more than rice
Sco	**Circ: loc (temporal)**	**Sen**	**Pro: ment**	**Circ: man (comparison)**

The circumstance of manner (comparison subtype) *"hơn cơm gạo"* is adopted to show the degree of love that the child saves for the army shirt sewn by his mother.

Behavioural processes appear two times in the song with near-material verbs *"trông, thức"*. This type of process shows more the mother's sacrifice to her child.

It is reasonable why there is a high frequency of material, mental and relational processes in both songs. Firstly, as mentioned above, two songs are about mothers in wartime. The participation of both mothers and children in the resistance is depicted in different ways through material process. Mental and relational processes are used effectively in presenting the sentiment of mothers for children and vice versa. Moreover, relational processes also characterize the growth of children as well as their stronger power with mothers' protection. Especially, types of circumstances are used effectively by the composer Nguyen Van Ty with the aim of clarifying and emphasizing the inner and outer experience shown through process types.

4.2.2. The Mood and Modality Discussion in Two Songs

4.2.2.1. The Mood

In terms of mood patterns and modality, both table 7 and 8 illustrate the dominance of declarative clauses.

Noticeably, 100% declarative clauses are used in the second song *Tam ao chien si me va nam xua.*

Through the highest frequency of declarative clauses, it can be concluded that two songs mainly aim at giving information or telling a story about maternal love in wartime. There is almost no interactive activity in the song except the only interaction between the mother and her child through interrogative clause. However, this is one-sided interaction without the response from the addressee.

con	có hay	chăng
do you	know	
Subj	**Pred**	**Interrogative particle**

As mentioned in the theoretical framework, Vietnamese language does not have finite elements; therefore, interrogative clauses are identified by polar particles. In this case, the signal to realize the interrogative clause is particle *"có...chăng."* Interrogative mood is used when the speaker wants to ask for information. The clause is written under the form of interrogative and the mother seems to ask for the confirmation from her child (whether her child is aware of her love or not). From a different perspective, it is also a way to emphasize the love for her child. However, this aspect does not belong to the scope of the study; hence, the writer does not discuss in detail. The exclamative clause appears once in the song when the

mother talks about her child's future after the success of the resistance.

Tương lai con	đẹp	lắm
Your future	beautiful	
Subj	**Compl**	**Exclamative particle**

In Vietnamese language, the exclamative clause can be mistaken for the declarative clause for its similarity in terms of form. Hence, a number of typical particles listed to distinguish the exclamative from the declarative clause. In this case, the particle *"lắm"* acts as a distinguishing signal. This clause is written as the praise for the future of the child who will make great contributions to building

Thoáng	thấy đó	hình như	bóng… càng nhanh
	see	perhaps	
Circ: Adjct	**Pred**	**Mod (probability)**	**Compl**

The mother also believes that in the future, her child will devote his/her youth and energy to build a wealthier country.

Con	sẽ	góp phần
You	will	contribute
Subj	**Mod (probability)**	**Pred**

The second instance with modal operator *"phải"* is arranged in high degree group according to the classification of Halliday and Matthiessen (2014). This not only presents that the mothers feel a strong

his/her country after liberation.

4.2.2.2. Modality

Based on Halliday and Matthiessen (2014), modality is analyzed for modalization and modulation. Modalization is further analyzed for probability and usuality while modulation is for obligation and inclination. Table 9 shows that the usage of modality in two songs is in a limited number. In the song *Me yeu con,* two instances of probability (modalization) are found with mood adjunct *"hình như"* and modal operator *"sẽ"*. This kind of modalization in the song illustrates the degree of uncertainty. In other words, it is the prediction as well as the hope of the mother.

In the second song, two instances of modality are found, one of usuality (modalization) and one of obligation (modulation). The adjunct of frequency *"thường"* is deployed because it expresses how soldiers are attached to the army shirt sewn by mothers.

Tấm áo ấy	bấy lâu nay	con	thường	vẫn mặc
This army shirt	for ages	I	often	wear
Compl	**Circ: Adjct**	**Subj**	**Mod (usuality)**	**Pred**

sense of responsibility towards soldiers, some of whom are their children and considered as their children but shows their deep love for the soldiers.

nên các mẹ già	lại phải	thức	thâu đêm
so the old mothers	must	stay up	over night
Subj	**Mod (obligation)**	**Pred**	**Circ: Adjct**

5. Conclusion

5.1. The Image of Mother in Two Songs by Nguyen Van Ty

Regarding the findings in part 4, the writer now can answer two questions raised in the aim of the study. For the first question, *"How are two mother songs by Nguyen Van Ty constructed in terms of experiential meaning and interpersonal meaning?"* the analysis shows that the highest frequency of material process is employed in both songs. It appears entirely reasonable because two songs are composed during wartime; hence, material clauses focus on describing the activities (outer experience) of both mothers and soldiers at that time. In addition, the usage of mental and relational processes also contributes to depicting the sentiment between mothers – children and mothers – soldiers along with sketching the hardship of mothers in wartime and the suffering of battles. A small proportion of behavioural process that belongs to near material group is figured out in two songs. Most of behavioural verbs are employed to depict the behaviour and activity of mothers towards their children. With regard to interpersonal meaning, the writer can reach the conclusion that there is the usage of a large number of declarative clauses and an extremely small number of modal elements in two songs. This indicates that the composer Nguyen Van Ty would like to tell readers and listeners the two stories of maternal love in wartime. In other words, he aims to convey the message of how the wartime in Vietnam is and how the image of mothers in the wartime is. Although the number of modality expressing probability and obligation is humble, such modality expressions are of great contribution to depicting mothers' hope and prediction together with emphasizing the attachment between mothers and soldiers.

By answering the first question put forward in the research, the researcher can reach the conclusion about the image of mother represented in two songs by Nguyen Van Ty and answer to the second question *"How is the image of mother represented in two mother songs by Nguyen Van Ty?"* Three prominent features of the mother during wartime are observed in these two songs. Firstly, they are caring and devoted mothers. This point is indicated through material processes, behavioural processes and modality expressing obligation. Regardless of the hardship of life and war, the mothers try their best to take care of their children from the smallest things such as sewing the army shirt. Secondly, they are optimistic mothers. This point is revealed through material processes and modality expressing probability. With the success of the resistance, they believe that their children can do to build a better country and they also imagine how their children's future will be brighter. Thirdly, mental processes show that they love their children more than anything.

It can be concluded that the intentional usage of process types, mood and modality types in two songs by Nguyen Van Ty has brought the success in depicting the image of mother in wartime in Vietnam. They are heroic mothers who devote their whole life and youth to their children and their country.

5.2. Future Research

The research investigates two songs by Nguyen Van Ty at the rank of clause with two strands of functions including experiential and interpersonal meanings. A lot of work needs to be done to explore other aspects as well as give a more in-depth insight into two songs. For instance, in addition to the rank of clause, the rank of group can be examined. The lexical choice in two songs is also a noticeable point. Especially, the circumstantial elements are deployed to depict the image of mothers in

two songs. For instance, the circumstance of temporal and spatial is common in material process while the circumstance of manner (degree) is used in mental and relational processes. I hope that the future researches on two songs will fill the gaps mentioned above.

Despite some certain limitations, the research has gained the practical significance to learners and scholars taking an interest in SFL and translation. For people who are interested in SFL, this research is a useful source for them to see how experiential meaning and interpersonal meaning are realized through Transitivity and Mood resources in Vietnamese clauses. For people who study translation, this reminds them about ensuring the process types as well as modality expressions that are adopted intentionally by the author during the process of translating.

References

Anh Thơ offical. (n.d.). *Playlists* [YouTube channel]. Retrieved May 1, 2020, from https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=O9bdCujMlrw

Diep, Q. B. (2005). *Ngữ pháp tiếng Việt*. Vietnam Education Publishing House.

Eggins, S. (1994). *An introduction to systemic functional linguistics*. Pinter Publishers Ltd.

Halliday, M. A. K. (1994). *An introduction to functional grammar* (2rd ed.). Edward Arnold.

Halliday, M. A. K., & Matthiessen, C. I. M. (2004). *An introduction to functional grammar* (3rd ed.). Edward Arnold.

Halliday, M. A. K., & Matthiessen, C. I. M. (2014). *Halliday's introduction to functional grammar* (4th ed.). Routledge.

Hoang, V. V. (2005). *Ngữ pháp kinh nghiệm của cú tiếng Việt: Mô tả theo quan điểm chức năng hệ thống*. Science and Society Publishing house.

Hoang, V. V. (2006). *Introducing discourse analysis.* Vietnam Education Publishing House.

Hoang, V. V. (2012). *An experiential grammar of the Vietnamese clause*. Vietnam Education Publishing House.

Hoang, V. V. (2018). "Bánh trôi nước" and three English versions of translation: A systemic functional comparison. *VNU Journal of Foreign Studies, 34*(4), 1-35. https://doi.org/10.25073/2525-2445/vnufs.4279

Lyrics.vn. (2009). *Mẹ yêu con.* http://www.lyrics.vn/lyrics/7720-me-yeu-con.html

NCT. (2018, March 1). *Tấm áo chiến sĩ mẹ vá năm xưa.* https://www.nhaccuatui.com/bai-hat/tam-ao-chien-sy-me-va-nam-xua-trong-tan.dsPPS2YWBC6j.html

Ngo, D. P. (2007). *Hợp phần nghĩa liên nhân của câu trong ngữ pháp chức năng hệ thống*. Vietnam National University Press, Hanoi.

Nguyen, H. C. (2016, Mach 2). *Lời bài hát mẹ yêu con: Một khúc sử thi về tình mẫu tử của nhạc sĩ Nguyễn Văn Tý.* Tinmoi. https://tinmoi.vn/loi-bai-hat-me-yeu-con-mot-khuc-su-thi-ve-tinh-mau-tu-cua-nhac-si-nguyen-van-ty-011397737.html

Nguyen, T. H. (2012). Transitivity analysis of "heroic mother" by Hoa Pham. *International Journal of English Linguistics, 2*(4), 85-100. https://www.ccsenet.org/journal/index.php/ijel/article/view/17916

Nguyen, T. H. (2018). Femininity and female sexual desires in "The Lang Women": An analysis using Halliday's theory on transitivity. *Functional Linguistics, 5*(1), 1-16. https://functionallinguistics.springeropen.com/articles/10.1186/s40554-018-0060-1

Nhac.vn. (2017, July 4). *Tấm áo chiến sĩ mẹ vá năm xưa.* https://nhac.vn/bai-hat/tam-ao-chien-si-me-va-nam-xua-trong-tan-soYyzdx

Schleppegrell, M. J. (2004). *The language of schooling: A functional linguistics perspective*. Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Inc., Publishers.

Thai, M. D. (2004). *Metafunctional profile of the grammar of Vietnamese*. John Benjamins Publishing Company.

Trọng Tấn official. (n.d.). *Playlists* [YouTube channel]. Retrieved May 1, 2020, from https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=javaYP9IDEk

PHÂN TÍCH CÁC CA KHÚC VỀ MẸ
CỦA NHẠC SĨ NGUYỄN VĂN TÝ
TỪ QUAN ĐIỂM NGÔN NGỮ HỌC CHỨC NĂNG HỆ THỐNG

Tạ Thị Thu Hằng

Khoa Đào tạo và Bồi dưỡng Ngoại ngữ,
Trường Đại học Ngoại ngữ, ĐHQGHN, Phạm Văn Đồng, Cầu Giấy, Hà Nội, Việt Nam

Tóm tắt: Bài viết phân tích nghĩa kinh nghiệm được hiện thực hóa qua quá trình Chuyển tác và nghĩa liên nhân được hiện thực hóa qua Thức và Tình thái trong lời hai ca khúc về mẹ của tác giả Nguyễn Văn Tý. Kết quả của quá trình Chuyển tác, Thức và Tính thái sẽ cung cấp cho người viết hiểu biết tốt hơn về hình ảnh người mẹ trong thời chiến được khắc họa trong hai bài hát. Khung lí thuyết được sử dụng trong nghiên cứu là lí thuyết ngôn ngữ chức năng hệ thống. Đơn vị dữ liệu là tất cả các cú đơn được thu thập trong lời của hai bài hát. Kết quả nghiên cứu chỉ ra rằng xét về nghĩa kinh nghiệm, hầu hết các cú được sử dụng trong hai bài hát là cú vật chất và không có cú tạo lời hay tồn tại được tìm thấy trong hai bài hát. Xét về nghĩa liên nhân, cú khẳng định được dùng với tần suất cao nhất. Số cú nghi vấn và cảm thán được tìm thấy rất ít và không có sự xuất hiện của cú mệnh lệnh. Mặc dù sự xuất hiện của tình thái rất khiêm tốn trong hai bài hát, tuy nhiên chúng được sử dụng một cách rất hiệu quả. Kết quả nghiên cứu của hai bài hát có thể là nguồn tham khảo rất hữu ích đối với những sinh viên quan tâm đến phân tích tiếng Việt từ góc độ ngôn ngữ chức năng hệ thống.

Từ khóa: ngôn ngữ chức năng hệ thống, nghĩa kinh nghiệm, nghĩa liên nhân, chuyển tác, thức, tình thái

WHAT CAN WE LEARN FROM STUDENTS' WRITTEN REFLECTIONS IN AN INTERCULTURAL COMMUNICATION THEORETICAL COURSE?

Vu Thi Hoang Mai*

Faculty of Linguistics & Culture of English Speaking Countries,
VNU University of Languages and International Studies, Pham Van Dong, Cau Giay, Hanoi, Vietnam

Abstract: The implementation of intercultural communication (IC) courses has been excitedly scrutinized particularly in multicultural education and training environments. However, little has been talked about such courses as a compulsory theoretical subject at tertiary institutions, especially where communicating across cultures is not a mandatory daily practice. Inspired by the researched merits of reflective thinking, this paper investigates what a lecturer of such a course can learn from her students' assigned written reflections. The analysis, both quantitative and qualitative, of the reflections of eight classes of third year students at a language education university in Hanoi throughout an IC theoretical course has revealed informative implications with respect to: (1) the students' interest and critical thinking in particular issues and/or frameworks in IC; (2) the students' self-regulation in studying such a theoretical subject; (3) the students' reflection levels and their conceptualization of the knowledge and their own learning. This analysis also attempts to discover the effectiveness of reflective writing in an IC theoretical course at the investigated institution, thereby proposing some recommendations to the reflection pedagogy currently employed at the university.

Keywords: reflective thinking, reflective writing, self-regulated learning, intercultural communication, theoretical course

1. Introduction

The advent of leading-edge technology has been promoting and optimizing communication across cultures to the point that intercultural communication (or IC) has become an inevitable and more-exciting-than-ever human daily activity. This globalized phenomenon calls for such significant attention that intercultural communication competence (or ICC) has become a must in almost every walk of life. As a result, the discussions of IC have become not only a key concern in

international formal education curricula and in-service training program but also taken place in both theoretical formats and practical communicative skill building programs. The IC theoretical courses, whose alternative names might be Issues in international communication, Cultural interactions in an independent world or the like, for instance, is present in prestigious universities worldwide for both undergraduates and postgraduates, such as University of Washington[1] in the US, the

---

* Corresponding author.
  Email address: hoangmai2308@gmail.com

[1] www.jsis.washington.edu/programs/undergraduate/international-studies/#major

University of Auckland[2] in New Zealand, Nottingham Trent University[3] in the UK, the University of Hong Kong[4], and National University of Singapore[5] to name a few. In terms of theoretical texts on cultural and intercultural communication concepts, numerous well-known scholars, for example Baldwin et al. (2014), Lustig and Koester (2010), Jackson (2014), Zhu (2014), have published their works to either "present simple explanations of things for the student new to cultural issues" (Baldwin et al., 2014, p. xii) or elucidate the way intercultural communication takes place daily, how appropriateness and effectiveness are obtained in such interactions, the importance of as well as research approaches to studying language and culture altogether (Zhu, 2014, p. i), and even look at intercultural communication from an interdisciplinary approach like Nguyen P. M. (2017). More practical are such compilations like Apadaile and Schill's (2008) "Critical incidents for intercultural communication: An interactive tool for developing awareness, knowledge, and skills" which serves as "a ready-to-use curricular and training guide that will allow" educators and service provider "to introduce the concepts of cultural competence in their learning settings" (p. 3), or "52 activities for improving cross-cultural communication" by Stringer and Cassiday (2009) for adult learners in "corporate or educational environments throughout the world" (p. xii).

The omnipresence of IC discussions results in a rich research body in terms of the tools and techniques of communication (e.g., Bazgan & Norel, 2013; Dalib, Harun & Yusoff, 2014; Gray, Connolly, & Brown, 2019; Holmes & O'Neill, 2012; Koester & Lustig, 2015; Lieberman & Gamst, 2015; Peng & Wu, 2016, 2019; Valeev & Kondrat'eva, 2015; Zhang & Zhou, 2019), and the degree of necessity of ICC (e.g., Dănescu, 2015; Ihtiyar & Ahmad, 2014). In the meantime, very little literature can be found on the conduct of IC as an official theoretical subject at tertiary institutions, especially in such contexts where IC is virtually not a mandatory daily practice in every domain as Vietnam.

The IC theoretical course launched at the surveyed university caters for the third and fourth year students whose English language proficiency is at level B2 or C1 in the CEFR. This course is intended to promote students' thinking and reasoning capacity via introducing basic concepts and processes of cross-cultural and intercultural communication. It offers various opportunities for students to acquire an informed understanding and hence an appreciation of the dynamics of culture, the diversity of values and perceptions of peoples from different cultures and even from the same culture that give meaning to people's lives and drive their actions and behaviours. This understanding will help them to reflect on personal values and practices, and to draw implications for their intercultural communication and intercultural understanding and appreciation of the cultural similarities and differences. Besides, the course is also designed to introduce a critical perspective of intercultural communication, from which, students engage as responsible citizens in critical dialogues that help understand not

---

[2] www.auckland.ac.nz/en/study/study-options/find-a-study-option/transnational-cultures-and-creative-practice/undergraduate.html

[3] www.ntu.ac.uk/course/arts-and-humanities/ug/ba-hons-communication-and-society-and-global-studies

[4] www.english.hku.hk/course/ENGL7105#Course_Contents_and_Topics

[5] https://fass.nus.edu.sg/cnm/undergraduate-minor-cultural-studies/

only themselves better but also the needs of others, of the community and the world at large. As individuals, students are hoped to be empowered with more knowledge of cultures to make their own personal choice. The course includes both lectures and in-class tutorials, employing discussion of readings, students' presentations, films and documentary, and case analysis. In terms of assessments, this course requires the students to submit three written reflections on their favorite or pondering topics or/and concepts, a group project, and a final essay assignment which respectively account for 10%, 30% and 60% of their grades. To avoid the students' overloaded work towards the semester end, their reflections were collected in weeks five, nine and thirteen of the semester.

As a lecturer of IC courses at my university and a used-to-be overseas student with intercultural communication experiences, I believe that IC, by nature, is a process in which interlocutors unceasingly learn from self and others' intercultural experiences, both success and failure, to come into terms with ethno-culturally different people's ideologies, thereby being able to empower themselves as global communicators as well as sustain peace and harmony. Accordingly, ICC in my opinion should be considered as dynamic and iterative rather than accomplished and closed; therefore, I maintain that it is much more significant to look at the formative process of receiving, considering, analyzing and internalizing ideas, concepts and practices provided by courses of IC rather than the results of the learners' summative tests. Encouraged by this belief, this paper chooses to investigate the written reflections of the attendants of an IC course at the examined university to uncover these students' responses to and during the course.

2. Study Objectives

The current paper aims to uncover the pedagogical implications that a lecturer of an IC theoretical course can derive from her students' written reflections. Specifically, it intends to answer the following questions:

a. What theoretical topics in the IC course are most interested to the participants?

b. How do the participants conceptualize the lectured concepts?

c. Is the current use of the written reflections as effective as expected?

The results of the study are hoped to provide me as a researcher with insights into these students' learning process during the course, and at the same time to assist me as a teacher to better understand my students, thereby making appropriate adjustments to my teaching practice. Moreover, the answers to the research question are also hoped to generate some useful recommendations as to the use of reflective writing in such theoretical courses as well as for further studies on relevant topics.

3. Theoretical Backgrounds: Reflective Thinking and Writing

Learner reflection has also rendered a rich body of research as to the tendency of learner reflective thinking tendency (e.g., Şahin & Óvez, 2012) as well as various effects of using reflections to assess and enhance learning outcomes (e.g., Burner, 2014; Romova & Andrew, 2011; YuekMing & Manaf, 2014), learners' motivation and autonomy (e.g., Alexiou & Paraskeva, 2010; Burdina, 2013; Yastibas & Yastibas, 2015), learners' critical thinking (e.g., Cargas, Williams & Rosenberg, 2017; Carter, Creedy & Sidebotham, 2017; Tuncer & Ozeren, 2012), and faculty professional development (e.g., Allan & Driscoll, 2014; Donohoe, 2015) to name a few.

According to Dewey (1991), as cited in Şahin and Óvez (2012, p. 569), reflection refers to an active and thoughtful process of analyzing any belief or knowledge that helps people conclude or make decisions. Likewise, Boud and Walker (1985) also emphasize the significance of reflection as an effective ability that assists people to "recapture their experience, think about it, mull it over, and evaluate it" (as cited in YuekMing & Manaf, 2014, p. 974). So important and effective is the ability to reflect that it is deemed to be able to record learners' conceptualizations of unseen understandings and experiences. Moreover, through the process of reflecting, learners' assumptions of prior knowledge are contextualized and critically reasoned in the light of the new knowledge. YuekMing and Manaf (2014) therefore believe that those learners required to reflect on the knowledge "are more likely to remember it and use that knowledge later" (p. 974). LaBoskey (1993) goes on to contend that reflection also leads to changes in one's belief, attitude, value and emotion.

Maclean (1987, as cited in Andrusyszyn & Davie, 1997) maintains that reflection can either happen naturally in daily practice or be built through discussions, journals, reading and self-assessment exercises. Among these tools, journal writing has been extensively employed thanks to its capacity to "promote growth, help reconcile the personal with the professional self, and document the writer's growth, development and transformation" (Henderson, Napan & Monteiro, 2004, p. 358). It is also believed that reflective writing helps further improve learning outcome assessment and faculty professional development (Allan & Driscoll, 2014) as well as learners' thinking, communication skills while assisting them to immerse themselves into the discipline's community (Yuekming & Manaf, 2014).

Using reflective writing, learners can dig deep into their knowledge either deliberatively or dialectically. Deliberative reflection refers to how learners' knowledge of an issue can guide their practice; whereas, dialectical reflection is more idiosyncratic as the student's experience is transformed and reconstructed based on their personal knowledge of the topic (Valli, 1993). In both forms of reflection lies the theories of the focused issue as the learner has to read about or listen to the relevant scholarship, which makes their reflective writing activity an integrated one. Knoch and Sitajalabhorn (2013) define integrated writing tasks as those that go through six steps, including: (1) original text analysis, (2) ideas selection, (3) ideas synthesis, (4) paraphrasing, (5) ideas organizing, and (6) application of cohesion, coherence and source acknowledgement.

Such reflective compositions are deemed to be able to evaluate learners' outcomes and critical thinking (Yuekming & Manaf, 2014) as well as autonomous learning (Burner, 2014). In order to analyze these writing pieces, Valli (1003) suggested two main approaches, namely, the *sociological approach* and the *psychological approach* (Henderson, Napan & Monteiro, 2004, p. 359). While the former considers the proof of learners' internalization of knowledge the most important evidence of reflectivity, the latter emphasizes the learner's writing style. In another fashion, LaBoskey (1993) proposes that those written reflections can be examined as to either the focus or the level of reflection.

Researchers such as Van (1977), Mezirow (1997), Henderson, Napan, and Monteiro (2004), Jacobs and Murray (2010) have come up with various models of reflective thinking levels, ranging respectively from a three-level model to a six-level one. Although segmented into different numbers of levels with diverse labels, these frameworks all share three basic

stages of reflective thinking, namely, unexamined technical reception of knowledge, reflection in practice and critical reflection on action. However, this current study specifically employs the five-level model of reflection by Henderson, Napan, and Monteiro (2004), which consists of *reporting, responding, relating, reasoning,* and *reconstructing*. This model, which is most attached to the practice of reflective writing, can help explore how deep the student has worked with an issue.

4. Methodology

4.1. Participants and Data Collection

The data used in this study comprised the written reflections provided by the third-year students from eight classes of the examined university. At the beginning of the course, the students had been provided with common guiding questions for the three reflections which were submitted in weeks 5, 9 and 13. The rubrics asked the students to discuss the issues of their own interest or concern, as to their evaluation of the novelty of the theories, their effects on the students' perspectives, and the potential application of the theories into their daily as well as intercultural communication. Since one of the goals of the course is to arm the learners with research skills in theoretical disciplines, scientific fidelity is emphasized in the requirements of the reflections. As a result, the reflections require appropriate acknowledgement of sources and APA citations. These writings were then returned to the students in weeks 6, 10 and 14 with grading results and the lecturer's feedback in terms of the development of reflective writing and skills, ideas organization, critical thinking and source acknowledgement.

The researcher had asked the students for ethical approval of using their writings for this study. After being collected, the students' papers were then classified based on the sequence of submission and reflected issues. Since there were papers that were identified to commit plagiarism or be hastily composed minutes before the submission deadlines and thus were discarded, there were 291 papers qualified for analysis.

4.2. Data Analysis

4.2.1. Analysis Frameworks

Inspired by the reviewed literature on reflective writing, these dialectical reflections were analyzed both quantitatively and qualitatively using mainly a mixed framework of Zimmerman's *self-regulation in learning* (2000, p. 14), *integrated writing strategies* (Knoch & Sitajalabhorn, 2013) and the *five-level model of reflection* (Henderson, Napan & Monteiro, 2004).

Self-regulated learning, including three phases of forethought, performance and self-reflection, refers to learners' own planned and repeatedly adjusted thinking, motivations and behaviors to achieve their learning goals (Zimmerman, 2000, p. 14). The forethought phase is characterized with motivation, self-efficacy, goal setting and learning plans. In the performance phase, learners need to control their attention, keep records of learning notes, tests and texts, and closely monitor their tasks. The final phase of self-reflection is marked with learners' comparing performance with a goal and evaluating their results. However, this current paper only focuses on the participants' written reflections per se rather than the whole process of writing. Therefore, the participants' forethought and self-evaluation phase in their self-regulation was not included in this study.

Knoch and Sitajalabhorn's (2013) definition of integrated writing task can help discover whether the students understand

thoroughly what genre to write, what materials to read or consult before writing, what organizational structure to use in their reflections, how to transform the language used in the source text, and how to acknowledge the original ideas inside of text or afterwards. These indicators might be used as snippets of evidence of self-regulation. The analysis of the students' self-regulated learning was based on the following adapted framework of Knoch and Sitajalabhorn's (2013).

Table 1

Integrated Writing Strategies for Written Reflection

(Adapted from Knoch & Sitajalabhorn's definition of integrated writing tasks, 2013)

	Integrated Writing Strategies	Evidence
1	**Mining the source text for ideas**	The student identifies in the requisite readings or extensive sources the location and origin of the reflected theories/ideas/concepts. She/he provides a brief review of the relevant literature.
2	**Selecting ideas**	The student cites or gives comments on other people's ideas, compares and contrasts between chosen ideas. The selected ideas indicate a sequence of reasoning and unite in a single relevant topic.
3	**Synthesizing ideas from one or more source texts**	The student makes connections between ideas, critically analyzes the literature and its relevance to reality. She/he can identify the significance of the theories/concepts and reach satisfactory conclusions.
4	**Transforming the language used in the input**	The student provides a sufficient summary of the reading contents and/or appropriately paraphrases others' ideas.
5	**Organizing ideas**	The student logically arranges sequences of information and ideas, showing clear progression throughout the reflection. She/he presents a clear central topic within a paragraph or evident cohesion in her/his writing.
6	**Using stylistic conventions such as connecting ideas and acknowledging sources**	Punctuation, cohesive and coherent devices are used properly. APA style is utilized accurately to acknowledge the sources.

Besides, the model of reflection level by Henderson, Napan, and Monteiro (2004) can examine how deep a student works with an issue as well as how his/her "continual self-awareness of the situation and the learning" develops throughout three reflections. The students' critical thinking capacity could also be investigated regarding the ability to report and logically analyze the relevant experience, make connections with other situations, evaluate how it fits with the theories, how practical the theories deem to be, and then synthesize all ideas to modify or refine future communication (Henderson, Napan & Monteiro, 2004). Following this model, each reflection was given 1 more point for each level reached.

Table 2

Five Levels of Reflection

(Adapted from Henderson, Napan & Monteiro's model of reflection level, 2004)

Level of Reflection	Evidence	Grade
Level 1 – Reporting	The student describes, reports or retells with minimum transformation and no added observations or insights.	1/5
Level 2 – Responding	The student uses source data in some way, but with little transformation or conceptualization.	2/5
Level 3 – Relating	The student identifies aspects of the data which have personal meaning or which connect with their prior or current experience. The student gives a superficial explanation of the reason why something has happened or identifies something that they need or plan to do, or change.	3/5
Level 4 – Reasoning	The student integrates the data into an appropriate relationship involving a high level of transformation and conceptualization and seeks deep understanding of why something has happened, exploring the relationship of theory and practice in some depth.	4/5
Level 5 - Reconstructing	The student displays a high level of abstract thinking to generalize and / or apply learning. The student draws original conclusions from their reflections, generalizes from their experience, extracts general principles, formulates a personal theory, or takes a position on an issue. The student extracts and internalizes the personal significance of their learning and/or plans their own further learning on the basis of their reflections.	5/5

4.2.2. Analysis tools

Regarding the quantitative data, the analysis followed simple calculation and ranking procedures of reflections which had the same topic or discussed similar issues. All the investigated writings started with the participants' statements of their favourite or concerned issues, which allowed me to categorize and rank their learning interests.

As to the qualitative data, the content and thematic analyses of the students' reflections were employed in this study to obtain more understanding with respect to the students' responses to the lessons and any other learning issues during the course. The surveyed reflections were encoded following the incorporated frameworks mentioned above.

5. Findings and Discussion

The analysis of 291 written reflections of the attendants of the aforementioned IC theoretical course revealed interesting information regarding the participants' learning interests, their self-regulated learning, as well as their reflection level and conceptualization of the learned issues.

5.1. Participants' Learning Interests

The results showed that six out of ten main lectures of theories were chosen for reflection with the ranking of favorite issues as follow:

Table 3

Participants' Interested Issues/Concepts

Ranking	Interested issues/concepts	Number of reflections
1	Actions, ethics and research	89
2	Identity (social identity, ideology, politics of identity)	53
3	Global media & intercultural communication (representations, social dramas)	45
4	Cultural patterns (cultural values)	38
5	Cultural biases (stereotypes, discrimination)	32
6	Cultural taxonomies (Hall's high & low context cultures)	21
7	Other issues & group presentations	13
	Total	*291*

The lecture of *Action, ethics and research* with *ethics* being the central concept was reflected by the most students, many of whom shared that it is eye-opening because before the lesson, they "*thought morality and ethics were the same because they are similarly translated in English-Vietnamese dictionaries*" (e.g., student 3). The elaboration on *ethics* in interpersonal and intercultural communication was perceived as useful and influential because it provided information that went beyond or even against what the students had learnt before. These participants acknowledged that the way they looked at good deeds or charity had been challenged in the session and it "*will never be the same anymore*" (e.g., student 85). Some admitted that their own "*traditional moral values may be inappropriate*" (e.g., student 17) in various communication encounters across cultures.

Identity, Cultural patterns, Cultural biases and *Cultural taxonomies* came second, fourth, fifth and sixth respectively in the list of the most favorite lectures because most of the writers found themselves " *in concept-related stories*" (e.g., student 59). In their reflections, many of the students clarified their understanding of *identity, ideology, cultural values, stereotypes* and *discrimination* through examples of their own communicative experiences (e.g., students 1, 2, 24, 38, 47, 78, 92) or relationships with friends and/or families (e.g., students 4, 9, 66, 97). 43 participants also shared similar positive responses to the lecturer's narratives of her own identity development, discrimination experiences or her own analysis of cultural values through cultural artefacts. According to these students, although the facts and stories exemplified in their course books were interesting and informative, the lecturer's narratives accompanied with step-by-step analysis and association with the theoretical concepts were "*more authentic*" (e.g., student 15, 29), "*insightful*" (e.g., students 23, 40) and made the lessons "*more fun*" (e.g., students 1, 11, 15, 26, 83, 96) as well as "*approachable*" (e.g., students 3, 22, 34, 50).

Global media and intercultural communication was the third most appealing lesson for providing the students with information they "*had never known or cared about*" (e.g., student 66). Although exposed to various genres of media, few students were aware of or had motivation to explore media-culture related issues, such as the agenda-setting function of media, the effects of global media on intercultural communication like framing social

acceptability and understanding about difference, free expression and representational absence (e.g., student 74, 83, 89). Armed with the maxims of Grice's (1975) cooperative principles in a previous lesson, the students believed that the theories provided in the lesson of global media and intercultural communication could help them "*filter the information transmitted better*" and "*join the conversations with more caution and deliberation*" (e.g., students 23, 48).

It could be concluded that the theoretical IC lessons which appealed to the students most were those that could either challenge the students' existing perspectives and values, vividly reflect their daily practices, or provide them with insightful analyses on frequently neglected issues. Additionally, the students showed more interest in the lessons in which the theories are elaborated on by the lecturer's own experiences with witticisms. In the face of an eclectic syllabus of IC which entitles the responsible lecturers to decide what contents to lecture like that in my faculty, these results could very well function as a reference for a most welcomed agenda by prospective learners of the subject.

5.2. Participants' Self-Regulated Learning

Based on the integrated writing strategies for written reflections adapted from Knoch and Sitajalabhorn's definition of integrated writing tasks (2013), the analysis of the data revealed that the participants were not highly self-regulated in studying this theoretical subject.

A modest number of the papers (accounting for 34.5%) showed signs of mining different texts in order to get ideas for their reflections. The most used included the course books (provided by the lecturer at the semester beginning), folklores, blogs about cultures, and memoirs or autobiographies on cultures. These reference sources, regretfully, were only cursorily

mentioned in the reflections instead of being analyzed or evaluated. Notably, lecture notes and examples from the course books or the lecturer were selected for the compositions of all participants, only one fifth of whom brought up examples or experiences of their own. Moreover, there were very few signs of systematic selection of ideas to show a sequence of reasoning, comparison or contrast. Regarding ideas synthesis, only two students made connection between ideas, critically analyzing the literature and its relevance to reality. They could identify the significance of the theories/concepts and reach satisfactory and idiosyncratic conclusions. For example, after reflecting on the lesson of cultural biases, student 23 concluded that "*stereotyping [was] not bad itself. It [was] the way how people use stereotypes to judge others that lead to negative effects. Thus each person should wisely take advantage of them to be well-prepared in the dynamic community*." Or when commenting on the question of "Who am I?" in the lecture of identity and analyzing the correlation between identity, power and fame, student 40 remarked that it "*[was] not just as simple as it used to be. It [was] beyond the meaning of a name [...] Identity could also be a double edged sword: it can give one power or take away his life*." Last but not least, although the reflections were composed following the basic format of English essays and ideas are paraphrased, there was no appropriate acknowledgement of the source texts. Importantly, despite receiving the lecturer's feedback on a previous reflection, there was hardly any change to these listed writing issues throughout the three submissions.

These results indicated that the participants' level of self-regulation was quite low as they either did not have the skills to well control their attention, effectively keep learning records, closely monitor their tasks, or they were not motivated to do so. This did not go in line

with previous studies of similar domain (e.g., Henderson, Napan & Monteiro, 2004; Alexiou & Paraskeva, 2010) in which the participants were documented to be more engaged and enthusiastic about their learning and the students' writing were recognized as "a scaffolding approach of understanding and engagement" (Alexiou & Paraskeva, 2010). This discrepancy may lie in the fact that the participants in the previous studies had to continuously compose weekly e-writings throughout a 12-week course and received immediate

feedback as well as lecturers' close monitoring for their subsequent writings thanks to online asynchronous communication.

5.3. Participants' Level of Reflection

The analyzed data depicts a complicated picture of the participants' level of reflection, their progress in reflective thinking, their conceptualization and reconceptualization of the theories as well as their learning.

Figure 1

Reflection Levels Through Reflective Writings
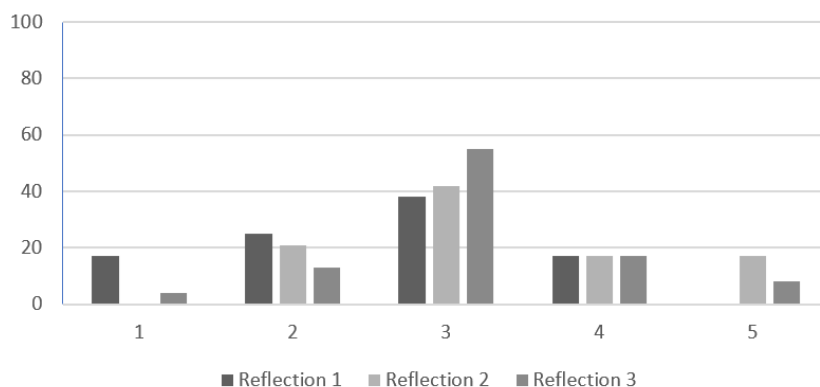
It is obvious from Figure 1 that throughout three submissions, almost half of the participants achieved level 3 of reflection at which they identified theoretical aspects that related with their prior or current experience and gave superficial explanations why something worked the way it did. At this level, another pattern was found among this group of participants that they all agreed with the lecturer's explanations of the theories and took her examples as standard exemplifications in their reflections, thereby glorifying the theories without any critical analysis or challenge. Specifically, many of these unconditional proponents of the lectured theories made "promises" to "*change [their] perspectives/approach*" (e.g., students 4, 8, 27, 33, 59, 61, 77, 90) or acknowledged the effects of the lessons on their thinking in that they "*completely changed [their] point of view*" (e.g., student

14, 18, 21, 56, 79, 85), "*made [them] think about [their] behaviors again*" (e.g., students 7, 19, 54, 75, 96) or "*made [them] realize [they] were wrong*" (e.g., student 91). Student 82 even confirmed that after learning about ethics in intercultural communication, she could "*have a full awareness of the situation and the right behavior*" and "*be able to deal with intercultural issues.*" Apparently, this group of participants conceptualized intercultural competence as approachable only via learning such a theoretical course and the lectured theories as the key to correct right from wrong.

The above chart also presents an improvement in reflective thinking of 47.8% of the participants who managed to raise their reflection levels in subsequent submissions, mostly from level 1 to 3. This

result implies a fact that a great number of participants did not know how to write a learning reflection until they got feedback from their instructor. Meanwhile, a modest number of 8 cases were able to improve their levels from 3 or 4 to 5 by showing effort in extensive analyses of multiple materials as well as in depth exploration of the relationship between theories and realities. For example, when reflecting on the concept of ideology and her family relationship, student 66 admitted that the theory helped her understand that her belief and aggressive communication with her mother "*unconsciously*" resulted from her upbringing witnessing her parents' frequent quarrels. This group of students not only criticized the practicality and applicability of the theories and presented their own positions, but also drew original conclusions from their reflections. For instance, student 40 expressed his interest in the lesson of cultural patterns and cultural conceptualisations because it helped him not only "*get to know about the rough definitions but also about the way to know and understand a thing.*" For the participants similar to student 40, what mattered is the development of their metacognition, their ability to justify how things work culturally rather than knowing what cultures to study, thereby "*evaluating everything in multiple aspects, raising related questions to it rather than trusting the information or not*" (e.g., student 23).

Significantly, 21.7% of the participants maintained their performances at level 3, another 21.7% fluctuated between level 3 and 4, and 8.8% gained lower levels of reflection in the subsequent papers (from level 3 to 1). The population whose reflection level did not change might not have writing motivation in the first place. The others, however, seemingly indicated a loss of interest in reflecting their learning toward the end of the course. This could be explained by a multitude of reasons which,

although not the focus of this study and hence not supported by the current data, may align with previous research of similar concerns (e.g., Rushton & Duggan, 2013; Abednia, Hovassapian, Teimournezhad & Ghanbari, 2013; Vassilaki, 2017). Firstly, it is the fact that at my university, reflection writing is not practiced as frequently as "the still dominant, prestigious genre of the academic essay" (Vassilaki, 2017) in students' official learning products. As a result, the participants are not familiar with the narrative nature of reflective writing, thus reproducing "experts' views rather than their own thoughts" or just finishing the assignment as it is compulsory (Abednia, Hovassapian, Teimournezhad & Ghanbari, 2013). Moreover, lack of thorough understanding of the topic can also demotivate the students because without analytical reading of the assigned texts and proactive engagement in class activities, the students cannot obtain good preparation necessary for writing (Abednia, Hovassapian, Teimournezhad & Ghanbari, 2013). The data of this paper actually documents cursory understanding and even inaccurate explanations of the theories of the participants whose reflection levels fluctuated between 2 and 3 or decreased over time. For example, student 30 chose to reflect on cultural biases against LGBT community, yet she herself concluded that she had to protect her LGBT friends, which in turn implicitly denoted her subconscious stereotype of LGBT people as weak and vulnerable. Many other participants also wrongly repeated the definitions of the components of cultural patterns or the outward expressions of cultural intolerance. Last but not least, 17 students got demotivated after getting low scores for their initial or previous reflections (Rushton & Duggan, 2013). In fact, the reasons for the participants' loss of writing motivation in this study need more investigation to be confirmed.

6. Conclusion

This mixed method study reports the use of 97 junior students' written reflections as formative assessment in an intercultural communication theoretical course at University of Languages and International Studies in Hanoi. It is discovered that the participants are most interested in learning about ethics, identity, media, cultural patterns, cultural biases and cultural taxonomies and their roles in intercultural communication. However, the research also reveals a low level of self-regulation in writing reflections as compulsory assignments due to the evidence of unsatisfactory control of attention, learning record keeping and task monitoring. In terms of reflective thinking, on average the participants achieve level 3 according to the five-level model proposed by Henderson, Napan and Monteiro (2004). At this level the students mainly relate aspects of the theories with personal meaning or prior and current experience, and give superficial, sometimes inaccurate, explanations to socio-cultural phenomena. Glorification of the theories or pseudo changes of beliefs or behaviors are also popular among this group of these students. Although a small number of students acknowledge the importance of and express their interest in the development of their reflective capacity thanks to such reflection procedures, it is also suggested in this study that the current reflective writing procedure is not as effective as expected in promoting the students' critical thinking, professional transformation and metacognitive growth, which only happens to a modest number of the participants.

Despite the existing limitations such as uninvestigated student pre-writing activities and student responses to the lecturer's feedback after each submission, this study still well assists the teacher researcher to understand the participants' learning interests, their level of learning autonomy, reflective capacity and knowledge conceptualization. It is advisable that the pedagogy of written reflections in the current course should be altered in terms of closer writing mentoring, increasing frequency of submissions, more various feedback modes and speeding feedback immediacy. Moreover, further research is needed to work out ways of motivating students to learn theoretical subjects and enhance their self-regulation in such courses.

References

Abednia, A., Hovassapian, A., Teimournezhad, S., & Ghanbari, N. (2013). Reflective journal writing: Exploring in-service EFL teachers' perceptions. *System, 41*(3), 503-514. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2013.05.003

Alexiou, A., & Paraskeva, F. (2010). Enhancing self-regulated learning skills through the implementation of an e-portfolio tool. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences, 2*(2), 3048-3054. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sbspro.2010.03.463

Allan, E. G., & Driscoll, D. L. (2014). The three-fold benefit of reflective writing: Improving program assessment, student learning, and faculty professional development. *Assessing Writing, 21*, 37-55. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.asw.2014.03.001

Andrusyszyn, M., & Davie L. (1997), Facilitating reflection through interactive journal writing in an online graduate course: A qualitative study. *Journal of Distance Education, 12*(1/2), 103-126. http://cade.athabascau.ca/vol12.1/andrusyszyndavie.html

Bazgan, M., & Norel, M. (2013). Explicit and implicit assessment of intercultural competence. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences, 76*, 95-99. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sbspro.2013.04.080

Burdina, S. (2013). Motivating students to study a theoretical course through reflective writing. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences, 93*, 2180-2185. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sbspro.2013.10.184

Burner, T. (2014). The potential formative benefits of portfolio assessment in second and foreign language writing contexts: A review of the

literature. *Studies in Educational Evaluation, 43,* 139-149. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.stueduc.2014.03.002

Cargas, S., Williams, S., & Rosenberg, M. (2017). An approach to teaching critical thinking across disciplines using performance tasks with a common rubric. *Thinking Skills and Creativity, 26,* 24-37. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tsc.2017.05.005

Carter, A. G., Creedy, D. K., & Sidebotham, M. (2017). Critical thinking evaluation in reflective writing: Development and testing of Carter Assessment of Critical Thinking in Midwifery (Reflection). *Midwifery, 54,* 73-80. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.midw.2017.08.003

Dalib, S., Harun, M., & Yusoff, N. (2014). Reconceptualizing intercultural competence: A phenomenological investigation of students' intercultural experiences. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences, 155,* 130-135. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sbspro.2014.10.268

Dănescu, E. (2015). Intercultural education from the perspective of training didactic competences. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences, 180,* 537-542. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sbspro.2015.02.156

Donohoe, A. (2015). Reflective writing: Articulating an alternative pedagogy. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences, 186,* 800-804. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sbspro.2015.04.091

Gray, J. S., Connolly, J. P., & Brown, M. A. (2019). Measuring intercultural knowledge and competence in college essays: Does a performance-based rubric have construct validity? *Studies in Educational Evaluation, 62,* 142-148. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.stueduc.2019.05.007

Hargreaves, E. (2013). Inquiring into children's experiences of teacher feedback: Reconceptualising assessment for learning. *Oxford Review of Education, 39*(2), 229-246. http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/03054985.2013.787922

Henderson, K., Napan, K., & Monteiro, S. (2004). Encouraging reflective learning: An online challenge. In R. Atkinson, C. McBeath, D. Jonas-Dwyer & Philips (Eds.), *Beyond the comfort zone: Proceedings of the 21st ASCILITE Conference* (pp. 357-364). ASCILITE. http://www.ascilite.org.au/conferences/perth04/procs/henderson.html

Holmes, P., & O'Neill, G. (2012). Developing and evaluating intercultural competence: Ethnographies of intercultural encounters. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations, 36*(5), 707-718. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijintrel.2012.04.010

Ihtiyar, A., & Ahmad, F. S. (2014). Intercultural communication competence as a key activator of purchase intention. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences, 150,* 590-599. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sbspro.2014.09.078

Jacobs, G., & Murray, M. (2010). Developing critical understanding by teaching action research to undergraduate psychology students. *Educational Action Research*, *18*(3), 319-335.

Knoch, U., & Sitajalabhorn, W. (2013). A closer look at integrated writing tasks: Towards a more focussed definition for assessment purposes. *Assessing Writing, 18*(4), 300-308. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.asw.2013.09.003

Koester, J., & Lustig, M. W. (2015). Intercultural communication competence: Theory, measurement, and application. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations, 48,* 20-21. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijintrel.2015.03.006

LaBoskey, V. (1993). A conceptual framework for reflection in preservice teacher education. In J. Calderhead & P. Gates (Eds.), *Conceptualising reflection in teacher development.* The Falmer Press.

Lieberman, D. A., & Gamst, G. (2015). Intercultural communication competence revisited: Linking the intercultural and multicultural fields. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations, 48,* 17-19. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijintrel.2015.03.007

Mezirow, J. (1997). Transformative learning: Theory to practice. *New Directions for Adult & Continuing Education*, *74*, 5-12.

Peng, R.-Z., & Wu, W.-P. (2016). Measuring intercultural contact and its effects on intercultural competence: A structural equation modeling approach. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations, 53,* 16-27. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijintrel.2016.05.003

Peng, R.-Z., & Wu, W.-P. (2019). Measuring communication patterns and intercultural transformation of international students in cross-cultural adaptation. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations, 70,* 78-88. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijintrel.2019.03.004

Romova, Z., & Andrew, M. (2011). Teaching and assessing academic writing via the portfolio: Benefits for learners of English as an additional language. *Assessing Writing, 16*(2), 111-122. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.asw.2011.02.005

Rushton, D., & Duggan, C. (2013). Impact of culture on reflective writing in masters level students. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences, 93*, 956-963. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sbspro.2013.09.310

Şahin, G. G., & Óvez, F. T. D. (2012). An investigation of prospective teachers' reflective thinking tendency. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences, 55*, 568-574. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sbspro.2012.09.538

Tuncer, M., & Ozeren, E. (2012). Prospective teacher's evaluations in terms of using reflective thinking skills to solve problems. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences, 51*, 666-671. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sbspro.2012.08.221

Valeev, A. A., & Kondrat'eva, I. G. (2015). Axiological approach to the development of students' intercultural competences by foreign language means. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences, 191*, 361-365. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sbspro.2015.04.377

Van Manen, M. (1977). Linking ways of knowing with ways of being practical. *Curriculum Inquiry, 6*, 205-228.

Vassilaki, E. (2017). Reflective writing, reflecting on identities: The construction of writer identity in student teachers' reflections. *Linguistics and Education, 42*, 43-52. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.linged.2017.08.001

Yastibas, A. E., & Yastibas, G. C. (2015). The use of e-portfolio-based assessment to develop students' self-regulated learning in English language teaching. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences, 176*, 3-13. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sbspro.2015.01.437

YuekMing, H., & Manaf, L. A. (2014). Assessing learning outcomes through students' reflective thinking. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences, 152*, 973-977. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sbspro.2014.09.352

Zhang, X., & Zhou, M. (2019). Interventions to promote learners' intercultural competence: A meta-analysis. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations, 71*, 31-47. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijintrel.2019.04.006

Zimmerman, B. J. (2000). Attaining self-regulation: A social cognitive perspective. In M. Boekaerts, P. R. Pintrich, & M. Zeidner (Eds.), *Handbook of self-regulation* (pp. 13-39). Academic Press.

GIẢNG VIÊN THẤY GÌ
TỪ BÀI VIẾT CHIÊM NGHIỆM CỦA SINH VIÊN
TRONG HỌC PHẦN LÍ THUYẾT GIAO TIẾP LIÊN VĂN HÓA?

Vũ Thị Hoàng Mai

Trường Đại học Ngoại ngữ, Đại học Quốc gia Hà Nội,
Phạm Văn Đồng, Cầu Giấy, Hà Nội, Việt Nam

Tóm tắt: Các khóa học Giao tiếp liên văn hóa đã và đang được nghiên cứu rộng rãi, đặc biệt ở các môi trường giáo dục và đào tạo đa văn hóa. Tuy nhiên, những khóa học Giao tiếp liên văn hóa như một môn học lí thuyết bắt buộc ở các trường cao đẳng và đại học vẫn ít được nghiên cứu, đặc biệt ở những nơi mà giao tiếp liên văn hóa không phải là hoạt động thiết yếu thường nhật. Lấy cảm hứng từ những tác dụng đã được nghiên cứu của tư duy chiêm nghiệm, bài viết trình bày kết quả phân tích định tính và định lượng các bài viết chiêm nghiệm của sinh viên năm thứ 3 tại một trường đại học về học phần lí thuyết Giao tiếp liên văn hóa mà họ tham gia. Kết quả phân tích cho thấy những thông tin hữu ích về: (1) mối quan tâm và tư duy phê phán của sinh viên đối với một số vấn đề và lí thuyết trong giao tiếp liên văn hóa; (2) tính tự kỉ luật trong học tập của sinh viên trong một học phần lí thuyết; (3) cấp độ tư duy chiêm nghiệm và ý niệm của sinh viên về kiến thức được học và về việc học. Nghiên cứu này cũng nỗ lực tìm hiểu tính hiệu quả của hoạt động viết chiêm nghiệm trong học phần lí thuyết Giao tiếp liên văn hóa tại trường đại học này, từ đó đưa ra một số đề xuất đối với phương pháp chiêm nghiệm hiện đang được áp dụng tại cơ sở này.

Từ khóa: tư duy chiêm nghiệm, bài viết chiêm nghiệm, học tập tự điều chỉnh, giao tiếp liên văn hóa, học phần lí thuyết

THE EFFECTS OF PHYSICAL MOVEMENT ON LANGUAGE LEARNERS' SELF-CONFIDENCE AND WILLINGNESS TO COMMUNICATE

Thu-Nguyet Huynh[1*], Long V. Nguyen[2]

1. National Taiwan Normal University, Taipei, Taiwan
2. University of Foreign Language Studies, The University of Danang, Danang, Vietnam

Abstract: In the light of Dynamic Systems Theory, which defines language development as an interaction of various factors in a system, a quantitative research was executed to examine the effects of physical movement in classrooms on students' self-confidence (SC) and willingness to communicate (WTC) in English. Four groups of English-majored freshmen from a university in Vietnam were selected as participants for this study. In their English course on communication skills, namely listening and speaking, they were regularly encouraged to move within their classroom or the classroom's vicinity to do oral tasks in pairs or groups. A survey was conducted to measure the difference in their SC and WTC. Findings revealed a positive correlation between SC and WTC. Besides, it recorded positive effects of level and scale of mindful physical movement on SC and WTC's improvement. This is a preliminary study to propose a pedagogical method to solve the issue of crowded FL classrooms.

Keywords: Dynamic Systems Theory, physical movement, willingness to communicate, confidence

1. Introduction

Interaction and communication have been the epicentres of foreign language classroom, as they are believed to be crucial factors for language development (Loewen & Sato, 2018, 2019; Sato & Storch, 2020). As such, educators and practitioners have been trying to enhance interactions among FL learners by seeking factors affecting interactions, as well as applying various teaching methodologies from communicative language teaching approach (Baralt & Gurzynski-Weiss, 2011; Sato & Storch, 2020; Verspoor & Hong, 2013).

In Vietnam, Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) has also been put to the foreground in language education in recent years as it aligns with the educational reform (Nguyen, 2010). In particular, since English has increasingly drawn much attention from the government, the Vietnamese Ministry of Education and Training (MOET) has actively advocated an innovative approach to teaching English as a foreign language with the National Project 2020 (MOET, 2012; Prime Minister, 2008, 2017). The MOET expects that by enhancing teachers' proficiency, reforming teaching materials, and employing technology in language instruction, Vietnamese learners

will be able to communicate orally in English by the year 2020. However, despite the great efforts that have been made, the project still has to face some conventional obstacles such as the available facility of schools and big class size in Vietnam. Therefore, although teachers have been equipped with advanced teaching methods, they are impossible to complement such teaching methodologies in the classroom. In addition, most teachers of English in Vietnam are still stuck into Grammar-Translation Method, which inhibits communicating skills of students.

For years, games and activities in English classrooms have been proved to have positive effects on young learners (Gozcu & Caganaga, 2016). To many teachers at primary schools, it is a compulsory part of their teaching plan. However, at college level, not many lecturers pay attention to this. Due to the fact that most learners are not used to communicating skills in English, many of them are reluctant to get involved in speaking/ listening activities. This situation worsened as the conventional writing, reading and grammar exercises were partially replaced with more communicative tasks in the new English textbooks (Huynh & Nguyen, 2020).

For Vietnamese college students, there are some specific constraints of this context that inhibit students from developing communicative skills. Specifically, as students come from different parts across the country, they are not willing to communicate even with their peers because they are scared of losing face. Therefore, teachers generally have to employ a good collection of methods to encourage students to overcome this fear such as pair work, group work or presentations. However, it is observed that if students are asked to practice in pairs, some of them will be inactive or even sit still without working. On the other hand, when they are asked to move around the classroom

and cooperate with various partners, they are likely to get engaged in classroom activities. In fact, the integration of physical movement into educational activities has been shown in numerous studies to likely influence students' motivation, peer interactions, which subsequently enhance their academic achievements (Beaudoin & Johnston, 2011; Holt et al., 2013; Kercood & Banda, 2012; Reed et al., 2010; Shoval, 2011).

Based on the emerging issues in the FL classroom, this action research study investigates the effectiveness of physical movement in English classrooms and suggests employing physical movement in the classroom's vicinity to take advantage of the space around the classroom. It is expected to solve the problem of a huge number of students being squeezed in a tiny classroom. Furthermore, it aims to provide students with more communication situations and practice in order to improve their confidence and willingness to communicate in English.

2. Literature Review

The natural language classroom consists of many factors that collectively affect learners' learning outcome. This point of view accords with the Dynamic Systems Theory, which offers a theoretical framework to explore the interaction between variables existing in the language learning process (de Bot & Larsen-Freeman, 2011). In the light of DST, this study aims to explore factors that can potentially contribute to communication skills, which are physical moments in classrooms, learners' willingness to communicate, and self-confidence.

2.1. Dynamic Systems Theory

The Dynamic Systems Theory (DST) indeed originated in pure mathematics. Since it was introduced to Second Language Acquisition, it has set a

"dynamic turn" in research on SLA since then (Dörnyei et al., 2015). According to de Bot et al. (2005), 'System' refers to a group of factors and subsystems that work together and belong to a larger system. 'Dynamic' refers to the interaction, the continuous change of these subsystems due to internal or external forces. From a DST's perspective, language development is a non-linear process that consists of many contributing factors (de Bot et al., 2005). All factors are completely interconnected, and changes in one factor will have an impact on other factors in the system (de Bot et al., 2007). This theory is also characterized by the term *butterfly effect*, which highlights the high dependence of the dynamic system on the initial state (de Bot & Larsen-Freeman, 2011). In other words, minor changes at the beginning can lead to huge differences in the end.

In recent years, DST has been increasingly adopted in second language acquisition (SLA) domain, especially in studies on learners' psychology. For instance, various studies have explored language learners' changes in language skills, motivation, anxiety, or willingness to communicate from DST perspectives (Baba & Nitta, 2014; Dong, 2016; Dörnyei et al., 2015; Fogal & Verspoor, 2020; Huynh & Nguyen, 2016; MacIntyre et al., 2017; Magne et al., 2019; Perone & Simmering, 2017; Verspoor & Hong, 2013; Waninge et al., 2014). Results revealed that the language learning was a dynamic and non-linear process, which resulted from the existence of various factors in the classroom. Therefore, DST is proved to offer an appropriate approach to investigate the language learning process from different angles in a natural classroom setting.

Taking those characteristics of DST into consideration, it is necessary to examine the correlation and relationship between different factors or variables at different levels of scale. Therefore, to improve learners' communicating skills, we do not only pay attention to the teaching methodologies of listening and speaking skills, which are believed to have direct impacts on their communicative competences. Instead, we should also investigate the impacts of other factors on their language development.

2.2. Physical Movement

Physical activity or movement involves "people moving, acting and performing within culturally specific spaces and contexts, and influenced by a unique array of interests, emotions, ideas, instructions and relationships" (Piggin, 2020, p. 5). Based on this definition, it can be inferred that physical movement ranges from small-scale movements to larger scale movements due to some motivations or interests. In the language classroom, common small-scale movements might be switching seats with peers, turning to the nearby learners for discussion or forming groups, while large-scale movements consist of going to the board, running around classroom or even moving out of the class to find space for teamwork.

In the education domain, there are *mindful* and *non-mindful movements*. Non-mindful movements are physical activities just for the body's physical exercises, whereas mindful movements are those that integrate with learning contents (Shoval, 2011). In mindful movements, teachers do not pay attention to the quality or scale of movements. Instead, they give students the freedom to move, providing that students achieve the target academic purposes. Within the range of this study, the authors just focused on *mindful movements* in language classrooms.

Numerous researchers are keen on either of two types of physical movement in classrooms, namely mindful and non-mindful movement. Accordingly, various studies have been conducted to investigate

the efficacy of physical movement when being employed in different academic subjects such as music (Juchniewicz, 2008), algebra instruction (Beaudoin & Johnston, 2011), learning about angles (Shoval, 2011), listening comprehension (Kercood & Banda, 2012); language and cultural learning (Zhu et al., 2019) and its impacts in students' overall performance (Krüger, 2018; Reed et al., 2010; Wang & Loewen, 2016). All of these above studies recorded positive effects of the incorporation of physical movement on academic achievement, attention and engagement of learners at different ages and backgrounds. In particular, it helped them improve their social interaction and assured that every learner participates in classroom communication when being asked. Noticeably, various studies have found that physical movement helped improve learners' self-esteem, confidence and well-being (Christiansen et al., 2018; Erwin et al., 2017; Kuczala, 2015). As such, physical movement has been increasingly suggested to be mandatorily integrated in classroom activities (Holt et al., 2013; Miller & Lindt, 2018; Russ et al., 2017). As such, physical movement is believed to potentially improve language learners' confidence and willingness to engage in language classroom communication.

2.3. Willingness to Communicate

Willingness to communicate (WTC) is an emerging term that has recently drawn escalating attention in second-language acquisition research and language teaching practice. It was first introduced in communication literature by McCroskey and Baer (1985) as 'the probability of engaging in communication when free to choose to do so'. This term is followed by a body of work by the same author (McCroskey, 1997; McCroskey & Richmond, 1990). Originally, WTC construct was first introduced to deal with L1 communication only, and it is believed to be a stable trait-like construct. It

was not until 1996, when MacIntyre and Charos (1996) conceptualized this factor in L2 learning and suggested that L2 WTC needs to be defined as a complex, situated construct that includes both state and trait characteristics. As mentioned in MacIntyre (2007), WTC is a complex construct influenced by various factors of individual differences such as communication anxiety, perceived communication competence and perceived behavioural control. Thus, he defined L2 WTC as the "probability of initiating communication given choice and opportunity" (MacIntyre, 2007, p. 567). The most widely accepted model of L2 WTC is The pyramidal heuristic model of WTC (MacIntyre et al., 1998) as shown in Figure 1. In such a multi-layered model, various layers of person- and situational variables integrate and interact to energize a person to use the L2 or abstain from doing so. While social and individual factors distantly affect WTC, fluctuating variables, such as momentary confidence in one's L2 abilities, have the most immediate impacts on WTC. The notion of L2 self-confidence in both state and trait emphasized the fluctuation of this factor in L2, L2 WTC is likely to be significantly less constant than L1 WTC, depending to a much greater extent on situational factors (Dörnyei & Ryan, 2015).

Empirical studies in both quantitative and qualitative paradigms examine learners' WTC in different classroom settings from various perspectives (Cao, 2011; Cao & Wei, 2019; Kang, 2005; Léger & Storch, 2009; MacIntyre et al., 2011; Mahmoodi & Moazam, 2014; Syed & Kuzborska, 2020). Specifically, Kang (2005) followed four male Korean learners of English in the United States to explore situated WTC qualitatively. The learners were paired up with native speakers and invited to engage in free conversation. In this context, the participants' situational WTC in their L2 appeared to emerge under psychological conditions of excitement,

responsibility, and security. Similarly, results from a comparison of English learners' self-report of WTC and their actual classroom behaviors found that interactional settings, such as whole class, small groups, or dyads, significantly influenced learners' WTC (Cao & Philp, 2006). Similarly, Cao (2011) also found the interdependence of various factors inherent in the language classroom that affect WTC such as

self-confidence, emotion, classroom environmental conditions such as topic, task, and group size, to name just a few. From a DST approach, a qualitative study conducted by Syed and Kuzborska (2020) showed that situational WTC resulted from the dynamic and non-linear interaction between contextual, psychological, linguistic and physiological factors.

Figure 1

The Pyramidal Heuristic Model of L2 WTC (MacIntyre et al., 1998, p. 547)
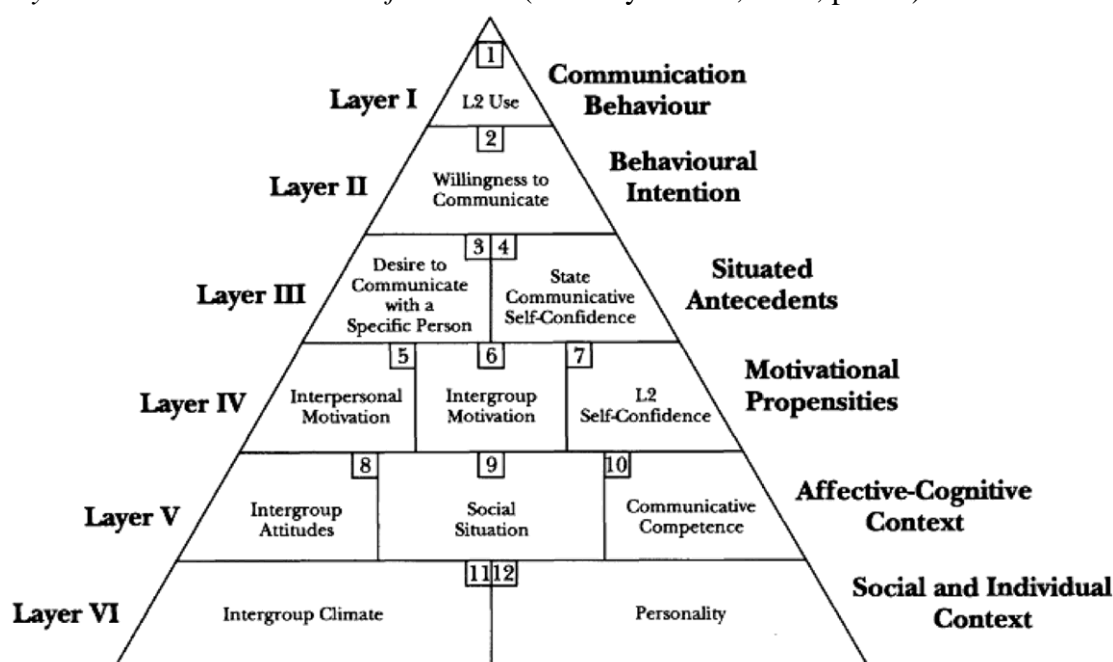
2.4. Self-Confidence

While Ehrman and Dörnyei (1998) define self-confidence as "a general belief by an individual in his or her competence and acceptability, a general expectation of success" (p. 282), Rubio (2007) defined it as "a feeling of self-competence required to handle basic problems in life, and be happy". Therefore, this factor does not only play important roles in life but also in language classrooms. L2 self-confidence construct consists of two components: a self-evaluation of one's L2 proficiency as a cognitive component; and the anxiety one feels when communicating in the L2 as an affective component (MacIntyre & Gardner,

1991). Despite high levels of interest within mainstream educational psychology, the study of self-confidence has not really been foregrounded in L2 studies compared with other factors (Dörnyei & Ryan, 2015). Several studies showed correlations between anxiety and self-confidence (Cheng et al., 1999; Matsuda & Gobel, 2004). Similarly, Clément et al. (1994) assessed the role of linguistic self-confidence, including language anxiety. Regarding the correlation between learners' self-confidence and their communicative competences, findings showed that SC enables students to be more motivated, enthusiastic and do not quit when confronting difficulties (Bong, 2002; Zimmerman & Kitsantas, 2005). Self-

confidence has also featured in investigations of L2 WTC (Dörnyei & Ryan, 2015). In line with this, there has been empirical evidence suggested that self-confidence significantly contributes to the learner's willingness to communicate in a foreign language (MacIntyre et al., 2001; MacIntyre et al., 1998).

In the context where Communicating Language Teaching is being encouraged like Vietnamese's context, enhancing students' communicative competences should be prioritized in pedagogical practice. Given the role of WTC in L2 speaking, and the immediate influence of L2 self-confidence on WTC in MacIntyre et al.'s (1998) pyramidal model, they are treated as the main learners' factors in this study to investigate the relationships of various classroom factors under the framework of DST. Specifically, this study explores the relationship between L2 learners' psychological factors, namely SC and WTC. In addition, the effects of mindful physical movement on these two important factors are also investigated. To serve the goal, this study aims to address these research questions:

1. Is there a correlation between learners' SC and WTC?

2. Does physical movement used in the English listening/speaking course help increase learners' SC and L2 WTC?

3. Do the scales of movement affect learners' SC and WTC?

3. Methodologies

This study employed questionnaires to investigate the impact of physical movement on the self-confidence and willingness to communicate of students.

3.1. Participants

Samples of this quasi-experimental study were students from a regional university in the Middle region of Vietnam.

All of them were English-majored students who have been studying English for at least 7 years. Like most learners of English in Vietnam, although most of the samples have seven years of learning English consecutively, it can be said that they are not active learners due to the lack of confidence and the fear of losing face in front of the crowd. Moreover, they had been instructed with GTM from their early stage of English learning. Thereby, they were not willing to speak up their minds in class (Verspoor & Hong, 2013). The groups of participants were selected based on the classroom observation, and some brief questionnaires on their confidence in participating in oral tasks and willingness to find peers to practice communicative English skills. Students were informed of the design and purpose of the study, and their consent was obtained prior to the beginning of the experiment.

There were four groups of participants, which were indeed four English classes, participating in this study. Initially, there were 20 to 23 students in the four classes. However, due to the missing values of the responses, students' attendance in class, and exclusion of outliers, the final number of participants included in the data analysis was eighteen students for each group.

For the first part of this study exploring the impacts of level of movement, two groups of students were investigated. Group 1 comprised students with very little movement in the classroom, while Group 2 included those with moderate physical movement. Specifically, there were no games or significant physical movements in the first class. Instead, they only sat at the seats and formed pairs/ groups with their neighbouring classmates. Conversely, in the second class, the teacher held various games and activities that forced students to move around the class to find peers for discussion, to win the competitions or to complete the given tasks.

In regards to the second part of the study tapping into the correlation between the scale of movements and SC/WTC, the focus of comparison is not the features of activities, but the scale of movement. Particularly, a group of students who only moved inside the classroom were named as 'Control group', while the remaining group of students were coded as 'Experimental group'. During the time of the experiment lasting for one month, those in the Experimental group were empowered with more freedom. Specifically, they were allowed to even move outside of their classrooms to form pairs and groups to carry out the discussions and fulfil requested tasks related to the lessons such as making posters on given topics, designing a TV show or plotting a play… After one month, they were asked to respond to a survey on SC and WTC.

3.2. Instruments

The questionnaire was adapted from Verspoor and Hong (2013). It was modified based on the content of the textbook used in the course. The questionnaire presented twenty communication situations in the language classroom, some were general situations (e.g., "Stand up and briefly introduce yourself to everyone, when asked"), while others were specific to the topics of the textbooks entitled *Solutions: Pre-intermediate* (e.g., "In a group discussion, give your opinion on the most serious global issues"). Students were asked to rate from 1 ("completely not willing/confident") to 10 ("very much willing/confident") to reflect to what extent physical movement in the classroom stimulated their self-confidence and willingness to communicate in such situations.

Data were collected and analysed descriptively by SPSS. We employed partial correlation and descriptive analysis in this study with $p < 0.05$.

4. Results

Results from the data analysis are presented in accordance with the order of the research questions

4.1. Correlation Between SC and WTC

Data analysis showed that there was a strong and positive correlation between learners' SC and WTC ($r = .874$, $p = .000$). In short, the more confident learners were, the more willing they were to participate in oral activities. This result aligned with the findings of previous studies mentioned above.

4.2. Effects of Physical Movement on Learners' SC and WTC

To find out if physical movement affected learners' confidence and their willingness to communicate with their peers or not, descriptive analysis was run to investigate the impacts of physical movement on learners who had low physical movement and those who had moderate physical movement. Regarding the impacts on self-confidence (SC), learners' responses showed that those who had moderate movement in the classroom perceived higher influence on their level of SC ($M = 6.70$, $SD = 0.40$) than those who just had sedentary learning ($M = 5.59$, $SD = 0.73$); $t(34) = 5.67$, $p < .001$. As for the effects of movement on WTC, the data analysis recorded a higher level of perceived WTC in moderate movement group ($M = 6.76$, $SD = 0.39$) than low movement group comprising those who mostly sat in class ($M = 5.66$, $SD = 0.70$), $t(34) = 5.88$, $p < .001$.

Table 1

Mean and Standard Deviation of PM Impacts on Learners' SC and WTC

Criteria	Group	N	Mean	SD	*t*
SC	Low movement	18	5.59	0.73	5.67***
	Moderate movement	18	6.70	0.40	
WTC	Low movement	18	5.66	0.70	5.88***
	Moderate movement	18	6.76	0.39	

The results from the data analysis above helped us conclude that participants of the study perceive that physical movement did take effects on their self-confidence and willingness to communicate. In other words, the more physical movement learners had, the more positive impacts it had on learners' SC and WTC.

4.3. The Scale of Movements: Inside Classroom Versus Within Classroom's Vicinity

To investigate the effects of space and scale of movements on learners' SC and WTC, one group of students were allowed to move within the classroom, while another group of students were allowed to move out of the classroom during their group work or pair work. Their results were compared with those of other students who just moved inside the classroom (within-class group). Results from descriptive analysis showed that space and scale of movements did have considerably greater effects on learners. The data analysis of SC questionnaire showed that the experimental group perceived a significantly higher level of SC (M = 7.14, SD = 0.44) compared with the control group (M=6.37, SD = 0.40); *t*(34)=5.55, p<.001. The analysis of WTC questionnaire also recorded a similar pattern: the effects reflected by the experiment group (M = 7.10, SD = 0.36) were higher than those reflected by the control group (M = 6.48, SD = 0.43) with *t*(34)=4.74, p<.001. In short, it seems that the larger scale students are allowed to move, the more efficacy physical movement has on their SC and WTC. The results are summarized as follows:

Table 2

Mean and SD of PM's Impacts on SC and WTC of Two Groups of Learners

Criteria	Group	N	Mean	SD	*t*
SC	Control group	18	6.37	0.40	5.55***
	Experimental group	18	7.14	0.44	
WTC	Control group	18	6.48	0.43	4.74***
	Experimental group	18	7.10	0.36	

***p<.001

5. Discussion and Implications

In line with the above-mentioned DST, the results showed an interaction between various factors in language classroom activities. Specifically, self-confidence is a cognitive human perception that plays an indispensable role in task fulfilment. The first results once again prove the strong relationship between self-confidence and willingness to communicate, which aligns with results from previous studies (Aoyama & Takahashi, 2020; Fallah, 2014). In other words, confident students

tend to actively engage in conversations, especially in foreign language classrooms. Thereby, when we want to improve learners' communicating competences, apart from linguistic factors, it is necessary to pay attention to the affective factors. For instance, teachers may apply effective methods such as regular encouragement and appropriate feedback to increase their level of confidence (Kerr, 2017, 2020).

In theory, teachers are encouraged to apply various forms of physical movement to enhance students' motivation in classrooms. In fact, those practitioners often apply physical movement to maintain students' focus on the lessons (Benes et al., 2016). However, its efficacy on two factors investigated in this research has not received enough attention in language education in Vietnam based on the absence of academic evidence. Moreover, although teachers have tried to apply activities to encourage learners to practice oral skills, this pedagogy has not brought about huge change because learners tend to stick to, and form pairs or groups with their favourite and familiar partners for their convenience. This phenomenon was also recorded in the observation and quick investigation before the experiment. This comfort zone, in fact, inhibits authentic and meaningful communicative situations in classrooms which occurs when students use language to build up ideas and do meaningful things (Herazo Rivera, 2010). In other words, their communications were merely pseudo communications because they just communicated to fulfil the tasks and make teachers happy instead of having the need to communicate a message to others for some meaningful purposes (Zwiers, 2020). For this reason, by forcing students to move around the classroom, we engaged them in more authentic communicative situations, as they actually needed to exchange information and fill the information gaps with their partners. Therefore, although we only made a slight change in this implementation, we recorded remarkable productiveness in terms of SC and WTC improvement. This result was also in line with the *butterfly effect* of DST.

In reality, although most teachers are well aware of the advantages of physical movement in the classroom, they often blame the number of students and classroom size for the failure of its application (Aoumeur, 2017; Todd, 2012). Some of them even worry about disruptive behaviours, that is if students are allowed to move out of their seats, they might be uncontrollable (Reilly et al., 2012). Interestingly, the result of the third research question witnessed a counter result: the more students were allowed to move, the higher level of SC and WTC they perceived. It suggested a solution to problems in the Vietnamese context where classrooms are usually squeezed with a large number of students that inhibits generative activities. Specifically, mindful physical movement is not just implemented within the range of the classroom, but it can be extended to take place in the classroom's vicinity such as the corridors, in the school yard, or other places at their convenience. In other words, if it is possible, we can give students the freedom to move beyond the edge of their class which brings about numerous benefits. It enables students more chances to collaborate with different partners, form different sizes of groups, and create a more competitive environment in classroom activities. As a result, they will be more motivated to take part in activities when being asked.

6. Limitations and Conclusions

Though this study shed light on the potentials of physical movement in solving FL classroom's issues, there are some limitations that call for future research to solve. As this is a pilot study to explore the effectiveness of this classroom pedagogy, the sample size is quite small. In addition, it

just employed students' self-reflection without other instruments for triangulation such as academic achievement (scores), interview or classroom video recordings. The limited number of learners in this pilot study also prevents the generalization of its results. Therefore, there is a need to recruit more participants to come out with more convincible results.

Future research can integrate academic transcripts derived from speaking tests to examine the correlation between students' self-reflection and their actual skill development. Qualitative data from interviews is also worth considering in order to explore learners' reflections in depth, or have an insight into situational characteristics of WTC in an actual situation. In addition, apart from mindful movement, researchers can consider investigating the effects of non-mindful movement in language classrooms.

7. Conflicts of Interest

The authors have no conflicts of interest to disclose.

8. Acknowledgement

References

Aoumeur, H. (2017). The impact of class size on teaching and learning English as a foreign language: The case of the department of English at Abdelhamid Ibn Badis University. *Arab World English Journal, 8*(2), 349-361. https://dx.doi.org/10.24093/awej/vol8no2.25

Aoyama, T., & Takahashi, T. (2020). International students' willingness to communicate in English as a second language: The effects of L2 self-confidence, acculturation, and motivational types. *Journal of International Students, 10*(3), 703-723. https://doi.org/10.32674/jis.v10i3.730

Baba, K., & Nitta, R. (2014). Phase transitions in development of writing fluency from a complex dynamic systems perspective. *Language Learning, 64*(1), 1-35. https://doi.org/10.1111/lang.12033

Baralt, M., & Gurzynski-Weiss, L. (2011). Comparing learners' state anxiety during task-based interaction in computer-mediated and face-to-face communication. *Language Teaching Research, 15*(2), 201-229. https://doi.org/ 10.1177/0265532210388717

Beaudoin, C. R., & Johnston, P. (2011). The impact of purposeful movement in algebra instruction. *Education, 132*(1), 82-96.

Benes, S. S., Finn, K. E., Sullivan, E. C., & Yon, Z. (2016). Teachers' perceptions of using movement in the classroom. *Physical Educator, 73*(1), 110-135. https://doi.org/10.18666/TPE-2016-V73-I1-5316

Bong, M. (2002). Predictive utility of subject-, task-, and problem-specific self-efficacy judgments for immediate and delayed academic performances. *The Journal of Experimental Education, 70*(2), 133-162. https://doi.org/10.1080/00220970209599503

Cao, Y. (2011). Investigating situational willingness to communicate within second language classrooms from an ecological perspective. *System, 39*(4), 468-479. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2011.10.016

Cao, Y., & Philp, J. (2006). Interactional context and willingness to communicate: a comparison of behavior in whole class, group and dyadic interaction. *System, 34*(4), 480-493. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2006.05.002

Cao, Y. K., & Wei, W. (2019). Willingness to communicate from an English as an international language (EIL) perspective: The case of Macau. *System, 87*, 102-149. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2019.102149

Cheng, Y., Horwitz, E. K., & Schallert, D. L. (1999). Language anxiety: Differentiating writing and speaking components. *Language Learning, 49*, 417-446. https://doi.org/10.1111/0023-8333.00095

Christiansen, L. B., Lund-Cramer, P., Brondeel, R., Smedegaard, S., Holt, A.-D., & Skovgaard, T. (2018). Improving children's physical

self-perception through a school-based physical activity intervention: The move for well-being in school study. *Mental Health and Physical Activity, 14*, 31-38. https://doi.org/ 10.1016/j.mhpa.2017.12.005

Clément, R., Dörnyei, Z., & Noels, K. A. (1994). Motivation, self-confidence, and group cohesion in the foreign language classroom. *Language Learning, 44*(3), 417-448. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-1770.1994.tb01113.x

de Bot, K., & Larsen-Freeman, D. (2011). Researching second language development from a dynamic systems theory perspective. In M. H. Verspoor, K. de Bot & W. Lowie (Eds.), *A dynamic approach to second language development: Methods and techniques* (pp. 5-24). John Benjamins. https://doi.org/10.1075/lllt.29.01deb

de Bot, K., Lowie, W., & Verspoor, M. H. (2005). *Second language acquisition: An advanced resource book*. Routledge. http://lib.ugent.be/catalog/rug01:001241433

de Bot, K., Lowie, W., & Verspoor, M. H. (2007). A dynamic systems theory approach to second language acquisition. *Bilingualism: Language and Cognition, 10*(01), 7-21. https://doi.org/10.1017/s1366728906002732

Dong, J. (2016). A dynamic systems theory approach to development of listening strategy use and listening performance. *System, 63*, 149-165. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2016.10.004

Dörnyei, Z., MacIntyre, P. D., & Henry, A. (2015). Introduction: Applying complex dynamic systems principles to empirical research on L2 motivation. In Z. Dörnyei, P. D. MacIntyre & A. Henry (Eds.), *Motivational dynamics in language learning* (pp. 1-7). Multilingual Matters. https://doi.org/10.21832/9781783092574-003

Dörnyei, Z., & Ryan, S. (2015). *The psychology of the language learner revisited*. Routledge. https://doi.org/ 10.4324/9781315779553

Ehrman, M., & Dörnyei, Z. (1998). *Interpersonal dynamics in second language education: The visible and invisible classroom*. Sage Publications, Inc.

Erwin, H., Fedewa, A., & Ahn, S. (2017). Student academic performance outcomes of a classroom physical activity intervention: A pilot study. *International Electronic Journal of Elementary Education,, 4*(3), 473–487. https://www.iejee.com/index.php/IEJEE/article/view/191

Fallah, N. (2014). Willingness to communicate in English, communication self-confidence, motivation, shyness and teacher immediacy among Iranian English-major undergraduates: A structural equation modeling approach. *Learning and Individual Differences, 30*, 140-147. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.lindif.2013.12.006

Fogal, G. G., & Verspoor, M. H. (2020). *Complex dynamic systems theory and L2 writing development* (Vol. 54). John Benjamins Publishing Company.

Gozcu, E., & Caganaga, C. (2016). The importance of using games in EFL classrooms. *Cypriot Journal of Educational Sciences, 11*(3), 126-135. https://doi.org/10.18844/cjes.v11i3.625

Herazo Rivera, J. D. (2010). Authentic oral interaction in the EFL class: What it means, what it does not. *Profile Issues in Teachers' Professional Development*, *12*(1), 47-61. http://www.scielo.org.co/scielo.php?script=sci_arttext&pid=S1657-07902010000100004&nrm=iso

Holt, E., Bartee, R., & Heelan, K. (2013). Evaluation of a policy to integrate physical activity into the school day. *Journal of Physical Activity & Health, 10*(4), 480-487. https://doi.org/10.1123/jpah.10.4.480

Huynh, N. T. T., & Nguyen, H. T. P. (2016). A dynamic usage-based approach: Using video segments in teaching listening skill. In The International Academic Forum. (Eds.), *Proceedings of the Asian conference on language learning* (pp. 235-248). https://tinyurl.com/ALLC2016

Huynh, N. T. T., & Nguyen, V. L. (2020). Applying corpus linguistics to English textbook evaluation: A case in Viet Nam. *VNU Journal of Foreign Studies, 36*(6), 109-121. https://doi.org/10.25073/2525-2445/vnufs.4632

Juchniewicz, J. (2008). The influence of physical movement on the perception of musical performance. *Psychology of Music, 36*(4), 417-427. https://doi.org/10.1177/0305735607086046

Kang, S.-J. (2005). Dynamic emergence of situational willingness to communicate in a second language. *System, 33*(2), 277-292. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2004.10.004

Kercood, S., & Banda, D. R. (2012). The effects of added physical activity on performance during a listening comprehension task for students with and without attention

problems. *International Journal of Applied Educational Studies, 13*(1), 19-32. https://tinyurl.com/IJAES-study-2012

Kerr, P. (2017). *Giving feedback on speaking. Part of the Cambridge papers in ELT series.* Cambridge University Press. https://www.cambridge.org/us/files/4515/7488/5712/CambridgePapersinELT_FeedbackOnSpeaking_2018_ONLINE.pdf

Kerr, P. (2020). *Giving feedback to language learners. Part of the Cambridge papers in ELT series*. Cambridge University Press. https://www.cambridge.org/gb/files/4415/8594/0876/Giving_Feedback_minipaper_ONLINE.pdf

Krüger, M. (2018). Second language acquisition effects of a primary physical education intervention: A pilot study with young refugees. *PLoS One, 13*(9), Article e0203664. https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0203664

Kuczala, M. (2015). *Training in motion: How to use movement to create engaging and effective learning*. AMACOM.

Léger, D. d. S., & Storch, N. (2009). Learners' perceptions and attitudes: Implications for willingness to communicate in an L2 classroom. *System, 37*(2), 269-285. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2009.01.001

Loewen, S., & Sato, M. (2018). Interaction and instructed second language acquisition. *Language Teaching, 51*(3), 285-329. https://doi.org/10.1017/s0261444818000125

Loewen, S., & Sato, M. (2019). Instructed second language acquisition and English language teaching: Theory, research, and pedagogy. In S. Loewen & M. Sato (Eds.), *Second handbook of information technology in primary and secondary education* (pp. 1-19). https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-319-58542-0_60-1

MacIntyre, P. D. (2007). Willingness to communicate in the second language: Understanding the decision to speak as a volitional process. *The Modern Language Journal, 91*(4), 564-576. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1540-4781.2007.00623.x

MacIntyre, P. D., Baker, S. C., Clement, R., & Conrod, S. (2001). Willingness to communicate, social support, and language-learning orientations of immersion students. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition, 23*, 369-388. https://doi.org/10.1017/S0272263101003035

MacIntyre, P. D., Burns, C., & Jessome, A. (2011). Ambivalence about communicating in a second language: A qualitative study of French immersion students' willingness to communicate. *Modern Language Journal, 95*(1), 81-96. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1540-4781.2010.01141.x

MacIntyre, P. D., & Charos, C. (1996). Personality, attitudes, and affect as predictors of second language communication. *Journal of Language and Social Psychology, 15*(1), 3-26. https://doi.org/10.1177/0261927X960151001

MacIntyre, P. D., Dörnyei, Z., Clement, R., & Noels, K. (1998). Conceptualizing willingness to communicate in a L2: A situational model of L2 confidence and affiliation. *Modern Language Journal, 82*, 545-562. https://doi.org/10.2307/330224

MacIntyre, P. D., & Gardner, R. C. (1991). Methods and results in the study of anxiety and language learning: A review of the literature. *Language Learning, 41*(1), 85-117. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-1770.1991.tb00677.x

MacIntyre, P. D., MacKay, E., Ross, J., & Abel, E. (2017). The emerging need for methods appropriate to study dynamic systems. In L. Ortega & Z. H. Han (Eds.), *Complexity theory and language development* (pp. 97-122). https://doi.org/10.1075/lllt.48.06mac

Magne, V., Suzuki, S., Suzukida, Y., Ilkan, M., Tran, M., & Saito, K. (2019). Exploring the dynamic nature of second language listeners' perceived fluency: A mixed-methods approach. *TESOL Quarterly, 53*(4), 1139-1150. https://doi.org/10.1002/tesq.528

Mahmoodi, M.-H., & Moazam, I. (2014). Willingness to communicate (WTC) and L2 achievement: The case of Arabic language learners. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences, 98*, 1069-1076. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sbspro.2014.03.518

Matsuda, S., & Gobel, P. (2004). Anxiety and predictors of performance in the foreign language classroom. *System, 32*(1), 21-36. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2003.08.002

McCroskey, J. C. (1997). Willingness to communicate, communication apprehension, and self-perceived communication competence: Conceptualizations and perspectives. In J. A. Daly & J. C. McCroskey (Eds.), *Avoiding*

communication: Shyness, reticence, and communication apprehension (pp. 75-108). Hampton Press.

McCroskey, J. C., & Baer, J. E. (1985). *Willingness to communicate: The construct and its measurement* (ED265604). ERIC. https://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/ED265604.pdf

McCroskey, J. C., & Richmond, V. P. (1990). Willingness to communicate: Differing cultural perspectives. *Southern Communication Journal, 56*, 72-77. https://doi.org/10.1080/10417949009372817

Miller, S. C., & Lindt, S. F. (2018). *Moving INTO the classroom: A handbook for movement integration in the elementary classroom.* Springer.

Ministry of Education and Training. (2012). *Decision on the enactment of the English pilot curriculum for high school level* (Decision No. 5209/QĐ-BGDĐT). https://thuvienphapluat.vn/van-ban/Giao-duc/Quyet-dinh-5209-QD-BGDDT-nam-2012-Chuong-trinh-giao-duc-pho-thong-mon-tieng-Anh-180993.aspx

Nguyen, L. V. (2010). Computer mediated collaborative learning within a communicative language teaching approach: A sociocultural perspective. *The Asian EFL Journal Quarterly, 12*(1), 202-233.

Perone, S., & Simmering, V. R. (2017). Applications of dynamic systems theory to cognition and development: New frontiers. *Advances in Child Development and Behavior, 52*, 43-80. https://doi.org/10.1016/bs.acdb.2016.10.002

Piggin, J. (2020). What is physical activity? A holistic definition for teachers, researchers and policy makers. *Frontiers in Sports and Active Living, 2,* Article 72. https://doi.org/10.3389/fspor.2020.00072

Reed, J. A., Einstein, G., Hahn, E., Hooker, S. P., Gross, V. P., & Kravitz, J. (2010). Examining the impact of integrating physical activity on fluid intelligence and academic performance in an elementary school setting: A preliminary investigation. *Journal of Physical Activity and Health, 7*(3), 343-351. https://doi.org/10.1123/jpah.7.3.343

Reilly, E., Buskist, C., & Gross, M. K. (2012). Movement in the classroom: Boosting brain power, fighting obesity. *Kappa Delta Pi Record, 48*(2), 62-66. https://doi.org/10.1080/00228958.2012.680365

Rubio, F. (2007). *Self-esteem and foreign language learning, introduction.* Cambridge Scholars Publishing.

Russ, L. B., Webster, C. A., Beets, M. W., Egan, C., Weaver, R. G., Harvey, R., & Phillips, D. S. (2017). Development of the system for observing student movement in academic routines and transitions (SOSMART). *Health Education & Behavior, 44*(2), 304-315. https://doi.org/10.1177/1090198116657778

Sato, M., & Storch, N. (Prepublished May 27, 2020). Context matters: Learner beliefs and interactional behaviors in an EFL vs. ESL context. *Language Teaching Research.* https://doi.org/10.1177/1362168820923582

Shoval, E. (2011). Using mindful movement in cooperative learning while learning about angles. *Instructional Science, 39*(4), 453-466. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11251-010-9137-2

Syed, H., & Kuzborska, I. (2020). Dynamics of factors underlying willingness to communicate in a second language. *The Language Learning Journal, 48*(4), 481-500. https://doi.org/10.1080/09571736.2018.1435709

Todd, R. W. (2012). The effects of class size on English learning at a Thai university. *ELT Research Journal, 1*(1), 80-88. https://dergipark.org.tr/tr/download/article-file/63598

Verspoor, M. H., & Hong, N. T. P. (2013). A dynamic usage-based approach to communicative language teaching. *European Journal of Applied Linguistics, 1*(1), 22-54. https://doi.org/10.1515/eujal-2013-0003

Vietnamese Government. (2008). *Approval of the project on foreign language teaching and learning in the national education system in the 2008-2020 period* (Decision No. 1400/QĐ-TTg). https://vanbanphapluat.co/1400-qd-ttg

Vietnamese Government. (2017). *Approval of the adjustment to project on foreign language teaching and learning in the national education system in the 2017-2025 period* (Decision No. 2080/QĐ-TTg). http://vanban.chinhphu.vn/portal/page/portal/chinhphu/hethongvanban?class_id=2&_page=1&mode=detail&document_id=192343

Wang, W., & Loewen, S. (2016). Nonverbal behavior and corrective feedback in nine ESL university-level classrooms. *Language Teaching Research, 20*(4), 459-478. https://doi.org/10.1177/1362168815577239

Waninge, F., Dörnyei, Z., & De Bot, K. (2014). Motivational dynamics in language learning: Change, stability, and context. *The Modern Language Journal, 98*(3), 704-723. https://doi.org/10.1111/modl.12118

Zhu, H., Li, W., & Jankowicz-Pytel, D. (2019). Whose karate? Language and cultural learning in a multilingual karate club in London. *Applied Linguistics, 41*(1), 52-83. https://doi.org/10.1093/applin/amz014

Zimmerman, B. J., & Kitsantas, A. (2005). Homework practices and academic achievement: The mediating role of self-efficacy and perceived responsibility beliefs. *Contemporary Educational Psychology, 30*(4), 397-417. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cedpsych.2005.05.003

Zwiers, J. (2020). *The communication effect: How to enhance learning by building ideas and bridging information gaps.* Corwin.

Textbook Used:

Davies, P. A., & Falla, T. (2010). *Solutions: Pre-intermediate* (1st ed.). Oxford University Press.

Appendixes

Communication Situations in Class:

1. Stand up and briefly introduce yourself to everyone, when asked.
2. Raise your hand and ask a question when you have a question.
3. Raise your hand and give an answer when you have an answer.
4. Ask a classmate the meaning of a word you do not know.
5. Ask a classmate how to say something in English to express your thoughts.
6. Make a conversation in English.
7. Ask your classmate to repeat something.
8. Say you don't agree about something and explain why.
9. In a group discussion, give your opinion in a group discussion on the most useful electronic devices in a house.
10. In a group discussion, give your opinion on the effect of modern technology on human's life.
11. In a group discussion, tell your mates about some gestures and body languages that you know.
12. In a group discussion, tell your mates about some traditions and customs in other countries.
13. Invite your partners to do something at the weekend.
14. In a group discussion, give your opinion on the most serious global issues.
15. In a group discussion, give your opinion on methods to improve the environment in your country.
16. In a group discussion, give your group mates advice on his/her personal problems.
17. In a group discussion, give your opinion on the most serious criminals in your local area and explain why.
18. In a group discussion, give your opinion on penalties for computer crimes.
19. In group, discuss stages of a process of making/cooking something.
20. In a group discussion, give your opinion on a book you have read.

ẢNH HƯỞNG CỦA CHUYỂN ĐỘNG CƠ THỂ ĐỐI VỚI SỰ TỰ TIN VÀ SẴN SÀNG GIAO TIẾP CỦA NGƯỜI HỌC NGOẠI NGỮ

Huỳnh Thị Thu Nguyệt[1], Nguyễn Văn Long[2]

[1] Trường Đại học Sư phạm Quốc gia Đài Loan, Đài Bắc, Đài Loan
[2] Trường Đại học Ngoại ngữ Đà Nẵng, Đại học Đà Nẵng, Đà Nẵng, Việt Nam

Tóm tắt: Lý thuyết hệ thống động định nghĩa sự phát triển ngôn ngữ là sự tương tác của các yếu tố khác nhau trong một hệ thống. Dựa vào đó, một nghiên cứu định lượng đã được thực hiện để xem xét tác động của chuyển động thể chất trong lớp học đối với sự tự tin và sự sẵn sàng giao tiếp bằng tiếng Anh của người học ngoại ngữ. Bốn nhóm sinh viên năm thứ nhất chuyên ngành tiếng Anh của một trường đại học ở Việt Nam đã được chọn làm người tham gia cho nghiên cứu này. Trong khóa học tiếng Anh về kỹ năng giao tiếp, cụ thể là nghe và nói, sinh viên thường xuyên được khuyến khích di chuyển trong lớp học hoặc khu vực lân cận lớp học để thực hiện các bài tập nói theo cặp hoặc nhóm. Một bộ câu hỏi khảo sát đã được thực hiện để đo lường sự khác biệt trong sự tự tin và sẵn sàng giao tiếp của họ. Kết quả cho thấy mức độ tự tin tỉ lệ thuận với mức độ sẵn sàng giao tiếp của sinh viên. Bên cạnh đó, nghiên cứu đã ghi nhận những tác động tích cực của mức độ và phạm vi của chuyển động thể chất đối với việc cải thiện sự tự tin và sẵn sàng giao tiếp. Đây là nghiên cứu sơ bộ nhằm đề xuất một phương pháp sư phạm để giải quyết vấn đề lớp học ngoại ngữ đông.

Từ khóa: lý thuyết hệ thống động lực học, di chuyển thể chất, sẵn sàng giao tiếp, tự tin

GENDER REPRESENTATION IN CHILDREN'S STORIES: A TRANSITIVITY ANALYSIS

Ton Nu My Nhat*[1], Ho Nu Nhu Y[2]

1. Institute of Linguistics, Duy Tan University, Da Nang, 550000, Vietnam
2. Department of Foreign Languages, Quy Nhon University, Vietnam

Abstract: The overriding purpose of this study is to examine the features of gender representation in the English stories for children by analyzing the transitivity system, which is a component in the ideational meaning of systemic functional grammar, associated with the internationally influential linguist M.A.K Halliday. The data were collected from the website https://www.bedtimeshortstories.com and analyzed at the levels of clause and word group. The results show that all the six types of transitivity processes are found, with material processes having the highest frequency and followed by verbal, mental, relational, behavioral and existential processes. Besides, both genders are represented in a relatively equal manner in terms of occurrences as participants in different process types, though some gender bias still perpetuates. This may present a tangible challenge for those who attempt to use stories for children for educational purposes.

Key words: gender representation, children's stories, transitivity, Systemic functional grammar

1. Introduction

Children's literature is widely considered a potent medium through which young readers absorb the long-standing cultural heritage (Bettelheim, 2010). These handed-down cultural values are preserved and disseminated through stories for children - through their 'messages about right and wrong, the beautiful and the hideous, what is attainable and what is out of bounds - in sum, a society's ideals and directions' (McCabe et al. 2011, p. 199). By orienting and shaping how children should reflect on themselves and society, this form of literature is, beyond doubt, endowed with enormous social power (Smith, 1987). Moreover, Lazar (1993) points out that given its widespread popularity as a reading source

for most age groups, children's literature is normally utilized in the educational context as reading input for ESL students. It is this unwavering influence of children literature that captured the attention of linguistic scholars (e.g., Davies, 1993; Nazari, 2007; Skelton, 1997). Driven by this same direction, this study is aimed to contribute to the practice of exploiting this genre in the teaching of English as a foreign and/or second language literature; it also aims to contribute to the literature on language and gender, 'which has been moving from seeing language as reflection of gender towards language as construction of gender' (Nguyen, 2017, p. 156). This study focuses on the gender features in the English stories for children and determines whether any

---

gender bias exists. The research questions to be answered are: (1) how are female and male characters presented in terms of participant roles in the stories under study? and (2) is there any significant gender bias in the stories?

2. Theoretical Background

2.1. Systemic Functional Grammar

Systemic Functional Grammar describes and explains the organization of '*meaning-making resources*' used to communicate meanings and perform multiple functions in various contexts of our everyday lives. This framework divides the functions of language into three types. These are *the ideational meta-function* - language is used to construe our experience of the outer world and our inner world; *the interpersonal meta-function* - language is used to enact our personal and social relationships, and lastly *the textual meta-function* - language is employed to organize discourse and create continuity and flow.

The ideational meta-function encompasses logical function (language describes logical relationship between two or more meaningful units) and experiential function (language expresses our experiences with external and internal worlds). The experiential function is chiefly construed by a configuration of a process, participants involved and any attendant circumstances.

2.2. Transitivity

'The transitivity system construes the world of experience into a manageable set of PROCESS TYPES.' (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004, p. 170). Transitivity includes six kinds of processes: (a) material process, (b) mental process, (c) relational process, (d) behavioral process, (e) verbal process and (f) existential process.

- *Material* processes construe the 'doing' and 'happening', 'a quantum of change in the flow of events as taking place through some input of energy' (p. 179). Prototypically, these relate to perceivable, concrete changes in the material world. They also cover abstract processes. The main participants in the material process are Actor and Goal: The Actor is 'the one that does the deed' — that is, the one that brings about the change. (p. 179), and the Goal is the one 'to which the process is extended.' (p. 181)

- *Mental processes* construe participants entangled in conscious processing, including processes of perception, cognition and affection. The main participants in this process are Senser and Phenomenon. Senser must be endowed with consciousness because it is 'the one that 'senses' — feels, thinks, wants or perceives' (p. 201). On the other hand, what 'is felt, thought, wanted, or perceived' is named Phenomenon (p. 203).

- *Relational* processes are processes of being, becoming, in which a participant is characterized, identified or circumstantially situated. The English system operates with three main types of relation – *intensive, possessive* and *circumstantial*, and each of these comes in two distinct modes of being – *attributive and identifying*. (p. 215). The items and participants involved are variously termed Carrier, Attribute, Identifier, Identified, Possessor, Possessed, Token, or Value.

- *Behavioral* processes are processes of 'physiological and psychological behavior', like breathing, coughing, smiling, dreaming and staring. The only participant in this process is Behaver, a prototypically conscious being (p. 248).

- *Verbal* processes are processes of saying, such as telling, stating, informing, asking, querying, demanding, offering, threatening,

suggesting, and so on. The major participants are Sayer and Target.

- *Existential* processes function to introduce an existence into the text, as a first step in talking about it. The

existence may relate to an entity or an event, which is simply labelled Existent.

Table 1 summarizes the process types, their meanings and participants.

Table 1

Process Types, Their Meanings and Participants (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004, p. 260)

PROCESS TYPE	Category meaning	Participants, directly involved	Participants, obliquely involved
material:	'doing'	Actor, Goal	Recipient, Client; Scope; Initiator; Attribute
action	'doing'		
event	'happening'		
behavioral	'behaving'	Behaver	Behaviour
mental:	'sensing'	Senser, Phenomenon	
perception	'seeing'		
cognition	'thinking'		
desideration	'wanting'		
emotion	'feeling'		
verbal	'saying'	Sayer, Target	Receiver; Verbiage
relational:	'being'	Carrier, Attribute	Attributor, Beneficiary Assigner
attribution	'attributing'	Identified, Identifier;	
identification	'identifying'	Token, Value	
existential	'existing'	Existent	

Another component of the clause as representation is the circumstance. This is the name given to those elements which carry a semantic load but are neither Process nor Participant. Circumstances, in some respects, are more peripheral than Participants. They occur freely in all types of processes with essentially the same significance wherever they occur. Semantically, circumstantial elements refer to such matters as the settings, temporal and physical, the manner in which the process is implemented, the people or other entities accompanying the process. There are nine types of circumstances: *Extent*, *Location*, *Manner*, *Role, Cause*, *Contingency*, *Accompaniment, Matter,* and *Angle.* Of the types of circumstances, those of Behalf, Accompaniment, Role, Angle may involve

an entity which is gender selected. In this study, we chose to take into consideration only the processes. This is an analytical decision, far from a claim that circumstantial elements are not associated with gender.

2.3. Relevant Studies on Gender Representation

Given the potential effects of children's literature on the social development of the young generations, these types of discourse have withdrawn the attention of many researchers, such as Acevedo (2010), Esen (2007), Helleis (2004), Mathuvi et al. (2012), Ullah (2013), to name just a few. For example, Mathuvi et al. (2012) conducted research on gender displays in 40 picture storybooks which were used as supplementary reading texts for

elementary students in Kenya. Based on Goffman's model of decoding gender displays and visual sexism, the findings indicated that though females were painted in both positive and negative images, they were largely portrayed as subordinate to men in function ranking. These conclusions corroborated with previous studies on children's texts (Acevedo et al., 2010; Helleis, 2004). Gender display was also examined in the light of proper names, nouns and pronouns. Studies in different children's books revealed that male characters were given more culturally specific names, nouns and pronouns than female counterparts (Esen, 2007; Ullah, 2013).

Some recent studies have applied the Transitivity system in the systemic functional grammar (Halliday & Mathiessen, 2004) to explore gender representation in English learning materials. For instance, Sari (2011) investigated the representation of males and females in a series of Indonesian primary English textbooks and found that male characters are given higher visibility than females in terms of their occurrence frequency and the participant roles. Likewise, Gharbavi and Mousavi (2012) examined four currently used Iranian highschool English textbooks and concluded that males outnumber their counterparts in almost all participant roles, except for the Senser role.

3. Materials and Methods

3.1. Sampling

The source of the data is the website https://www.bedtimeshortstories.com/, which offers a diverse collection of widely known and captivating stories for children. Therefore, the stories are usually exploited as a resource for English language teaching in foreign contexts. Due to the length of each sample and the depth of the analysis, the number of samples is restricted to only ten stories deemed as well-known and

commonly read, totaling 3,285 running words. The criteria to be chosen were accessible and sizable. The titles, along with their word-count, are shown in Appendix and coded as [S1]-[S10].

3.2. Data Analysis

The unit of analysis is the clause. Given the aims of the study, only the linguistic-gendered clauses were analyzed in terms of the features under focus. Linguistic-gendered clauses are those that involve one gender – male (M) or female (F). Since the samples are stories for children with elements of fantasy and imaginary worlds, various animals are endowed with human characteristics, among which are verbal, mental, physical abilities and, of course, gender identity. It is therefore justifiable to take such human-like characters into the analysis. Gender identification was based on the nominal groups. Some are inherently either males, such as 'King', 'Prince', 'brother', 'son', 'father', or females, such as 'Queen', 'Princess', 'sister', 'daughter', 'mother'. The personified animals were based on the pronouns referring to the antecedents, either 'he'/ 'him' or 'she'/ 'her'.

As regards the compound word groups, we counted only the obvious males or females (e.g., *the Stepmother and the two Stepsisters*), which can then be referred to by '*they*' or '*them*', '*we*' or '*us*'. The participants involving both genders (e.g., '*a good, kind King and his Queen*', '*the ant and the dove*', '*the prince and Belle*' etc.) were excluded from the quantification of frequency. Besides, the nominal groups which are not referring expressions (i.e., those used to refer to a particular character) were also excluded (e.g., '*The Prince visited every house in the Kingdom, but he could not find one girl who could wear this shoe.*').

The analyses of each clause in terms of process and of each nominal group realizing a participant in terms of role were manually undertaken because both are

heavily dependent on the meanings in context. The analyses were independently performed by the two researchers, and then compared between the two analyzers. The fusing, indeterminate cases were agreed upon based on discussion; these mostly involved the behavioral processes, as "the least distinct of all the six process types" (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004, p. 248).

In the following section, the source of each example is referred to by the number of the story as listed in the Appendix, enclosed in square brackets.

4. Findings and Discussion

4.1. The Frequency of Process Types

The analysis reveals that 407 linguistic-gendered clauses are used across ten chosen children's stories. These gendered instances were categorized in terms of process types. Material processes dominate the picture with 177 instances (tantamount to 43.48% of all gendered instances found), followed by verbal, mental, and relational processes, each of which occupies a relatively equal share (18.18%, 15.72%, and 14.98%, respectively). The dominance of material, mental and relational processes is no surprise, since Matthiessen (1999) generalizes that material, mental and relational are the main process types in the English transitivity system. However, the frequent presence of verbal processes, which account for approximately one-fourth (18.18%) is worth noting, given its status as one of the three marginal processes in the transitivity system. This deviation can be justified by the nature of children's stories: Talking characters and their verbal exchanges are extensively used to ease young readers' understanding process. At the other end of the scale are behavioral and existential processes (5.89 and 1.71%, respectively). The distribution of these process types is summarized in Table 2.

Table 2

Distribution of Process Types

Process	Material	Verbal	Mental	Relational	Behavioral	Existential	Total
No. of occ.	177	74	64	61	24	7	407
%	43.48	18.18	15.72	14.98	5.89	1.71	100

4.2. The Frequency of Gender Representation in Transitivity Processes

As seen from Table 3, all the ten chosen stories have both male and female characters and the total proportions of the two genders are roughly equal, with the figure for males being insignificantly above that of females (51.02 vs. 48.97). The nominal group realizing the participants are mostly simple, hardly modified, such as *the prince, the stepsister, his wife, the baby, the princess, the Queen, the King, Belle, her father, the beast, the flounder, his first son,* *the poor man,* etc. A closer look reveals that there are more male characters than females in most stories, except for S6, S7 and S8. What seems intriguing here is that most animals endowed with human traits are taken as males, especially ones that embody potent entities, such as the flounder in S5 or noble personalities such as the monkey in S1, the frog in S2 and the beast in S10. There are also female animals like the ant in S9 and the baby horse in S3, yet none of them are endowed with any paranormal or social powers.

Table 3

Number of Male and Female Characters

No. of characters by gender	S1	S2	S3	S4	S5	S6	S7	S8	S9	S10	Total No.	%
Male	4	2	4	2	2	3	3	1	2	2	25	51,02
Female	2	2	3	2	1	5	4	3	1	1	24	48,97

Table 4 summarizes the frequencies of each participant role across gender in the six process types.

Table 4

Distribution of Types of Processes

Type	M	F	Total
MATERIAL			177
Actor	89	84	163
Goal	03	26	29
Recipient		04	04
VERBAL			74
Sayer	38	36	74
Receiver	14	11	25
RELATIONAL			61
Carrier	26	35	61
MENTAL			64
Senser	38	26	64
Phenomenon	06	05	11
Recipient		01	01
BEHAVIOURAL			24
Behaver	08	16	24
EXISTENTIAL			07
Existent	02	05	07

4.2.1. Material Process

The most frequently occurring participant in the material process is Actor, with 89 featuring male characters and 84 female characters. Seven out of ten stories see higher occurrences of males as Actor. Actor is the performer of the process of doing, or undertaker of the process happening. That males corner a significantly high proportion of material processes portrays them as active, powerful and autonomous. Moreover, males are frequently described in physically demanding actions like '*riding*', '*taking*' (catching or grabbing something), '*going*', '*catching*', '*getting*', or '*finding*'. A point to note is that in S7 and especially S6, females constitute a higher number of Actor roles, which seems to be conflicting with the overall trend of male dominance. However, this difference must partly result from a significantly higher number of females in these two stories, as introduced in Table 3 (5 vs. 3 and 4 vs. 3).

Female characters show a higher inclination to Goal participation (as summarized in Table 4), at whom the actions are directed. This result echoes with what has been found by Sari (2011), who discovered the dominance of male as Actor and female as Goal in the English textbooks. Such representations may perpetuate the stereotypes of females as passive, dependent, and simultaneously cement the image of males as being active, independent.

Another noticeable result is the interaction between females and males in material processes. When males take the position of Actor, they tend to direct their action at females, who can be Goals or Recipients (e.g., '*till he met a kind girl*' [S2]; '[*The Prince*] *accompanied her in*' [S6]; '[*He*] *trying to bring his daughter back to life*' [S8]; '*he had found a real princess*' [S4]). In contrast, female Actors are more

likely to aim their actions at other females (e.g., '[*the old Queen] allowed her to rest'* [S4]; '*The old Queen led the princess to the bed'* [S4]; '*The Prince met her at the door'* [S6]).

Another interesting observation relates to a common process in children's stories, the act of becoming the husband and wife. This act can be linguistically realized in two ways. It could be put as "A marries B", which is a material process with A as Actor and B as Goal. Otherwise, we could say "A and B get/are married", which is a relational process with A and B as Carriers (equal participants). What captures the researchers' attention is that the material pattern "A marries B" is more frequently used, and mostly realized with a male character as A (Actor) and a female as B (Goal) (e.g. '*The King marries a beautiful princess'* [S1]; '*The King marries a new Queen'* [S6]; '*The Prince took her for his wife'* [S6]; '*The Prince then asked if he could marry the Princess'* [S7]. An exception is found in S6, where the prince asked Cinderella: '*Will you marry me*?'. Here, for the first and only time across ten stories under investigation, a female is positioned as the Actor of the process 'marry'. Nonetheless, it should also be noticed that this clause is projected by a male character in which he is the Sayer.

4.2.2. Mental, Relational and Verbal Processes

Mental processes constitute about 16% (15.72%), and male Sensers outnumber their female counterparts (59.37% vs 40.62%). Phenomenons appear in well under one-fourth of the mental processes (17.18%) and only one Recipient is found ('*He only wanted the rose for his daughter Belle'* [S10]). Some surprising findings arise from a detailed analysis of the mental processes (Table 5). Firstly, males have larger proportions in three sub-processes cognitive, perceptive and emotive, especially with a

significant margin in the cognitive group, roughly 3 times higher than females. Meanwhile, females enjoy a higher frequency in desideration sub-processes, particularly with processes like '*crave', 'wish', 'hate'* (e.g., *But as she craved for more, one sleepless night she wished the ultimate wish - she wanted to be like a god.* [S5]).

Table 5

Distribution of Subtypes of Mental Processes

	Male	Female	Total	%
Cognition	15	6	21	32,81
Perception	11	7	18	28,12
Desideration	5	7	12	18,75
Emotion	7	6	13	20,31
Total	38	26	64	100

Secondly, the process verbs seem to be distributed in a gendered manner. Some processes can be used for both males and females (such as *hear, know, love, realize, see, think, want*); however, many others accompany males only, such as *believe, decides (x3), find, forget, like, overwhelm, stun, devastate, alarm* (e.g. '*He was so overwhelmed by her beauty'* [S7]; '*The King is stunned by the little girl's answers.*' [S3]; '*He was devastated and started crying and trying to bring his daughter back to life* [S9]'; '*The dove was alarmed by the voice of the hunter* [S9]').

The final revelation is concerned with the equal treatment of Phenomenon: Males and females alike are heard, seen, loved (e.g. '*heard the princess crying'* [S2]; '*seeing the ant in trouble'*, '*loved his daughter more than anything'* [S8]; '*loves him'* [S10]; '*saw the beautiful dove sitting on the tree'* [S9]; '*loved the beast'* [S10], '*hears of the two brothers.*' [S3]).

Relational processes account for approximately 15% (14.98%), which were

further analyzed in terms of the three sub-processes. The findings are shown in Table 6. There are only three instances of circumstantial sub-processes, tantamount to a marginal proportion of 4.91% (e.g., '*You are at the Ball?*' [S6]; [two brothers] '*are off to the market.*' [S3]; '*the boy is not there!*' [S1]). Regarding possessive sub-processes, 7 out of 12 Carriers are female; moreover, from a semantic viewpoint, three of these female Carriers possess items related to '*baby*' (e.g., '*the Queen had a baby girl'; 'The King's wife soon has a baby boy'; 'The new wife has a baby boy'.* [S1]), while the other instances involve material, concrete items (e.g., '*Cinderella instantly had a lovely dress and shoes', 'We must get new dresses'* [S6]).

On the contrary, the items possessed by males are varied, ranging from abstract entities like 'dream', 'idea', 'opportunity' (e.g., '*One night, the teacher has a dream.*' [S1]*; 'The poor man has no ideas.*'[S3]*; 'he had an opportunity*' [S8]), to concrete, touchable things like horse or castle (e.g., '*The rich brother has a big, strong stallion.*' [S3]; '*The castle belonged to a hideous beast*' [S10]*, 'The poor brother has a young mare.*' [S3]). One cannot ignore the different natures of the concrete items possessed by the two genders: while males are entitled to things traditionally attached with long-term, stable values like cattle - useful for transportation and farming, or castles - permanent accommodation and a token of social status, females are often conjured up within the image of frivolous, short-valued possessions like dresses or shoes.

Table 6

Distribution of Subtypes of Relational Processes

	Male		Female		Total	
	No. of occurrence	%	No. of occurrence	%	No. of occurrence	%
Circumstantial	2	3,27	1	1,63	3	4,91
Possessive	5	8,19	7	11,47	12	19,67
Intensive	19	31,14	27	44,26	46	75,40
Total	26	42,62	35	57,37	61	100

The intensive group has the biggest figure across the table (75.40%). Given its high percentage, closer analysis was undertaken with its instances being put into 2 modes: attributive and identifying (Table 7).

Table 7

Distribution of Two Modes of Relational Processes

	Male		Female		Total	
	No. of occurrence	%	No. of occurrence	%	No. of occurrence	%
Attributive	8	17,39	19	41,30	27	58,69
Identifying	11	23,91	9	19,56	19	41,30
Total	19	41,30	27	58,69	46	100

As regards Attributor, a significant number of male Carriers are described in a positive light. For instance, '*The King is very happy with the wise little girl.*' [S3]; [He] '*to become richer*' [S8]; '*the Beast was very good natured and not vicious*' [S10]; '*I am*

an enchanted prince!' [S10]. Only four negative cases were found (*'the Prince was very unhappy'*[S6]; *'his first son is lost '*[S1]; *'The teacher is very sad.'* [S1]; *'he got blinded by the shiny new towers of the palace.'* [S5]).

This favorable representation of male characters throws female portrayal into sharp relief: The numbers of positive and negative words for females are roughly equal. Here are some examples of positive and negative portrayal of females:

Negative: *'his wife wasn't happy at all.'*[S5]; *'she was forever indebted to the dove'* [9]; *'the wicked fairy in disguise'* [S7]; *'they were always terrible to poor Cinderella'* [S6]; *'who was mean and wicked but very powerful'* [S7]

Positive: *'She was like a god.'* [S5]; *'She looked wonderful!'* [S6]; *'she was delighted to see it.'* [S9]; *'The Stepmother and the two Stepsisters were so excited.'* [S6]; *'We get new dresses and look our very best'* [S6]

A redeeming point is the values attached to both genders are mostly positive. For instance: *'She became the emperor and soon enough, the pope'* [S5]; *'she turned into a gold statue'* [S8]; *'The monkey changes into the King's older brother.'* [S1]; *'the rat into a coachman'* [S6].

As regards *verbal process*, the analysis shows a higher frequency of males as both Sayer and Receiver, which contrasts sharply with the common belief that females are more of a talker. However, the margin is relatively narrow; therefore, no fundamental judgement should be made here. A qualitative analysis points out that both male and female participants frequently *'say'*, *'tell'*, *'ask'*, *'call'* or *'shout'*, among which *'say'* and *'tell'* (27 and 8 instances respectively) have the highest frequency and are equally paired with both genders. Another finding is that certain processes are exclusively used for females or males. Only

male characters *beg, croak, explain, speak, thank* (e.g., *'The prince thanked her and explained that a witch cursed him'* [S1]). Meanwhile, only female characters *admit, answer, argue* (x 5)*, reply, mock, question, curse, scream* (e.g.: *'The stepsisters mocked her'* [S6], *'The Queen questioned the Princess'* [S4]; *[They] screamed* [S6]). That the process *'curse'* is female-only speaks volumes about the unbalanced choice of gender for certain characters: the evil, insidious powers are mostly represented by witches (females) rather than wizards (males).

4.2.3. Behavioral and Existential Processes

Only 24 instances of *behavioral process* are found, accounting for merely 6% (5.89%). The number of female Behavers double that of males (16 against 8). Small as the number of instances is, further analysis of behavioral processes does yield unexpected outcomes. While both males and females *'cry'*, *'die'*, *'sleep'* and *'smile'*, other behavioral processes are exclusively used for one gender. Only males *'look'* and *'kiss'* (e.g., *'he kissed her gently'* [S7]; *'the teacher looks back'* [S1]), whereas *'laugh'* and *'wake up'* are solely found with female Behavers (e.g., *'You are at the Ball? Don't make us laugh'* [S6]). This finding certainly provides some food for thought; for example, one may wonder why the process of *'kiss'*, which involves high levels of agency on the part of the doer, is solely assigned to a male Behaver. Another interesting result is that only one instance of male *'crying'* is found, while this figure for females amounts to 5. For instance,

(1) He was devastated and started crying and trying to bring his daughter back to life. [S8]

(2) A frog nearby heard the princess crying. [S1]

(3) She cried thinking the water was too deep for her to find the golden ball. [S2]

(4) Cinderella sat down and cried. [S6]

(5) They [the stepsisters] pushed and pulled and screamed and cried but … [S6]

(6) She held the Beast and cried. [S10]

Existential process is normally used at the very beginning of the stories to introduce characters; as a result, this process is scarcely featured. The results, however, point out that more male characters are introduced this way, even if the males play a secondary role in the story's plot. Instances of existential process at the beginning of the tales include:

(7) Once upon a time, there lived a King. [S1]

(8) Once upon a time, there lived a beautiful princess. [S2]

(9) Once upon a time there was a prince who wanted to marry a princess [S4]

(10) Once upon a time, there lived a beautiful girl called Cinderella that lived [S6]

(11) Once there lived a greedy man in a small town. [S9]

(12) There once was a merchant who got lost in a storm… [S10]

5. Conclusion and Implications

This paper is aimed to contribute to the research on language and gender with reference to children literature. Based on systemic functional grammar as a tool of discourse analysis, we have a detailed account of how males and females are represented in the English well-known stories for children.

Some noticeable findings are worth restating here. First, verbal processes have higher occurrences than mental and relational processes, which can possibly be attributed to the nature of children's stories. Second, females surpass males in the Carrier, Behaver and Existent roles. This result was not anticipated since in some similar research (e.g., Gharbavi & Mousavi, 2012; Sari, 2011), males were consistently found to dominate all the Participant roles. This relatively balanced representation

between male and female characters in the investigated stories should, therefore, be seen as a positive outcome. Third, repetitive instances of word choice, such as 'crying' females and males 'marry' females, are some obvious indications of gender stereotypes embedded deep within the stories.

In terms of methodological implications, this work has reconfirmed the huge potential of Systemic Functional Grammar as a tool for discourse analysis. However, if the researchers applied this framework to quantitative analysis only, the results would have been a list of closely-valued numbers with no significant margins; therefore, the researchers may have found it more challenging, or even have failed to draw any major findings. This is to highlight the importance of qualitative analysis in the application of SFG, especially in studies where the focus is not on making hypotheses or generalizations, but on examining whether the presumed problems exist.

This study has also gone some way towards enhancing our awareness of the issue of gender representation in children's literature. It is advisable for teachers to keep an open eye for any sexist ideologies subliminally embedded. However, it does not necessarily entail that stories that carry gender stereotyping should be avoided altogether; there are some possible ways to turn these writings to good use. Learners at elementary levels can practice English by retelling a story with the given clues such as pictures or flashcards, with which the teacher can make small twists to discard the gender bias. For example, the princess is brave and confident (instead of beautiful and caring); the prince and the princess could get married (instead of '*The prince could marry the princess*'), or she held the crying beast (instead of '*She held the beast and cried*'). For learners at a higher proficiency level, besides story telling or acting out activities, teachers can engage them in a critical

discussion of the way the male and female characters are portrayed in the original version. Offering learners such a non-pedagogical goal of examining a social problem could probably raise their interest and reduce boredom.

A tangible weakness of this study lies in the data scale, but such intentional restriction on the samples did allow the researchers to thoroughly probe into the matter on a wider range of levels - text, clause and word-group. However, future studies on a larger scale are required since our findings might not be transferable to other short stories for children.

The research is theoretically based on systemic functional grammar (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004), but the in-depth analysis was carried out exclusively with only the transitivity system. An analysis of nominal groups and verbal groups realizing the processes and the participants from the angle of Appraisal theory by Martin and White (2005) may be a very fruitful direction to be undertaken to capture insights into the interpersonal meaning in this genre. Besides, these stories are accompanied with video footage (readily available on the website itself) to vividly illustrate the texts; thus, further studies, which take visual modes into account, will be needed to shed more light on the matter of gender representation.

References

Acevedo, C. R., Ramuski, C. R., Nohara, J., & Trindade, L. V. (2010). A content analysis of the roles portrayed by women in commercials: 1973-2008. *Revista Brasileira De Marketing*, *9*(3), 170-196. https://doi.org/10.5585/remark.v9i3.2201

Bettelheim, B. (2010). *The uses of enchantment: The meaning and importance of fairy tales*. Vintage Books.

Davies, B. (1993). *Shards of glass: Children reading and writing beyond gendered identities*. Hampton Press.

Esen, Y. (2007). Sexism in school textbooks prepared under education reform in Turkey. *Journal for Critical Education Policy Studies*, *5*(2), 109-115. http://www.jceps.com/archives/560

Gharbavi, A., & Mousavi, S. A. (2012). The application of functional linguistics in exposing gender bias in Iranian highschool English textbooks. *English Language and Literature Studies*, *2*(1), 85-93. https://doi.org/10.5539/ells.v2n1p85

Halliday, M. A. K., & Matthiessen, C. M. I. M. (2004). *An introduction to functional grammar* (3rd ed.). Hodder Arnold.

Helleis, L. D (2004). *Differentiation of gender roles and sex frequency in children's literature* [Unpublished doctoral dissertation]. Maimonides University.

Lazar, G. (1993). *Literature and language teaching: A guide for teachers and trainers.* Cambridge University Press.

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

Mathuvi, P. N, Ireri, A. M., Mukuni, D. M., Njagi, A. M., & Karugu, N. I. (2012). An analysis of gender displays in selected children picture books in Kenya. *International Journal of Arts*, *2*(5), 31-38. https://doi.org/10.5923/j.arts.20120205.01

Matthiessen, C. M. I. M. (1999). The system of transitivity: An exploratory study of text-based profiles. *Functions of Language, 6*(1), 1-51. https://doi.org/10.1075/fol.6.1.02mat

McCabe, J., Fairchild, E., Grauerholz, L., Pescosolido, B. A., & Tope, D. (2011). Gender in twentieth-century children's books: Patterns of disparity in titles and central characters. *Gender & Society, 25*(2), 197-226. https://doi.org/10.1177%2F0891243211398358

Nazari, A. (2007). Power on the page: Examining embedded power relations in English textbooks for Iranian students. In R. D. Reiss, R. Depalma & E. Atkinson (Eds.), *Marginality and difference in education and beyond* (pp. 135-148). Trentham Books.

Nguyen, T. T. H. (2017). Language and gender studies: Past and current approaches and debates. *VNU Journal of Foreign Studies, 33*(6), 150-157. https://doi.org/10.25073/2525-2445/vnufs.421

Sari, N. T. A. (2011). Visible boys, invisible girls: The representation of gender in Learn

English with Tito. *Indonesian Journal of Applied Linguistics*, *1*(1), 84 -104. https://doi.org/10.17509/ijal.v1i1.101

Skelton, C. (1997). Revisiting gender issues in reading schemes. *Education, 3*(13), 37-43. https://doi.org/10.1080/03004279785200091

Smith, D. (1987). *The everyday world as problematic: A feminist sociology.* Northeastern University Press.

Ullah, H. (2013). *Reproduction of class and gender hierarchies through education in Khyber Pakhtunkhwa* [Unpublished doctoral dissertation]. Main Library University of Peshawar.

Appendix: Data Source

The samples were downloaded from https://www.bedtimeshortstories.com/. The selected stories are: 1. The green monkey; 2. The frog prince; 3. The wise little girl story; 4. The princess and the pea; 5. The fisherman and his wife; 6. Cinderella; 7. Sleeping beauty; 8. The golden touch; 9. The ant and the dove; 10. Beauty and the beast.

For easier reference, the ten stories are coded from S1 to S10. Their word counts are as follows:

Table A

Word Counts of Ten Investigated Stories

Story	S1	S2	S3	S4	S5	S6	S7	S8	S9	S10
Word count	268	257	363	303	327	484	399	194	206	232

THỂ HIỆN GIỚI TÍNH TRONG CÁC CÂU CHUYỆN DÀNH CHO TRẺ EM: PHÂN TÍCH HỆ THỐNG CHUYỂN TÁC

Tôn Nữ Mỹ Nhật[1], Hồ Nữ Như Ý[2]

1. Viện Ngôn ngữ, Đại học Duy Tân, Đà Nẵng, Việt Nam
2. Khoa Ngoại ngữ, Trường Đại học Quy Nhơn, Bình Định, Việt Nam

Tóm tắt: Mục đích chính của nghiên cứu là tìm hiểu những đặc điểm của việc thể hiện giới tính trong các câu chuyện tiếng Anh dành cho trẻ em trên cơ sở phân tích hệ thống chuyển tác - một phần hiện thực hóa nghĩa ý niệm, trong các hệ thống nghĩa của Ngữ pháp chức năng hệ thống, gắn liền với tên tuổi của nhà ngôn ngữ học nổi danh thế giới, M.A.K Halliday. Các câu chuyện được thu thập từ trang web https://www.bedtimeshortstories.com và được phân tích ở cấp độ mệnh đề/cú và cụm từ. Kết quả nghiên cứu cho thấy tất cả sáu loại quá trình chuyển tác đều góp phần tạo dựng các câu chuyện, trong đó quá trình vật chất xuất hiện nhiều nhất, tiếp đến là quá trình nói năng, quá trình tinh thần, quá trình quan hệ, quá trình hành vi và cuối cùng là quá trình tồn tại. Bên cạnh đó, tần suất xuất hiện của nam và nữ được thể hiện khá đồng đều ở tất cả các quá trình chuyển tác, mặc dù một vài định kiến về giới tính vẫn còn tồn tại. Đây có thể là một thách thức cho những ai đang cố gắng sử dụng truyện dành cho trẻ em cho mục đích giáo dục.

Từ khóa: thể hiện giới tính, chuyện kể cho trẻ em, hệ thống chuyển tác, Ngữ pháp chức năng hệ thống

THE CONCEPT OF TRAUMA IN LITERATURE VIEWED FROM THE TRANSITIONING MODELS OF TRAUMA IN THE WEST

Dang Hoang Oanh*

Institute of Social Pedagogy – Vinh University,
182 Le Duan, Ben Thuy, Vinh, Viet Nam

Abstract: The article analyzes and highlights the change in the view of trauma in the trauma research trends in the United States and the West from the 90s of the 20th century to the present, specifically through the case of Cathy Caruth and the waves of post-Caruthic research. By referring to the trauma perspective of Cathy Caruth in classic work *Unclaimed Experience: Trauma, Narrative, and History* and later studies, we show the shift from the traditional model (trauma as a structural concept) to a pluralistic theoretical model where trauma is seen as a discourse. The article aims to provide a complete, comprehensive conceptualization of trauma while also providing theoretical tools for reading the text.

Keywords: trauma theory, Cathy Caruth, structural model, pluralism theory, trauma discourse

1. Introduction

Since its inception, trauma theory has experienced a very dynamic and exciting development in the academic contexts of the United States and Europe. Originating from a term used in the medical field, identified by a range of physical and neurological symptoms, "trauma" has become a prominent concept in the humanities. The original concept of trauma is associated with the name of the psychoanalyst Freud, so trauma theory is at its first stage in the branch of psychoanalysis. Freud's conception of trauma and his discoveries of the compulsive repetition of traumatic experiences/events, the breakdown, and fragmentation of the traumatic self,

contributed to the birth development of this branch of research, especially in the 90s of the twentieth century. Inheriting the spirit of Freud, Cathy Caruth and representatives of the American Yale school created the first wave in the construction of trauma theory in the humanities. In particular, the treatise *Unclaimed Experience: Trauma, Narrative, and History* published in 1996 has gained great popularity. Since then, trauma theory begins to establish its connotation in the field of research. Cathy Caruth raised the concept of trauma in *Trauma: Explorations in Memory* - a collection of trauma studies analyzed from many perspectives and contexts; however, only *Unclaimed Experience: Trauma, Narrative, and History*, Cathy Caruth gave a full definition of trauma, carried out trauma analysis on

---

* Corresponding author.
  Email address: danghoangoanh86@gmail.com

literary and cinematic texts. Cathy Caruth's work plays a very important role in the dynamic context of trauma criticism, especially since it has a role in the origin of modern trauma theory. However, more than two decades later, trauma research has gradually taken a new turn. Following on from the inspiration that Cathy Caruth had initiated, later trauma theory, on the other hand, sought many new directions of expression. The model of trauma research has also gradually changed, moving from Cathy Caruth's classical model to a model of pluralism theory. Michelle Balaev, in the "Trauma Studies" chapter in the anthology *A companion to Literary Theory* confirmed the role of pluralism theory in the study of trauma literature. It is also the view that Roger Luckhurst once emphasized in "Mixing memory and desire psychoanalysis, psychology, and trauma theory", in *Literary Theory and Criticism* that trauma is essentially multidisciplinary, and if anyone wants to promote trauma to a high level, it is necessary to replace the old model, joining in forming new characteristics of the culture. Thus, the focus of post-Caruthian trauma criticism is to form a diversified view in identifying the origins of trauma, from which to see new aspects of this concept. From the perspective of trauma as a discourse, trauma criticism at this stage delves into trauma discourses, interprets and analyzes painful narrative questions on issues of ethnicity, gender and sexual trauma, such as *Reading Rape stories: Material Rhetoric and The Trauma of Representation* by Wendy S. Hesford, or the guilt of Jewish identity, is expressed in Amos Gordberg's Trauma, *Narrative and Two Forms of Death*. From the reference of the main points of Cathy's work to other branches of post-Caruthian studies, especially from a discursive perspective, we will show the shift in the concept of trauma, thereby discovering theoretical tools to approach and interpret literary texts.

2. Aim and Scope

The purpose of this article is to survey and analyze to see the shift and change in the concept of trauma in the discussion amongst modern Western critics about trauma. From which, the article proposes a relatively complete definition of trauma. Two important questions discussed: How is the concept of trauma understood? How will the shift of trauma theory models lead to a change in the understanding of trauma? By answering these questions, the paper attempts to construct a theoretical framework of trauma in the literature. From the theoretical framework outlined, we want to experiment with a traumatic reading on the literary text – a reading based on the terms and analysis suggested by the theorists of this movement.

We selected the classic text of trauma criticism, *Unclaimed Experience: Trauma, Narrative, and History* by Cathy Caruth – the most widely cited author in trauma research in the US and Europe. In addition, we also examine the perspective of trauma in critical texts by Michelle Balaev, Roger Luckhust, Amos Gorlberg to see the changing perspective on trauma of post-Caruthian research trends. In addition, to clarify theoretical issues, we use some typical corpus of trauma literature, including poetry, fiction and non-fiction prose.

3. Methods

As can be seen, Cathy Caruth's trauma monograph is heavily influenced by Freud's psychoanalytic theory, as Cathy Caruth's rereading of Freud's psychoanalytic texts shows ideological continuity. Therefore, approaching Caruth's trauma theory from psychoanalytic terms is appropriate because her trauma model remains within the boundaries of neurological trauma.

By the 1990s, the human experience

of trauma was no longer the exclusive subject of humanistic studies. Despite being in the background of post-structuralism, trauma theory rectified a point of theory in the pre-1990s, when theorists focused only on the realm of text and forgot about the fact that literature was ultimately responsible, linked to historical realities or had the potential to provoke political breakdown. That is why trauma theory is also associated with subjects of being suppressed in life. For example, it has been intertwined with theories of gender, race, and environment. Therefore, interdisciplinary, systematic and comparative methods need to be used when implementing the research objectives set out in the article.

Our goal, as stated above, is defining a complete conception of trauma to experiment with reading trauma in the literary text. Thus the method of text analysis (deep reading/perusing) is a method used in this article.

4. Results

4.1. Cathy Caruth and the Traditional Model

Cathy Caruth describes trauma as a structural phenomenon. According to her, trauma is understood in its most general sense as "describing an overwhelming experience of sudden or catastrophic events in which the response to the event occurs in the often delayed, uncontrolled repetitive appearance of hallucinations and other intrusive phenomena" (Caruth, 1996, p. 11). Earlier, in the introduction of *Trauma: Explorations in Memory*, Caruth also defined trauma as "the structure of its experience": "event that is not identified or experienced in the past in a manner fullness, which is subsequently re-occupied again in the person experiencing it" (Caruth, 1995, p. 4). As such, the core of the trauma remains a **shocking event**. However, the event is not immediately perceived and experienced by

the subject. Its brutality is not fully experienced at the moment of occurrence but anchors in the unconscious, returns to haunt, to torment people through fragments of memories, nightmares, vague fears repeatedly. The concept of Cathy Caruth derives from Freud's psychoanalytic term *Nächtraglichkeit* - understood as the belated experience of trauma - "the concept developed in his studies on hysteria and one that refers to a non-chronological movement of remembering involving a link between two events; at a critical time of psychological distress previously forgotten memory traces return and are reworked or re-interpreted to match subsequent events, desires, and psychic developments" (Freud, 2004, as cited in Rodi-Risberg, 2010, p. 13). So, going back to Freud's *Moses and Monotheism*, Cathy Caruth noticed that Moses was disguised as the legend of the origins of the Jewish people. It is because from the outset, the traumatic event is not recognized, not known, "the traumatic experience is an experience that is not fully assimilated as it occurs " (Caruth, 1996, p. 5) that the mechanism of pain is maintained. Cathy Caruth calls that insidious development the incubation period is the late arrival (Latency). Trauma, in its most essential sense, always accompanies the unremembered, the unknown, the unexpressed.

Cathy Caruth's conception of trauma is drawn from Freud's psychoanalytic ideas, but her argumentation reveals points far beyond its original core. In his psychoanalytic work, Freud emphasized "recurrence, the return of memory (**repetition compulsion**). Freud suggested that there is a mechanism that causes the traumatic event to return, recur, and transform through dreams. He calls it a way to "master arousal recovery by developing anxiety that the neglected/missed is the cause of the nerve injury" (as cited in Balaev, 2018, p. 362). When recalled, the traumatic

event is anchored in the person's unconsciousness, thereby creating a sense of fracture, the disintegration of the ego. It is the fragmentation of the ontological self, between the present "ego" on the one hand and the past "ego" on the other hand. Even so, sometimes remembering is just the tip of the iceberg, and unremembering is really the most important aspect of trauma. That view is further developed in the theoretical aspects that Caruth addresses in his treatises. She argues that trauma "*is not locatable in the simple violent or original event in an individual's past, but rather in the way that its very unassimilated nature – the way it was precisely not known in the first instance – returns to haunt the survivor later on*" (Caruth, 1996, p. 4). The unknown (*Knowing and Not Knowing*) or the gaps of memory is how memory operates an internal defense mechanism - a "*protective filter*" (Roger Luckhust) to keep people out of injury. Exploring the psychoanalytic aspect of trauma, Cathy Caruth places trauma at the heart of important historical questions: Which mechanisms, in addition to neurological and psychological effects, cause people to fail to remember? Or, put it like Roger Luckhust, "Was the record of the traumatic event lodged in the unconscious, waiting for recall, or was it the very product of that recall? Can we separate from what we desire to remember?*"(Luckhust, 2006, p. 501). These questions became a key aspect of Cathy Caruth's defense of the irrepresentability of trauma; and especially, when viewing trauma as a cultural construct, later branches of research have questioned to the very end the mechanism by which people are remembered and not remembered, thereby tracing the way trauma occurs in personal life.

Precisely because trauma is unrecognizable at the outset, traumatic experience challenges not only conventional experiences but also reveals inherent contradictions in language. Trauma

completely resists verbal representation, which means that we always recall that knowledge but never identify it. Traumatic experience goes beyond ordinary expression. This is Cathy Caruth's advanced point and is also the core idea of her theoretical system. In the chapter "The wound and the voice", she argues that trauma always tries to avoid language through camouflage mechanisms. When the direct reference to the traumatic experience slips (similar to how Tancred is unaware that she unintentionally killed her lover - Clorinda, during a duel in which she was disguised under the armor of the rival knight), its return via a nagging voice (as Tancred thrust his sword into a tree, blood gushed from the stab wound and a voice of Clorinda lamented) gave a message about a belated experience of trauma. Thus trauma always creates double paradoxes in consciousness and language. We want to know the meaning of the past, but we cannot understand it. On the one hand, we want to tell the story about our own trauma, but on the other hand, we are constrained by linguistic expressions. The human experience of trauma seems impossible to organize at the linguistic level. Because trauma refuses to assimilate into memory in the first place, it challenges the ability to represent it in language. This idea of Caruth is very close to the postmodern spirit. Originally a social institution recognized in the community's experience and traditions, invisible language has become a kind of strict censorship mechanism, a kind of "dominating pressure on the entire spiritual life." the spirit of the community, dominating the personal discourse," causing many things to settle into the unconscious, or "repressed, inhibited, fell into a state of loss of voice" (Tran, 2014, pp. 174-175). The concept of the "social unconscious" - proposed by E. Fromm - describes the repression of powerful discourses in society over discourses that are perceived as

"peripheral," or unorthodox. "Each society allows only certain emotional thoughts to reach the conscious level, while others only exist in the unconscious state" (as cited in Tran, 2014, pp. 174-175). After all, language is but a sclerotic expression to experienced life", thus, traumatizing and challenging the direct linguistic representation.

Traumatic literature, from that point of view, always requires the writer to break the usual expressive structure of language. Even because pain itself is elusive, sometimes it can only be perceived through things that are evoked, especially in the suggestive language (the language of dreams, the language of the subconscious), or it will speak by the superposition of symbols. The following excerpt from Svetlana Alexievich's *Last Witnesses: An Oral History of the Children of World War II* is a prime example of how language, in many cases, is powerless to write about the pain of a child witnessing things beyond its perceived threshold:

> Mama took off her kerchief and covered my eyes with it... So we reached our house, the place where our house had stood several days ago. The house wasn't there. We were met by our miraculously spared cat. She pressed herself to me- that was all. No one could speak...even the cat didn't meow. She was silent for several days. Everybody became mute. (Alexievich, 2019, p. 17)

The impression of little Katya's silence most profoundly expresses the traumatic state of man: the state of being speechless. The terrible obsession with the war in the eyes of a seven-year-old child can only be expressed indirectly through the image of a cat losing its squeal, through the suffocating silence that enveloped the space of childhood. In the preface from the original Vietnamese translation of the novel *The Tin Drum* by writer Gunter Grass, poet Duong Tuong once quoted philosopher Theodor W. Adorno: "Writing a poem after Auschwitz[1] is a barbaric act and so, nowadays, writing poetry has become impossible" (as cited in Grass, 2002, p. 5). In the above context, it is clear that nothing is more capable of revealing trauma than the inability of words.

Or in *Hunger Camp at Jaslo*, Wislawa Szymborska (n.d.) shows how trauma can reveal language disturbances. Here language slips away, and is elusive. Whatever is eluded is not recorded in the history. So "write it" but what to write when trauma is something beyond common sense and human perception. The poem's grasp of trauma is thus almost a chase through its cues.

> Write it, write.
> In ordinary ink
> on ordinary paper:
> they were given no food
> they all died of hunger.
> "All. How many?
> It's a big meadow.
> How much grass
> for each one?"
> Write: I don't know.
> History counts its skeletons in round numbers.
> A thousand and one remains a thousand,
> as though the one had never existed:
> an imaginary embryo,
> an empty cradle,
> an ABC never read,
> air that laughs, cries, grows,

---

[1] A network of concentration camps built by the Nazis in Poland during World War II.

emptiness running down steps toward the garden,

nobody's place in the line (Szymborska, n.d.)

Memory dissociation - the direct cause of trauma - a perspective that helps shape the concept of trauma across history is also a factor in making it possible for individual and collective traumatic experiences to reconnect and to be together. This argument proves that Cathy Caruth went further than Freud when she saw the link between individual trauma and collective trauma. That is also why she began to build her theoretical system through rereading *Moses and Monotheism* in Freud's psychoanalytic text.

> Centering his story in the nature of the leaving, and returning, constituted by trauma, Freud resituates the very possibility of history in the nature of a traumatic departure. We might say, then, that the central question, by which Freud finally inquires into the relation between history and its political outcome, is: What does it mean, precisely, for history to be the history of a trauma? (Caruth, 1996, p. 15).

Caruth re-analyzed Freud's speculative process to see how he viewed history itself as a trauma, an encapsulation of forms of violence by connecting Nazi persecution of the Jews with historical roots of his people. Like the formula "Moses created the Jews," she argues, it is Freud's way of deconsecrating the myth[2] of Moses[3] that reveals the meaningful nature of history:

it is something that can easily bury the traumas of the community and personal. Turning over a biblical myth, Freud performed an act that Caruth calls "questioning of history", "a tacit denial of history":

> By replacing factual history with the curious dynamics of trauma, Freud would seem to have doubly denied the possibility of historical reference: first by himself actually replacing historical fact with his own speculations, and second, by suggesting that historical memory, or Jewish historical memory at least, is always a matter of distortion, a filtering of original event through the fictions of traumatic repression, which makes the event available at best indirectly" (Caruth, 1996, p. 16).

Traumatic experience is a latent state, people cannot be fully aware of it. Cathy Caruth calls the spiritual history of the community a sort of "filtering" because history is full of traumas that are "faded," buried, even disguised with another myth. Thus, like personal trauma, historical trauma can also be identified only through "the inaccessibility of trauma as it occurs" (Caruth).

Because trauma is not only related to individual memories, but it is also linked to collective memories, the shocks and crises of the community can be passed on from one generation to the next in a very special way. The spread of that sense of trauma can be imagined as a disease that has metastasized in the body: insidious, latent, and

---

[2] The most important moment in Jewish history, according to Freud, was not the literal return to freedom but the repression, the burial of a murder and its consequences, so all The barbaric violence in the Jewish history is forced to repress as a kind of Oedipal mechanism. The Jewish community killed Moses to create their own god.

[3] "In the biblical account, Moses was one of the captive Hebrews, who eventually arose as their leader and led them out of Egypt back to Canaan" (Caruth, 1996, p. 13).

spontaneous. What is remarkable about this is that, while the narrator/storytellers may not have to directly endure the horrific events of the trauma, the obsession and torment of other people's memories are *symbiotically persistent* in the soul. World literature records many cases; the trauma of the community puts a code in personal experience in which the author/narrator establishes the pain and shame of the ancestors, the community, of humanity as a kind of self-identity. Natascha Wodin's *She Came from Mariupol*, WG Sebald's *The Emigrants* are such cases. In particular, Natascha Wodin's *She Came from Mariupol* is a synthesis of many emotions: the sense of alienation of an exile, vague impressions about the origin of parents, loneliness, and guilt under the influence of community's contempt. Whenever "I" think about her origin, it is always painful: "who am I". What's left is just two blurred black and white photos of the mother, the marriage certificate, and the employment card. "I" delved into her past, traced back to my own values, and rediscovered the life story of my parents – Eastern European forced laborers after World War II. The journey back to her roots is also the journey of Natascha Wodin being caught up in the history of her compatriots and her people in a dark and forgotten period.

> I was lost in the deep forest of world history, deeper and deeper into the terrible disasters of the 20th century. Reports on forced labor during the Third Reich are full of holes, containing countless absurdities and contradictions. The topic I want to choose is slipping out of my hands, it is becoming out of control that I cannot handle. And, what can I say no? Isn't it too late, I wonder if we still have enough energy to handle this massive pile of stuff? And in this world, are there enough words for all

of that - words dedicated to the life of my mother, the mother who disappeared somewhere in the middle of nowhere, no name, no age, a person who represents millions of other people? (Wodin, 2020, pp. 36-37).

Thus, Cathy Caruth's definition of trauma delves deeply into issues suggested by Freud and Paul de Man's perspectives, such as the late experience of trauma, personal and historical trauma, slippage in the meaning of trauma expressive language. The process of "reading" and reinterpreting literary, philosophical, or cinematic texts in the light of trauma theory, on the one hand, shows the operation of the "traditional model" (used by Michelle Balaev) in many contexts, on the other hand, provides important hints about the intrinsic relationship of individual experience and culture, or warns of a potential return to violence in the community.

4.2. Perspectives on Trauma From a Discourse Perspective

Obviously, no theory is universal. Cathy Caruth's theory itself is not without limitations. After all, Cathy Caruth's trauma theory was born on the basis of poststructuralism, so it still sees trauma as the source of the structure of its experience. As a follower of Freud, she looked more deeply into the symptoms, suggesting that the inseparability of trauma is tied to neurological function. That is why later branches of research countered Caruth's classical trauma model by "moving away from a position that centralizes pathological fragmentation..." to "uncovers new relationships between experience, language, and knowledge that detail the social significance of trauma" (Balaev, 2018, p. 366). Indeed, Cathy Caruth's profound implications for trauma literature are reminiscent of the role of literary discourse in revealing the *sound of wounds* of the past.

In asserting that literature is a form of discourse in which *knowing and not knowing* intersect, her book "has become an important reference point in the development of the cultural trauma theory (Luckhust, 2006, p. 502). Because the mechanism that allows people to remember and can't remember is always associated with cultural construction. Scholars of the era, before realizing the origins of 19th-century railroad-related injuries, connected trauma with cultural and historical contexts. Considered a powerful symbol of science, material civilization, and railway, the railway trauma has created a violent tremor in human reason, sowing insecurity and breaking trust in the mechanical age. From here, mental illness began to be recognized. Essentially, "mental trauma not merely as a by-product of the industrial era", but is also "as a constitutive phenomenon that has shaped the structure of its cultural discourse" (Ataria et al., 2016, p. 16). From a cultural construct, post-Caruthian trauma criticism studies trauma as a discourse: **what is remembered and what is not; what is acceptable and what is excluded**. Foucault's discourse theory has mentioned *power and knowledge* and the organic relationship of these two concepts. "The Western philosophical tradition primarily sees power in the role of repression. When writing *Discipline and Punish* - 1975 and especially in *The History of Sexuality,* Volume 1 (1976) Foucault develops a new perspective, emphasizing the positive aspect: power as a constructive mechanism is productive rather than prohibitive in the activity of knowledge creation" (Tran, 2015). Looking at trauma theory, here comes a problem: clearly, not in every context, human trauma is recognized. It is the turning point in the discourse that forces people to raise questions: **Under what conditions is human experience considered traumatic? When can people cry for their own pain? When will loss, pain be named, be present,**

and be acknowledged? There are traumatic events that are, in fact, only recognized in certain scenes as social events. For example, there was a time when issues like sexual assault (rape of women) were not considered crimes. Judith Butler - philosopher, feminist expert, in an interview, *When Killing Women isn't a Crime* once said:

> In so many places, the violence done to women, including murder, are not even conceptualized as crimes. They are "the way of the world" or "acts of passion" and these phrases disclose deep-seated attitudes that have naturalized violence against women, that is, made it seem as if this violence is a natural or normal part of ordinary life... (The New York Times, 2019).

It is the social norms that tolerate gender-based violence. It is the principle of the community that becomes a mechanism of trauma. Therefore, in addition to the structure of the traumatic experience, trauma criticism must also pay attention to the "petit narrative" voice, listening to the "wailing sounds" of small people who have never counted in history. Michelle Balaev has clearly contributed a way of understanding, arguing that the concept of trauma is in itself critical. It criticizes community norms that cause suffering to women, slavery, people of LGBT. For example, *Reading Rape stories: Material Rhetoric and The Trauma of Representation* by Wendy S. Hesford is a powerful social critic. In that article, Hesford, through analyzing an autobiographical documentary by Margie Strosser - an American filmmaker and rape survivor, has demonstrated how powerful feminist voices are when a woman confronts and recreates pain. *Rape stories* is a special case study because it tells an imaginary revenge story. The film traces ten years of Margie Strosser's grappling with the traumatic experience of being raped,

including nightmares, phobias, avoidance of men, and agoraphobia, etc., all the syndromes of rape trauma - and ends with a vengeful fantasy in which Strosser portrays the rapist as the victim and herself as the victor. According to Wendy S. Hesford, "This fantasy is a vivid example of how survivors translate private pain into public memory through the appropriation and reversal of culturally dominant rape scripts that presume women's passivity and helplessness and that women want to be raped" (Hesford, 1999, pp. 192-193). Truly reflects the title of the article, *Rhetorical Material and the Trauma of Expression*, Wendy S. Hesford has clarified two issues. First, Strosser's documentary's message is powerful and challenging, offering a completely different perspective about the victims, as well as the aftershocks they've been through. Apparently, there were once dominant ideas that women wanted to be raped or that victims were seen as powerless agents of aggression and anger. Gender inequality leads scholars (academic perspectives) to resist the pain of women and their stories. So Margie Strosser's visual story is a rhetorical strategy as she uses her own memories and body to recount the traumatic experience, as well as the painful consequences it brings. Margie Strosser's story may "participate in the feminist proclamation of survivor discourse as a political act against violence - a conception of the personal prevalent in early feminist literature on violence and consciousness-raising groups wherein women's autobiographical stories were positioned as authenticating truths" (Hesford, 1999, p. 195). Second, through *Rape Stories*, Wendy S. Hesford shows how to overthrow the dominant culture with strong patriarchal accents. She shows a kind of power discourse that exists as a pop-culture

backdrop, in which rape is rationalized, how rapists exercise "body power." Since then, Wendy's article also suggests larger issues, such as cultural stories about gender, race, class, sexuality... that can be linked through historical analyzes of rape trauma and its expression.

Looking deeply into trauma discourse, one can clearly see traces of marginalization of non-centered values that are subject to violent repression. Trauma criticism is concerned with philosophical perspectives on violence. However, besides the visible violence that provokes historical storms, distorts the lives of each individual, there is also an invisible brutality that is more subtle, more delicate, but equally inimical. It is violence that is tacitly acknowledged, legitimized by social norms, disguised by stereotypes and ideals. Not only in times of war, or in the tumult of history, but even in everyday life, humans have become negligible, vulnerable to the mechanisms that cause pain. What lies default and acceptable in social life[4] turns out to contain a multitude of traumatic factors that are very subtly pernicious. The abuse of power by the totalitarian model in strict contexts, gender inequality and the authority of patriarchy, the potency of crowds and mechanisms, etc., have engendered all kinds of pressures to push children, people in miserable and tormented situations. In recent decades, literature has come increasingly closer to micro-narratives, marginalities, individuals different from the crowd, and society.

Han Kang's *The Vegetarian* - the 2016 Man Booker Prize-winning novel - is a work that penetrates deep into the tragedy of everyday life, the mishap of people who are considered "outcast". It is also a text that makes readers realize that there are

---

[4] Interestingly enough, the word "normal" is derived from the word "norm" which means rule. As a rule, it is always repressive.

mechanisms in life that, once people are put into a traumatic situation, they will suffer from persistent traumatic experiences. The Vegetarian consists of 3 independent stories (*Vegetarian*, *Mongolian mark*, *Flaming Trees*), but intersects - connects each other from an unusual event: suddenly one day, Yeong Hye - an ordinary woman often leads a normal, even somewhat boring life, waking up from a dream and determined never to eat meat again. Her decision to be considered "unusual" has disturbed family life and affected the lives of her loved ones.

The in-depth analysis of the feelings and reactions of people around to Yeong Hye's behaviour, Han Kang reveals that there is non-verbal violence, prejudices, and insensitive attitudes towards feelings of others has formed a series of mechanisms that push people into a state of loss for words, becoming depressed and lonely. Those mechanisms can be disguised under the "normal, boring" relationships of married life (the husband), the care and concern of the mother and sister under the shadow of authority of a father in the society still heavily pervaded by patriarchy. The husband's initial confusion, both surprise and awe, towards his wife, which he considers "neither freshness nor charm or anything especially refined", even "that kind of wife, and that kind of lifestyle, did mean that I was unlikely to find my days particularly stimulating" has made Yeong Hye to become a "spectre" in her house. In his eyes, the wife gradually became a monstrous figure, gradually, the feeling of doubt formed "an intense feeling of disgust" (Kang, 2015, p. 34). Even when he saw his wife having hard sleeps, suffering from tormented corporal pain after every dream, he still only saw the desiccated body of a silly woman with the dark abyss in her head. The emotional and lifestyle disparity, the husband's indifference, even the desperate unanswered verbal signals (Yeong Hye repeated the sentence "I had a dream" over

and over again) have pushed Yeong Hye into a state of almost losing her voice, being helpless and bewildered before the nightmares that lasted forever.

From the initial confusion, to shock, anger, Yeong Hye became a grotesque and monstrous image in the perception of those around her. For family members, Yeong Hye's act of completely refusing to eat meat is almost an absurdity. The state of extreme tension that took place during the family meal and the actions of loved ones have directly poured on Yeong Hye a cruel pressure. Parents, older sister, and brother were only interested in putting a piece of meat into her mouth, finding all kinds of methods, from coaxing advice to using violence to control, pushed Yeong Hye to the path of destruction of her own existence. In the end, in the fierce resistance, Yeong Hye refused food, stopped communicating, thinking, and dried herself in the sun hoping to become a tree, because to her, all the trees in this world are all brothers and sisters. Of course, Yeong Hye cannot turn into a tree, but her monstrously desiccated body shrank to be a completely alone figure, absence from any connection to the social life.

To say that traumatic experience is the psychological dimension associated with suffering also somewhat holds true in the case of the character Yeong Hye, but that is not all. Han Kang's novels show one thing: a violent event can manifest itself as something that is completely unknown to us. For Yeong Hye, violence is initially unknown, unrecognizable, but it is the mechanism of action that causes forms of trauma to be present. There are things that, in essence, have caused a long-lasting trauma in childhood, such as: the brutal beatings of the father, the witness of the father brutally killing the dog that once bit him, etc., in the perception of a nine-year-old child, they are not yet significant events. Even in her memory, Yeong Hye was completely a carefree child, "the smell of

burnt flesh, which the perilla seeds couldn't wholly mask, pricked my nose. I remember the two eyes that had watched me, while the dog was made to run on, while he vomited blood mixed with froth, and how later they had seemed to appear flickering, on the surface of the soup. But I don't care. I really didn't care" (Kang, 2015, p. 33). However, once the memory returned through the nightly, tormenting dreams that left her dull and exhausted, then the trauma emerged. The dreams were always permeated with blood, scarlet one, locking her in a "shuddering, sordid, gruesome, brutal feeling" (Kang, 2015, p. 23). It was the moment that Yeong Hye realized that all the states she endured turned out to be horribly traumatic. From dreams full of violence and murder that reveal childhood memories, to a state of faltering, voiceless, broken existence, completely solitary and failed to capture the present moment, everything is related. In *The Vegetarian*, Yeong Hye is almost a traumatized image.

Han Kang's *The Vegetarian* is a text that we chose to analyze to clarify a specific traumatic state that comes from people's existential situations in life, thereby to show that: very subtle networks of power structures that can push people into a state of misery, pain, and especially, not all human pain can be named and seen. In Yeong Hye, there are many factors that make her easy to become a victim of many oppressive mechanisms in life: being a woman, having a history of abuse, being a very ordinary woman with a boring married life. Yeong Hye symbolizes the type of person who is easily forgotten in this life, as well as easily became a subject of ignorance in the eyes of others. Therefore, Yeong Hye's cries and protests against eating meat are inevitably considered irrational by her relatives and the community; her painful dreams meant nothing in her husband's eyes. So, in the absence of inhuman actions or bloody violence, people can still experience trauma

in the most ordinary life.

Approaching trauma from a discursive perspective not only widens the boundaries of a structural problem, but it also opens up possibilities for strong connections with contemporary theory. If we look more deeply at the human aspect that trauma theory brings, in particular, focus on the psychological problems of traumatized subjects evoked by critical trauma discourse, we realize that Trauma theory is likely connected with one of the most prominent theoretical today, that is the theory of emotions (Affect Theory). In fact, modern trauma criticism focuses its attention on the persistent effects suffered by the traumatic subject and rather than the initial traumatic event. Insecurity, anxiety, guilt about race, skin color, gender, etc., are the factors that destroy ego values and are the factors causing the most trenchant wound. For example, Amos Gordberg in *Trauma, Narrative and Two forms of Death* describes this situation, and it shows the inhumanity of the development of Nazism in allowing racial guilt to slowly destroy Jewish hope. Amos Gordberg pointed out that when the Nazis marked each Jew with a body badge or had a number tattooed on his arm, the victim was approaching his first Death. He called it "The Death Caused by the Annihilator's Signifier" or "symbolic death". He wrote:

> What I am proposing is that the Nazi practices of signification endeavored to literally close the gap between the signifier, the signified, and the real referent: a Jew as a signifier is a Jew as a concept is a Jew as a real material body. Within the framework of such a practice, there are no gaps between the subject and the signifier and between one signifier and another since the Jew has only one signifier. Total identity is reached" (Gordberg, 2006, p. 132).

The Jew no longer exists in his being as a self but is "dissolved" in his community, a community marked, despised, murdered. In Amos Goldberg's article, there is an idea that is very close to Freud's point, which is: from the beginning, the event is not entirely traumatic. In other words, the classification of the Nazis was done in many ways: a badge attached to a person, a "J" stamped on a passport, a number tattooed on the skin of Jews... From eyewitness recollections, it was indeed a horribly traumatic experience.

Let us take, for example, Victor Klemperer's testimony as he wrote it in Dresden immediately after the war (Klemperer survived the war in Dresden and was not deported to the "East"):" I ask myself today what I had been asking myself and many different others already hundreds of times: what was the most difficult day for the Jews in the twelve years of hell. Never did I receive from myself or from others, any other answer but that: September the 19th 1941. The day when we were forced to wear the Jewish star (Gordberg, 2006, p. 127).

The word "Jewish" is attached to individuals, becoming a kind of shackles, depriving them of their freedom, making them lose their voice, their sense of self-existence, and being tortured, completely destroyed. Indeed, in studies of emotion theory, we can find many intersections with trauma criticism, and in critical trauma writing it is not difficult to see traces of gender discourses, race. In that tangled web, at the heart of it, all remains a trauma that describes human suffering and how people respond to that situation.

5. Conclusion

As we have shown above, Cathy Caruth's trauma theory derived from poststructuralism, so her definition provided a classical model of trauma. The later development direction of trauma criticism, when it transcends the structure of experience and memory towards a pluralistic model, actually develops in the direction of contemporary theory: engagement, taking responsibility for life. It focuses on human existential issues, delves into the mechanisms that cause trauma in social life, questions and critiques social norms. The change of trauma model, from our perspective, is completely consistent with the trend of the theory's transformation. Trauma criticism gradually moved away from its central domain of Western sensibilities and identity, and more closely to many peripheral cultures, which contributed to expanding the database of case studies, where trauma theory was placed in the extremely vivid and rich literary life.

By adopting Cathy Caruth's conceptions of trauma combined with the discourse of contemporary trauma criticism, we believe that trauma first and foremost, in the most general sense, is mental distress, and pain - the inner experiences of people in the face of sudden, terrible events, whereby the transcendent nature of the event pushes people into a state of unawareness of the nature of trauma at the very first moment. Therefore, trauma is only recognized in the process of recall, in the chain of memories anchored in the depths of the human unconscious. Second, the core of trauma is still the events. However, the boundary of traumatic events' significance should be widened. If only narrowing the understanding in a single sense, thinking that traumatic events are debacles that occur in human life (war, disaster), inadvertently, a part of literature written about violence in everyday life will be excluded from the flow of trauma literature. Traumatic events can also cover diverse manifestations of repressive mechanisms in everyday life, making trauma more recognizable through

the aftershocks of the crisis of the self. Finally, trauma works by mechanisms of the unconscious. The initial pain, obsession, and overwhelm is not really trauma until, at a very distant point in time, unconsciously activates the pain mechanism, disturbing the psychological life, bursting into inner crises, causing severe mental sequelae. Trauma, thereby creating dissociation, fracture in consciousness, even pushing people to the limit of endurance: loss of voice, madness, silence, sleepwalking, etc.

References

Alexievich, S. (2019). *Last witnesses: An oral history of the children of world war II* (R. Pevear & V. Volokhonsky, Trans). Random House Trade.

Ataria, Y., Gurevitz, D., Pedaya, H., & Neria, Y. (2016). *Interdisciplinary handbook of trauma and culture*. Springer International Publishing.

Balaev, M. (2018). Trauma studies. In D. H. Richter (Ed.), *A companion to literary theory* (pp. 360-371). Wiley Blackwell.

Caruth, C. (1995). Introduction: Trauma and experience. In C. Caruth (Ed.), *Trauma: Explorations in memory* (pp. 3-12). John Hopkins University Press.

Caruth, C. (1996). *Unclaimed experience: Trauma, narrative, and history*. John Hopkins University Press.

Freud, S., & Breuer, J. (2004). *Studies in hysteria* (N. Luckhurst, Trans.). Penguin Classics.

Gordberg, A. (2006). Trauma, narrative and two forms of death. *Literature and Medicine*, *25*(1), 122-141. https://muse.jhu.edu/journal/118

Grass, G. (2002). *Cái trống thiếc* [The tin drum] (Dương Tường dịch). Nhà xuất bản Hội nhà văn.

Hesford, W. S. (1999). Reading Rape stories: Material rhetoric and the trauma of representation. *College English*, *62*(2), 192-221. https://doi.org/10.2307/379018

Kang, H. (2015). *The Vegetarian*. Portobello Books. https://booksvooks.com/the-vegetarian-pdf-han-kang.html

Luckhurst, R. (2006). Mixing memory and desire psychoanalysis, psychology, and trauma theory. In P. Waugh (Ed.), *Literary theory and criticism: An Oxford guide* (pp. 497-507). Oxford University Press.

Rodi-Risberg, M. (2010). *Writing trauma, writing time and space: Jane Smiley's A Thousand Acres and the Lear group of father-daughter incest narratives*. University of Vaasa. https://www.univaasa.fi/materiaali/pdf/isbn_978-952-476-320-2.pdf

Szymborska, W. (n.d.). *Hunger camp at Jaslo*. Genius. https://genius.com/Wisawa-szymborska-hunger-camp-at-jaslo-annotated

Trần, Đ. S. (2014). *Trên đường biên của lí luận văn học* [On the peripheral line of literary theory]. Nhà xuất bản Văn học.

Trần, V. T. (2015, September 20). Dẫn nhập lí thuyết diễn ngôn của F. Foucault và nghiên cứu văn học [Introduction to F. Foucault's discourse theory and literature research]. http://toantransphn.blogspot.com/2015/09/dan-nhap-li-thuyet-dien-ngon-cua.html

Wodin, N. (2020). *Người đến từ Mariupol* [She came from Mariupol]. Nhà xuất bản Hội nhà văn.

Yancy, G. (2019, July 10). Judith Butler: When killing women isn't a crime. *The New York Times*. https://www.nytimes.com/2019/07/10/opinion/judith-butler-gender.html

KHÁI NIỆM CHẤN THƯƠNG TRONG VĂN HỌC
NHÌN TỪ SỰ CHUYỂN DỊCH CÁC MÔ HÌNH CHẤN THƯƠNG
Ở PHƯƠNG TÂY

Đặng Hoàng Oanh

Viện Sư phạm Xã hội, Trường Đại học Vinh,
182 Lê Duẩn, Bến Thủy, Vinh, Việt Nam

Tóm tắt: Bài viết đi vào phân tích làm nổi bật sự thay đổi trong cách nhìn về chấn thương của các khuynh hướng nghiên cứu chấn thương ở Hoa Kì và phương Tây giai đoạn những năm 90 của thế kỉ XX cho đến nay, cụ thể qua trường hợp Cathy Caruth và những làn sóng nghiên cứu hậu Caruth. Qua việc tham chiếu quan điểm về chấn thương trong công trình kinh điển của Cathy Caruth *Unclaimed Experience: Trauma, Narrative, and History* và các công trình nghiên cứu sau này, chúng tôi chỉ rõ sự chuyển dịch từ mô hình truyền thống (chấn thương được nhìn như một khái niệm mang tính cấu trúc) sang mô hình lí thuyết đa nguyên, nơi chấn thương được nhìn như một diễn ngôn. Những nghiên cứu này của bài viết có ý nghĩa cung cấp một cách đầy đủ khái niệm về chấn thương, đồng thời cung cấp những công cụ lí thuyết để đọc văn bản văn học.

Từ khóa: lí thuyết chấn thương, Cathy Caruth, mô hình cấu trúc, lí thuyết đa nguyên, diễn ngôn chấn thương

READING STRATEGIES USED BY STUDENTS OF DIFFERENT LEVELS OF ENGLISH READING PROFICIENCY

Nguyen Thi Bich Thuy*

PHENIKAA University, Faculty of English, Hanoi 12116, Vietnam

Abstract: Reading plays a vital role in academic development, particularly when learners have to work over a huge amount of foreign language materials for their own specialist subjects (McDonough & Shaw, 2013). Strengthening English reading ability is necessary for students to promote individual ability in university education. This study was conducted to explore if there were any differences in the use of reading strategies among university students of different levels of self-rated English reading proficiency. 957 students from 6 universities in the North of Vietnam participated in the study. The results of the study through the questionnaire adapted from Oxford's (2013) Self-Strategic Regulation model (S2R) show that there were significant differences in the use of reading strategies among students of different self-rated levels of English reading proficiency, especially between students of good and poor proficiency. The highest frequencies in the use of each strategy category were in the group of self-rated good readers and the students of the poor group reported the lowest frequencies. The study also reveals individual strategies used the most and the least by each group of students.

Keywords: reading strategies, English reading proficiency, university students, Vietnam

1. Introduction

Adolescents entering the world in the 21st century read and write more than at any other time in human history (Moore et al., 1999, as cited in International Reading Association, 2012, p. 3). In the full bloom of technology, especially in the stage of the fourth industrial revolution, students' ability to read might be crucial as they will need literacy to cope with the flood of information and to feed their imaginations to create their future. There are many factors affecting students' English reading proficiency such as text types, university and social environments, students' intelligence, learning motivation, teaching methods, and

so on (Hsu, 2015). One of the most important factors is students' learning strategy use, particularly their use of reading strategies.

Reading strategies refer to the mental operations involved when readers purposefully approach a text. They indicate how readers conceive a task, what textual cues they attend to, how they make sense of what they read, and what they do when they do not understand (Barnett, 1988; Brantmeier, 2002). In fact, reading strategies play positive roles in English reading comprehension as they facilitate learning to read effectively (Brown, 2001; Oxford, 1990; Rubin, 2008).

This research was conducted to explore if there were any differences in the use of reading strategies by students of different levels of English reading proficiency.

2. Literature Review

2.1. Reading Strategies

According to Garner (1987), reading strategies are generally deliberate, planful activities undertaken by active learners, many times to remedy perceived cognitive failure. Reading strategies are also defined as actions that readers select deliberately and control to achieve goals or objectives (Paris, Wasik & Turner, 1991). In a very similar way, Carrell, Gajuusek, and Wise (1998) express "strategies are used deliberately to refer to actions that readers select and control to achieve desired goals or objectives" (pp. 97-112). Yang (2004) defines reading strategies as conscious and deliberate activities that readers take to help their reading in acquiring, storing, retrieving information, and constructing meaning from the text.

In the Self-Strategic Regulation (S2R) model, Oxford (2013) describes reading strategy as "deliberate, goal-directed attempts to manage and control efforts to read the L2" (p. 12). With the S2R model readers are seen as strategically self-regulated readers who approach challenging reading tasks and problems by choosing from a repertoire of tactics, the ones they believe are best compatible with the situation and purpose of their reading (Oxford, 2013). Furthermore, Oxford's (2013) argument into characteristics of reading strategies favors different types of consciousness (awareness, attention, intention, and efforts), whole reader, utilizing strategy chains, transferability of strategies to other related situations, and reading effectiveness.

Although different authors have defined reading strategies in different ways, all of them share the same viewpoint on the characteristics of reading strategies. Those are (1) deliberate, conscious plans, techniques, and skills; (2) aiming to enhance reading comprehension and overcome comprehension failures; and (3) behavioral mental. They are of interest for what they reveal about the way readers manage their interaction with the written text and how these strategies are related to text comprehension (Carrell, Pharis & Liberto, 1989). In this sense, a reading strategy is an action (or a series of actions) that is employed to construct meaning (Brantmeier, 2002).

Different classification systems of reading strategies based on contrasting criteria have been proposed by different authors (Carrell, 1989; Mokhtari & Sheorey, 2002; O'Malley & Chamot, 1990; Oxford, 1990; Oxford, 2013). Each existing classification system in and on itself involves an implicit theory about the nature of reading strategies. However, how many strategies are available to learners to assist them in language learning and how these strategies should be classified are open to debate (Hsiao & Oxford, 2002). It may also cause a problem that many researchers are very easily puzzled with which classification to follow when they conduct studies on reading strategy use.

Oxford's (2013) S2R model includes strategies of three majors, mutually influential dimensions: cognitive, affective, sociocultural-interactive, and metastrategies.

Metastrategies, which consist of eight strategies, aim to help readers manage and control the reading process in a general sense, with a focus on understanding readers' own needs and using and adjusting the other strategies to meet those needs, for example, planning, organizing, monitoring,

evaluating, etc. Cognitive strategies include six strategies, which help readers remember and proceed with the reading process, such as activating knowledge, constructing, transforming, etc. Affective strategies consisting of two strategies help readers handle emotions, beliefs, attitudes, and motivation in their reading process. Sociocultural Interactive strategies, which include three strategies, support readers to deal with issues of contexts, communication, and culture in their reading comprehension.

The conceptual framework is demonstrated as follows.

Figure 2.1

S2R Classification of Reading Strategies (Oxford, 2013)
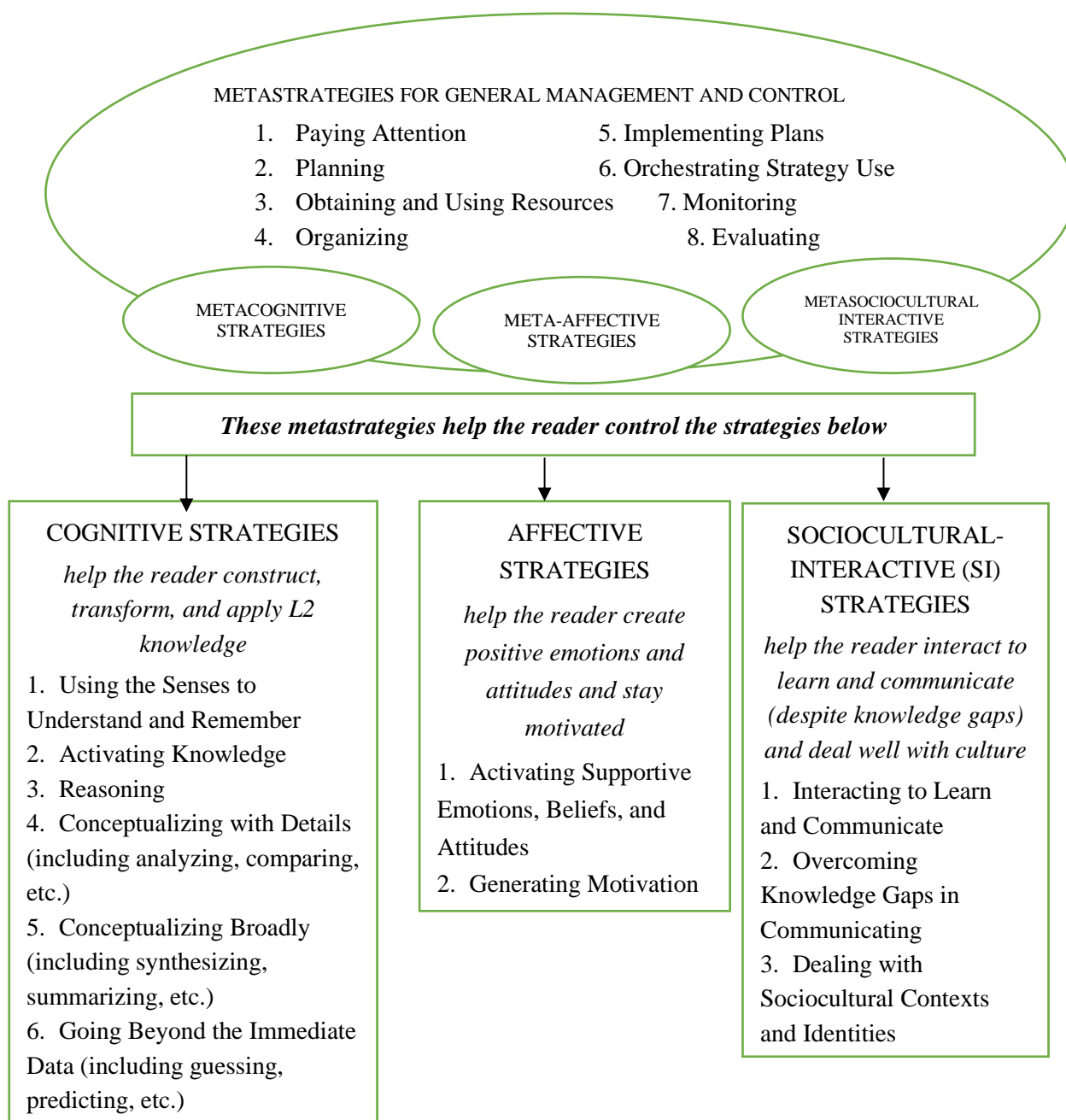
Oxford (2013) presents nine ways that make the S2R Model different from other strategy taxonomies, which shows the advantages of this new model. The most significant differences between Oxford's (2013) and other authors' systems can be demonstrated as follows.

First, the S2R Model systematically integrates three major traditions of learning theory and research: psychological, socialcognitive, and sociocultural. The psychological tradition of strategies is very diverse, including strategies related to schema (mental structure) development, comprehension, cognitive information-processing, metacognition, motivation, emotion, and beliefs. The social-cognitive strand deals with strategies associated with task phases, self-efficacy, and social comparisons. The sociocultural tradition involves strategies (often called "higher mental functions" or "operations") as linked with mediated learning, instrumental enrichment, communities of practice, and cognitive apprenticeship.

Second, by proposing affecting and sociocultural interaction subscales of strategies, especially by recognizing the significant importance of metastrategies, Oxford (2013) indicates that second language reading is not just a cognitive/metacognitive process but is also influenced by a complex web of beliefs, emotional associations, attitudes, motivations, sociocultural relationships, personal interactions, and power dynamics.

Third, the S2R Model states that metastrategies, such as Planning, Organizing, Monitoring, and Evaluating, are naturally usable at either the task level or the entire-process level. Meanwhile, several social-cognitive models of self-regulated learning view these as only related to a particular task phase (e.g., strategies used before, during, and after the task). Finally, the S2R Model includes the fewest strategies

and metastrategies (a total of nineteen) needed for self-regulated L2 learning; therefore, the model can be viewed as scientifically elegant. Taking the advantages and disadvantages of the theoretical issues on reading strategies into consideration, reviewing empirical studies on reading strategies, the researcher has chosen the Self-Strategic Regulation (S2R) model by Oxford (2013) as the theoretical framework for this study. The main reasons for the choice are: firstly, the S2R reading model has overcome the weaknesses of the other models, especially by putting an important role of reading strategies on readers' comprehensions, which are ignored in all other reading models. In addition, self-regulation is one of the most exciting developments in a second or foreign language (L2) learning (Oxford, 2013, p. 7). Secondly, Oxford's (2013) model focuses on factors that make learning easier, more enjoyable, faster, and more efficient. Finally, through the comparing of the S2R reading strategy taxonomy and other ones, Oxford's (2013) S2R reading strategy classification shows its scientific elegance, especially it avoids the overlap of strategies in some other taxonomies, which shows usefulness and effectiveness for researchers to conduct a study on reading strategy use.

2.2. Previous Studies

There have been more and more studies on language learning strategies in general and on reading strategies in particular since the seventieth decade of the previous century. In this part, some studies on the reading strategy used by successful and unsuccessful readers will be presented.

A study which should be considered to create the ground of investigation in this field is one by Block (1986) when he using "general comprehension" and "local linguistic" categories echoed Hosenfeld's (1977) binary classification of strategies compared the reading comprehension

strategies used by native English speakers and ESL students who were enrolled in a remedial reading course at the university level. The strategies introduced were divided into two types: general strategies and local strategies. Of the ESL students in the study, the readers with higher comprehension scores reported using "general strategies" such as integrating new information in the text with old information, distinguishing main ideas from details, referring to their background, and focusing on the textual meaning as a whole. On the other hand, readers with low comprehension rarely distinguished main ideas from details rarely referred to their background, infrequently focused on textual meaning, and seldom integrated information.

In the same year, Ebrahimi (2012), and Saeed, Maedeh, and Mohsen (2012) conducted separate studies to investigate cognitive strategies used by EFL graduate students during their reading a hypermedia text (8 Persian and 23 Persian students, respectively). The data of both studies collected through think-aloud, interview, and questionnaire indicate that there was a considerable discrepancy in the strategies used between groups of high and low reading proficiency. Strategies used by the proficient group were mainly skimming and using prior knowledge. In contrast, the less-proficient group mostly made use of paraphrasing, translating into the first language, and checking the unknown words in a dictionary. The result is in coincidence with the findings in Zhang's (2001) and Yau's (2005) studies when they reveal that there was a significant difference among more advanced and less advanced readers. Proficient readers employed effective strategies such as monitoring their reading comprehension, skimming for the key ideas, and guessing meaning, while the latter depended on a dictionary for word meaning, and translated passages from English into Chinese. This result was also shared by

Malcolm (2009) when he compared the reported academic reading strategy use of medical students in Bahrain University at different English proficiency levels. The study result indicates that the low English proficiency group used more translation strategies and they reported using fewer strategies than the upper-year students. Moreover, the translation is also reported to be heavily relied on by less proficient readers in Alsheikh's (2011) study.

In the reality of their reading process, good readers outperformed the poor ones in employing metacognitive strategies. In their studies Yin and Agnes (2001), Zhang, Seepho and Sirinthorn (2013), and Shikano's (2013) used the same instrument of Metacognitive Awareness of Reading Strategies Inventory (MARSI) (Mokhtari & Richard, 2002) to collect data on the readers' use of metacognitive strategies. Of the three studies, Yin and Agnes's (2001) study results show that good readers were more aware of metacognitive knowledge and used metacognitive strategies more frequently than poor readers. In addition, studies by Dhieb-Henia (2003), Swanson and De La Paz (1998), and Zhang (2001) conducted on poor and good readers' use of strategies demonstrated that good readers used more metacognitive strategies as they read.

In contrast, Shokrpour and Nasiri (2011) in their study to investigate the use of cognitive and metacognitive reading strategies by ninety-four good and poor Iranian academic IELTS test takers reveal that there were not any significant differences between good and poor readers in using cognitive strategies. Sharing the same results, the research by Shikano (2013) on sixty Japanese university students shows no significant differences between the high-reading-proficiency group and the low-reading-proficiency group. Moreover, Zhang et al.'s (2013) investigation on twenty-two Chinese third-year English majored undergraduate students reveals that

the metacognitive strategy use of high and low proficiency students was the same at medium level. This is similar to the findings of Anderson's (1991) and Yayli's (2010) studies when they found out that proficient and less proficient readers used the same strategy types while performing a reading activity. However, high-scoring students seemed to be applying strategies more effectively and appropriately.

Nevertheless, a study by Oranpattanachi (2010) on ninety Thai engineering students shows that the high and the low proficiency readers shared both different and similar issues in their reading processes. The differences were divided into two aspects: the frequency of perceived strategy use and the frequency of perceived top-down strategy use. The similarities in their reading processes were also divided into two aspects: the rank ordering of perceived strategy use and the style of text processing.

To summarize, of studies investigating strategies used by successful and unsuccessful readers, most results reveal that there were differences in strategy use between the two kinds of readers. All the authors share the idea that readers with higher reading proficiency reported using various and effective reading strategies, with higher frequency and vice versa. High proficient readers tended to deploy a wider range of strategies with higher frequency. The strategies used by successful readers are more appropriate to tasks than those by unsuccessful readers, so the strategies used show higher effectiveness. Meanwhile, some other studies show no significant differences in strategy use, especially in the total number of strategies, between the two kinds of readers. However, the difference lies in types and the frequency of using the strategies. The strategies used by proficient readers are mainly integrating new information in the text with old information or using background knowledge, including

inferences, predictions, and elaborations; skimming, guessing. In contrast, less proficient readers tended to use less effective strategies such as paraphrasing, translating into the first language, and checking the unknown words in a dictionary.

3. Methodology

3.1. The Participants

The participants chosen in this study consisted of 981 students from six universities in Hanoi, Vietnam (Banking Academy, Posts and Telecommunications Institute of Technology, National Economics University, University of Social Science and Humanities, Hanoi Medical University, and University of Science and Technology of Hanoi). The participants aged from 20-22, majoring in Economics, Technology, Finance/Banking, Accounting, Social Science and Humanities, Medicine, and Administrating were second or third-year students. They were diverse in gender, academic major, experiences in English learning including reading comprehension proficiency, etc.

3.2. Data Collection Instruments

Because of their salient advantages, especially they are self-administered and can be given to large groups of participants at the same time, which can assure more uniform and standard, and more accurate collected data, questionnaires were the first choice in the consideration of research instruments for this study.

The questionnaire used in the present study consists of two parts:

- Part One designed to gather the information about individual characteristics of the participants required the subjects to supply their ethnographic data, such as gender, age, time of English study, major, their self-assessment on English, and reading proficiency.

- Part Two included nineteen statements appropriate to nineteen different strategies applied in reading comprehension. These questionnaire statements, which are broad, teachable actions that readers choose from among alternatives and employ for second/foreign language learning purposes, adapted from the S2R strategy model by Oxford (2013) demonstrated above.

The external reliability of the questionnaire was assured as all the nineteen items in the questionnaire were replicated from Oxford's (1990) Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) which has been applied by many other researchers across the world in the field (Oxford, 2001).

For each questionnaire statement, five alternative choices were provided. Participants were asked to select one from among the followings:

1 for Never or rarely true of me

2 for Usually not true of me

3 for Somewhat true of me

4 for Usually true of me

5 for Always or almost true of me

The higher the number that respondents indicated applied to them, the more frequent the use of the particular strategy was reflected. The whole questionnaire was translated into Vietnamese for the participants' better understanding (Appendix A).

A pilot study was conducted to test the validity of the research instrument, especially to check the compatibility of the scale and the suitability of the statements in the questionnaire. 110 students chosen randomly participated in this pilot study and they were asked to complete the reading strategy questionnaire.

Cronbach's Alpha was used to check the reliability of the scale inside the questionnaire. The internal reliability of the questionnaire was high with Cronbach's

Alpha=0.935 for 19 items of reading strategies. In addition, the correlation between coefficient variables and the total of each item was high with the score ranging from 0.454 to 0.758.

These results revealed that both external and internal reliability and validity of the questionnaire were assured and it could be used as the instrument of the main study.

3.3. Data Collection and Analyzing Procedures

At the beginning of the procedures, all of the participants were introduced to the purpose of the study and were given guidelines and instructions for completing the questionnaire. The students then filled in the two parts of the questionnaire, which took about 30 to 40 minutes.

981 questionnaires were returned. However, after the data cleansing, 957 ones were used for the research, which then were analyzed via The Statistical Package for the Social Science (SPSS) version 20.0.

Descriptive statistics were employed to identify what and how frequently the participants used strategies during their reading English texts. The descriptive statistics provided frequencies, means, and standard deviations. These data were used to describe what reading strategies the participants used and how frequently the strategies were used: the mean score of overall reading strategy use, the mean score of each strategy category, the most and the least frequently used strategies among 19 strategies/4 strategy categories.

The Cronbach's Alpha score was measured to examine the internal consistency of the reliability of the questionnaire statements with the participants for this study. The Cronbach's Alpha for the overall 19 items was .855 and for each item if item deleted ranged from the highest of .901 to the lowest of .842, which

confirmed the reliability of the questionnaire (Cronbach, 1951). This is commonly considered a good indicator, as the coefficient alpha should exceed 0.70 to ensure dependable measurement of cognitive activities (Cronbach, 1951).

The scores were interpreted using the interpretation key based on the frequency scale delineated by Oxford (1990) for general learning strategy usage. The higher the averages are the more frequently the participants used the strategy concerned.

Table 3.1

Frequency Scale Delineated by Oxford (1990)

Mean score	Frequency scale	Evaluation
1.0-1.4	Low	Never or almost never used
1.5-2.4		Generally not used
2.5-3.4	Medium	Sometimes used
3.5-4.4	High	Usually used
4.5-5.0		Always or almost always used

One-way ANOVAs, MANOVAs were employed to find significant differences in both the overall use of reading strategies and the use of each strategy category across levels of the participants' English reading proficiency.

4. Findings and Discussion

The questionnaire analysis shows how the participants self-evaluated their English reading proficiency based on four scales, from "Good" to "Poor". It can be seen from Table 4.1 that only 11.8% of the participants self rated good at reading, while most of them were fair or average at reading, and nearly a quarter considered themselves as poor English readers.

Table 4.1

Participants' Self-Rated English Reading Proficiency

Level of self-rated English reading proficiency		Frequency	Percent
Valid	Good	113	11.8
	Fair	232	24.2
	Average	379	39.6
	Poor	233	24.4
Total		957	957

Table 4.2 shows the means and standard deviations of the overall use of reading strategies for the participants' different levels of self-rated English reading proficiency. It can be seen clearly from the table that students who rated themselves good and fair at English reading proficiency outperformed those who self-rated average and poor at English reading proficiency (M= 3.21, 3.14 vs M=2.86, 2.63, respectively).

Table 4.2

Participants' Overall Strategy Use by Levels of Self-Rated English Reading Proficiency

Self-rated English reading proficiency	Overall strategy use		
	Number	Mean	S.D
Good	113	3.21	1.066
Fair	232	3.14	1.010
Average	379	2.86	0.993
Poor	233	2.63	1.362
Total	957	2.90	1.168

A one-way MANOVA results reveal a significant multivariate main effect for students' self-rated English reading proficiency (p=0.000<0.05) indicating the relationship between the participants' levels of self-rated English reading proficiency and their overall reading strategy use.

Table 4.3 contains the means and standard deviations of the four reading strategy categories for the participants of different levels of self-rated English reading proficiency. The figures show that the highest frequencies in the use of each

strategy category were in the group of the students who self-rated good at English reading proficiency, and the students of average and poor groups reported the lowest frequencies.

Table 4.3

Participants' Use of Strategy Category by Levels of Self-Rated English Reading Proficiency

English reading proficiency	N	META		COG		AFFEC		SOCIO	
		M	S.D	M	S.D	M	S.D	M	S.D
Good	113	2.84	0.723	3.58	0.859	3.01	0.981	3.09	0.789
Fair	232	2.92	0.626	3.57	0.797	3.02	0.911	2.92	0.873
Average	379	2.61	0.643	3.19	0.732	2.89	0.935	2.78	0.807
Poor	233	2.50	1.184	2.81	0.855	2.69	1.050	2.58	0.869
Total	957	2.69	0.828	3.24	0.846	2.89	0.971	2.80	0.850

In addition, the results from one-way MANOVA confirm that levels of the students' self-rated English reading proficiency had effects on their use of the four strategy categories.

Multiple Comparisons using the LSD method were taken to compare the frequent use of strategy categories by participants of different levels of self-rated English learning proficiency. The result indicates that there were great differences in the use of all strategy categories between a group of self-rated poor students and three other groups with p value=0.000 for all comparisons. There were also significant differences in the use of the Cognitive Category between the group of self-rated average and other groups.

One more MANOVA with LSD method was also taken to compare the frequent use of individual strategies by participants of different levels of self-rated English reading proficiency. The results reveal that there were significant differences in the use of twelve strategies between self-rated students of each reading proficiency level and students of other groups, with

p value=0.000<0.05 in the use of the strategies (Paying attention, Monitoring, Evaluating, Using the Senses to Understand and Remember, Activating Knowledge, Reasoning, Conceptualizing with Details, Conceptualizing Broadly, Going Beyond the Immediate Data, Generating and Maintaining Motivation, Overcoming Knowledge Gaps in Communicating, and Dealing with Sociocultural Contexts and Identities). Ten of the strategies were shared by the self-rated average group (Paying attention, Monitoring, Evaluating, Using the Senses to Understand and Remember, Activating Knowledge, Reasoning, Conceptualizing with Details, Conceptualizing Broadly, Going Beyond the Immediate Data, Dealing with Sociocultural Contexts and Identities), too. It can also be seen from the findings that two strategies-Organizing, and Implementing plans were reported being used differently by self-rated poor and fair groups. Five strategies that did not show the significant differences in the use by the groups of different levels of self-rated reading proficiency were Planning, Obtaining and Using Resources, Orchestrating Strategy Use, Activating

Supportive Emotions, Beliefs, and Attitudes, and Interacting to Learn and Communicate. It can be said that there were significant differences in the frequent use of strategies between students of different levels of self-rated English reading proficiency, especially between poor and average students and those of other self-rated English reading proficiency levels.

Table 4.4 shows strategies that were used the most and the least frequently by self-rated good and poor readers. The five most used strategies by self-rated good English readers were Activating Knowledge, Going Beyond the Immediate Data, Using the Senses to Understand and Remember, Reasoning, and Conceptualizing Broadly with the mean scores at high level

ranged from M=3.72; S.D=0.940 to M=3.50; S.D=1.087. Meanwhile, the most used strategies by the other group were Obtaining and Using Resources, Activating Knowledge, Using the Senses to Understand and Remember, Interacting to Learn and Communicate, and Conceptualizing with Details, with the mean scores at medium level ranged from M=3.07; S.D=1.212 to M=2.76; S.D=1.105. Of the five least used strategies both of the groups shared four strategies: Monitoring, Implementing Plans, Organizing, and Planning. Each group showed a different strategy for the rest - Orchestrating Strategy Use for self-rated good readers and Dealing with Sociocultural Contexts and Identities for self-rated bad English reading proficiency.

Table 4.4

The Most and the Least Frequently Used Strategies by Self-Rated Good and Poor Participants

STRATEGIES	GOOD		STRATEGIES	POOR	
	M	S.D		M	S.D
S10 Activating Knowledge	**3.72**	.940	*S3 Obtaining and Using Resources*	**3.07**	1.212
S14 Going Beyond the Immediate Data	**3.61**	1.114	*S10 Activating Knowledge*	**3.04**	1.078
S9 Using the Senses to Understand and Remember	**3.58**	1.015	*S9 Using the Senses to Understand and Remember*	**2.88**	1.044
S11 Reasoning	**3.58**	1.051	*S17 Interacting to Learn and Communicate*	**2.76**	1.091
S13 Conceptualizing Broadly	**3.50**	1.087	*S12 Conceptualizing with Details*	**2.76**	1.105
S12 Conceptualizing with Details	3.49	1.127	S15 Activating Supportive Emotions, Beliefs, and Attitudes	2.76	1.165
S3 Obtaining and Using Resources	3.42	1.092	S1 Paying attention	2.73	1.054
S1 Paying attention	3.40	1.040	S13 Conceptualizing Broadly	2.73	1.134
S19 Dealing with Sociocultural Contexts and Identities	3.20	.888	S11 Reasoning	2.72	1.044

STRATEGIES	GOOD		STRATEGIES	POOR	
	M	S.D		M	S.D
S18 Overcoming Knowledge Gaps in Communicating	3.12	1.016	S14 Going Beyond the Immediate Data	2.72	1.037
S16 Generating and Maintaining Motivation	3.04	1.030	S6 Orchestrating Strategy Use	2.66	6.429
S15 Activating Supportive Emotions, Beliefs, and Attitudes	2.98	1.118	S18 Overcoming Knowledge Gaps in Communicating	2.64	1.017
S17 Interacting to Learn and Communicate	2.95	1.034	S16 Generating and Maintaining Motivation	2.62	1.089
S8 Evaluating	2.93	1.075	S8 Evaluating	2.46	1.148
S7 Monitoring	**2.72**	1.122	*S19 Dealing with Sociocultural Contexts and Identities*	**2.35**	1.015
S6 Orchestrating Strategy Use	**2.66**	1.185	*S4 Organizing*	**2.32**	1.047
S5 Implementing Plans	**2.58**	1.124	*S5 Implementing Plans*	**2.28**	1.132
S4 Organizing	**2.55**	1.118	*S7 Monitoring*	**2.27**	1.009
S2 Planning	**2.48**	1.078	*S2 Planning*	**2.23**	1.032
Total	**3.13**		**Total**	**2.63**	

Numerous studies have examined the relationship between language learning strategy use and proficiency in specific skill areas, including speaking, listening, reading, writing, and vocabulary learning have been shown to exist (Cohen & Macaro, 2007; Griffifths, 2008). Findings from many studies reveal a positive relationship between reading proficiency and reading strategy use, which indicate that readers of higher levels of proficiency tend to use more reading strategies, as well as a wider range of strategies than those of lower proficiency levels (Huang & Nisbet, 2014; Madhumathi & Ghosh, 2012).

The results of this study are consistent with the findings of the previous studies with the fact that students who self-rated good and fair readers overwhelmed those who rated themselves average and poor readers, especially poor readers, in the overall use of strategies while reading.

The significant differences were shown in the use of all the four strategy categories between self-rated poor reading proficiency participants and those of the other groups. Self-rated poor students used all the four strategy categories at a much lower frequency degree than the others. The greatest differences could be seen in the use of Cognitive and Sociocultural categories. Self-rated good proficiency students used Cognitive strategies the most frequently with high level (M=3.58; S.D=0.859), followed by Sociocultural Interactive, Affective categories, and Metastrategies received the lowest level of frequency. The poor readers also reported using the Cognitive category at the highest frequency level but at a much lower grade than that by the good self-rated group (M=2.81; S.D=0.855 vs M=3.58; S.D=0.859). This result supports Ehrman et al.'s,

(2003) study when they claimed that only cognitive strategies had a significant relationship with language proficiency; in other words, only cognitive strategies significantly influenced ESL/EFL learners' proficiency outcomes. However, the results contradict Shokrpour and Nasiri's (2011) findings as they indicated that there were not any significant differences between good and poor readers in using cognitive strategies.

These findings show a significant relationship between the participants' English reading proficiency and their employment of reading strategy categories. Higher self-rated English reading proficiency participants reported using strategy categories much more frequently than those of lower self-rated English reading proficiency. However, students of all the groups showed no good ability to manage and control their reading, especially ability to use and adjust other strategies to meet their needs in the reading process as all of them reported using Metastrategies at the lowest frequency level, which consequently influenced their reading comprehension. The results of Vann and Abraham's (1990) studies reveal that unsuccessful learners did use strategies generally considered as useful, and often they employed the same strategies as successful learners. Nevertheless, the difference is that successful learners used a larger range of strategies in language learning more frequently and appropriately than unsuccessful learners. That might be the reason why the participants of this study, both with high and low self-rated English reading proficiency, used the same strategy categories but at different frequency levels.

Taking the use of individual strategies into consideration there were significant differences in the use of sixteen out of the nineteen given strategies. The differences were mostly in the use of strategies by the participants of self-rated poor reading proficiency and those of the good group. A comparison in the use of individual strategies between these two groups shows many significant differences.

Firstly, the mean scores on overall use of strategies by the self-rated good readers were much higher than those of the poor (M=3.13; S.D=1.066 vs M=2.63; S.D=1.362). All the five most used strategies by the good group were at high level (M= from 3.72; S.D= 0.940 to M=3.50; S.D=1.087; M average=3.60; S.D=1.0414) while those by the poor were at medium level (M= from 3.07; S.D= 1.212 to M=2.76; S.D=1.105; M average=2.90; S.D =1.106).

Secondly, all the five most used strategies by self-rated good students belonged to the Cognitive category while those by poor ones were of three different categories- one of Metastrategies, three of Cognitive, and one of Sociocultural Interactive category. It is noticeable that the strategies most used by the two groups were completely different. The good group reported using Activating knowledge strategy the most and all the other four related to guessing or inferring the meaning of the text while the other group reported Obtaining and Using Resources the most and only one strategy related to guessing (the least of the five most used strategies). The two most used strategies by the two groups were the typical ones of high and low proficient readers as Oxford (1990) indicates that high proficiency language learners make educated guesses when they encounter unknown expressions, but low proficiency language learners try to look up unfamiliar words. In addition, Rubin (1975) focusing on observation of successful second language learners concluded that the characteristics of good language learners are to be a willing and accurate guesser, to have a strong drive to communicate, to learn from communication, to be uninhibited and willing to make mistakes, paying attention to form by looking for patterns, taking advantage of every opportunity to practice,

and focusing on meaning. The results of this study support Oxford's (1991) findings when she concluded there were differences between high and low proficient learners in the frequency of application of strategies, which in turn affected their academic achievement. It is also in line with Zhang and Wu's (2009) findings as they claim that the frequency of the use of strategy use increase as learners become more proficient and proficient learners show a greater and higher tendency to use strategies than low proficient learners (Park, 2010; Sheorey & Mokhtari, 2001). The explanation for the results might be that advanced learners might be more autonomous in their use of reading strategies (Park, 2010). However, the results contradict Aliakbari and Mahjoob's (2016) findings when they recognize no significant relationship between the students' proficiency level and their use of metacognitive strategies.

5. Conclusions

It can be seen clearly from the research that the participants' levels of self-rated English reading proficiency were related to their overall reading strategy use. There were significant differences in the use of reading strategy categories among students of different self-rated levels of English reading proficiency, especially between students of good and poor proficiency. The highest frequencies in the use of each strategy category were in the group of self-rated good students, and the students of the poor group reported the lowest frequencies. The differences here might have resulted from the students' motivation and attitude to English learning and reading. These were effective factors, which consist of three variables: attitudes, motivation, and anxiety. It is then crucial to improve students' affective factors (Henter, 2012).

In the reality of language learning, learner's use of appropriate strategies enables them to be responsible for their own learning through improving their independence, self-direction, and learner's autonomy, which are crucial for learners to continue their life-long learning endeavors (Oxford & Nyikos, 1989). It is suggested from the results of this study that elicit instruction of strategy use should be incorporated into the English curriculum for university students. Especially, students also need to motivate themselves so that they can become self-strategic regulating readers to get high English reading achievement. In addition, according to Anderson's (1991) "strategic reading is not only a matter of knowing what strategy to use but also the reader must know how to use a strategy successfully and orchestrate its use with other strategies. It is not sufficient to know about strategies; a reader must also be able to apply them strategically" (pp. 468-469).

References

Aliakbari, M., & Mahjoob, E. (2016). The relationship between age and willingness to communicate in an Iranian EFL context. *Journal of Applied Linguistics and Language Research, 3*(1), 54-65.

Al-sheikh, N. (2011). Three readers, three languages, three texts: The strategic reading of multilingual and multiliterate readers. *The Reading Matrix, 11*(1), 34-53.

Barnett, M. (1988). Teaching through context: How real and perceived strategy use affect L2 comprehension. *The Modern Language Journal, 77*, 150-162.

Brantmeier, C. (2002). Second language reading strategy research at the secondary and university levels: Variations, disparities, and generalizability. *The Reading Matrix, 2*(3), 1-13.

Brown, H. D. (2001). *Teaching by principles: An interactive approach to language pedagogy* (2nd ed.). Addison Wesley Longman, Inc.

Carrell, P., Gajuusek, L., & Wise, T. (1998). Metacognition and EFL/ESL reading. *International Science, 26*, 97-112.

Carrell, P. L., Pharis, B. G., & Liberto, J. C. (1989). Metacognitive strategy training for ESL reading. *TESOL Quarterly, 23*, 647-678.

Cohen, A., & Macaro, E. (Eds.). (2007). *Language learner strategies: Thirty years of research and practice*. Oxford University Press.

Cronbach, L. J. (1951). Coefficient alpha and the internal structure of tests. *Psychometrika, 16*, 297-334.

Dhieb-Henia, N. (2003). Evaluating the effectiveness of metacognitive strategy training for reading research articles in an ESP context. *English for Specific Purposes, 22*(4), 387-417. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0889-4906(03)00017-6

Ebrahimi, S. S. (2012). Reading strategies of Iranian postgraduate English students living at ESL context in the first and second language. In Ch. Dan (Ed.), *International proceedings of economics development and research: Education and management innovation* (Vol. 30, pp. 195-199). IACSIT Press.

Ehrman, M. E., Leaver, B. L., & Oxford, R. L. (2003). A brief overview of individual differences in second language learning. *System, 31*, 313-330.

Garner, R. (1987). *Metacognition and reading comprehension.* Ablex Publishing.

Griffiths, C. (2008). *Strategies and good language learners.* In C. Griffiths (Ed.), *Lessons from good language learners* (pp. 83-98). Cambridge University Press.

Hosenfeld, C. (1977). A preliminary investigation of the reading strategies of successful and unsuccessful second language learners. *System, 5*, 110-145.

Hsiao, T. Y., &. Oxford, R. L. (2002). Comparing theories of language learning strategies: A confirmatory factor analysis. *Modern Language Journal, 86*, 368-383.

Huang, J., & Nisbet, D. (2014). The relationship between reading proficiency and reading strategy use: A study of adult ESL learners. *Journal of Adult Education, 43*(2), 1-14.

International Reading Association. (2012). *Adolescent literacy: A position statement of the International Reading Association* (2012 ed.).

Madhumathi, P., & Ghosh, A. (2012). Awareness of reading strategy use of Indian ESL students and the relationship with reading comprehension achievement. *English Language Teaching, 5*(12), 131-140.

Malcolm, D. (2009). Reading strategy awareness of Arabic-speaking medical students studying in English. *System, 37*, 640-651.

McDonough, J., & Shaw, C. (2013). *Materials and methods in ELT: A teacher's guide* (3rd ed.). Blackwell.

Mokhtari, K., & Sheorey, R. (2002). Measuring ESL students' awareness of reading strategies. *Journal of Developmental Education, 25,* 2-10.

Oranpattanachi, P. (2010). Perceived reading strategies used by Thai pre-engineering students. *ABAC Journal, 30*(2), 26-42.

Oxford, R. L. (1990). *Language learning strategies. What every teacher should know*. Heinle & Heinle Publishers.

Oxford, R. L. (2001). Language learning strategies. In R. Carter & D. Nunan (Eds.), *The Cambridge guide to teaching English to speakers of other languages* (pp. 166-172). Cambridge University Press.

Oxford, R. L. (2013). *Teaching and researching language learning strategies*. Pearson.

Oxford, R. L., & Nyikos, M. (1989). Variables affecting choice of language learning strategies by university students. *Modern Language Journal, 73*, 291-300.

Paris, S. G., Wasik, B. A., & Turner, J. C. (1991). The development of strategies of readers. In R. Barr, M. Kamil, P. Mosenthal & P. D. Pearson (Eds.), *Handbook of reading research* (Vol. 2, pp. 609-640). Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Rubin, J. (2008). Reflections. In C. Griffiths (Ed.), *Lessons from good language learners* (pp. 10-15). Cambridge University Press. https://doi.org/10.1017/CBO9780511497667

Saeed, K., Maedeh, M., & Mohsen, R. (2012). Hypermedia reading strategies used by Persian graduate students in TEFL: A think-aloud study. *Reading Matrix: An International Online Journal, 12*(1), 39-49.

Shikano, M. (2013). A quantitative survey on metacognitive awareness of reading strategy use in English by Japanese university students. *International Education Centre Journal, 14*, 121-135.

Shokrpour, N., & Nasiri, E. (2011). The use of cognitive and metacognitive reading strategies by Iranian IETSE test takers in the reading section of the test. *European Journal of Social Science, 22*(1), 126-134.

Swanson, P. N., & De La Paz, S. (1998). Teaching effective comprehension strategies to students with learning and reading disabilities. *Intervention in School & Clinic, 33*(4), 209-219.

Vann, R., & Abraham, R. (1990). Strategies of unsuccessful language learners. TESOL *Quarterly, 24*(2), 223-234.

Yang, L. L. (2004). The development of a validated perceived self-efficacy scale on English reading strategies. *Journal of Education & Psychology, 27*(2), 377-398.

Yau, J. C. (2005). Two Mandarin readers in Taiwan: Characteristics of children with higher and lower reading proficiency levels. *Journal of Research in Reading, 28*(2), 108-123.

Yayli, D. (2010). A think-aloud study: Cognitive and metacognitive reading strategies of ELT department students. *Egitim Arastirmalari-*

Eurasian Journal of Educational Research, 38, 234-251.

Yin, W. M., & Agnes, C. S. C. (2001, December 2-6). *Knowledge and use of metacognitive strategies* [Paper presentation]. AARE Annual Conference, Fremantle, Australia. http://www.aare.edu.au/Olpap/won01419.htm

Zhang, L. (2001). Awareness in reading: EFL students' metacognitive knowledge of reading strategies in an acquisition-poor environment. *Language Awareness, 10*(4), 268-288.

Zhang, L., & Seepho, S. (2013). Metacognitive strategy use and academic reading achievement: Insights from a Chinese context. *Electronic Journal of Foreign Language Teaching, 10*, 54-69.

Appendix A (English Version)

Questionnaire on Students' Strategy Use in Reading Comprehension

In order to assess the use of English reading strategies of students, please answer the following questions by filling in the personal information and marking X with the appropriate choices. The information obtained is for research purposes only.

Part I: Personal Information

1. Full name: …………………………..……… Age: ………………
2. Gender: Male ☐   Female ☐   4. Major: ……………………
5. Freshmen, Sophomore, Junior, or Senior (circle one)
6. How long have you been studying English? …………………………………
7. Do you like learning English?   Yes ☐   No ☐   Do not mind ☐
8. Do you like reading in English? Yes ☐   No ☐   Do not mind ☐
9. Have you ever been trained about reading strategies? Yes ☐   No ☐
10. How do you rate your overall English proficiency?

Good ☐   Fair ☐   Average ☐   Poor ☐

11. How do you rate your English reading proficiency?

Good ☐   Fair ☐   Average ☐   Poor ☐

12. How important is it for you to become proficient in reading in English?

Very important ☐   Important ☐   Not so important ☐   Not important ☐

Part II: Reading Strategy Use

This questionnaire has been designed to help you to identify which strategies you use in reading comprehension.

Read each statement below. Please write the responding 1, 2, 3, 4, or 5 that tells HOW

TRUE OF YOU THE STATEMENT IS.

1. Never or almost true of me   2. Usually not true of me

3. Somewhat true of me   4. Usually true of me

5. Always true of me

(1) means that the statement is very rarely true of you

(2) means that the statement is true less than half the time

(3) means that the statement is true of you about half the time

(4) means that the statement is true more than half the time

(5) means that the statement is true of you almost always

Mark an X in the appropriate column.

Please respond to each statement quickly, without too much thought. Try not to change your responses after you choose them. Please use a pen to mark your choices.

Example:

No.	Statements	1	2	3	4	5
1	I focus on the text when reading.	①	②X	③	④	⑤

Questionnaire statements

No.	Statements	1	2	3	4	5
	METASTRATEGIES					
1	I plan for reading.	①	②	③	④	⑤
2	I focus on the text when reading.	①	②	③	④	⑤
3	I use references (dictionaries, vocabulary, etc.) to help me understand what I need to read.	①	②	③	④	⑤
4	I organize reading to get effectiveness.	①	②	③	④	⑤
5	I implement the reading plans.	①	②	③	④	⑤
6	I orchestrate the strategy use when reading.	①	②	③	④	⑤
7	I monitor my reading.	①	②	③	④	⑤
8	I evaluate my reading.	①	②	③	④	⑤
	COGNITIVE STRATEGIES					
9	I use the senses to understand and remember what I read.	①	②	③	④	⑤
10	I activate my knowledge to understand the reading text.	①	②	③	④	⑤
11	I reason (analyze and guess grammatical points, vocabulary, etc.) what I read to understand the text (Reasoning).	①	②	③	④	⑤
12	I guess new words or phrases while reading through the analysis of known elements (Conceptualizing with Details).	①	②	③	④	⑤
13	I guess the text basing on the link between words, phrases, concepts, etc., in the reading (Conceptualizing Broadly).	①	②	③	④	⑤

14	I deduce the content of the readings from the available information (title, known vocabulary, topic sentences ...) (Going Beyond the Immediate Data).	①	②	③	④	⑤
	AFFECTIVE STRATEGIES					
15	I am self-motivated in the process of reading through activating supportive emotions, beliefs, and attitudes.	①	②	③	④	⑤
16	I generate and maintain motivation when reading.	①	②	③	④	⑤
	SOCIOCULTURAL- INTERACTIVE STRATEGIES					
17	I interact with others while reading to learn and communicate.	①	②	③	④	⑤
18	I overcome knowledge gaps about the text in communicating with others.	①	②	③	④	⑤
19	I try to deal with sociocultural contexts and identities when reading.	①	②	③	④	⑤

Thank you for your cooperation!

VIỆC SỬ DỤNG CHIẾN LƯỢC ĐỌC
CỦA SINH VIÊN CÓ NĂNG LỰC ĐỌC TIẾNG ANH KHÁC NHAU

Nguyễn Thị Bích Thủy

Khoa Tiếng Anh, Trường Đại học PHENIKAA, Yên Nghĩa, Hà Đông, Hà Nội 12116, Việt Nam

Tóm tắt: Đọc đóng một vai trò quan trọng trong sự phát triển học thuật, đặc biệt khi người học phải làm việc với một khối lượng lớn tài liệu bằng ngoại ngữ cho các môn học chuyên môn của mình (McDonough & Shaw, 2013). Tăng cường năng lực đọc tiếng Anh là rất cần thiết để sinh viên đại học có thể phát huy năng lực cá nhân của bản thân. Nghiên cứu này được thực hiện nhằm tìm hiểu liệu có sự khác biệt trong việc sử dụng các chiến lược đọc giữa các sinh viên đại học có mức độ tự đánh giá năng lực đọc tiếng Anh khác nhau. 957 sinh viên từ 6 trường đại học ở miền Bắc Việt Nam đã tham gia nghiên cứu. Kết quả của nghiên cứu thông qua bảng câu hỏi dựa trên mô hình S2R của Oxford (2013) cho thấy mức độ tự đánh giá về năng lực đọc tiếng Anh của sinh viên có liên quan đến việc sử dụng chiến lược đọc tổng thể của họ. Có sự khác biệt đáng kể trong việc sử dụng các chiến lược đọc giữa các sinh viên có năng lực đọc tiếng Anh, đặc biệt là giữa các sinh viên có năng lực tốt và kém. Tần suất sử dụng mỗi loại chiến lược được ghi nhận cao nhất là ở nhóm sinh viên tự đánh giá tốt và ngược lại.

Từ khóa: chiến lược đọc, năng lực đọc tiếng Anh, sinh viên đại học, Việt Nam

INTEGRATING PROJECT-BASED LEARNING INTO ENGLISH FOR SPECIFIC PURPOSES CLASSES AT TERTIARY LEVEL: PERCEIVED CHALLENGES AND BENEFITS

Le Van Tuyen*, Ho Hai Tien

Ho Chi Minh City University of Technology (HUTECH)
475A Dien Bien Phu Street, Ward 25, Binh Thanh District, Ho Chi Minh City, Vietnam

Abstract: In the last decade, EFL educators have attempted to experiment with various teaching methods to discover more effective ways of teaching and learning English, including English for Specific Purposes (ESP). Such methods as outcome-based learning (OBL), project-based learning (PBL), or cooperative learning (CBL) have received a lot of attention. Investigating the benefits and challenges of these methods in different contexts is really necessary. The current exploratory study, therefore, aimed to explore students' perceived challenges and benefits of integrating PBL into ESP classes with the 'English for marketing' course designed for students majoring in Business English at Ho Chi Minh City University of Technology (HUTECH). With the participation of 64 fourth-year students and the employment of three main data collection instruments including the questionnaire, student interviews and journals, the findings of the study reveal that the integration of PBL into ESP classes has brought more benefits to the students than challenges. Specifically, they could enhance their language and content knowledge, workplace-related skills, self-responsibility and motivation. Meanwhile, they mainly encountered challenges related to classmates such as lack of skills, English proficiency, and negative attitudes. It is expected that the findings of the study would partly contribute to the existing knowledge of the study field and shed light on the role of PBL in ESP education at HUTECH in particular and at the Vietnamese tertiary level in general.

Key words: integration, project-based learning, ESP class, benefit, challenge

1. Introduction

Since the early 1960s, ESP has become one of the most remarkable fields of teaching in universities around the world leading to the design and implementation of such ESP courses as English for Engineers, English for Aviation, English for Advertising, English for Marketing, English for Banking, and so on (Kırkgöz & Dikilitaş, 2018). Obviously, there has been a growing need for undergraduate students to develop their proficiency in ESP knowledge and skills in the increasingly globalized world (Kırkgöz, 2014), which puts much pressure on universities to deliver successful ESP courses.

Regarding teaching and learning methods or approaches used in ESP, in many places, teachers seem to adhere to the traditional teaching of ESP generally focused on the delivery of language information through reading

---

comprehension, writing, vocabulary and grammar exercises without paying attention to the need of integrating it with the development of skills (Mamakou & Grigoriadou, 2011). Nonetheless, since the first years of the 1990s, ESP has undergone significant transformations influenced by changing trends in approaches and methodologies in English language teaching (Kırkgöz & Dikilitaş, 2018). That means educators began to make changes in their ESP teaching (Stoller, 2002). They turned to content-based instruction and project work to encourage students to be engaged in learning both language and content. By doing so, they motivate students to be 'absorbed' in the world of work; project work helps to bridge the gap between language study and language use. In addition, educators have also thought that soft skills such as interactive teamwork, critical reading and writing, communication skills, negotiation, creative and critical thinking, problem-solving, decision-making and presentation are needed for today's academic and future work environment (Guo & Yang, 2012). They believe that these skills could be developed through introducing an integrative pedagogical approach incorporating PBL into ESP classes. PBL, one of the learner-centered approaches, has been recommended highly in ESP education at universities because it provides an effective way for students to develop those above soft skills. PBL in ESP allows students to acquire both language knowledge and skills more quickly and easily (Noom-ura, 2013). Given this current situation, ESP teachers and students at tertiary level are required to be more aware of the challenges and benefits of PBL.

Nevertheless, Kırkgöz and Dikilitaş (2018) indicated that there is a significant gap between implementation and assuring quality of ESP offerings, and it is essential for English educators and researchers to discover what factors may make that gap.

How do we 'fill that gap' for ESP education while responding to current pedagogical and workplace-skilled trends? Many successful cases of PBL implementation in EFL or ESP education have been discussed in the literature (e.g. Stoller, 1997; Beckett, 2002; Beckett & Slater, 2005; Miller, 2006; Mamakou & Grigoriadou, 2011; Noom-ura, 2013; Díaz Ramírez, 2014; Alsamani & Daif-Allah, 2016; Indrasari, 2016; & Wahyudin, 2017); nevertheless, most of them are in other EFL contexts. In Vietnam the application of PBL in ESP education seems to be still little addressed or investigated. It is found in literature that several studies have been conducted at the Vietnamese tertiary level (e.g. T. V. L. Nguyen, 2011 & V. K. Nguyen, 2015). Nonetheless, those are not empirical but literature review articles. In this sense, the current study aims to investigate the integration of PBL into ESP classes at Ho Chi Minh City University of Technology (HUTECH) in Vietnam. The study attempted to explore students' perceived challenges and benefits in the implementation of PBL in the 'English for marketing' course designed for students majoring in Business English. The course is part of the curriculum of a four-year English language undergraduate program.

The study attempted to address the two following research questions:

1) What challenges do students perceive in the integration of PBL into ESP classes at tertiary level?

2) What benefits do students perceive in the integration of PBL into ESP classes at tertiary level?

It is expected that this study will shed light on ESP instruction at tertiary level and the importance of the integration of PBL into ESP classes. The study will certainly contribute to the existing knowledge of the field of study.

2. Literature Review

2.1. English for Specific Purposes

Definitions of English for Specific Purposes (ESP)

English for Specific Purposes (ESP) arose as a term in the last several decades of the 20th century as it turned to be more and more obvious that English students not only needed general English but English in specific fields like technology, science, business, media, etc. as well. That is why the need for ESP has been increasing rapidly, especially in Asian countries where English is now used as a medium of instruction at universities or as a lingua franca in the workplace. So far ESP has been defined in several ways. According to Hutchinson and Waters (1987, p. 19) "ESP is an approach to language teaching in which all decisions as to content and method are based on the student's needs." Another definition given by Anthony (2018) states that ESP is an approach to language teaching that targets the academic or occupational needs of students, focuses on the language, skills, discourses, and genres required to address these needs (p. 10). In addition, Day and Krzanowski (2011) state that ESP involves teaching and learning the specific skills and language needed by particular students for a particular purpose.

The above definitions state that ESP is a student-centered, innovative teaching approach. Its aim is to meet students' needs in schools or universities-(academic needs) and in workplace settings-(occupational needs). Obviously, ESP needs to focus on students' skills of working effectively and ability to use English in a specific domain, not purely English language.

Characteristics of English for Specific Purposes

Researchers such as Strevens (1988) and Dudley-Evans and St John (1998)

identify several major characteristics of ESP as follows. (a) Specific needs are the first key feature of ESP. That means ESP courses are designed to meet the needs of students in specific contexts regarding disciplines they major in or are interested in. (b) Authenticity is another feature of ESP. Authenticity refers to authentic language materials and tasks. This is also referred to as target genre students' need to engage in the real-life work situations, and the use of tasks and activities should reflect the students' specialist areas. (c) Underlying methodology-a student-centered approach is adopted in ESP. That means all aspects of learning and teaching are about addressing students' needs (Muñoz-Luna & Taillefer, 2018) based on situations they are in, their disciplines and the context in which they work; and presentation of ESP methodology is organized around the concepts of input and output (Basturkmen, 2006). Furthermore, a student-centered approach allows for such developments as cognitive, more challenging and real-life learning tasks, and autonomous and responsible language students (Jendrych, 2013). (d) The last feature of ESP is its learners. ESP mainly deals with learners who are at intermediate or advanced level, and who have achieved a certain level of English and are relatively mature; therefore, students' cognitive and linguistic levels are critical in ESP course design, material development and pedagogical considerations. An ESP course is designed for adult learners or for working professionals (Day & Krzanowski, 2011). It focuses on when, where and why students need the language either in study or workplace contexts (Basturkmen, 2010) in order to increase students' employability and promotion opportunities (Jendrych, 2013).

2.2. Project-Based Learning

Definitions of project-based learning

Literature reveals that so far researchers and educators have used

different terms which are equivalent to the term 'project-based learning'. Those terms are project work, project approach, project-oriented approach, and project-based instruction (Beckett, 2002). They have also defined 'Project-based Learning' in several different ways. For example, Project-based Learning (PBL) is a constructivist-based and comprehensive approach which is designed to engage students in investigating real life problems (Barron, 1998; Sidman-Taveau & Milner-Boloti, 2001). In addition, Miller (2006) defines PBL as an active student-centered learning approach characterized by students' goal-setting, collaboration, communication, autonomy, constructive investigations, and reflection within real-world practices. By using another term, Blank (1997) and Harwell (1997) define project-based instruction as an authentic instructional model in which students plan, implement, and evaluate projects that have real-world applications beyond the classroom, or a teaching model that organizes learning around projects (Mergendoller & Thomas, 2010). Another definition is given by Mamakou and Grigoriadou (2008). These researchers define PBL as a term describing an instructional method that uses projects as the central focus of instruction in different disciplines, including language learning. Similarly, in his article, Stoller (2006) uses the term 'Project-based Instruction' (PBI) instead of PBL. According to him, PBI is a term describing an instructional method which involves a process and product, lasts over a period of time, requires students to use integrated skills to develop knowledge and skills through the integration of language and content, and collaborate with other students to reflect on both the process and product. In fact, whichever term is used, PBL has been considered as an effective method used for teaching various disciplines to students in various educational establishments.

In this article, "project-based learning" is defined as a long-term task that involves various activities performed individually or collaboratively by students to gain language knowledge, content knowledge and workplace-related skills. Such activities as selecting the topic, making questions, searching documents, analyzing data, writing the report, evaluating and presenting the products related to ESP.

Characteristics of project-based learning

Project-based learning takes constructivism as its theoretical basis. Constructivism holds that knowledge cannot be taught, but must be constructed by students (Benson, 2005). Students need to be provided with opportunities to receive comprehensible input so that they can produce comprehensive output. PBL can help achieve this goal (Beckett & Miller, 2006). The project forms the core of PBL and it requires students to follow a variety of steps to complete project work. Students need to engage in authentic and interesting tasks and work collaboratively to improve language skills, language and content knowledge. The teacher orchestrates the whole project and guides the learning process (Block, 2015). One of the major characteristics of project work is that it has both a process and product orientation and provides students with opportunities to focus on fluency and accuracy at different project work stages (Stoller, 2002). The end product of project work may be an oral presentation, a poster session, a report, a stage performance, a marketing plan, or a tour program for tourists. Furthermore, PBL is a student-centered (Stoller, 1997) and integrated approach (Beckett, 2002) and is considered to be motivating, stimulating, empowering, and challenging because it uses real-life tasks to develop students' confidence and autonomy (Díaz Ramírez, 2014). Through project work students are

able to improve their language skills and workplace-related skills, content knowledge and cognitive abilities (Ushioda, 2010). Unlike traditional language learning tasks which were designed and controlled by teachers, project work requires students to be active and responsible for learning tasks.

2.3. Rationale for Integrating Project-Based Learning Into ESP Classes

Literature reveals that so far both empirical and review studies have been conducted with an attempt to discover whether integrating project-based learning in ESP classrooms is beneficial or not. Results of different previous studies show that PBL enhances the teaching and learning of ESP. Firstly, once the students' main field of study is business English (Noom-ura, 2013), PBL will stimulate students' constructive instincts and provide a sense of achievement in ESP classes. Secondly, the incorporation of PBL into ESP classrooms helps develop different language skills for students, i.e. speaking, listening, reading, and writing (Alsamani & Daif-Allah, 2016) and language areas such as vocabulary and grammar (Wahyudin, 2017). Thirdly, as stated by Mamakou and Grigoriadou (2008), PBL has become the central part of ESP practice in higher education. ESP contains instruction of both language and content. Integration of language and content has long been supported as a sound teaching practice. PBL is particularly effective in ESP settings or in business English classes because it easily lends itself to (a) authentic language use, (b) a focus on language at the discourse rather than the sentence level, (c) authentic multi-skill tasks and student centeredness (Haines, 1989; Robinson, 1991; Sheppard & Stoller, 1995). Fourthly, PBL not only requires students to learn content-specific knowledge, but it develops problem-solving skills as students seek diverse solutions to meaningful questions (Mamakou & Grigoriadou, 2008), and new study habits by

promoting self-directed, independent, cooperative learning as well as out-of-classroom learning (Alsamani & Daif-Allah, 2016) and confidence. Finally, by doing project work, students are engaged in decision-making, self-determination in a future profession and identification of their future prospects (Alan & Stoller, 2005), and are motivated to get additional information in the field of studies.

Based on the above discussion of literature, it can be concluded that many educators have proved that PBL can be one of the effective ways in teaching ESP courses. Through project work, students not only learn theoretically but practically as well. They can improve their workplace-related skills by designing projects. That is why PBL is encouraged to be applied in ESP courses in higher education. Nonetheless, little literature related to challenges and problems encountered by both teachers and students has been found. That only benefits of PBL in ESP courses are explored is not equal. Challenges and problems arising in the integration of PBL into ESP courses should also be discovered so that teachers and students may find out measures to solve them.

3. Research Methodology

3.1. Participants

This study was conducted at Ho Chi Minh City University of Technology (HUTECH) in Ho Chi Minh City, Vietnam. For an exploratory study, non-probability sampling should be employed (Kothari, 2004). That is why the participants of the current study were purposefully chosen. They were 64 fourth-year students from 2 classes majoring in Business English at HUTECH. 46 of them are female (71.9%); and 18 of them are male (28.1%). Their ages range from 22 to 25. "English for Marketing" is one of the compulsory courses they have to complete to meet the

requirements of the undergraduate program. The number of years of learning English varies more significantly as students in the study come from different parts of the country with different English programs at school in lower levels of education. However, 34 of them (42%) have spent over 9 years studying English.

3.2. Instruments

Exploratory research design was used in this study. Its main emphasis was on the discovery of insights into the integration of PBL into ESP classes. It provided an opportunity for considering different aspects of the problem under study (Kothari, 2004). To obtain information about students' perceptions of challenges they encountered and benefits they gained from doing project work in the 'English for Marketing' course, three instruments were employed to collect both qualitative and quantitative data in this study, namely the students' journals, the closed-ended questionnaire and the semi-structured interview. Firstly, the students were required to keep a journal for expressing opinions and beliefs (Marion, 2011) about their project work after every class session. Secondly, the survey questionnaire was employed at the end of the project. The survey of the study was an experience survey of students who had practical experience with the problem to be investigated, and the objective of such survey was to obtain insight into the relationships between variables relating to the research problem (Kothari, 2004). The questionnaire contains three parts with 54 items. The items were designed based on the theoretical foundation of PBL and adapted from several previous studies (e.g. Musa, Mufti, Latiff & Amin, 2012; Efendi, 2017). To avoid a neutral option, the questionnaire used a 4-point Likert scale ranging from Strongly disagree, Disagree, Agree, to Strongly agree. The reliability of the items was tested via Cronbach's Alpha with the coefficient of .653 for 14 items used to measure students' perceptions of the challenges and .934 for 37 items used to measure students' perceptions of benefits of PBL. Thirdly, the semi-structured interview with 8 open questions was used to obtain more insight from the students' perceptions about the project work they implemented.

3.3. Data Collection Procedure

3.3.1. Implementation of the Project

The textbook used for the course "English for Marketing" at HUTECH is *Cambridge English for Marketing* (Robinson, 2010). The students take this course in the 7th semester of the 8-semester English language program. The course lasts 9 weeks. Educators divided projects into three types: (a) structured projects which are decided by the teacher; (b) semi-structured projects which are decided by both the teacher and students; and (c) unstructured projects which are decided by students (Stoller, 2002). The project of the current study is a semi-structured project. It was specified and organized by the teacher and students in terms of topic, materials, methodology and presentation as well as the end product. In addition, the implementation of the project lasted 9 weeks, with one class session in each week and followed 3 phases with 6 steps adapted from Stoller (2002) in two ESP classes with 64 students as follows:

Phase 1: Planning

Step 1: The teacher and students discussed the theme for the project – marketing strategy planning in an organization – which, according to the syllabus, is the focus of the course *English for Marketing*.

Step 2: Students were then made aware of the final outcome of the project, i.e. a "marketing plan" for a new product of their newly-formed business together with a short presentation and Q and A section to defend their plan. Each class was divided into small

groups of four students who were clearly assigned to specific parts of a marketing plan including analysis of the company situation, target market and the 4 Ps (product, place, promotion and price).

Phase 2: Implementation

Step 3: Students discussed in their group in further details to complete the project such as the tasks of each member and how to find information, brainstorm ideas, work together and reach agreements. Importantly, each group had to determine a specific new product for their plan.

Step 4: In each session of the course from Session 2 (week 2) to Session 9 (week 9), students themselves acquired new knowledge, and along with it – the language, to write each part of the final plan with the support and constructive feedback from the teacher and other classmates. They worked collaboratively to gather information, solve problems and present their understanding. Students were asked to keep a record of daily notes on what they did, what they gained and the difficulties they faced in each session.

Phase 3: Evaluation

Step 5: Preparation for the final presentation: students agreed on the roles of each member prior to the presentation. They also made a slide show to summarize key points in their plan.

Step 6: Presentation of the final product: Each group presented the final product they selected. Group participants took turns to present what he or she has been assigned to as well as answer questions from the teacher.

3.3.2. Data Collection

Regarding data collection procedure, firstly, the students of the two ESP classes were required to write journals. They wrote about problems or challenges they coped with during and what they learned after each stage of the project work. All the students

were instructed how to write their journals at the beginning of the course. However, only ten volunteer students' journals, 5 from each class, were selected for analysis. Secondly, to collect quantitative data, in the 5th class session of the course, 64 questionnaire copies were administered to all the students of the two classes taking the "English for Marketing" course. The instructions on how to complete the questionnaire were clarified and explained carefully to them. All the questionnaire copies were collected in the last class session. That means students were given 3 weeks to complete the questionnaire. Thirdly, 10 students, 5 from each class, volunteered to participate in the interview sessions. Each interview lasted almost 20 minutes. During each interview, a sheet of interview questions was used. Each student's responses were systematically written on the sheet based on the interview questions for later analysis and interpretation.

3.4. Data Analysis Procedure

Regarding data analysis, both qualitative and quantitative data were analyzed. To analyze the data obtained from the questionnaire, SPSS 20.0 was employed so that descriptive statistics including Percentage, Mean (M), Standard Deviation (St. D) were processed. Based on the calculated interval coefficient for four intervals in four points (4-1=3), intervals with the range of 0.75 (3/4) were arranged. The following criteria in the Likert type scale were used to interpret the data: Strongly disagree (1.00 - 1.75); Disagree (1.76 - 2.50); Agree (2.51 - 3.25); Strongly agree (3.26 - 4.00); whereas "content analysis" was employed to deal with qualitative data collected from the students' journals, and student interviews. Based on the research questions and each theme related to the topic, the students' interview responses and notes in journals were classified, analyzed and coded as C1 for

context-related challenges, C2 for teacher-related challenge, C3 for student-related challenges; and B1 for benefit 1-language and content knowledge, B2 for language skills, B3 for workplace-related skills, B4 for self-responsibility and personal qualities, and B5 for internal motivation. In addition, to present the data from the interviews, the students were coded as SI-1,… to SI-10, and to present the data collected from students' journals, some excerpts were extracted and the students were coded as SJ-1,… to SJ-10.

4. Results and Discussion

4.1. Challenges of the Integration of PBL Into ESP Classes at Tertiary Level

Research question 1 attempted to investigate challenges that students perceive in the integration of PBL into ESP classes at tertiary level. The results presented and interpreted below were based on the data collected from the questionnaire, students' journals and interviews.

4.1.1. Context-Related Challenges

The data displayed in Table 1 below give some insights into the context-related challenges that participants encountered when working on the project. Regarding the time allocation to the project, most of the students did not think that they were not given sufficient time to carry out the activities and to complete the whole project (item 1, 2) with M = 2.14 & 2.06 and St. D = .687 & .560 respectively. Additionally, the students did not agree that PBL was unsuitable to ESP classes and the project type was difficult for them (item 3 & 5) with M = 2.34 & 2.45 and St. D = .648 & .754 respectively. Nonetheless, it is interesting to explore that over half of the students agreed that they faced challenges because PBL was a new approach to them. Many activities were unfamiliar to them and they had to deal

with too much work during the implementation of the project (item 4 & 6) with M = 2.69 & 2.72 and St. D = .639 & .786.

Data gathered from students' journals and interviews are also consistent with those of the questionnaire. Some of them expressed their perceptions as follows: *"the teacher requires students to do too much work: homework, mini tests, written assignments, real questions and presentation"* (SJ-1)*; "it seems this is a complicated subject with too many things to do"* (SJ-2).

More interestingly, no students thought that the course was boring or PBL was unsuitable to ESP classes. For example, several students reported, *"I feel excited because I know more information about marketing and how to do marketing"* (SI-1); *"I gained lots of knowledge about marketing, the way to use Google doc, and pronunciation of some new words, so I feel this course is very helpful and necessary for me"* (SI-6); *"with the teacher's new method of teaching, I become better with the amount of knowledge and feel excited if I have a chance to work in marketing field in future"* (SI-8).

However, some students reported that they encountered challenges stemming from the textbook. For example, SJ-4 reported, *"the lesson has too many new concepts and information. I can't fully understand. I think this chapter is quite difficult and I only understand a small part of the lesson"*; or *"there are many different terms that I did not learn before, so I had some difficulties understanding the content of this course book... To be honest, when I read this book, I cannot summarize the main points or the key words in each part. It makes me confused and I don't focus on the important objectives"* (SJ-5).

Table 1

Descriptive Statistics of Context-Related Challenges

No	Items	N	M	St. D
1	Students are not given sufficient time for carrying out all the activities needed for the project, e.g. choosing the topic, assigning tasks, or discussing the methods.	64	2.14	.687
2	Students are not given sufficient time for implementing the whole project.	64	2.06	.560
3	Students face challenges because applying project-based learning for learning ESP is not suitable.	64	2.34	.648
4	Students face challenges because project-based learning is a new approach; all the steps and activities are unfamiliar to students.	64	2.69	.639
5	The project type is too difficult for students to implement.	64	2.45	.754
6	That too much work needs to be dealt with in the process of implementing a project causes challenges for students.	64	2.72	.786

The above-mentioned findings of the study reveal that the two challenges the students encountered are related to PBL approach and the workload they had to deal with (item 4, 6). This finding of the study is consistent with that of Devkota, Giri, and Bagale (2017) showing that PBL is new to students; and students feel difficult with project work because they are habituated to traditional instruction. Actually, the PBL approach is more innovative, attractive compared with traditional didactic ones. It is an effective educational tool which helps students to develop language and specialized knowledge, ability to apply knowledge, communication, problem-solving and critical-thinking skills in real life. Nonetheless, it might be because the students have been taught in traditional, teacher-directed ESP classes that demand little inquiry on behalf of the students. As a result, when they are put into self-directed learning situations they have to struggle with the responsibility of performing a variety of inquiry activities on their own (Kirschner, Sweller & Clark, 2006). Therefore, challenges cannot be avoided. The findings of the study are similar to Thomas's (2000) viewpoint that project work involves complex tasks based on challenging problems that require students to participate in design, problem-solving, decision making, or investigative activities; and that TBL approach requires students to be no longer passive recipients of knowledge; instead, they are expected to be actively engaged in the learning process and take responsibility for absorbing concepts and content, constructing knowledge, and developing new skills (Levine & Mosier, 2014).

4.1.2. Teacher-Related Challenges

Regarding teacher-related challenges, it can be seen in Table 2 below that most of the students did not think that the teacher caused challenges for them in the process of doing the project. It can be seen that most of the students believed that the difficulties they encountered did not stem from the teacher's side, including guidance, attitudes, capability of instructing how to conduct a project, knowledge of ESP or ability to communicate and assess students' work (item 7 to 11) with M = 1.97, 1.84, 1.70, 1.56 & 1.56 respectively. The data collected from the interviews also revealed that the students received much support from

their teacher. Here are two opinions from the students: *"I was really motivated to learn this subject; the teacher provided the format of the plan and all the information we needed to implement and complete the project"* (SI-2); or *"the first motive is*

myself. If I grasp the knowledge well this subject will help me get a good job in the future. The second is my teacher. He is always happy to help us answer our questions" (SI-10).

Table 2

Descriptive Statistics of Teacher-Related Challenges

No	Items	N	M	St. D
7	During the time for executing the project, students receive little guidance from the teacher.	64	1.97	.992
8	Teachers' attitudes towards students' work make students demotivated in the implementation of the project.	64	1.84	.801
9	The teacher lacks the capability of instructing how to carry out a project.	64	1.70	.634
10	The teacher lacks knowledge of ESP.	64	1.56	.560
11	The teacher lacks the ability to communicate and assess the students' projects.	64	1.56	.560

As presented above, the findings of the study show that the teacher did not cause challenges for the students regarding his roles, attitudes, instructional capability, knowledge of ESP, and communication and assessment ability. It can be ascertained that the teacher was aware of what he needed to do to integrate PBL into his ESP classes. The success is mostly determined by the teacher's abilities and characteristics. According to Mikule and Miller (2011), PBL requires careful planning from both sides: teachers and students. Through the students' perceptions, it might be confirmed that the teacher carefully implemented various tasks such as determining the goals and objectives of the course and deciding how the project might help achieve these goals. In addition, it can be assumed that the teacher transformed their role from authoritative to facilitator, coordinator, initiator, and guide working with the students, helping them solve problems related to both ESP knowledge and learning strategies. He might help them grasp both English and specialized language, English and

professional skills like compiling, analyzing, and synthesizing the information that they have collected from different sources for the project. He might also apply different formative assessment methods to measure students' achievement. Those are the factors that might make many students think that they did not encounter challenges stemming from the teacher.

4.1.3. Student-Related Challenges

In terms of student-related challenges, three aspects are mentioned in Table 3 below, namely: skills, English proficiency and attitudes. The mean scores of the three items (12, 13, 14) show that over half of the students agreed that those three aspects caused challenges for them during the implementation of the project work with M = 2.56, 2.63 & 2.84 and St. D = .794, .678 & .912 respectively. More interestingly, data collected from the students' journals and interviews are also in line with those of the questionnaire. For example, some students thought they encountered challenges due to lack of English and specialized knowledge:

"I found the information in the book confusing and not really clear. Besides, I do not have much knowledge about marketing which makes it ineffective to discuss how to solve problems" (SI-10); *"the problem for me is formal language. I can't get their meaning and know how to use it"* (SI-1); *"although the teacher's attitudes are really useful, this subject is very difficult and there is a lot of vocabulary, marketing knowledge"* (SI-3); *"the problems I faced in implementing project work were mainly due* to the lack of specialized knowledge in marketing which made it difficult to clearly understand the concepts. On the other hand, due to my limited vocabulary, I had difficulty in reading as well as using specialized words"* (SI-10). In addition, teamwork which is commonly required in learning with projects was a problem for some students, e.g. *"group discussion should be more effective because group members cannot agree on opinions"* (SJ-6).

Table 3

Descriptive Statistics of Student-Related Challenges

No	Items	N	M	St. D
12	Students lack skills such as discipline, teamwork, and activeness in completing the project.	64	2.56	.794
13	Students' different English proficiency levels cause problems for group members.	64	2.63	.678
14	Students' different attitudes towards the project cause problems for the completion of the project.	64	2.84	.912

Based on the above-presented data, it can be confirmed that many students encountered such challenges related to themselves as skills, English proficiency and attitudes. The project challenges students to create products for real-world purposes, and an ESP course requires students to develop both language and content knowledge and skills, which put much pressure on every student in an ESP class like in the context. Moreover, it might be because it was the first time the students taking the "English for marketing" course were required to implement project work, so lack of skills was unavoidable. Moreover, when students worked in groups of four, nevertheless, their English proficiency levels vary, the less able students might not be able to follow the learning process, and they might not have positive attitudes towards the teamwork and collaborate with their partners that might be because they lack the skills of working in groups, causing some challenges in working collaboratively (Johnson & Johnson, 1989); meanwhile, the more able students might feel frustrated because they had to do all the work. It might be said that if the teacher had been aware of the difference in the self-efficacy, autonomy, learning styles, and proficiency levels of individual students, he would have chosen other ways of organizing the class.

In conclusion, the findings of the study showed that among three categories of challenges: context-related challenges (M=2.40), teacher-related challenges (M=1.72), and student-related challenges (M=2.67), the students perceived that during the time they implemented the project work in the marketing course, they encountered challenges related to their classmates due to their lack of skills, low English proficiency levels and attitudes towards to PBL of some students; especially, it is evident that most of them did not think that the teacher caused challenges to them.

4.2. Benefits of the Integration of PBL Into ESP Classes at Tertiary Level

Research question 2 attempted to explore the benefits that students perceive in the integration of PBL into ESP classes at tertiary level. The results presented and interpreted below were based on the data collected from the questionnaire, students' journals and interviews.

4.2.1. Language and Content Knowledge

Both quantitative (see Table 4) and qualitative data presented below show that most of the students agreed that the integration of PBL into the ESP class helped them enhance general and specialized English knowledge (item 1, 2), content knowledge (item 3), and knowledge of how to do things in real life working environment (item 4) with M = 3.27, 3.05, 3.16 & 3.09 and St. D = .718, .677, .511 & .526

respectively. Particularly, most of them also thought that with the support of PBL in the ESP class, they could create a product in real life working environments (item 5) and increase their knowledge of the process of producing a product (item 6) with M = 2.95 & 3.16 and St. D = .547 & .541 respectively. The data collected from students' journals and interviews also reflected students' similar perceptions. For example, *"I learned to pronounce ESP words correctly and a lot of new ESP vocabulary"* (SJ-4); or SJ-6 said, *"I could increasingly improve listening and understanding skills, learning new knowledge about marketing"*; and *"By doing project work, I have more vocabulary and grammar that I didn't know before, especially after finishing the class"* (SJ-2). Similarly, when being interviewed, some students also reported that they learned a lot of vocabulary of marketing. E.g. *"I think I learned vocabulary the most and then content knowledge and key terms"* (SI-3).

Table 4

Descriptive Statistics of Language and Content Knowledge

No	Items	N	M	St. D
1	Project work helps me enhance general English language knowledge such as grammar, vocabulary, pronunciation.	64	3.27	.718
2	Project work helps me enhance my ESP vocabulary.	64	3.05	.677
3	I benefit from the content knowledge from project work.	64	3.16	.511
4	Project work helps me enhance knowledge of how to do things in real life working environments.	64	3.09	.526
5	Project work helps me to create a product in real life working environments.	64	2.95	.547
6	I can increase my knowledge of the process of producing a product.	64	3.16	.541

It is undoubted that the above-mentioned findings of the study reveal that PBL is a valuable way to promote the simultaneous acquisition of language, content, and skills (Stoller, 1997; Beckett & Slater; 2005). The students in the ESP classes could see the value of learning ESP through projects. They learned how to do

things in a real life working environment, which may help them to cope with challenges in their future careers. Obviously, this study has shown that the integration of PBL into ESP classes has a significant impact on students' fluency and accuracy (Huzairin, Sudirman & Hasan, 2018). During the time they make some products,

they work in groups, using the language, solving problems, and supporting each to accomplish the goal, which helps enhance both language and content knowledge.

4.2.2. Language Skills

Table 5 displays the data collected from the questionnaire to measure students' perceptions of the four language skills. It can be seen that most of the students agreed that they could improve their reading, speaking and writing skills thanks to the integration of PBL into the ESP classes (items 8, 9, 10) with M = 3.17, 3.17, 3.03 and St. D = .680, .656, .712 respectively, and over half of them thought that they could improve listening skills (item 7) with M = 2.69 and

St. D = .794. Obviously, the students had various opportunities to use the four skills as SI-5 said, "*I spoke English to my instructor and classmates… I talked in English about the definition and role of marketing, and customer values… I read about the importance of marketing in the course book… I read about some advertisement samples of non-profit organizations on the internet after learning…"* (SJ-5); or another student reported: "*I discuss with friends in English and read more information in the textbook about marketing, together with my classmates answer questions, solve problems and write each part of the marketing plan"* (SI-7).

Table 5

Descriptive Statistics of Language Skills

No	Items	N	M	St. D
7	Project work helps me to improve my English listening skills.	64	2.69	.794
8	Project work helps me to improve my English reading skills.	64	3.17	.680
9	Project work helps me to improve my English speaking skills.	64	3.17	.656
10	Project work helps me to improve my English writing skills.	64	3.03	.712

This finding of the study is consistent with that of Farouck's (2016) and Efendi's study (2017) showing that PBL enables students to develop language skills, complex grammar structures and advanced words, creates opportunities for students to practice listening, speaking, reading, and writing skills in English and enables them to see their language learning needs (Beckett, 2002); those opportunities are doing interviews, making presentations, seeking information, and answering questions in English, and that students' performance in the target language is better in PBL (Kelsen, 2004). Obviously, PBL can be more effective than traditional instruction and it is a valid approach to improve the English language proficiency (Moss & Van Duzer, 1998, Thomas, 2000; Rousová, 2008; Ke, 2010,). That is because the students are

required to use English as the target language in completing the project, especially reading, speaking and writing skills. Nonetheless, the finding also revealed that the students were not exposed to enough listening materials besides teacher talk and peers' presentation.

4.2.3. Workplace-Related Skills

Regarding students' perceptions of workplace-related skills, four categories were investigated, namely: teamwork, communication, interpersonal, and problem-solving skills. The data shown in Table 6 reveal that most of the student agreed that by doing project work they enhanced their teamwork skills, contributing to the successful outcome of the project; they could make their own decisions when discussing something with students of

various proficient levels and preferences (items 11-14) with M = 3.14, 3.163.16, 3.13 & 3.13 and St. D = .814, .672, .655 & .577 respectively. In terms of communication skills, many of them thought that they could enhance negotiation, persuasion, presentation, and time management skills (items 15-18) with M = 2.81, 2.83, 3.12 & 2.80 and St. D = .664, .656, .745 & .694 respectively. Actually, by doing project work, the students experienced effective teamwork skills and communication skills.

For example, SJ-10 reported: *"...we let each person in the group state their point of view and then sum it up... when we couldn't agree on the group's opinion, we should vote to choose the opinion with the most support"*; or *"I learned presentation and teamwork skills... I gained a lot of experience while giving the presentation through the teachers' comments for the group... I learned that a good presentation requires the best preparation. Try to say not too long. Keep it short but convincing"* (SJ-4).

Table 6

Descriptive Statistics of Teamwork and Communication Skills

No	Items	N	M	St. D
Teamwork skills				
11	Project work enhances my team work skills.	64	3.14	.814
12	Good team-work contributes to a successful outcome of the project.	64	3.16	.672
13	I can make decisions when discussing something with my group members	64	3.13	.655
14	I have a chance to work with students of different proficient levels and preferences.	64	2.98	.577
Communication skills				
15	Project work increases my negotiation skills with other group members about something in the project.	64	2.81	.664
16	Project work enhances my persuasion skills when working in a group.	64	2.83	.656
17	Project work helps us develop our presentation skills in public.	64	3.12	.745
18	I learn how to manage my time so that I can finish all my tasks on time with a satisfying result.	64	2.80	.694

In terms of students' perceptions of interpersonal and problem-solving skills, it can be seen in Table 7 that the students agreed the project work created opportunities for them to work with other groups, use formal and informal English, and meet and talk with other group members (items 19-21) with M = 2.56, 2.97 & 2.70 and St. D = .639, .689 & .659 respectively. Nonetheless, they did not learn how to interrupt classmates during interactions (item 22) with M = 2.44 and St. D = .639. Finally, the project work was thought to enable students to share and exchange ideas in finding solutions to the problems they encountered at their real-life working activities. When doing the project work, the students were required to work in groups to identify problems, give solutions, evaluate solutions and draw conclusions from the results of the project (items 23-26) with M = 2.84, 2.84, 2.83 & 2.80 and St. D = .511, .570, .521 & .540 respectively. The students who perceived PBL positively said that they enjoyed it because doing project work was challenging but they had opportunities to

enhance workplace-related skills. E.g. SJ-5 wrote in her journal: *"when solving a problem, I need to identify the correct problem to be solved and Identify the correct causes of that problem… discuss together to assign work and solve arising problems in the team, divide the workload equally among members and ensure the work is completed on schedule... When answering the question, focus on the keywords in the question and then continue to develop the content of the answer".* Similarly, SI-8 reported, *"I learn some useful skills like presentation skills and decision-making from working in my group, how to make a project and deal with difficult problems. I learn new vocabulary and new phrases."*

Table 7

Descriptive Statistics of Interpersonal and Problem-Solving Skills

Interpersonal skills		**N**	**M**	**St. D**
19	I learn to work successfully with students from different groups in the class.	64	2.56	.639
20	I learn to use formal and informal language in the appropriate context of discourse.	64	2.97	.689
21	I enhance my social skills by meeting and talking to other group members and the instructor.	64	2.70	.659
22	I learn how to interrupt my classmates appropriately during interactions.	64	2.44	.639
Problem solving skills				
23	I learn how to identify problems arising during the implementation of the project.	64	2.84	.511
24	I learn how to give solutions to problems arising during the implementation of the project.	64	2.84	.570
25	I learn how to evaluate solutions and good opinions among group members.	64	2.83	.521
26	I learn how to draw conclusions from the results of the project.	64	2.80	.540

PBL is a constructivist instructional approach which requires students to be engaged in an organized and cooperative manner to investigate and solve problems, resulting in a product. Based on the findings of the study, it can be ascertained that workplace-related skills such as communication, problem-solving, teamwork and interpersonal skills can be learned from PBL. These findings of the study are consistent with those of the study conducted by (Musa, Mufti, Latiff & Amin, 2012), and that the students might be instructed how to work in teams. Many students might know that PBL requires collaborative work; it helps students enhance their teamwork skills. Therefore, they had to work cooperatively with their group members to share common work for a mutual goal, i.e. making a product or a presentation of a product. They might also learn that effective teamwork skills involve the combination of interpersonal, problem-solving, communication and time management skills. It is undoubted that during the time of doing the project work, the students had opportunities to discuss something, negotiate with their partners, solve problems, and present products and many other skills that may help them encounter in

real life and meet the requirements of employers (Rousova, 2008) when they are engaged in real working environments. It can be concluded that the integration of PBL into ESP classes may not only provide students with both language and content knowledge but also to equip learners with 21st century workplace-related skills such as communication, team-working and problem-solving skills.

4.2.4. Self-Responsibility and Personal Qualities

Other benefits that PBL may bring to students are self-responsibility and personal qualities. Most of the students agreed that project work helped them to enhance the sense of responsibility and become more independent, creative and active learners (item 27, 28) with M = 3.33 & 3.28 and St. D = .506 & .576 respectively. In addition, many of them also thought that the project work also provided them with opportunities to discover their preferences and qualities,

demonstrate their responsibility, and to learn dependently and develop critical thinking skills (item 29-31) with M = 3.05, 3.05 & 3.17 and St. D = .653, .628 & .680 respectively. Similarly, all the ten students who participated in the interviews also reported they could enhance autonomy through assignments given by the teacher. They had to do some work independently before working collaboratively with classmates. For example, *"when doing project work, I take responsibility for my work; I need to complete my assigned job. I have time to research and gain lots of knowledge. I feel this method helps us work in groups effectively and we have responsibility with each other."* (SI-6); or SI-10 reported, *"I know how to select the main information from a book, how to study by myself. Moreover, this course helped me to be confident to present in a crowd. I can apply the knowledge that I learned in class to make a final project by myself. It is very important."*

Table 8

Descriptive Statistics of Self-Responsibility and Personal Qualities

No	Items	N	M	St. D
27	Project work helps me to enhance my sense of responsibility.	64	3.33	.506
28	Project work helps me to be a more independent, creative and active learner.	64	3.28	.576
29	Project work gives more opportunity for the students to discover their preferences and qualities.	64	3.05	.653
30	I learn how to respect others and be a responsible member in my group.	64	3.05	.628
31	Project work provides students the chance to learn independently and develop critical thinking skills	64	3.17	.680

Based on the mean scores of the five items displayed in Table 8 and students' responses from the interviews, it can be ascertained that many students agreed that doing project work helped them enhance self-responsibility, personal qualities, and learner autonomy. The finding of the study is consistent with that of Yuliani and

Lengkanawati's study (2017) showing that learner autonomy can be enhanced through project work. When the students engage themselves in the development of above-mentioned workplace-related skills, they may become more active, confident, independent, and productive in discussing and producing ideas. It cannot be denied that

PBL can expose students to various skills so that they can gradually perfect themselves, and well prepare students for future in terms of both English skills and social ones (T. V. L. Nguyen, 2011).

Moreover, according to Fried-Booth (2002), by doing project work, students develop such personal qualities as tolerant, open-minded, disciplined and responsible so that they will not get shocked when they get involved in the real working environment because they have experienced working in a group.

4.2.5. Internal Motivation

That last benefit which more than half of the students thought PBL brought to them is internal motivation in learning ESP. They agreed that project work increased their interest in learning ESP, brought them enjoyment in making a product, changed their attitudes towards learning ESP, and

make them happy to participate in English class activities (item 32, 33, 34 & 35) with M = 2.77, 2.75, 2.84 & 2.66 and St. D = .611, .535, .597 & .597 respectively. Especially, most of them thought that the application of PBL in the ESP class helped them learn something good for their future jobs (item 37) with M = 3.03 and St. D = .597. The only one aspect that the students disagreed with is "learning ESP is not so difficult" (item 36) with M = 2.48 and St. D = .563, which means that some of them think learning ESP is challenging. This finding is consistent with the one mentioned in section 4.1.3, and with some students' responses, e.g. *"After finishing the course, I feel relieved because this subject is very difficult and a little unfamiliar to me"* (SI-3); or SI-4 reported, *"Project work gave me lots of useful information and knowledge, but it's hard for students to know and gain all of the contents."*

Table 9

Descriptive Statistics of Internal Motivation

No	Items	N	M	St. D
32	Project work increases my interest in learning ESP because it is fun, motivating, and challenging.	64	2.77	.611
33	Executing projects in the classroom brings enjoyment because I can make a product like in a real-life workplace.	64	2.75	.535
34	Project work changes my attitudes toward ESP learning.	64	2.84	.597
35	Project work makes me happy to participate in English class activities.	64	2.66	.597
36	Project work makes me think that learning ESP is not so difficult for me.	64	2.48	.563
37	Project work helps me really learn something good for my future job.	64	3.03	.597

Motivation is one of the key factors that influence students' achievement of learning a foreign language. The findings of the current study show that the project work has a great influence on students' motivation in learning ESP. This is evident in the mean scores of the aspects investigated relating to motivation mentioned in Table 9. Although not all the students agreed with those

aspects, it is undeniable that over half of them were interested in doing the project work. This finding of the study is in line with that of Shin's study (2018) that revealed that PBL has positive effects on students' motivation in learning English. PBL might cause them to change their attitudes towards learning ESP, which for long they might have thought that it was difficult. PBL

caused them to pay more attention to their class activities, involved in the process of learning, and enjoyed making some things which they thought would be good for their future job.

In conclusion, based on the findings of the study, it can be concluded that there is evidence that the integration of PBL in ESP classes brought benefits to the students, including (a) language and content knowledge (M = 3.11), (b) language skills (M = 3.01), (c) teamwork, communication, interpersonal and problem-solving skills (M = 2.87), (d) self-responsibility and personal qualities (M = 3.17), (e) internal motivation (M = 2.75).

5. Conclusion and Recommendations

The current study aims to explore the challenges and benefits of the integration of PBL in ESP classes at the Vietnamese tertiary level. Based on the findings of the study it can be concluded that among three categories of challenges including context-related, teacher-related and student-related challenges, the students perceived that they encountered challenges related to their classmates most. Regarding their perceptions of benefits, it is evident that all five categories received the students' positive attitudes; especially, most of the students perceived that PBL brought them benefits of language and content knowledge and skills, and enhancement of self-responsibility and personal qualities.

For long language educators have believed that PBL is an effective educational tool and is considered a combination of enhancing language and content knowledge, and language and employability skills. Students have opportunities to use English in real life situations through project tasks and activities. To do a project, students need such skills as making decision to choose the topic, solving problems related to the project, negotiating with their group members to reach a compromise about an issue, arranging work for every group member or deciding how to perform different tasks of the project, presenting to final product to the whole class and many other skills. Moreover, ESP courses provide students with language and content knowledge which they need to perform in professional situations. Integrating PBL into ESP courses will certainly promote independent, active, autonomous and creative learning and enhance students' competences and competitiveness in the job market.

Apart from benefits, the integration of PBL into ESP classes will certainly have challenges to both teachers and students. Based on the findings of the study, it is recommended that the teacher should clearly understand what stages, tasks and activities to be implemented during project work. He/ She should instruct students how to carry out each task carefully so that less able students can know what to do and thus they will not think that it is difficult for them. More cooperation between the teacher and students is highly recommended so that students can receive more support from the teacher because PBL is still new to Vietnamese students anyway. The findings also revealed that students encountered challenges in teamwork. More careful instructions on how to work in groups effectively and on what skills need to be used in group work when executing a project are also highly suggested for ESP teachers. For students, it is necessary that they be actively involved in and have positive attitudes towards project work so that they can contribute to the learning process and they will be the beneficiary in ESP learning.

Even though the present study has confirmed the benefits and challenges of the integration of PBL into ESP classes at tertiary level, several limitations need to be considered. This study was conducted with the participation of 64 students majoring in

Business English at only one university and did not investigate ESP teachers' perspective towards the benefits of PBL. That is why it is recommended that further studies can be conducted with the participation of more students and teachers at more universities to explore the effects of PBL more comprehensively.

References

Alan, B., & Stoller, F. (2005). Maximizing the benefits of project work in foreign language classrooms. *English Teaching Forum, 43*(4), 10-21.

Alsamani, A. S., & Daif-Allah, A. S. (2016). Introducing project-based instruction in the Saudi ESP classroom: A study in Qassim University. *English Language Teaching, 9*(1), 51-64.

Anthony, L. (2018). *Introducing English for specific purposes*. Routledge.

Barron, B. J. S. (1998). Doing with understanding: Lessons from research on problem- and project-based learning. *The Journal of the Learning Sciences, 7*(3, 4), 271-311.

Basturkmen, H. (2006). *Ideas and options in English for specific purposes.* Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Basturkmen, H. (2010). *Developing courses in English for specific purposes*. Palgrave Macmillan.

Beckett, G. H. (2002). Teacher and student evaluations of project-based instruction. *TESL Canada Journal, 19*(2), 52-66.

Beckett, G. H., & Miller, P. C. (2006). *Project-based second and foreign language education: Past, present, and future.* Information Age Publishing.

Beckett, G. H., & Slater, T. (2005). The project framework: A tool for language, content, and skills integration. *ELT Journal, 59*(2), 108-116.

Benson, P. (2005). *Autonomy in language teaching*. Beijing Foreign Language Teaching and Research Press.

Blank, W. (1997). Authentic instruction. In W. E. Blank & S. Harwell (Eds.), *Promising practices for connecting high school to the real world* (pp. 15-21). University of South Florida.

Block, J. (2015, February 26). 5 PBL best practices for redefining the teachers' role. *Edutopia.* https://www.edutopia.org/blog/pbl-practices-redefining-teachers-role-josh-block

Bradley-Levine, J., & Mosier, G. (2014). *Literature review on project-based learning.* University of Indianapolis.

Day, J., & Krzanowski, M. (2011). *Teaching English for specific purposes: An introduction*. Cambridge University Press.

Díaz Ramírez, M. I. (2014). Developing learner autonomy through project work in an ESP class. *HOW, A Colombian Journal for Teachers of English, 21*(2), 54-73.

Devkota, S. P., Giri, D. R., & Bagale, S. (2017). Developing 21st century skills through project-based learning in EFL context: Challenges and opportunities. *The Online Journal of New Horizons in Education, 7*(1), 47-52.

Dudley-Evans, T., & St John, M. J. (1998). *Developments in English for specific purposes: A multi-disciplinary approach.* Cambridge University Press.

Efendi, T. A. (2017). The students' perceptions of the implementation of ICT-supported project based learning in English teaching. *IJET, 6*(2), 167-183.

Farouck, I. (2016). A project-based language learning model for improving the willingness to communicate of EFL students. *Systematics, Cybernetics and Informatics*, *14*(2), 11-18.

Fried-Booth, D. L. (2002). *Project work* (2nd ed.). Oxford University Press.

Guo, S., & Yang, Y. (2012). Project-based learning: An effective approach to link teacher professional development and students learning. *Journal of Educational Technology Development and Exchange, 5*(2), 41-56.

Haines, S. (1989). *Projects for the EFL classroom: Resource material for teachers*. Nelson.

Harwell, S. (1997). Project-based learning. In W. E. Blank & S. Harwell (Eds*.), Promising practices for connecting high school to the real world* (pp. 23-28). University of South Florida.

Hutchinson, T., & Waters, A. (1987). *English for specific purposes: A learning-centred approach.* Cambridge University Press.

Huzairin, D, Sudirman, & Hasan, B. (2018). Developing English learning model project based content and language integrated learning (CLIL) for English at university

level in Indonesia. *Advances in Social Sciences Research Journal, 5*(11), 371-384.

Jendrych, E. (2013). Developments in ESP teaching. *Studies in Logic, Grammar and Rhetoric, 34*(47), 43-58.

Johnson, D., & Johnson, R. (1989). *Cooperation and competition: Theory and research*. Interaction Book Company.

Ke, L. (2010). Project-based college English: An approach to teaching non-English majors. *Chinese Journal of Applied Linguistics, 33*(4), 99-112.

Kelsen, B. (2004). Target language use and performance in project-based language learning (PBLL). *The Journal of Asia TEFL, 15*(1), 199-207.

Kırkgöz, Y. (2014). Students' perceptions of English language versus Turkish language used as the medium of instruction in higher education in Turkey. *Turkish Studies, 9*(12), 443-459.

Kırkgöz, Y., & Dikilitaş, K. (2018). Recent developments in ESP/EAP/EMI contexts. In Y. Kırkgöz & K. Dikilitaş (Eds.), *Key issues in English for specific purposes in higher education* (pp. 1-10). Springer.

Kirschner, P. A., Sweller, J., & Clark, R. E. (2006). Why minimal guidance during instruction does not work: An analysis of the failure of constructivist, discovery, problem-based, experiential, and inquiry-based teaching. *Educational Psychologist, 41*(2), 75-86.

Kothari, C. R. (2004). *Research methodology: Methods & techniques* (2nd ed.). New Age International Limited, Publishers.

Mamakou, I., & Grigoriadou, M. (2008). Project-based instruction for ESP in higher education. In R. C. V. Marriott & P. L. Torres (Eds.), *Handbook of research on e-learning methodologies for language acquisition* (pp. 456-479). IGI Global.

Mamakou, I., & Grigoriadou, M. (2011). An e-project-based approach to ESP learning in an ICT curriculum in higher education. *Themes in Science and Technology Education, 3*(1-2), 119-137.

Marion, E. (2011). Research diary: A tool for scaffolding. *International Journal of Qualitative Methods, 10*(3), 296-306.

Mergendoller, J. R., & Thomas, J. W. (2010). *Managing project-based learning: Principles from the field*. Buck Institute for Education.

http://www.newtechnetwork.org/research/managing-project-based-learning-principles-field

Mikulec, E., & Miller, P. C. (2011). Using project-based instruction to meet foreign language standards. *The Clearing House*, *84*, 81-86.

Miller, P. C. (2006). Integrating a second language into project-based instruction. In G. H. Beckett & P. C. Miller (Eds.), *Project-based learning in second and foreign language education: Past, present, and future* (pp. 225-240). Information Age.

Moss, D., & Van Duzer, C. (1998). *Project-based learning for adult English language learners* (ED427556). ERIC. https://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/ED427556.pdf

Muñoz-Luna, R., & Taillefer, L. (Eds.). (2018). *Integrating information and communication technologies in English for specific purposes*. Springer.

Musa, M. F, Mufti, N., Latiff, R. A., & Amin, M. M. (2012). Project-based learning (PjBL): Inculcating soft skills in 21st century workplace. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences, 59*, 565-573.

Nguyen, T. V. L. (2011). Project-based learning in teaching English as a foreign language. *VNU Journal of Science, Foreign Languages, 27*(2), 140-146.

Nguyen, V. K. (2015). Towards improving ESP teaching/learning in Vietnam's higher education institutions: Integrating project-based learning in ESP courses. *International Journal of Languages, Literature, and Linguistics, 1*(4), 227-232.

Noom-ura, S. (2013). Project-based learning and ESP: A perfect match. *English Language Teaching, 31*(3), 1-7.

Robinson, N. (2010). *English for marketing*. Cambridge University Press.

Robinson, P. (1991). *ESP today: A practitioner's guide.* Prentice Hall.

Rousová, V. (2008). *Project-based learning: Halloween party* [Master's thesis, Masaryk University]. https://is.muni.cz/th/qzgwd/?lang=en

Sheppard, K., & Stoller, F. (1995). Guidelines for the integration of student projects in ESP class-rooms. *English Teaching Forum, 33*(2), 10-15.

Shin, M. (2018). Effects of project-based learning on students' motivation and self-efficacy. *English Teaching*, *73*(1), 95-114.

Sidman-Taveau, R., & Milner-Boloti, M. (2001). Constructivist inspiration: A project-based model for L2 learning in virtual worlds. *Texas Papers in Foreign Language Education, 6*(1), 63-82.

Stoller, F. (2002). Project work: A means to promote language content in methodology. In J. C. Richards & W. A. Renandya (Eds.), *Methodology in language teaching: An anthology of current practice* (pp. 107-120). Cambridge University Press.

Stoller, F. (2006). Establishing a theoretical foundation for project-based learning in second and foreign language contexts. In G. H. Beckett & P. C. Miller (Eds.), *Project based second and foreign language education: Past, present, and future* (pp. 19-40). Information Age.

Stoller, F. L. (1997). Project work: A means to promote language and content. *English Teaching Forum, 35*(4), 2-9. http://exchanges.state.gov/forum/vols/vol35/no4/

Strevens, P. (1988). ESP after twenty years: A re-appraisal. In M. Tickoo (Ed.), *ESP: State of the art* (pp. 1-13). SEAMEO Regional Centre.

Thomas, J. W. (2000). *A review of research on project-based learning.* http://www.bobpearlman.org/BestPractices/PBL_Research.pdf

Ushioda, E. (2010). Researching growth in autonomy through statement analysis. In B. O'Rourke & L. Carson (Eds.), *Language learner autonomy: Policy, curriculum, classroom* (pp. 45-62). Peter Lang.

Wahyudin, A. Y. (2017). The effect of project-based learning on L2 spoken performance of undergraduate students in English for business class. *Advances in Social Science, Education and Humanities Research, 82*, 1-5.

Yuliani, Y., & Lengkanawati, N. S. (2017). Project-based learning in promoting learner autonomy in an EFL classroom. *Indonesian Journal of Applied Linguistics, 7*(2), 285-293.

ÁP DỤNG PHƯƠNG PHÁP HỌC THEO DỰ ÁN VÀO LỚP HỌC TIẾNG ANH CHUYÊN NGÀNH Ở BẬC ĐẠI HỌC: THÁCH THỨC VÀ ÍCH LỢI

Lê Văn Tuyên, Hồ Hải Tiến

Trường Đại học Công nghệ TP. Hồ Chí Minh (HUTECH)
475A Điện Biên Phủ, Phường 25, Quận Bình Thạnh, TP. Hồ Chí Minh

Tóm tắt: Hơn thập niên vừa qua, giáo viên giảng dạy tiếng Anh đã thử nghiệm nhiều phương pháp giảng dạy khác nhau để khám phá những cách dạy và học tiếng Anh hiệu quả hơn, bao gồm cả tiếng Anh chuyên ngành. Các phương pháp như phương pháp học dựa vào chuẩn đầu ra, phương pháp học dựa theo dự án, phương pháp học hợp tác đã thu hút rất nhiều sự chú ý. Tìm hiểu những lợi ích và thách thức của các phương pháp này trong các môi trường học tập khác nhau là điều rất cần thiết. Do đó, bài nghiên cứu này nhằm tìm ra các thách thức và lợi ích mà sinh viên gặp phải khi áp dụng phương pháp học tập theo dự án vào các lớp tiếng Anh chuyên ngành trong một học phần "Tiếng Anh chuyên ngành tiếp thị" cho sinh viên ngành Ngôn ngữ Anh tại trường Đại học Công nghệ Thành phố Hồ Chí Minh (HUTECH). Với sự tham gia của 64 sinh viên năm cuối ngành Ngôn ngữ Anh và sử dụng 3 công cụ thu thập dữ liệu gồm bảng câu hỏi khảo sát, phỏng vấn và nhật ký học tập, kết quả của nghiên cứu cho thấy việc áp dụng phương pháp học tập theo dự án vào các lớp tiếng Anh chuyên ngành đã đem lại nhiều ích lợi hơn là trở ngại. Đặc biệt, sinh viên đã có thể cải thiện kiến thức về ngôn ngữ tiếng Anh và chuyên ngành tiếp thị, các kỹ năng ứng dụng trong công việc, tinh thần trách nhiệm và động lực. Trong khi đó, các vấn đề sinh viên gặp phải chủ yếu liên quan đến bạn trong lớp bao gồm sự thiếu kỹ năng, trình độ tiếng Anh và thái độ không tích cực. Hy vọng nghiên cứu này phần nào đóng góp vào kiến thức thuộc lĩnh vực nghiên cứu, và làm sáng tỏ hơn vai trò của phương pháp học tập theo dự án trong giảng dạy tiếng Anh chuyên ngành tại HUTECH nói riêng, giáo dục đại học tại Việt Nam nói chung.

Từ khóa: áp dụng, học tập theo dự án, lớp tiếng Anh chuyên ngành, ích lợi, khó khăn

DISCUSSION

ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHERS' PRACTICES OF DEVELOPING DISCOURSE COMPETENCE THROUGH SPEAKING SKILLS FOR GRADE 10 STUDENTS: A CASE STUDY

Vu Hai Ha, Nguyen Nha Uyen*

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

Abstract: Being one of the compulsory foreign languages in Vietnam and recently regarded as one of the requirements for higher education enlistment, English has received growing attention from Vietnam high school students (Nguyen, 2021). In Circular 32 (2018), the Vietnam Ministry of Education and Training [MOET] officially recognised communicative competence as the primary outcome of the English National Program of which Discourse Competence (DC) is a crucial component (MOET, 2018). Although the program aims to achieve the outcome with more emphasis on listening and speaking skills, Vietnamese high school students remain to struggle to form extended spoken discourse (Le, 2011). With the view to gaining insights into the actual state of cultivating DC through speaking skills in students, the study investigates four Grade 10 teachers with varied backgrounds and teaching styles in a private school awarded twice by the MOET for educational reforms and their attempts to integrate CLT in the English language teaching curriculum. After conducting the interviews and classroom observation, the findings imply that teachers devised a combination of approaches that had implicit impacts on different aspects of DC-based on students' English proficiency while preserving their teaching philosophies. Such innovativeness could suggest a rudimentary framework for teaching and teacher training programs regarding fostering DC in speaking for EFL students.

Keywords: English language teachers, discourse competence, speaking skills, perceptions, practices, grade 10 students, Hanoi

1. Introduction

With the emergence of globalisation, the demand for a measure to support cross-country communications grows. Consequently, people start to focus on language applications rather than language subject learning (Castro et al., 2004). The English language in Vietnam has been given more credibility recently with the observable surge in the number of universities that include international language certification into one of its criteria for enlistment (Ngoc, 2021). Therefore, students need to make a detailed plan for their English learning since grade 10th to reach level B1 according to

---

CEFR after graduation from high school (Vietnam Ministry of Education and Training, 2018) and increase their chances of getting into a qualified university (Ngoc, 2021). To catch up with the status quo, the Ministry of Education and Training [MOET] has released Circular 32 in 2018, aiming to renovate the National English Program that gave official recognition of CLT with emphasis on listening and speaking skills with communicative competence as the outcome (MOET, 2018). Although speaking is recognised as a critical skill in language learning (Egan, 1999), students are accustomed to a grammar-based approach. Quite predictably, they found producing an extended speech an arduous task (Le, 2011; Nguyen, 2021).

Dating back to the last few decades, numerous efforts have been put into delineating and constructing a relevant framework to foster and assess communicative competence, the ultimate outcome of language learning (Canale & Swain, 1980; Celce-Murcia et al., 1995; Pham, 2007). Among components of communicative competence, discourse competence (DC), the ability to produce extended text and speech (Pennycook, 1994), is crucial in achieving communicative competence and interacting efficiently in a cross-cultural environment (Castro et al., 2004). Despite the attempts to lay the theoretical groundwork for actual language teaching practices, investigations into applications and methods to cultivate communicative competence in students are limited, especially when it involves the techniques needed to foster a specific component of communicative competence. Regarding DC, past studies only focused on writing and reading skills (Mauranen, 1996; Do et al., 2018). Hence, to amend for the possible gap in the body of literature, this study aims at 1) the Grade 10 EFL teachers, who are at the frontline to be in charge of students' learning while concurrently facing

numerous challenges, such as being inexperienced and the negative washback from the high-impact exams (Bui, 2006; Nguyen et al., 2017; Nguyen et al., 2020) 2) the issue of how to foster DC through speaking skills which is crucial to communicate in foreign languages (Egan, 1999). All in all, the research question of the study is:

"What are the teaching practices applied by English language teachers to foster the development of discourse competence through speaking skills for Grade 10 students?"

2. Literature Review

"Competence" was first coined by Chomsky (2014) that views language as existing independently from context. However, it is soon re-considered a dynamic process to use the language pragmatically (Savignon, 1983; Stern et al., 1983). Communicative competence can be generally understood as a set of knowledge and skills required to communicate (Canale & Swain, 1980; Savignon, 1983). The goal of this concept is to put forward the fundamentals for effective communication (Celce-Murcia, 2008) and establish a foundation for CLT (Canale, 1983). According to Circular 32 (2018), communicative competence is "the ability to apply knowledge about language components like lexis, grammar, and phonology to fulfil communication activities in speaking, listening, writing, reading to meet personal or social demands" (MOET, 2018, p. 16). Communicative competence has been delineated through history, from only two components (linguistic and sociolinguistic) (Hymes, 1972) to five (Canale & Swain, 1980; Canale, 1983; Celce-Murcia et al., 1995). The most updated model presented by Celce-Murcia et al. (1995) defines the five components as discourse competence, linguistic

competence, actional competence, socio-cultural competence, and strategic competence.

Discourse is broadly understood as any utterance larger than a sentence (Kinneavy, 1971; McCarthy, 1991), while competence, concerning discourse, is a dynamic process in which the realisation is the speaker's performance in real-life situations (Savignon, 1983). Therefore, discourse competence is the ability to arrange words, phrases, sentences, and other language structures into a well-connected and comprehensible text (Canale, 1983, 1984; Celce-Murcia, 2008). According to

Canale (1983), Celce-Murcia et al. (1995), four main sectors constitute discourse competence: cohesion, deixis, coherence, generic structure, and conversational structure. These sectors will serve as the framework for thematic data analysis in this paper for two reasons. First, this is the most detailed synthesis of what discourse competence includes. Second, each component is selected based on its role to constitute the manifestation of discourse and how it links with other competencies (such as linguistic, strategic, and socio-cultural). To be specific, the elaboration of each category is presented below.

Table 1

Components of Discourse Competence (Celce-Murcia et al., 1995, p. 14)

Cohesion

- Reference (anaphora, cataphora)
- Substitution/ellipsis
- Conjunction
- Lexical chains (related to content schemata), parallel structure

---

Deixis

- Personal (pronouns)
- Spatial (here, there; this, that)
- Temporal (now, then; before, after)
- Discourse/textual (the following chart; the example above)

Coherence

- Thematisation and staging (theme-theme development)
- Management of old and new information
- Prepositional structures and their organisational sequences (temporal, spatial, cause-effect, condition-result, etc.)
- Temporal continuity/shift (sequence of tenses)

Genre/Generic structures

- Narrative, interview, service encounter, research report, sermon, etc.

Conversational structures (inherent to the turn-taking system in conversation but may extend to a variety of oral genres)

- How to perform openings & reopenings

- Topic establishment & change

- How to hold & relinquish the floor

- How to interrupt

- How to collaborate & backchannel

- How to do pre-closings and closings

- Adjacency pairs (related to actional competence), first and second pair parts (knowing preferred and dispreferred responses)

Practice is widely understood as collecting an individual's mindset, experience, skills, and behaviours (Larrivee, 2008). On top of that, the characteristic of practice is what the participants actively act out their consciousness in real situations, or in other words, what they do (Ellis, 2002; Grossman et al., 2009; Lampert, 2010). In this sense, teaching practice is when teachers carry out professional tasks based on their perceptions of a matter (Lampert, 2010). Practice entails techniques for facilitating the ability to connect language in alignment with the lesson objectives and some everyday activities to form different stages of classroom discourse like giving presentations, telling stories, etc. (Richard, 2005; Legutke, 2012). In this research, practices of fostering DC in students refer to how teachers monitor the classroom and set up activities that intentionally aim to facilitate a particular or a few aspects of DC.

Previous studies primarily focused on establishing the fundamentals of communicative competence models by eminent researchers, such as Halliday and Hasan (1989), Hymes (1972), Canale and Swain (1980), Celce-Murcia and Thurrell (1995), Bachman (1990), Savignon (1983), Brown (2000), and the like. In Asian countries and Vietnam, multiple attempts have been made to summarise the work of eminent experts to propagandise the benefits of CLT (Li, 1998; Maley, 1984; Liao, 2000; Do, 2009; Pham, 2017). Among different parts of communicative competence, discourse competence is prevalent in research looking into the EFL teaching of writing skills (Belmonte & McCabe, 2004; Yang & Sun, 2012), reading skills (Cziko, 1978; Mauranen, 1996; Ntuli & Pretorius, 2005), and the integration of ICT to help developing discourse competence (Chun, 1994; Hussein et al., 2016). The findings implied that students' performance was improved with the advent of ICT. In Vietnam, Do (2018) conducted experimental research that showed students' writing skills have favourable progress when being taught discoursal knowledge.

Additionally, discourse competence is also underscored as the goal that language users should attain to communicate effectively in a multicultural environment (Castro et al., 2004; Ngo, 2012; Nguyen, 2016) with suggestions on diversifying the input of students in the class to enhance DC. The input should range from knowledge of the language, knowledge of the field/profession, to the world's knowledge (Do, 2009). In addition, the social-cultural understanding of the speaking context is deemed indispensable from discourse competence. Hence, the input relevant to this area is equally vital to cross-cultural interactions (Ngo, 2012).

From what has been elaborated above, the research gaps are evident that could be filled by the study. First and foremost, most studies were theoretical. Hence, research that investigates applying such theories is radically on demand, which is one of this research's purposes. Second, the insufficient number of papers investigating the execution of the theoretical framework primarily revolved around writing and reading skills, with limited attention paid to speaking skills. While speaking is deemed to be crucial in communication, this absence should be more acknowledged. Finally, a certain hypothesis has been put forward regarding techniques to cultivate DC in students. Therefore, this study examines whether the participants, the EFL teachers, consider these suggestions and devise proper plans to support their students.

3. Research Method

The paper's primary approach is qualitative research design to examine the research problem that is socially sophisticated (Dörnyei, 2007). Because this study aimed to collect data to gain an in-depth articulation to form plausible hypotheses about teacher's practices for further investigations, case study is a reasonable choice to achieve this end (Feagin et al., 1991).

The setting of the study is School A, the first campus of a private K-12 educational system with well-equipped teaching aids and technological devices. The English teaching of the school claims to foster students' ability to attain

communicative competence based on the CEFR and the CES (Cambridge English Scale) with the help of various rating scales (the MBTI, the brain profile) to promote personalised learning. The English curriculum in school A follows a backward design, which means the course objectives are identified first, then EFL teachers could incorporate their unique teaching methods to help students communicate as global citizens (Wiggins & McTighe, 2006). With the view to helping students function in a multicultural environment, DC is of key importance (Castro et al., 2004; Ngo, 2012; Nguyen, 2016). All in all, the aforementioned factors are conducive to the isolation of EFL teachers as an investigated subject with diverse approaches to developing DC in students, which is what this study attempts to discover.

Given the critical role of a proper strategy in the qualitative case study research (Gable, 1994), the study chose maximum variation sampling to render richer data and allow the researcher to compare among different participants to strengthen the validity of the findings. According to Postiglione et al. (2008), the teachers' practices have a close tie with their ages, educational background, years of experience, and relevant experiences. These contributing factors constitute the "knowledge, skills and attitudes towards learners" of the teachers, which could shape their practices (Borg, 2006, p. 7). Those are also the criteria for selecting participants. Their profiles are presented in the table below. The participants' identities are protected by using pseudonyms.

Table 2

The Profiles of Four Investigated Cases

Profile	Huong	Lan	Hoa	Lien
Ages	34 years old	25 years old	31 years old	46 years old
Educational backgrounds	Bachelor – Local university	Bachelor – Local university	Master degree awarded by	Master degree awarded by overseas

			overseas institution	institution
Years of experiences	11	3	8	16
Relevant experiences	Specialised in teaching false beginner students.	Novice teacher. Used to teach English in public school for 2 years.	Used to study abroad for a master's degree in TESOL for 1 year.	Currently a senior teacher and academic manager. Used to be the Head of the English department in her previous job.
Classroom profile	33 students, 12 girls and 21 boys Foundational level, around A2+	34 students, 18 girls and 16 boys Pre-intermediate level, around B1-	31 students, 15 girls and 18 boys Upper-intermediate level, around B2-	32 students, 19 boys and 13 girls Advanced level, around C1-

After sending the invitation letters and receiving approval from both the school principal and four EFL teachers, each teacher had six observation sessions with a pre-session and post-session interview for each lesson.

Table 3

Data Collection Procedure

Name of the stages	Content of the stage
Pre-session interview *(N = 6)*	Objectives of the lesson & Rationale for each activity in the lesson in terms of helping students to develop DC in students
Observation *(N = 6)*	Practices of developing discourse competence in class
Post-session interview *(N = 6)*	Reflections on the lesson and the effectiveness of in-class practices to develop DC in students

In the first observation session, the pre-lesson interview is supposed to collect the general methods that the participants prefer to use in their classrooms based on the components of discourse competence table by Celce-Murcia et al. (1995) that has been mentioned in the literature review. In the following sessions, the pre-observation interview is about the general information of the class (number of students, their levels and learning styles, lesson objectives and activities, the expected outcome of each activity). Accordingly, the post-observation interview reflects on the teacher's thoughts after the lesson.

Likewise, during the observation session, the data is collected using a side note and video recording to make data analysis convenient (Merrell & William, 1994; Carroll et al., 2008; Collier et al., 2015). The observation side note is divided into two main parts: the first part collects information about the class's profile and overview of the lesson; the second part is the teaching practices that are intentionally contrived to help accelerate specific aspects of discourse competence according to the components of discourse competence by Celce-Murcia et al. (1995).

Because the conceptual framework has clear pre-determined themes taken from Cele-Murcia et al. (1995) components of DC (including cohesion, deixis, coherence, generic structures, conversational structures), the thematic analysis appears to be convenient to gather findings from the data. The six-phase framework of thematic analysis designed by Braun and Clark (2006) is applied, including:

1) Familiarising with the data

2) Generating initial codes

3) Searching for themes

4) Reviewing themes

5) Defining and naming themes

6) Producing the report

The descriptive coding and In Vivo coding are applied to data taken from the interview; process coding to data from observation (Saldaña, 2009). The example of each type of coding is presented in the table below:

Table 4

Qualitative Coding Examples

Quote extract	Code - theme	Types of code
I saw that my students still struggled with supporting their ideas because they could not find the words to elaborate on their arguments.	Insufficient lexical range – lexical cohesion	Descriptive coding (Saldaña, 2009)
A particular thing that I know when I'm working with Vietnamese students is that the students here are very scared to be wrong.	Scared to be wrong – DC's development's significance & feasibility	In Vivo coding (Saldaña, 2009)
After each presentation session, the teacher always assigned a particular group of students in the class to give feedback to the presenting group.	Monitoring peer-feedback – Generic structures	Process coding (Saldaña, 2009)

4. Findings and Discussion

Huong – The constructor

Most of the time, Huong specialised in facilitating false beginner students with foundational English proficiency, around A1 to A2, according to the CEFR. She was given the title "the constructor" because her core principle in teaching was to "help my students by starting small then gradually going up."

Huong noticed that her students, as false beginners, showed a significant lack of motivation. She exclaimed:

[Interview extract 1]

Many students only study because their parents want them to, do you agree? Many adults only want to study because they can get a higher salary instead of wanting to actually learn the language. Teaching them is like building blocks, and sometimes the task can be daunting as you do not want to work with people who already do not intend to study. (Huong)

Huong was careful and apprehensive when fostering cohesion. To gather the momentum for learning, Huong did not focus on deductively teaching students the discourse structures that helped them to be more cohesive in their speeches. She inductively exposed students to cohesive devices via input, such as reading materials,

listening audios, and videos. The link between input and development of DC has been recognised by Do (2009) and Ngo (2012) when the input is the prerequisite for DC, especially grammatico-lexical cohesion.

Huong gave attention to both grammatical and lexical aspects of cohesion. In terms of grammar, she instructed students to practice the same structure with slight variation throughout a lesson. Regarding vocabulary, she extended the words with similar ones belonging to the same category and explained the connotations behind each word to widen students' lexical chains. The session was inductive rather than deductive, a more preferred instruction delivery approach in CLT (Nunan, 1987; Tan, 2005). It allows students to interact with the target content as a cognitive process (Piaget, 1976).

[Observation extract 1]

Huong: So what are your friends like?

Student A (who was reading the notes of student B with three adjectives describing himself noted down): He is lazy, fat, and loyal.

Huong: Really? B?

Student B: Yes.

Huong: Alright, good job A and B, but I don't think you should use that adjective. In English, there are words with similar meanings but have very different tones.

The class: yeah, true

Huong: You can, like, use chubby instead. Chubby is quite cute. But fat, no, if that was your girlfriend, you could be in great trouble.

Class: (laugh)

By giving prompts to students to produce their discourse first then navigating them to reflect on the connotations of their choices of language was one of the ways to leave a long-lasting impression of discourse formation on students (Long, 1981). As a result, they would be more mindful of

picking up accurate expressions to use in specific contexts, which is believed to consolidate grammatico-lexical cohesion (Li, 2013).

Regarding coherence, Huong allowed students to constantly review and reflect on the thematic staging of their speech by noting down their ideas on the paper and using the notes for speaking. With the combination of task repetition (answering the question structure "what somebody is/are like") and pre-task planning (using side notes), the two most used scaffolding strategies, Huong could reduce the strain put on students if they had to impromptu. Notably, these scaffoldings also automatised some of the cognitive stages required for speaking so that students could focus more on the thematic structure of the speech (Cameron et al., 1996; Skehan, 1998; Segalowitz, 2010).

[Observation extract 2]

Huong: Next, please tell us what your parents like. C, can you tell me?

Student C: My mother is strict, violent, and hard-working.

Huong: What, your mom is violent?

Student C: Yes, when I do wrong, she will hit me. But I know she loves me in her own way.

Huong: That is typical of Asian moms. We have different levels of Asian moms, do you know? Like the slipper level, the broom level, the plate level.

(Some of the students started to giggle).

Student C: My mom uses hanger.

Huong: It's only a bit over slipper level. You are still lucky.

(C and other students laughed).

From the extract above, the conversation was genuine and casual because Huong demanded an authentic response from the students. Hence, no reading materials and dictionaries should be

within grasp during practice sessions. As a result, students had to proactively organise their speech and partake in negotiation to adjust the discourse (Vygotsky, 1978).

Concerning generic structures, although the presentation was the only genre that the students were expected to perform, its familiarity spared students time to review the discourse formation of their spoken texts (Skehan, 1998; Segalowitz, 2010). Due to the tension Asian students experience when communicating in the target language (MacIntyre & Gardner 1989; Li & Lui, 2011), Huong refrained from the role of an instructor. She refused to correct students' mistakes or give feedback, although these might benefit them (Chaudron, 1988). Giving priority to reducing the affective barriers was a wise choice of Huong, particularly to beginners who might be affected more seriously (Cohen & Norst,1989).

[Interview extract 2]

I don't want students to feel that they are performing before a judging panel. I want to give them respect on par with an actual speaker. They will be more confident about themselves, and that in turn affects their output.

Lan – The commander

During her few years of teaching, Lan, a novice EFL teacher, taught pre-intermediate students around the A2-B1 level based on the CEFR. She owned the nickname "the commander" because of her teacher-front manner in class that even Lan acknowledged being the shortcoming herself. She partially blamed this on the ineffectiveness of professional training. This accusation is valid to some extent, as the lack of hands-on experience is one of the reasons why EFL teachers struggle to follow CLT and teacher-centred approach (Edwards, 1987; Pace, 1992; Nguyen et al., 2017; Nguyen & Nguyen, 2020).

[Interview extract 3]

The professional training programs that we had regularly at school now only mentioned some general problems in teaching. I wish to have more content regarding how, in the most realistic and applicable ways, the teachers of national exam takers could effectively follow the communicative approach while remaining on the track to prepare for the exam...

The overall impression was slightly didactic regarding what strategies Lan had applied to foster students' discourse competence. Her lessons often followed a Presentation - Practice - Produce sequence, starting from reading and listening exercises to speaking practices. This is a natural sequence of language acquisition (Golkova & Hubackova, 2014). However, Lan was aware that her students were reluctant to speak because they were accustomed to grammar-based teaching (Savaşçı, 2014). She provided deliberately detailed cue cards for the speaking sessions.

[Observation extract 3]

Lan: We have completed a reading passage about the traditions and customs of Russia and The UK. Now, we will do a speaking activity. We will learn how to compare things with what we learn from the passage. I will show on the slide the structures.

(On the slide): Compare: both A and B…; the things in common are…; similarly,…; A is the same as B in terms of…

Contrast: on the contrary; in contrast; A is different from B in terms of…; on the other hand…; unlike A, B is…

Lan: Alright, now who wants to volunteer?

One student: Teacher, but I speak very bad.

Another student: Do you grade us for this?

Lan: Who can speak well will receive a bonus point. And who is called but refuses to speak will get the point deduced. I will show the structures, vocabulary and main ideas from the previous reading passage. You can look at it and speak.

Unlike Huong and other experienced EFL teachers, Lan spoon-fed students the structures, vocabulary and ideas to the point of over-scaffolding (Willis, 1996). It took away the freedom to produce and maintain a discourse independently to make it cohesive and coherent to the listeners (Piaget, 1976; Vygotsky, 1978).

Like Huong, Lan taught students the presentation format "because it was ready-made in the textbook, so it is quite convenient". Lan relied extensively on feedback to guide students to present appropriately, even though she did not adhere to a pre-determined marking rubric. This might help to create an interactive lesson. However, the feedback was repetitive and redundant across different performances.

[Observation extract 4]

Lan: Okay, anyone wants to ask any question or comment. Remember this is compulsory. Group one, anyone wants to speak?

A student from group one: I think.. They speak very well. Especially students X and Y. The slide is pretty, and the font is easy to read. But student Z needs to speak more confidently.

Lan: I agree. The presentation is logical, the slide is nicely designed, they can use pictures and videos to illustrate their ideas. But I agree, Z needs to practice more at home. Maybe you should present in front of the mirror.

Most of the feedback had similar content. First, it mentioned the visual aid, then whether the speakers needed to "practice more" with no insightful suggestions or solutions. The absence of a well-defined marking rubric and proper peer-feedback training could be held accountable for this (Zhu, 1995; Berg, 1999).

Hoa – The listener

Hoa was an EFL teacher with considerable experience relating to intercultural communication. Her students were of around B1 to B2 level following the CEFR. Her students praised her for being an excellent listener because she paid close attention to what the students said during the lessons and could recall it with high accuracy in the subsequent speaking sessions. Even her students were amazed at her excellent memory.

Due to the time limitation, she organised speaking activities in the class following the think - pair - share sequence. Accordingly, students were guided to level up from just mechanically repeating what was learned, critically review the information, and then use it to create something of their own. Because the previous activity effectively scaffolded the subsequent ones, students had plenty of time to review the text's cohesive devices and coherent structures (Ellis, 2008; Wood et al., 1976).

The same as Huong and Lan, receptive input was an indispensable part of Hoa's classroom. Her speaking activities were tied with the content of the prior materials. A wide variety of input helped equip students with general knowledge, the foundation of DC development (Castro et al., 2004; Do, 2009; Ngo, 2012). She asked questions to help students figure out how the idea was arranged and supported in the text. Then, there was a follow-up speaking session where students had the chance to apply what they learned from the sample instantly into use.

[Observation extract 5: Practice instructions]

Talk about a job you would like to do. Follow this template:

1. Describe yourself, what sort of person you are.

2. Say what you're good at.

3. Say what you're interested in.

4. Say what you hope you will be doing by the time you are 25.

Example: I'm easy-going, patient, and creative. I'm good at working in a team. I'm interested in designing clothes so I'd really like to work in fashion. By the time I'm 25, I hope I will be working for a famous fashion designer.

Compared to Lan, who also designed cue cards for students, Hoa's speaking prompts were illustrative. However, this technique left room for students' freedom of expression, as it did not specify what kinds of jobs or ideas they should mention. This is a crucial part of CLT (Nunan, 1987; Tan, 2005), thus also targeted to the development of DC, particularly in terms of cohesion and coherence.

To reject pre-existing stereotypes about the teacher requiring students' confirmation and respect as a superior (Nguyen, 2002), Hoa spent a significant amount of time listening to each student's idea like a close friend. She emphasised establishing the link between the content of the speech and students' personal experience "because that is what stays with the audience after the talk". By pointing students to the fact that their presentations need to leave an impact on the audience, Hoa could raise their awareness of the features of the context where the genre was used (Flowerdew, 2002).

[Observation extract 6]

Hoa: So when you are doing a presentation, the point is you are not only giving them the information, but you need to

change their perceptions. Let's say, if you talk about one famous sports player, this should be easy, right? Like okay, I will talk about Quang Hai, and I will talk about his achievements, blah blah.. That is not particularly interesting. But if you could tell your personal story about what Quang Hai means to you, it's a much better hook. You can offer the audience another dimension to look at Quang Hai.

Apart from this, she carefully designed the marking rubric for the assignment and asked students to read them aloud and asked for their feedback. This could set the goal clear to motivate students to participate (William, 2013) and promote task authenticity (Willis, 1996).

Lien – The constructor

Lien was the EFL teacher with the most extended years of practice compared to the other cases. She was also the only teacher with experience as a manager and head of the English as a second language academic department in her previous high school. Lien mainly taught advanced levels and adhered to the constructivism teaching model. She was viewed as a conductor because she allowed great learners' autonomy in class and only offered sufficient facilitation when necessary.

She helped students develop coherence by stimulating students to revise their speech and refer it to the contexts, the key to communication (Savignon, 1983). To do this, Lien did not limit her feedback on the arguments that students proposed in class but extended it by asking follow-up questions. This propelled students to refer to their previous parts of the speech and point towards their subsequent propositions. As a result, constant practice of extended argumentative activities gave students chances of mastering the uses of references, discoursal deixis, and thematic staging (Hanks, 1992, p. 47; Dörnyei & Thurrell, 1994).

[Observation extract 7]

(One group of students was presenting about the uses of emoji in online communication)

Student A (presenter): Sometimes emoji is also used for dark humour, a sarcastic way to make a joke but not offensive.

Student B (audience): Can dark humour be a milder form of cyberbullying?

Student A: No, it's just for fun, not for criticism, and people do not take it seriously.

Lien: To some people, they might take the joke lightly, but others might take it seriously, and the joke can actually offend or hurt them. A, do you have any opinion on this?

Student A: I believe emoji is used positively and rarely for cyber bullying.

Because Lien's class was of advanced level, the input Lien prepared for them was far more diversified. For example, she started to introduce to them the idioms based on different themes or topics. In one lesson, she asked the class for revision of the previously taught idiomatic expressions. Surprisingly, the class could remember all of them and use them in the speaking practice activities. Since when the nature of second language acquisition is not a habit formation (Piaget, 1976) but rather be a cognitive process (Hammerly, 1975; Fischer, 1979), creating opportunities for students to interact with the target content was a rational way to reap the content from the input for coherence and cohesion consolidation.

[Interview extract 4]

When I want to introduce a new vocab or idiom, I tend to use prompts, like pictures. In class today, I show them a picture of a baby monkey holding a rope. So I ask them: "What do you see? A baby monkey. Why is the monkey holding the rope? Because the rope might help the monkey climb the tree. So, you have the idea. Anyone who is new in the company has to learn their ways like the monkey". Some teachers might be like, "Here is what we learn today." But I always want them to interact with the content. They will truly remember it and feel motivated to use it for their own good. (Lien)

On the condition that Lien's students had mastered the rhetorical structures of the genre, Lien adopted a flipped model to save students' time. She guided them to research the topic at home then engaged in multiple activities in class (Rajesh, 2015). This gave students plenty of space to find out for themselves how to form the discourse that was intact, coherent, and persuasive to the listeners (Rajesh, 2015).

[Observation extract 8]

(A group has just done presenting about high-end fashion brand using animals as one of the materials for their products)

Lien: Now, there are many organisations which are fighting against excessive animal killing for fashion and therefore fighting for animal rights, like PETA. Now, my question is: Why can't we close companies that are excessively killing animals?

Students A: From my point of view, because they are very strong companies that have a huge impact on the economy worldwide. If we remove them there will be a lot of relevant issues. So it's not easy to shut them down.

Lien: That's right. And one of the issues that these companies cannot be closed down easily is that they are providing jobs for a lot of people. There are people who are depending on them for, basically, their day-to-day incomes.

Student B: And because they provide a lot of taxes for the society too.

Lien: That is an interesting idea. Do you want to talk more about that, B?

(The discussion continued for a while)

The arguments in the Q&A session after each presentation were appropriately supported thanks to the preparation in advance. Lien periodically announced the presentation assignment as a small project, so students had to put more time and effort into upgrading their final product. This project-based learning model required deeper cognitive functions (Bransford et al., 1999), which laid the groundwork for discourse construction (Li, 2013).

Less covered areas

The data showed that two aspects of DC were much less mentioned, including deixis and conversational structures. The exclusive teaching of deixis was meagre, while deixis was "the key points of juncture between grammar and context" (Hanks, 1992, p. 47). On the condition that the desirable outcomes of CLT are the competencies to communicate appropriately in contexts (Savignon, 1983), deictic expressions should be the field within the spotlight. Similarly, conversational structures, the backbone that keeps the conversation going without breaking down (Dörnyei et al., 1994), deserved to be noticed more. However, the four teachers had admitted that they presumed the students would naturally obtain the rules of conversation and deixis through the communicative activities they attended in class. This presumption might be true, as indirect teaching of grammatical and linguistics regulations is integral to CLT (Richards, 1990). Notwithstanding, more direct instructions to raise students' consciousness over these matters were necessary because such methods rendered the faster and more deliberated understanding of the subject (Rutherford & Smith, 1985; Widdowson, 2001; Richards, 1990).

5. Conclusion

Regardless of the limitations coming from the study's scope and other practical issues, the findings of this study call into attention a few notable phenomena that might carry meaningful implications. EFL teachers were standing in a dilemma between the new teaching agenda and the remnant of old language teaching practices. To help students overcome affective barriers and the negative impacts of traditional teaching methods, teachers had to be versatile to adapt to different types of learners. Despite having distinct teaching styles, the four investigated cases shared common ground in their practices to cultivate DC in students. These practices, therefore, had been confirmed by previous studies, which were: 1) following an input-to-output sequencing and putting effort in introducing a wide range of input; 2) providing proper scaffoldings, particularly task repetition and pre-task planning; 3) giving priority to help students to overcome their affective barriers before DC development; 4) providing chances of putting forward authentic ideas and participating in meaning negotiations and 5) preparing a well-defined marking rubric and training students carefully to make peer-feedback more effective. These implications could be meaningful for three aspects. First, the MOET is currently gathering force to improve the professional standards of EFL teachers to standardise English teaching according to Decision 2080 (MOET, 2017). As a result, the data from this study can enrich the input for teachers' training programs, especially concerning the principles they should consider during practices. Another central idea was that the incorporation of various inputs was deemed to be pivotal. Therefore, both the teachers and material designers should be more aware of establishing an input database for EFL learners.

References

Bachman, L. F. (1990). *Fundamental considerations in language testing*. Oxford University Press.

Belmonte, I. A., & McCabe, A. (2004). The development of written discourse competence in ELT materials: A preliminary analysis. *Revista Canaria de Estudios Ingleses*, *49*, 29-48.

Berg, E. C. (1999). The effects of trained peer response on ESL students' revision types and writing quality. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, *8*(3), 215-241.

Borg, S. (2006). The distinctive characteristics of foreign language teachers. *Language Teaching Research*, *10*(1), 3-31.

Bransford, J. D., Brown, A. L., & Cocking, R. R. (1999). *How people learn: Brain, mind, experience, and school*. National Academies Press.

Braun, V., & Clarke, V. (2006). Using thematic analysis in psychology. *Qualitative Research in Psychology, 3*(2), 77-101.

Brown, H. D. (2000). *Principles of language learning and teaching* (Vol. 4). Longman.

Bui, T. M. H. (2006). Teaching speaking skills at a Vietnamese university and recommendations for using CMC. *Asian EFL Journal*, *14*, Article 2.

Cameron, L., Moon, J., & Bygate, M. (1996). Language development of bilingual pupils in the mainstream: How do pupils and teachers use language? *Language and Education*, *10*(4), 221-236.

Canale, M. (1983). From communicative competence to communicative language pedagogy. *Language and Communication*, *1*(1), 1-47.

Canale, M., & Swain, M. (1980). Theoretical bases of communicative approaches to second language teaching and testing. *Applied Linguistics*, *1*(1), 1-47.

Carroll, K., Iedema, R., & Kerridge, R. (2008). Reshaping ICU ward round practices using video-reflexive ethnography. *Qualitative Health Research*, *18*(3), 380-390.

Castro, P., Sercu, L., & Méndez García, M. D. C. (2004). Integrating language-and-culture teaching: An investigation of Spanish teachers' perceptions of the objectives of foreign language education. *Intercultural Education*, *15*(1), 91-104.

Celce-Murcia, M. (2008). Rethinking the role of communicative competence in language teaching. In E. Alcón Soler & M. P. Safont Jordà (Eds.), *Intercultural language use and language learning* (pp. 41-57). Springer.

Celce-Murcia, M., Dörnyei, Z., & Thurrell, S. (1995). Communicative competence: A pedagogically motivated model with content specifications. *Issues in Applied linguistics*, *6*(2), 5-35.

Chaudron, C. (1988). *Second language classrooms: Research on teaching and learning*. Cambridge University Press.

Chomsky, N. (2014). *Aspects of the theory of syntax* (Vol. 11). MIT Press.

Chun, D. M. (1994). Using computer networking to facilitate the acquisition of interactive competence. *System*, *22*(1), 17-31.

Cohen, Y., & Norst, M. J. (1989). Fear, dependence and loss of self-esteem: Affective barriers in second language learning among adults. *RELC Journal*, *20*(2), 61-77.

Collier, A., Phillips, J. L., & Iedema, R. (2015). The meaning of home at the end of life: A video-reflexive ethnography study. *Palliative Medicine*, *29*(8), 695-702.

Cziko, G. A. (1978). Differences in first-and second-language reading: The use of syntactic, semantic and discourse constraints. *Canadian Modern Language Review*, *34*(3), 473-489.

Do, B. Q. (2009). Vai trò của kiến thức đầu vào trong phát triển năng lực giao tiếp ngoại ngữ [The role of input knowledge in the developing of foreign language communicative competence]. *VNU Journal of Foreign Studies*, *25*(3), 140-145.

Do, T. X. D. (2018). Những ứng dụng của nghiên cứu diễn ngôn vào giảng dạy ngôn ngữ [Practical applications of discourse study on language teaching]. *Hue University Journal of Science: Social Sciences and Humanities*, *127*(6A), 55-67.

Do, T. X. D., & Truong, T. C. (2018). Discourse structure and its implication in the reading classes. *Hue University Journal of Science: Social Sciences and Humanities*, *127*(6B), 39-46.

Dönyei, Z. (2007). *Research methods in applied linguistics*. Oxford University Press.

Dörnyei, Z., & Thurrell, S. (1994). Teaching conversational skills intensively: Course content and rationale. *ELT Journal, 48*, 40-49.

Edwards, A. D. (1987). Language code and classroom practice. *Oxford Review of Education, 13*(3), 237-247.

Egan, K. B. (1999). Speaking: A critical skill and a challenge. *CALICO Journal, 16*(3), 277-293.

Ellis, E. (2002). Teaching from experience: A new perspective on the non-native teacher in adult ESL. *Australian Review of Applied Linguistics*, *25*(1), 71-107.

Ellis, N. C. (2008). The dynamics of second language emergence: Cycles of language use, language change, and language acquisition. *The Modern Language Journal*, *92*(2), 232-249.

Feagin, J. R., Orum, A. M., & Sjoberg, G. (Eds.). (1991). *A case for the case study*. UNC Press Books.

Fischer, R. A. (1979). The inductive-deductive controversy revisited. *The Modern Language Journal*, *63*(3), 98-105.

Flowerdew, J. (2002). Genre in the classroom: A linguistic approach. In A. M. Johns (Ed.), *Genre in the classroom: Multiple perspectives* (pp. 91-102). Routledge.

Gable, G. G. (1994). Integrating case study and survey research methods: An example in information systems. *European Journal of Information Systems*, *3*(2), 112-126.

Golkova, D., & Hubackova, S. (2014). Productive skills in second language learning. *Procedia-Social and Behavioral Sciences*, *143*, 477-481.

Grossman, P., Compton, C., Igra, D., Ronfeldt, M., Shahan, E., & Williamson, P. (2009). Teaching practice: A cross-professional perspective. *Teachers College Record*, *111*(9), 2055-2100.

Halliday, M., & Hasan, R. (1989). *Language, context, and text: Aspects of language in a social semiotic perspective*. Oxford University Press.

Hammerly, H. (1975). The deduction/induction controversy. *The Modern Language Journal*, *59*(1/2), 15-18.

Hanks, W. F. (1992). *The indexical ground of deictic reference*. Cambridge University Press.

Hussein, N. O., & Elttayef, A. I. (2016). The impact of utilising Skype as a social tool network community on developing English major students' discourse competence in the English language syllables. *Journal of Education and Practice*, *7*(11), 29-33.

Hymes. D. (1972). On communicative competence. In J. Pride & J. Holmes (Eds.), *Sociolinguistics* (pp. 269-293). Penguin Books.

Kinneavy, J. L. (1971). *A theory of discourse*. W.W. Norton & Company.

Lampert, M. (2010). Learning teaching in, from, and for practice: What do we mean? *Journal of Teacher Education*, *61*(1-2), 21-34.

Larrivee, B. (2008). Development of a tool to assess teachers' level of reflective practice. *Reflective Practice*, *9*(3), 341-360.

Le, N. (2011, May 21). Vì sao học sinh Việt Nam "ngại" nói tiếng Anh? [Why do Vietnamese students hesitate to speak English?]. *Dân trí*. https://dantri.com.vn/giao-duc-huong-nghiep/vi-sao-hoc-sinh-viet-nam-ngai-noi-tieng-anh-1306225111.htm

Legutke, M. K. (2012). Teaching teenagers. In J. C. Richards & A. Burns (Eds.), *The Cambridge guide to pedagogy and practice in second language teaching*. Cambridge University Press.

Li, D. (1998). It's always more difficult than you plan and imagine: Teachers' perceived difficulties in introducing the communicative approach in South Korea. *TESOL Quarterly, 32,* 677-703.

Li, H., & Lui, Y. (2011). A brief study of reticence in ESL class. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies, 1*(8), 961-965.

Li, J. (2013). The application and significance of discourse cohesion and analysis in practical teaching of foreign language. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies*, *3*(8), 1393.

Liao, X. (2000). How communicative language teaching became acceptable in secondary schools in China. *The Internet TESL Journal, 6*(10). http://iteslj.org/Articles/Liao-CLTinChina.html

Long, M. H. (1981). Input, interaction, and second-language acquisition. *Annals of the New York Academy of Sciences*, *379*(1), 259-278.

MacIntyre, P. D., & Gardner, R. C. (1989). Anxiety and second-language learning: Toward a theoretical clarification. *Language Learning*, *39*(2), 251-275.

Maley, A. (1984). On chalk and cheese, babies and bathwater and squared circles: Can traditional and communicative approaches be reconciled? In P. Larson, E. L. Judd & D. S. Messerschmitt (Eds.), *On TESOL'84* (pp. 159-169). TESOL.

Mauranen, A. (1996). Discourse competence - evidence from thematic development in native and non-native texts. In E. Vantola & A. Mauranen (Eds.), *Pragmatics and beyond new series* (pp. 195 -230). John Benjamins Publishing Company.

McCarthy, M. (1991). *Discourse analysis for language teachers*. Cambridge University Press.

Merrell, J., & Williams, A. (1994). Participant observation and informed consent: Relationships and tactical decision-making in nursing research. *Nursing Ethics*, *1*(3), 163-172.

National Center for Education. (2019, July 24). Giáo viên, yếu tố then chốt nâng cao chất lượng dạy và học ngoại ngữ [Teachers as the key factor in enhancing foreign language education's quality]. *Vietnam Ministry of Education and Training*. https://moet.gov.vn/Pages/tim-kiem.aspx?ItemID=6131

Ngo, H. H. (2012). Vai trò của văn hóa và kiến thức văn hóa nền trong việc hình thành và tiếp nhận diễn ngôn [The role of culture and cultural knowledge in discourse formation and acquisition]. *VNU Journal of Foreign Studies*, *28*(1), 25-32.

Ngoc, D. (2021, April 14). Các trường xét tuyển bằng chứng chỉ quốc tế, nhiều học sinh thiệt thòi? [English international certificate as an significant advantage in higher education's application: An opportunity or barrier?] *Tuổi trẻ online*. https://tuoitre.vn/cac-truong-xet-tuyen-bang-chung-chi-quoc-te-nhieu-hoc-sinh-thiet-thoi-20210414084953175.htm

Nguyen, H. N. (2021, March 12). 'Tôi biết nhiều học sinh học chưa tốt tiếng Anh' [I am aware that there are students who might not be fluent in English]. *Tuổi trẻ online*. https://tuoitre.vn/toi-biet-nhieu-hoc-sinh-hoc-chua-tot-tieng-anh-20210312215855479.htm

Nguyen, Q. (2016). Từ năng lực ngôn ngữ đến năng lực liên văn hoá [From linguistic competence to intercultural competence]. *VNU Journal of Foreign Studies*, *32*(3), 1-9.

Nguyen, Q. T., Duong, C. D., & Vu, K. H. (2017). Thiết kế chương trình bổ trợ nói cho học sinh lớp 10 trường trung học phổ thông Thái Nguyên [Designing a supplementary English speaking material for the 10th form students at Thai Nguyen high school]. *Tạp chí Khoa học và Công nghệ - Đại học Thái Nguyên*, *167*(07), 67-71.

Nguyen, T. H. (2002). Vietnam: Cultural background for ESL/EFL teachers. *The Review of Vietnamese Studies*, *2*(1), 1-6.

Nguyen, T. T. H., & Nguyen, T. H. (2020). Nghiên cứu sử dụng tài liệu bổ trợ trong dạy kỹ năng nói tiếng Anh tại trường trung học phổ thông [An investigation into using supplementary materials in teaching English speaking skills at high school]. *TNU Journal of Science and Technology*, *225*(12), 64-69.

Ntuli, D., & Pretorius, E. J. (2005). Laying foundations for academic language competence: The effects of storybook reading on Zulu language, literacy and discourse development. *Southern African Linguistics and Applied Language Studies*, *23*(1), 91-109.

Nunan, D. (1987). Communicative language teaching: Making it work. *ELT Journal*, *41*(2), 136-145.

Pace, G. (1992). Stories of teacher-initiated change from traditional to whole-language literacy instruction. *Elementary School Journal, 92*(4), 461-476.

Pennycook, A. (1994). Incommensurable discourses? *Applied Linguistics*, *15*(2), 115-138.

Pham, H. H. (2007). Communicative language teaching: Unity within diversity. *ELT Journal, 61*(3), 193-201.

Pham, H. L. (2017). Phát triển năng lực tiếng của người học dưới ánh sáng lý luận ngôn ngữ học hiện đại [Language learners' proficiency development in the light of modern linguistics]. *Tạp chí Khoa học giáo dục, 142*, 34-37.

Piaget, J. (1976). Piaget's theory. In B. Inhelder, N. N. Chipman & C. Zwingmann (Eds.), *Piaget and his school* (pp. 11-23). Springer.

Postiglione, G. A., Wang, L. & Watkins, D. (2008). Vocational and continuing education in China. In P. A. Elsner, G. R. Boggs & J. T. Irwin (Eds.), *Global development of community colleges, technical colleges, and further education programs* (pp. 91-104). American Association of Community Colleges.

Rajesh, M. (2015). Revolution in communication technologies: Impact on distance education. *Turkish Online Journal of Distance Education, 16*(1), 62-88.

Richard, J. C. (1990). Conversationally speaking: Approaches to the teaching of conversation. In J. C. Richards (Ed.), *The language teaching matrix: Curriculum, methodology, and material* (pp. 67-86). Cambridge University Press.

Richards, J. C. (2005). *Communicative language teaching today*. SEAMEO Regional Language Centre.

Rutherford, W. E., & Smith, M. S. (1985). Consciousness-raising and universal grammar. *Applied Linguistics*, *6*(3), 274-282.

Saldaña, J. (2009). The coding manual for qualitative researchers. Sage Publications Ltd.

Savaşçı, M. (2014). Why are some students reluctant to use L2 in EFL speaking classes? An action research at tertiary level. *Procedia-Social and Behavioral Sciences*, *116*, 2682-2686.

Savignon, S (1983). *Communicative competence: Theory and classroom practice*. Addison-Wesley.

Segalowitz, N. (2010). *Cognitive bases of second language fluency*. Routledge.

Skehan, P. (1998). *A cognitive approach to language learning*. Oxford University Press.

Stern, H. H., Tarone, E. E., Stern, H. H., Yule, G., & Stern, H. (1983). *Fundamental concepts of language teaching: Historical and interdisciplinary perspectives on applied linguistic research*. Oxford University Press.

Tan, M. (2005). CLT - beliefs and practices. *Journal of Language and Learning*, *3*(1), 104-115.

Vietnam Ministry of Education and Training (2017). Quyết định số 2080/QĐ-TTg về phê duyệt điều chỉnh, bổ sung Đề án dạy và học ngoại ngữ trong hệ thống giáo dục quốc dân giai đoạn 2017-2025 [Decision No. 2080/QĐ-TTg on the approval of adjustments and additions to the project entitled "Teaching and learning foreign languages in the national education system, period 2017-2025"].

Vietnam Ministry of Education and Training (2018). Thông tư số 32/2018/TT-BGDĐT về ban hành chương trình giáo dục phổ thông: Chương trình môn Tiếng Anh [Circular No. 32/2016 QĐ-TTg on the publication of general education program: English as a foreign language program].

Vygotsky, L. (1978). Interaction between learning and development. *Readings on the Development of Children*, *23*(3), 34-41.

Widdowson, G. H. (2001). *Aspects of language teaching*. Oxford University Press.

Wiggins, G., & McTighe, J. (2006). Examining the teaching life. *Educational Leadership*, *63*(6), 26-29.

Wiliam, D. (2013). Assessment: The bridge between teaching and learning. *Voices from the Middle, 21*(2), 15.

Willis, J. (1996). *A framework for task-based learning* (Vol. 60). Longman.

Wood, D., Bruner, J. S., & Ross, G. (1976). The role of tutoring in problem solving. *Journal of Child Psychology and Psychiatry*, *17*(2), 89-100.

Yang, W., & Sun, Y. (2012). The use of cohesive devices in argumentative writing by Chinese EFL learners at different proficiency levels. *Linguistics and Education*, *23*(1), 31-48.

Zhu, W. (1995). Effects of training for peer response on students' comments and interaction. *Written Communication*, *12*(4), 492-528.

THỰC HÀNH CỦA GIÁO VIÊN TIẾNG ANH
TRONG VIỆC PHÁT TRIỂN NĂNG LỰC DIỄN NGÔN
THÔNG QUA KỸ NĂNG NÓI CHO HỌC SINH LỚP 10:
NGHIÊN CỨU TRƯỜNG HỢP ĐIỂN HÌNH

Vũ Hải Hà, Nguyễn Nhã Uyên

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

Tóm tắt: Tiếng Anh hiện nay đã trở thành môn học bắt buộc từ bậc tiểu học và dần trở thành một tiêu chí xét tuyển quan trọng tại các bậc đại học và cao đẳng, cho nên việc học tiếng Anh đã trở thành ưu tiên hàng đầu của rất nhiều học sinh trung học phổ thông (Nguyen, 2021). Thêm vào đó, việc học tiếng Anh hiện nay đang hướng đến hình thành năng lực giao tiếp cho học sinh, mà năng lực diễn ngôn chính là một phần không thể thiếu. Đây cũng là một mục tiêu then chốt được khẳng định trong Thông tư 32 (2018) của Bộ Giáo dục và Đào tạo. Mặc dù chương trình tiếng Anh mới đã có sự chú trọng nhiều hơn vào các kĩ năng giao tiếp như nghe và nói, nhưng học sinh vẫn gặp nhiều khó khăn khi diễn ngôn bằng lời (Le, 2011). Để mở ra những phương án giải quyết nhằm nâng cao năng lực diễn ngôn thông qua kĩ năng nói cho học sinh, nghiên cứu đã tập trung vào bốn đối tượng giáo viên tiếng Anh với lý lịch, kinh nghiệm và phong cách giảng dạy đa dạng từ một hệ thống giáo dục đã hai lần được giải thưởng của Bộ Giáo dục và Đào tạo cho những đóng góp vào phong trào cải cách giáo dục và đưa đường hướng giao tiếp vào giảng dạy tiếng Anh. Sau khi thực hiện phỏng vấn và quan sát lớp học của bốn giáo viên, nghiên cứu nhận thấy giáo viên thường kết hợp linh hoạt nhiều cách tiếp cận khác nhau để giúp học sinh phát triển năng lực diễn ngôn, tuy nhiên, sự kết hợp này vẫn phản ảnh đúng phương châm và phong cách giảng dạy của giáo viên đó. Kết quả của nghiên cứu có thể trở thành nguồn tham khảo hữu ích cho các giáo viên tiếng Anh, cũng như mở ra bước đầu trong việc xây dựng một bộ quy chiếu giúp giáo viên tự tìm ra phương pháp thích hợp để nâng cao năng lực diễn ngôn cho học sinh của mình.

Từ khóa: giáo viên tiếng Anh, năng lực diễn ngôn, kĩ năng nói, nhận thức, thực hành, học sinh lớp 10, Hà Nội

QRCV APPROACH TO ENHANCING
CRITICAL THINKING SKILLS IN ESP LEARNING

Ri Chung Sim*, Kang Chol Su, Kim Yong Hyong

Faculty of Finance, Kim Il Sung University,
Pyongyang, Democratic People's Republic of Korea

Abstract: The term 'Critical Thinking' increasingly appears in education and language teaching. It would be among key skills for any 21st century learner (Hughes, 2014). Recently, considerable attention has been paid to critical teaching approaches in studying foreign languages. It is usually difficult for students to acquire financial knowledge in English even though they have already passed a basic English course in non-English speaking countries. We introduce the QRCV approach for enhancing learners' CT skills so that learners can overcome challenges in ESP learning. The main principle of the QRCV approach is heuristic Questioning, Reasoning, Considering the issues from different angles, and Visualizing in learning ESP. Our study aims at validating the QRCV approach in enhancing learners' CT skills in ESP learning. Participants were 72 students learning finance in English. During a semester, the experimental group (n=36) took the financial English course through the QRCV approach while the control group took it in a conventional approach. The self-developed instrument, Critical Thinking Skills Test for Financial English (CTSTFE) was used as a pretest and posttest, and their results were scored by instructors in accordance with relevant criteria for CT skills. The findings indicate that the experimental group outperformed the control group in the course achievement, especially in the dimension of Considering from multiple-perspectives. Implications for applying QRCV to other ESP courses in general are suggested.

Keyword: critical thinking, ESP, financial English, questioning, reasoning

1. Introduction

The emergence of a knowledge-based economy over a once dominant manufacturing economy means that positive outcomes are dependent on critical thinking (CT) abilities (Abrami et al., 2008; Ahuna, Tinnesz & Keiner, 2014; Meepian & Wannapiroon, 2013). Developing CT skills needed for success in this era beyond the classroom has been recognized as a primary goal of colleges and universities (Astin, 1993; Gellin, 2003; Stedman & Adams, 2012). Many chief academic officers identify critical thinking as one of the most important skills for students and not a few

employers want universities to place a stronger emphasis on developing critical thinking skills (AAC&U, 2011). Universities would fail their students if they can pass through to their junior or senior years by relying on memorizing facts which are setting *them* up for failure in upper level courses or in a profession where analysis and evaluation of information is essential.

In order for students to use critical thinking skills in their professional careers, they must first be taught how to develop those skills since CT skills are not inherent and they are developed through time and experience (Hackworth, 2009).

As ESP (English for Specific Purposes) is mainly for learners' professional careers while EGP (English for General Purposes) for their everyday life, it requires learners to be equipped with CT skills for their future careers more keenly than EGP. While students learn both English and subject-matter content in ESP courses, they need to be equipped with not only linguistic skills but also subject-oriented thinking skills. ESP is distinguished from EGP in the point that it is rooted from EGP and is in combination with a specific domain. Domain – the subject matter – required critical thinking more keenly than language itself. In the financial English course (one branch of ESP) learners are taught EFL and finance as the subject-matter content. For their university achievement and future professional success, they choose to apply an economic or financial way of thinking in their course rather than acquiring the norms and principles merely by rote-retention. To think like an economist, they must acquire CT skills since economic or financial matters are sophisticated enough to be embodied with elegant decision-making and problem-solving abilities.

In our practice, the financial English course is acknowledged as more difficult than the EGP course to students. Etymology-visualization techniques have been used to help them overcome such difficulties in acquiring finance-specific English terms (Chung-sim, 2019). There still remain some other challenges in comprehending financial texts, preparing a presentation or writing an academic paper on financial topics in English. As for financial texts, students merely attempt to translate their literal meaning into their mother tongue without grasping its content meaning. This also prevents them from thinking in a more rational way as an economist. We see these challenges are normally connected to the lack of domain-specific knowledge, not to

that of linguistic skills. Such challenges could be overcome when students are encouraged to be active and independent learners for domain-specific background knowledge rather than passive and dependent acquirers and critical thinking is central to this.

Furthermore, it is more vital for non-English students in the course of ESP since domain-specific materials in English do not always match with their mother tongue equivalents easily, and that also requires critical thinking skills. By taking charge of the critical thinking process, they can develop an understanding of what they do *not* know about a particular subject, and make better decisions as a result (Brian, 2005).

In consideration of the domain-specific features of financial English, to improve students' CT skills, effective teaching approaches must be applied, and the QRCV approach is one of those. This study will prove the QRCV approach's usefulness for enhancing CT skills in financial English learning.

2. Theoretical Bases for the QRCV Approach

Teaching critical thinking is important for learning and social practice and teachers around the world are encouraged to integrate those skills in teaching. However, little is known about integrating critical thinking skills in foreign language instruction (Lili, 2016). E1-Soufi and See (2019) tested a range of approaches to enhancing the CT skills of English language learners and found that research in this field is still rather immature and more large-scale, replicable robust studies are needed to advance the field. Yet there is no study even on the relationship between CT skills and ESP learning, so we intended to conduct a study on effective teaching approaches for ESP learning by taking

advantages of relevant abilities for CT in general and domain-specific sub-skills. The abilities or behaviors identified as relevant to critical thinking include asking and answering questions for clarification (Ennis, 1985); defining terms (Ennis, 1985); identifying assumptions (Ennis, 1985; Paul, 1992); interpreting and explaining (Facione, 1990); reasoning verbally, especially in relation to concepts of likelihood and uncertainty (Halpern, 1998); predicting (Tindal & Nolet, 1995); and seeing both sides of an issue (Willingham, 2007).

Meanwhile, Hughes (2014) suggests 20 practical activities for integrating CT in the language classrooms such as critical questioning, reason generator, seeing things from another point of view, and supporting evidence, etc. Kanik (2010) urges that questioning methods and considering issues from different angles are main tools for getting students to think critically in the social sciences course. Multiple researchers highlight the importance of questioning in various forms for integrating CT skills in their courses (Ritchhart & Perkins, 2008; Day, 2011; Arend, 2009; Paul & Elder, 2006). Bailin et al. (1999) states that domain-specific knowledge is indispensable to CT.

We introduce three main categories, namely questioning, reasoning and considering new aspects among the relevant CT abilities and other CT teaching approaches in general and in EFL learning. We also combine these three categories with the aid of visualization which is regarded as a valuable tool for education to produce the QRCV approach. QRCV stands for questioning, reasoning, considering issues from different angles and visualization. These four combined can be a helpful teaching approach for comparing, analyzing and evaluating financial English texts, which are necessary for getting critical thinking skills in ESP learning.

Keeping in mind that CT is defined as "learning how to ask and answer questions of analysis, synthesis, and evaluation" (Paul, 1985), it includes two interrelated processes, including identifying and challenging assumptions, and imagining and examining others (Brookfield, 1991). Identifying and challenging assumptions can be received by questioning and reasoning, imagining by visualizing, examining others by considering from different perspectives.

'Socratic questioning' still heavily influences many approaches to education to this day and is certainly one skill required of effective critical thinkers (Hughes, 2014), which enables us to integrate questioning as one element of effective CT teaching approach for ESP domain-specific learning.

Answering a question requires reasoning. Reasoning aims at finding a solution or making a choice. Reasoning results in a simple decision, an interference, a judgment, and/or a conclusion (Brian, 2005). The fact that critical thinkers take the time to find out what they do not know with the methodical analysis of reasoning indicates that we should integrate reasoning as another element of effective CT teaching approach for ESP learning.

Well-balanced reasoning can be achieved free from bias, which requires thinkers to put themselves in alternative points of view. Critical thinkers take charge of their point of view by bringing it out into the open through active study and analysis on situations from different perspectives (Brian, 2005). We integrate considering from different perspectives into the other element of effective CT teaching approach for ESP learning.

Questioning, Reasoning and Considering from different perspectives are good elements for acquiring CT skills, which would be facilitated with visualization. We know English proverbs like 'a picture is

worth a thousand words' and 'seeing is believing', both of which demonstrate the high communicative power of visual signals. Therefore, in language teaching-learning, like teaching-learning other subjects, the use of visualization is highly encouraged. A new vocabulary item, for instance, can be instantly understood by language learners if accompanied with a picture showing what it really is. Visualizing the text can greatly improve reading comprehension. Since it is most effective and essential to comprehension, understanding and application to optimize visualization ability which is an intrinsic potential of human being, visualization is given great attention. Also, concerning learning, VAK (Visual, Auditory, and Kinesthetic) has been identified as various preferred styles by each individual: some can learn better by seeing (V) while some can learn best by merely listening (A), and still others can study best by moving and actions (K). In their studies, Dunn and Dunn (1972) conclude that 'many in our cultural framework are visual learners' whereas Goleman (1986) said that '94% of population utilizes visualization well'.

For these reasons, in education of finance in English, several visualization methods can be adopted to improve reading and application ability.

As for the QRCV approach, QRC is vital for bringing up CT skills while V facilitates learners to follow QRC. If QR provides milestones for CT routine, CV provides a van to shorten the routine. If QR provides raw materials for CT food, CV provides seasoning and flavor for it.

The QRCV approach can facilitate the way of thinking for financial English learners to have critical eyes on the materials they used to absorb merely by translating. This also enables them to see hidden meaning or invent their own new ideas, or uncover and explain deeper meaning of the

text and expand their perspectives by building up critical thinking. The QRCV approach effectively helps learners develop CT skills by promoting deeper thinking of cause/effect relationships, parts-whole relationships, the reliability of sources, and prediction (Nold, 2017).

As domain-specific CT skills lead to domain-general CT skills and vice versa, learners could have a critical attitude not only towards the financial text in English but also other subject matters. Their learning behavior might turn themselves from passive consumers into active producers of knowledge through the QRCV approach.

We apply the QRCV approach in two steps, before class and in class. In the 1st step, students are given instructions with relevant financial English materials before class. They are required to make Questions as critical as possible to instructors or their colleagues. Normally they are instructed to observe the text carefully to find odd things in it. Then they should try to do their own Reasoning to answer such questions. While doing their assignments, they try to Consider the issues from all possible sides. And after finishing their assignment according to instructions, they should draw a text map or sometimes a concept map so as to Visualize the context wholly or partially.

Instructors collect their assignments, summarize and classify the questions before class. They build up their own instruction plan for each lesson along with a questioning routine to carry on during class.

In the 2nd step, instructors put questions as tough as possible to the students on the given text. They find themselves involved to answer the questions by reasoning with given tips from instructors. In this case, they are generally asked to conclude a well-balanced judgment or answers with the help of instructors who enlighten their point of view to consider the

text from several aspects. Often a prepared text (Appendix 1) or concept maps are given to the students by instructors to facilitate their comprehension of the text. And more often instructors do these mapping promptly in consideration of collected ideas from students during the class. In practice, various kinds of financial text in English often require the application of QRCV approach wholly or partially combined and sometimes singly.

We are going to prove that the QRCV approach is helpful to overcome difficulties in ESP learning to produce better faculty achievements by enhancing students' CT skills in the subsequent sections of the paper.

3. The Study

The present study aims at proving the effectiveness of the QRCV approach in the course achievement and in enhancing critical thinking skills in ESP learning. The following research questions are posed.

Question 1: Can the QRCV approach improve ESP course achievement by overcoming its inherent challenges?

Question 2: Can the QRCV approach enhance CT skills in ESP learning?

Participants

After Basic EGP course, all the students in our University take an ESP course according to their majors. Students of Finance Faculty go through the financial English course. We divide 72 participants at the average age of 22 into two groups: the control group (36 participants) and the experimental group (36 participants). Proficiency in English and major subjects between the two groups was found to be similar, at the beginning of the project, in accordance with their previous terminal exam results.

Table 1

Composition of Participants Based on Their Proficiency in English And Major

Average terminal exam result (marks)	Control group	Experimental group
A (8.5~10)	3 (students)	3 (students)
B (7.5~8.4)	27	27
C (6~7.5)	6	6

For a semester, the control group go through the ESP course in a traditional way i.e. by explaining them in English as in dictionary and acquiring financial English terms mechanically, L1 word for L2 word, or vice versa shown in bilingual English-Korean dictionaries and merely translating the text into Korean for their comprehension and while experimental group is taught in the new way i.e. through the QRCV approach.

Then after a semester, the participants were examined to evaluate their critical thinking skills to deal with financial English texts.

Instruments

There exist many standardized assessments including the California Critical Thinking Skills Test (Facione, 1990), the Cornell Critical Thinking Tests (Ennis & Millman, 2005), and the Watson-Glaser Critical Thinking Appraisal (Watson & Glaser, 1980). Such assessments utilize multiple-choice items designed to assess component critical thinking skills, such as deductive reasoning, inductive reasoning, drawing conclusions, evaluating arguments, and so forth. These assessments are not confined to domain-specific areas but to domain-general areas. Therefore, we introduce CT assessment specific to ESP (herein financial English) as an instrument for the current study.

This assessment (Critical Thinking Skills Test for Finance in English - CTSTFE) consists of 7 types of problems:

1st filling in the blank with appropriate words, 2nd choosing the right answer for the blank, 3rd matching blanks with appropriate words, 4th deciding true or false, 5th rearranging the parts to complete a sentence, 6th interpreting into mother tongue, 7th finding solutions as many as possible. (Appendix 2)

The content of problems are extracted from relevant glossaries, journals, magazines, newspaper articles or other reference books. While comprehending, analyzing and guessing the context, examinees collect candidate answers to problems and sort out the most reasonable one. Problems of the 1st, 2nd, 4th, and 7th types aim at checking CT skills from financial aspects more than linguistic aspects, and vice versa for those of 3rd, 5th, 6th types.

Procedures

Both the control and the experimental groups are given the pretest and the posttest with CTSTF. As for the pretest before the semester, the control participants record the average marks of 4.7 while the experimental earns the average of 4.6, which tells that their CT skills are almost similar at the beginning of the study.

After the treatment semester, participants of the two groups go through the posttest equally with CTSTFE. According to the exam results (Table 2), 36 participants in each group are ranked in order from the highest to the lowest, and they are clustered again with 6 members in each subgroup. All of 6 subgroups in each group are ranked from No 1 to No 6 in accordance with their exam performance.

No 1 subgroups of the control and experimental groups form Pair 1. Like this, we form from Pair 2 to Pair 6. Then we conduct an interesting debate-type experiment for assessing CT skills in ESP learning. We put forward some statements (Appendix 3). The subgroups in each pair

should either affirm or deny the statement. In three pairs of No 1, 2 and 3, the control participants are asked to agree with the statements while the experimental subgroups are to disagree with them and vice versa in the other three pairs of No 4, 5 and 6. Three examiners are invited to rank the above 12 subgroups with some criteria for CT skills (Table 4). Each subgroup is given 10 minutes in advance to build up their argumentation. Then each pair starts to defend their arguments for the given statement. After 3 minutes, they should stop their arguments and examiners judge their performance (Table 3). Also, the experimental participants are particularly examined how much this QRCV approach encourages their attitude towards ESP learning in consideration of some useful elements needed for critical thinkers such as flexibility, disposition, and motivation by questionnaire (Table 5). All the relevant results above are manifested in the finding section of this paper.

4. Findings and Discussions

After the treatment semester, the average marks per group show that the experimental participants overwhelm the control ones in total. As for the 6th type problem (Appendix 2), we find a big gap between the two groups (9.1 and 4.7) with the question of which requires a more critical way of thinking. This indicates that the QRCV approach can enhance critical thinking skills for financial English learning especially in the respect of considering issues from different perspectives. The 1st to 6th problems are almost made from new materials not mentioned in textbooks or teaching materials. The experimental results (7.5) are higher than the control ones (6.4), which indicates that the QRCV approach could help the learners overcome difficulty in comprehending financial context.

Table 2

Average Posttest Result per Examinee With CTSTFE

	Finance-focused problems				Linguistic-focused problems			Average marks
	1st	2nd	4th	6th	3rd	5th	7th	
Experimental group	7.3	8.2	7	9.1	6.9	5.4	8.5	7.5
Control group	5.9	7.4	4.8	4.7	6.7	6.9	8.4	6.4

Table 3

Who Successfully Persuades its Counterparty in Debates?

Pairs for debate	Control subgroup		Experimental subgroup
No 1	pros	<	cons
No 2	pros	<	cons
No 3	pros	<	cons
No 4	cons	<	pros
No 5	cons	<	pros
No 6	cons	>	pros

As the table indicates, five experimental subgroups defeat their counterparties and only one control subgroup defeats its counterparty. This shows that the QRCV approach can enhance learners' persuasive and argumentative abilities which are inevitably accompanied by CT skills.

Table 4

Rank in CT Skills for 12 Experimental and Control Subgroups

	Control subgroups							Experimental subgroups						
Rank in the following criteria*	1	2	3	4	5	6	∑	1	2	3	4	5	6	∑
Questioning quality	4	5	7	9	11	10	46	1	2	3	6	8	12	32
Reasoning power	7	3	5	9	10	11	45	4	2	1	6	8	12	33
Fairness (multi-side consideration)	4	2	6	8	10	12	42	3	1	5	7	9	11	36
Relevance	6	4	2	7	9	12	40	5	3	1	8	10	11	38
Clarity in expression	1	3	6	8	12	9	39	2	5	4	7	11	10	39
Collaboration	1	4	6	9	10	11	41	2	3	5	8	7	12	37
Total ∑	23	21	32	50	62	65	253	17	16	19	42	53	68	215
Rank in Total	5	4	6	8	10	11	44	2	1	3	7	9	12	34

*Criteria for assessing CT skills are established by examiners in consideration of various CT standards.

Examiners rank 12 experimental and control subgroups in the order from 1 to 12 in accordance with some criteria such as questioning quality, reasoning power, fairness and relevance. Collaboration is added to the criteria as this is one element for displaying CT skills. Each subgroup is ranked according to each criterion. Each rank value is added up to be total which shows the sum of ranks. The bigger the sum is, the lower the rank is.

It is found that experimental group's rank (215) is higher than control one's (253) except in the criterion of Clarity in expression (39). As for Fairness (multi-side consideration) comparing it with the other

criteria, the experimental rank is much higher than the control rank, which indicates that the QRCV approach is more effective in enhancing the skill of considering the issues from multiple perspectives.

Critical thinking may also support and be supported by motivation.(Emily, 2012) The disposition to think critically has been defined as the "consistent internal motivation to engage problems and make decisions by using critical thinking" (Facione, 2000). Thus, student motivation is viewed as a necessary precondition for the exercise of critical thinking skills and abilities.

Table 5

How do QRCV Participants Feel Improvements in Their Learning Attitude?

	Most willing	More willing	Willing	Not willing
	How many (%)	How many (%)	How many (%)	How many (%)
Flexibility	7 (19.4%)	16 (44.4%)	9 (25.0%)	4 (11.1%)
Disposition	4 (11.1%)	8 (22.2%)	17 (47.2%)	7 (19.4%)
Motivation	19 (52.8%)	11 (30.6%)	5 (13.9%)	1 (2.8%)

The table shows that the QRCV approach substantially enhances learners' motivation. All the findings above proves that the QRCV approach facilitates ESP learning, and helps learners overcome intrinsic difficulties by making them independent learners.

What is most important in the QRCV approach is Questioning, as the quality of questions with relevant reasons would determine the success or failure of the approach to enlighten or guide the learners in the direction of critical thinking. These questions would be better to be accompanied with standards of reason involving clarity, relevance, logic, accuracy, depth, significance, precision, breadth, and fairness as suggested by Brian (2005), which mainly depends on the quality of instructors since it seems obvious that teachers first need to be critical thinkers to be able to teach this

ability to their students (Sheybani & Miri, 2019). Instructors should be critical thinkers to produce such quality questions to bring up students to be critical thinkers. The instructors who received specific training on methods to teach critical thinking are more effective in developing critical thinking in students than instructors who had no prior training (Abrami et al., 2008). It is further required to develop an effective training program for instructors to acquire methods for teaching CT skills in ESP courses.

While the QRCV is derived from domain-general CT abilities and applied to domain-specific fields, financial English in this case, one branch of ESP, and it works quite well, we also suggest the applicability of the QRCV approach to other domain-specific ESP learning. It can generally apply to language learning with specific domain for this approach is generalized and

extracted from the general sub skills and activities for language classroom. But this should be creatively applied specific to target domain. If necessary, the QRCV could produce variations suitable for target domains. This implies that it can apply to other ESP courses.

5. Conclusions

The importance of critical thinking skills has long been aware of as an outcome of student learning (Emily, 2012). However, little is known about integrating CT skills in ESP learning. ESP learning requires two skills; linguistic skill for English on the one hand and CT skill for specific subjects on the other. Financial English, as one branch of ESP, needs CT skills for learners to acquire domain-specific background knowledge.

We assume that learners can get successful achievement in their ESP course and further professional careers when they are equipped with economic ways of thinking that can be developed by CT skills in the field of finance in English. We see Questioning, Reasoning, and Considering the issue from multiple perspectives as main elements for enhancing CT skills and combine these three elements with Visualization which has been recognized as an effective teaching tool to produce the QRCV approach for effective ESP learning.

The study demonstrates that the QRCV approach is effective in enhancing learners' CT skills particularly in multiple-side consideration. The learning attitude of experimental participants has also proved to be positive towards ESP courses taught in the QRCV approach. All these results indicate the QRCV approach can enhance learners' course achievement by enhancing their CT skills and overcoming inherent challenges in this course.

References

AAC&U. (2011). *The LEAP vision for learning: Outcomes, practices, impact, and employers' view.* Association of American Colleges and Universities.

Ahuna, K. K., Tinnesz, C. G., & Kiener, M. (2014). A new era of critical thinking in professional programs. *Transformative Dialogues: Teaching & Learning Journal*, *7*(3), 1-9.

Alwehaibi, H. (2012). Novel program to promote critical thinking among higher education students: Empirical study from Saudi Arabia. *Asian Social Science*, *8*(11), 193-204.

Astin, A. (1993). *What matters in college: Four critical years revisited.* Jossey-Bass.

Brookfield, S. D. (1991). *Developing critical thinkers: Challenging adults to explore alternative ways of thinking and acting.* Open University Press.

Egan, B. D. (2005). *The role of critical thinking in effective decision making* [White Paper]. Global Knowledge. https://uploads-ssl.webflow.com/5d024b052b8dd5c1a487d582/5ec55c033a09a644a8e82d9f_criticalthinking.pdf

E1-Soufi, N., & See, B. H. (2019). Does explicit teaching of critical thinking improve critical thinking skills of English language learners in higher education? A critical review of causal evidence. *Studies in Educational Evaluation, 60*, 140-162.

Ennis, R. H. (1985). A logical basis for measuring critical thinking skills. *Educational Leadership, 43*(2), 44–48.

Ennis, R. H., & Millman, J. (2005). *Cornell critical thinking test: Level X* (5th ed.). The Critical Thinking Co.™

Facione, P. A. (2000). The disposition toward critical thinking: Its character, measurement, and relation to critical thinking skill. *Informal Logic, 20*(1), 61-84.

Gellin, A. (2003). The effect of undergraduate student involvement on critical thinking: A meta-analysis of the literature 1991-2000. *Journal of College Student Development, 44*(6), 746-762.

Hackworth, R. M. (2009). *Radiation science educators' perception of obstacles in the use of critical thinking* [Unpublished Doctoral Dissertation]. The Ohio State University.

Halpern, D. F. (1998). Teaching critical thinking for transfer across domains: Dispositions, skills, structure training, and metacognitive monitoring. *American Psychologist, 53*(4), 449-455.

Hughes, J. (2014). *Critical thinking in the language classroom*. ELI.

Lai, R. E., & Viering, M. (2012, April). *Assessing 21st century skills: Integrating research findings* [Paper presentation]. National Council on Measurement in Education, Vancouver.

Li, L. (2016). Integrating thinking skills in foreign language learning: What can we learn from teachers' perspectives? *Thinking Skills and Creativity*, *22*, 273-288.

Meepian, A., & Wannapiroon, P. (2013). Design of social learning environment as inquiry-based on cloud technology for enhancing the critical thinking skill and collaborative learning. *International Journal of e-Education, e-Business, e-Management and e-Learning, 3*(3), 253-257.

Nold, H. (2017). Using critical thinking teaching methods to increase student success: An action research project. *International Journal of Teaching and Learning in Higher Education*, *29*(1), 17-32.

Paul, R. W. (1992). Critical thinking: What, why, and how? *New Directions for Community Colleges*, *77*, 3-24.

Sheybani, M., & Miri, F. (2019). The relationship between EFL teachers' professional identity and their critical thinking: A structural equation modeling approach. *Cogent Psychology*, *6*(1), Article 1592796.

Stedman, N. R., & Adams, B. L. (2012). Identifying faculty's knowledge of critical thinking concepts and perceptions of critical thinking instruction in higher education. *NACTA Journal*, *56*(2), 9-14.

Tindal, G., & Nolet, V. (1995) Curriculum-based measurement in middle and high schools: Critical thinking skills in content areas. *Focus on Exceptional Children, 27*(7), 1-22.

Watson, G. B., & Glaser, E. M. (1980). *Watson-Glaser critical thinking appraisal manual: Forms A and B*. The Psychological Corporation.

Willingham, D. T. (2007). Critical thinking: Why is it so hard to teach? *American Educator, 31*(2), 8-19.

Appendix 1

Sample Text: Commercial Banking

Commercial banks are businesses that trade in money. They receive and hold deposits, pay money according to customers' instructions, and lend money, etc. There are still some people who do not have bank accounts. Traditionally, factory workers were paid wages in cash on Fridays. Non-manual workers, however, usually receive a monthly salary in the form of a cheque or a transfer paid directly into their bank account.

A current account (US: checking account) usually pays little or no interest, but allows the holder to withdraw his or her cash with no restrictions. Deposit accounts (in the US also called time or notice accounts) pay interest. They do not usually provide cheque (US: check) facilities and notice is often required to withdraw money.

Standing orders and direct debits are ways of paying regular bills at regular intervals. Banks offer both loans and overdrafts. A loan is a fixed sum of money, lent for a fixed period, on which interest is paid; banks usually require some form of security or guarantee before lending. An overdraft is an arrangement by which a customer can overdraw an account, i.e. run up a debt to an agreed limit; interest on bank loan is calculated daily.

Banks make a profit from the spread or differential between the interest rates they pay on deposits and those they charge on loans. British commercial banks lend to blue-chip borrowers (big, secure companies) at the base rate. They are also able to lend more money than they receive in deposits because depositors rarely withdraw all their money at the same time. Because a commercial bank can lend most of the money deposited with it to other borrowers, who in turn may lend it to another borrower, each sum of money deposited in a bank is multiplied several times. To ensure the safety of the banking system, central banks impose

reserve requirements, obliging commercial banks to deposit a certain amount of money with the central bank at zero interest.

In order to optimize the return on their assets (loans), bankers have to find a balance between yield and risk, and liquidity and different maturities, and to match these with their liabilities. The maturity of a loan is how long it will last; the yield of a loan is its annual return - how much money it pays - expressed as a percentage.

Application of the QRCV approach in class

"Commercial banks are businesses that trade in money. They receive and hold deposits, pay money according to customers' instructions, and lend money, etc."

Q: Can you relate the meaning of trade to the main business of commercial banks?

Q: How can they normally earn profits by trade? Then how can commercial banks get profits through trade in money?

" Deposit accounts (in the US also called time or notice accounts) pay interest. They do not usually provide cheque (US: check) facilities and notice is often required to withdraw money."

Q: Deposit accounts, time accounts and notice accounts are the same. But can we extract the features of this type of account from its various names with identical meaning and different appearance? (It's deposited in bank for a certain length of time and notice is required before withdrawal)

Q: When deposit accounts provide cheque facilities, what benefit or loss do commercial banks get? (Cheque facilities do not allow commercial banks to use deposit accounts for a certain period of time, so banks lose the opportunity of utilizing idle cash.)

"Standing orders and direct debits are ways of paying regular bills at regular intervals."

Q: Is "standing orders" different from "direct debits" or not? (Both of them are identical in meaning and disparate in appearance.)

Q: Where is B among A, B and C? (In the middle, on the right side of A and left side of C. On the right from A's perspective, on the left from C's perspective, and in the middle from the whole perspective.) This means the answer is different according to perspectives.

Q: Then who are the participants in periodic installment payment? (Customer and bank)

Q: What can you say about the periodic installment payment from the perspectives of customer and bank respectively? Oxford Business Dictionary (2005) says as follows: 'Standing order': an instruction that you give to a bank to pay somebody a fixed amount of money from your account on the same day each week, month, etc. 'Direct debit': an instruction to your bank to allow somebody else to take an amount of money from your account on a particular date, especially to pay bills. The definitions say that a _customer_ orders a _bank_ to pay regular bills. When you focus on 'customer', then it's named 'standing order' (here 'standing' stands for 'continuing' or 'regular'). When you focus on 'bank', then it's named 'direct debit'. (Bank receives an order from a customer and _directly debit_ his or her account.) Customers make orders to the bank periodically and the bank receives orders and makes payments. Thus the customer side is "standing order" and the bank side is "direct debit".

Figure 1

Visualization Aid 'Standing Order' & 'Direct Debit'
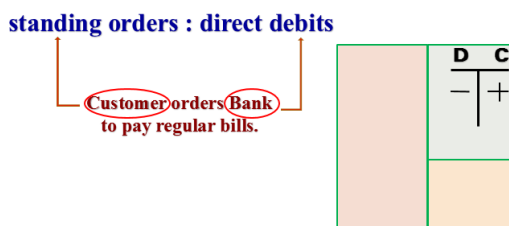
> "Banks offer both loans and overdrafts. A loan is a fixed sum of money, lent for a fixed period, on which interest is paid; banks usually require some form of security or guarantee before lending. An overdraft is an arrangement by which a customer can overdraw an account, i.e. run up a debt to an agreed limit; interest on bank loan is calculated daily."

Q: What's the relationship between loans and overdrafts? (Overdraft is like a loan in some aspects)

> "Banks make a profit from the spread or differential between the interest rates they pay on deposits and those they charge on loans. British commercial banks lend to blue-chip borrowers (big, secure companies) at the base rate."

Q: Can you find something unusual? (If a retailer sells merchandise at a wholesale price, there is no profit. Likewise, if a commercial bank lends borrowers at base rate, it commits to a non-profit transaction)

Q: Blue-chip means a large best known company which is considered a secure investment. What do you think of being big and secure for making profit in this kind of transaction? (Since being large means a great number of transactions and high level of cash flow, there would be more bank commission. Stocks of secure business have relatively high demand in the market, therefore, it has great possibility to be traded above the face value. Banks can deal with issues of the stock to make additional profit. In other words, they give favorable lending to reap some other benefits.

> "Because a commercial bank can lend most of the money deposited with it to other borrowers, who in turn may lend it to another borrower, each sum of money deposited in a bank is multiplied several times. To ensure the safety of the banking system, central banks impose reserve requirements, obliging commercial banks to deposit a certain amount of money with the central bank at zero interest."

Q: What are the keywords of the given sentences, which have first priority in the sentence and can give the general meaning of the sentence without the rest of the words. (First sentence – multiplied, Second sentence – reserve requirement)

Q: What is the relationship between two sentences? (The first sentence is the cause and the second one is the effect.)

> "In order to optimize the return on their assets (loans), bankers have to find a balance between yield and risk, and liquidity and different maturities, and to match these with their liabilities. "

Q: Can you match the context with the following figure?

Figure 2

Visual-Aid Commercial Banking – Optimizing ROA.
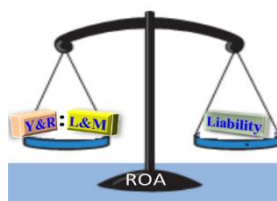
Note: Y&R: yield and risk, L&M: liquidity and maturities

Appendix 2: Sample Extract From CTSTFE

Question Type	Questions
1. Fill in the blank with appropriate words.	_____ is an amount of money paid regularly by the government or company to someone who does not work anymore, for example because they have reached the age when people stop working or because they are ill. Pension _____ is an amount of money that is invested and then used to pay pensions. Its goal is to build up enough money to pay pensioners their promised benefits.
2. Choose the right answer for the blank.	Another attribute of a bond that influences its interest rate is its liquidity. A liquid asset is one that can be a)_____ and b)_____ converted into cash if the need arises. The c)_____ liquid an asset is, the more desirable it is (holding everything else constant). Treasury bonds are the most liquid of all d)_____ bonds; because they are so widely traded, they are the easiest to sell quickly, and the cost of selling them is low. e)_____ bonds are not as liquid because fewer bonds for any one corporation are traded; thus it can be costly to sell these bonds in an emergency because it might be hard to find buyers quickly. quickly, slowly cheaply, expensively more, less long-term, short-term corporate, blue-chip
3. Match the blank in each sentence with the appropriate word in the following.	We use not only coins and dollar bills as _____ of payment, but also cheques written on accounts held at banks, credit cards, debit cards, stored-value cards, and electric cash. Money has been _____ things at different times, it has always been important to people and to the economy. To understand the _____ of money in the economy, we must understand exactly what money is. As the word money is used in everyday conversation, it can mean many things, but to _____ it has a very specific meaning. To avoid confusion, we must clarify how economists' use the word money _____ from conventional usage. Economists _____ money as anything that is generally accepted in payment for goods or services or in the repayment of debts. Currency, consisting of dollar bills and coins, clearly fits this definition and is one type of money. Words: differs, define, means, different, effects, economists

4. Determine True or False.	It's not always convenient to trade by exchanging goods because you can't always get what you want when you want it.
5. Rearrange the following parts to make up a complete sentence.	The policy is, not a claim is covered, when determining whether or, insurance company refer to, that both insured and, the written document.
6. Translate the following context into mother tongue	Marketing intermediaries constitute a distribution channel or a channel of distribution. The shortest channel exists in cases of direct marketing, where the manufacturer sells directly to consumers, reaching them by telephone or direct mail, or by way of its own sales reps. More common are channels with a single intermediary-e.g. a sales agent or broker for industrial goods, a retailer for consumer goods, an authorized dealer in the automobile industry. More complex channels add further intermediaries such as wholesalers, and where goods are exported, very likely an agent as well.
7. Find solutions from many perspectives.	Did Robinson Crusoe on an uninhabited island need money or not? Why?*

* Examinees are required to analyze the question critically and find criteria to classify the direction of the solution as many as possible.

Appendix 3: Statements to be Debated

No	Statements	Con. subgroups	Exp. subgroups
1	When money is tight, interest rates rise, because commercial banks have to borrow at a higher rate on the inter-bank market.	should argue that these statements are right.	should argue that these statements are wrong. *
2	When money is tight, credit falls, because people and businesses borrow less at higher rates.		
3	When money is tight, output falls, because with less consumption, firms produce less.		
4	When money is tight, unemployment rises, because companies are producing and selling less, and so require less labor.	should argue that these statements are wrong.	should argue that these statements are right.
5	When money is tight, inflation falls, because there is less money in circulation.		
6	When money is tight, the exchange rate will probably rise, if there is the same demand but less money, or if there is higher demand, as foreigners take advantage of the higher interest rates to invest in the currency.		

* Cons develop their ideas as critical as possible to defeat the counterparty's right statements, somewhat feeling to the extent of "logic-chopping". Though the pros' statement seems to have enough logic in it, it's interesting that cons has a superior position than pros during debate. This is because cons have the advantage of knowing the direction of their counterparty in advance while pros feel satisfied with the logical certainty of the statement.

PHƯƠNG THỨC QRCV NHẰM NÂNG CAO KỸ NĂNG TƯ DUY PHÊ PHÁN TRONG HỌC TẬP TIẾNG ANH CHUYÊN NGÀNH

Ri Chung Sim, Kang Chol Su, Kim Yong Hyong

Khoa Tài chính, Đại học Kim Nhật Thành,
Bình Nhưỡng, Cộng hòa DCND Triều Tiên

Tóm tắt: Thuật ngữ 'tư duy phê phán' ngày càng phổ biến trong giáo dục và giảng dạy ngôn ngữ. Nó là một trong những kỹ năng cốt yếu đối với mọi người học trong thế kỷ 21 (Hughes, 2014). Gần đây người ta cũng đã đặc biệt quan tâm đến các phương thức rèn luyện tư duy phê phán trong học ngoại ngữ. Thông thường sinh viên học ngoại ngữ chuyên ngành ở các nước phi bản ngữ rất khó thụ đắc kiến thức tài chính bằng tiếng Anh mặc dù đã đạt trình độ tiếng Anh cơ bản. Do vậy, bài viết giới thiệu phương thức QRCV để tăng cường kỹ năng tư duy phê phán giúp người học vượt qua những thách thức trong tiếng Anh chuyên ngành. Nguyên tắc cơ bản của phương thức QRCV là Tự vấn, Lập luận, Xem xét vấn đề từ nhiều góc độ, và Trực quan hóa. Nghiên cứu của chúng tôi nhằm xác định hiệu quả của QRCV trong việc nâng cao kỹ năng tư duy phê phán của người học tiếng Anh chuyên ngành. 72 sinh viên học tiếng Anh tài chính tham gia nghiên cứu. Trong 1 học kỳ, nhóm thực nghiệm (n=36) học môn tiếng Anh tài chính theo phương thức QRCV trong khi nhóm đối chứng học theo cách thức truyền thống. Bài kiểm tra tư duy phê phán trong tiếng Anh chuyên ngành (CTSTFE) được sử dụng làm công cụ kiểm tra trước và sau thực nghiệm, và kết quả thi được chấm theo các tiêu chí tư duy phê phán quan yếu. Kết quả nghiên cứu cho thấy nhóm thực nghiệm có kết quả học tập cao hơn nhóm đối chứng, đặc biệt là về kỹ năng Xem xét vấn đề từ nhiều góc độ. Nghiên cứu chỉ ra những ứng dụng hữu ích của QRCV trong môn tiếng Anh các chuyên ngành khác nữa.

Từ khóa: tư duy phê phán, tiếng Anh chuyên ngành, tiếng Anh tài chính, tự vấn, lập luận

THE EFFECTS OF EXTENSIVE LISTENING
ON EFL LEARNERS' LISTENING COMPREHENSION

Tran Thi Ngoc Yen*, Tran Thi Phuong Thao

Vinh University, 182 Le Duan street, Vinh city, Nghe An province, Vietnam

Abstract: The teaching of listening seems to be an under-researched topic (Field, 2008) although scientists have asserted that listening is an integral part of language development. This study examines the employment of extensive listening as a method to enhance EFL learners' listening comprehension. The experiment in the study involved two intact classes with 42 learners attending an English program at a language center in Vietnam. An extensive listening program was set up for the treatment group to follow. The control group, in the meantime, was given listening exercises as homework. A pre-test and post-test was used to measure the participants' improvement in listening comprehension. The results showed that the treatment group significantly outperformed their control group counterparts. This suggests that extensive listening facilitates EFL learners' listening comprehension.

Key words: extensive listening, listening comprehension, EFL listening skills, listening strategies

1. Introduction

The fact that students are often assessed on their other language skills than listening is probably one of the most obvious reasons why it has been under-valued (Field, 2008). The practical complexities of collecting listening materials have worsened the problem, let alone the challenge of exploiting them for classroom activities. From the learner's perspective, listening seems to be the most difficult and even frightening skill (Field, 1995). One possible explanation for this is the lack of evidence that they are making progress in learning the skill. Learners may also feel insecure due to their failure at the beginning of their English learning journey, which is apparently unavoidable. These

nuisances all together have made listening lag behind other skills in language courses.

Fortunately, listening occasionally gains its prominence among language practitioners. Researchers have emphasized the role of listening in the development of spoken fluency since it provides materials for learners to form their speech (McErlain, 1999). Listening is so subtly interconnected with other areas of inquiry and development that it has relevance to almost all of us (Rost, 1994). A number of previous studies have attempted to examine how the listening skill can be taught using methods or strategies. One of the most widely known methods is extensive listening, which involves learners listening to comprehensible spoken input for pleasure.

Various authors, who contend that this method brings about profound effects on learners' language proficiency development (Waring, 2008; Stephens, 2011; Chang & Millet, 2014), have advocated the method.

This study, therefore, set out to explore how extensive listening can cure the headache that usually tortures EFL learners while learning to understand English spoken language. An experiment was carried out among 42 EFL adult learners at the intermediate level. The 20 participants in the control group and 22 participants in the treatment group were following an English course at a language center. While the treatment group was attending the extensive listening program, the control group did listening exercises as homework. A pre-test and post-test were utilized to measure the learners' listening comprehension.

2. Literature Review

2.1. The Listening Skill

Linguists have proposed a few definitions of listening, but one of the popularly accepted views of listening is that it is an active process of getting the meaning from spoken texts (Rubin, 1995; Buck, 2001; Helgesen, 2003; Brown, 2006; Rost, 2011). The process is considered to be complex and thus requires the listener to contribute knowledge from both linguistic and non-linguistic sources. During this process, the listener has to decode the sounds to make meanings out of what they hear.

The importance of listening has been emphasized for a long time. Researchers such as Buck (2001) and Asemota (2015) assert that listening is essential for academic achievement. This is probably because students spend roughly 50 percent of their study time on listening (Nunan, 1998). It has been claimed that

listening competence plays a fundamental role in language learning (Boyle, 1987; Nation & Newton, 2009; Siegel, 2015). Listening is a way to build a map of meaning in the mind and therefore is the way of learning the language. It provides learners with rich input and information to build up the knowledge necessary for language use. Past research has also reported that listening is beneficial for pronunciation learning (McErlain, 1999) and vocabulary learning (Asemota, 2015).

Many theorists have proposed listening processing models (Anderson & Lynch, 1988; Brown, 2006; Nation & Newton, 2009), types of listening, methods, strategies and activities for teaching the listening skill (Rost, 2011; Asemota, 2015; Nguyen & Pham, 2019). However, there has not been any consensus on which strategies and methods are beneficial for learners' listening ability development. For example, some authors contend that bottom-up strategies work better with lower-level students (Goh, 2000). Meanwhile, several researchers have reported that a combination of bottom-up and top-down strategies would help learners to develop their listening ability (Nunan, 2002). Yet others assert that such strategies as compensatory, pro-active and repair strategies are advantageous in listening instruction (Field, 2008).

Researchers have also proposed different sub-skill and strategy taxonomies (Siegel, 2015) and suggested language instructors to use authentic materials in listening instruction (Miller, 2003). Some language practitioners recommend that listening instruction should include a range of listening types, such as intensive listening, selective listening, interactive listening, responsive listening, and autonomous listening (Goh, 2000). Recently, listening instructors have put forward the concept of extensive listening

and advised language teachers to set up extensive listening programs, which they believe are propitious for EFL learners (Waring, 2008; Chang, Millett & Renandya, 2018).

2.2. Extensive Listening

Among other things, extensive listening has been used as a method to improve language proficiency for more than three decades. However, compared to its counterpart, extensive reading, the literature on extensive listening is relatively scant (Matsuo, 2015) and most of the research exploring this method has been done in first language learning contexts (Ivone & Renandya, 2019). The term extensive listening is often linked to listening for pleasure (Rixon, 1986; Field, 2008), listening to easy texts (Waring, 2008), or listening to a great amount of comprehensible input (Renandya & Farrell, 2011). There has been a consensus that extensive listening involves learners listening to massive oral input that is enjoyable and comprehensible. With this type of listening, the focus is on meaning, not form. To put it another way, learners should achieve high levels of comprehension and be able to listen at or below their comfortable fluent listening ability (Renandya, 2011).

Past research has reported the advantages of extensive listening in foreign language learning. Listening extensively allows learners to attain enough meaningful sustained practice, which facilitates language acquisition (Wodinsky & Nation, 1988). This kind of practice also effectively accommodates learners during their process of automatization. Learners can comfortably move from slow to fast, controlled to less controlled automatic processing of spoken units. Once learners have reached automaticity, they will be able to decode the sounds in an effortless manner. This is why extensive listening is propitious for low-leveled learners (Waring, 2008). In addition, learners' motivation may increase as they can make choices about what they will listen to (Harmer, 2007). Likewise, other researchers have also found that extensive listening enhances learners' attitudes (Grahama & Santos, 2015) and thus fosters their ability to self-regulate their own learning (Cutting, 2004). Chang, Millett and Renandya (2018) reported that after their participants practiced extensive listening, they could comprehend the more complicated texts at faster speech rates. Along similar lines, Antle (2011) claims that extensive listening has a positive relationship with reading speed. These all suggest that the method has a profound impact on not only learners' listening fluency but also their development of other language aspects and psychological factors.

So far, linguists have proposed principles for extensive reading, but not extensive listening (Day & Bamford, 2002). Language practitioners may find the same principles useful for extensive listening, since extensive listening is usually seen as the less popular sibling of extensive reading. However, this lack of literature has indicated the need to carry out more studies on this topic in order to further our understanding of extensive listening.

3. Methodology

3.1. Research Question

This study aimed to investigate the effects of extensive listening on EFL adult learners' listening comprehension. An experiment was conducted to answer the following research question:

To what extent will the participants following the extensive program improve their listening comprehension as compared to the participants in the control group?

3.2. Participants

The experiment involved two intact classes at a language center. One of them was randomly chosen to be the treatment group and the other served as the control group. The treatment group had 22 students and the control group had 20 students. Both groups were taking a general English course at the intermediate level. They were admitted to the class based on their performance on a placement test. The test consisted of four components: listening, reading, writing and speaking. The highest score for each component was 25. The two classes scored similarly on the test, which was the reason why they were enrolled into the intermediate level classes. Regarding the listening component, the two groups performed similarly well. The control group did a little better, scoring 17.1 out of 25 while the experimental group scored 16.7 out of 25. In other words, the two groups theoretically were at the same level of English language proficiency at the beginning of the course. The participants were all living in the local city and aged from 19 to 34. Most of them had studied English for about one and a half years.

3.3. Materials

The materials used in the study included a pre-test and post-test, extensive listening resources and the textbook for the English course. The pre-test and post-test were designed to measure the participants' listening comprehension. Each test consisted of 25 questions taken from the listening section of a PET (Preliminary English Test) test.

The extensive listening materials consisted of 100 recordings, each of which told a story. At the beginning of the course, we encouraged the students to bring to class two to five stories that they enjoyed reading. Altogether, 124 stories were contributed, but only 91 stories were chosen. Each of them

contained around 600 words. The others were either too difficult or/and too long for the intermediate level, or contained sensitive content. Nine stories were collected from the Internet to add to the library. The texts were checked using an online readability calculator and text inspector programs. This was to make sure that they were comprehensible for the learners. Finally, five native English teachers working at the center were asked to read the stories and record their voices to create the listening library.

The textbook used for the usual English course was *Breakthrough Plus Level 3* (Craven, 2019). The book consists of twelve units, each of which contains sections of vocabulary, grammar, and pronunciation along with skills expansion. It was designed to be used for general English language courses in which learners can systematically develop the four language skills.

3.4. Procedure

At the beginning of the course, both groups sat the pre-test, then the treatment group followed the listening program while their control group counterparts were given listening exercises as homework. The exercises were taken from the book *Tactics for listening - Developing level* (Richards, 2019). The book was supposed to suit learners at transitioning from pre-intermediate level to the intermediate level. The recordings in the listening library were sent to the treatment group members via email. They were asked to save the files to their cell phone or computers, whichever is more convenient for them to replay. During the experiment, consultation sessions were held for those participants who needed help, either technically or mentally. Besides, the learners from both groups were asked to fill in a listening inventory to record what they did during the experiment. The inventory form consisted of information about the name of the stories (for the treatment group) or the code of the exercises (for the control

group) and how much time they spent on the listening task. This was to make sure both groups followed the instructions and did what they were supposed to do. The examination of the listening inventories indicated that the participants from both groups did not employ any other methods of listening during the treatment. It was also shown that the amount of time they spent on listening at home was roughly similar. The course lasted two months and at the end of the course, both groups sat the post-test.

4. Results

In this study, the participants' listening comprehension was measured by calculating the number of correct answers they had on the pre-test and post-test. The highest score a student could get was 25.

Comparisons of each group's scores on pre-test and post-test as well as the two groups' scores on the post-test were made to see if the treatment group did any better than the control group after the treatment.

With regard to the groups' performance at the beginning of the treatment, the results showed that the two groups had similar average scores on the pre-test (See Table 1). The best learners in both groups scored 12 out of 25 and the modest ones scored 7. The independent t-test results showed no significant difference between the treatment group (M=9.05, SD=1.50) and the control group (M=9.10, SD=1.37), $t(38)=$ -0.12. This finding is in agreement with the results of the placement test administered before the course and thus validates the idea that the two groups started at the same level of listening competence.

Table 1

Descriptive Statistics of Listening Comprehension on Pre-Test for Both Groups

	N	Range	Min	Max	Sum	Mean	Variance	SD	Skewness
Treatment group	22	5	7	12	199	9.05	2.24	1.50	-0.25
Control group	20	5	7	12	182	9.10	1.88	1.37	0.21

On the post-test, the treatment group and control group scored 18.55 and 15.25, respectively (See Table 2). The data indicated that while most of the treatment group members had average scores of at least 18, the majority of the control group had scores of 16 or lower. The lowest score among extensive listening participants was 16 and that among the control participants

was 12. The independent t-test results showed that the treatment group (M=18.55, SD=1.60) attained significantly better comprehension than the control group (M=15.25, SD=1.71), $t(38)=$ 6.46. The result suggests that extensive listening brings about substantial improvement in listening comprehension.

Table 2

Descriptive Statistics of Listening Comprehension on Post-Test for Both Groups

	N	Range	Min	Max	Sum	Mean	Variance	SD	Skewness
Treatment group	22	5	16	21	408	18.55	2.55	1.60	0.22
Control group	20	5	13	18	305	15.25	2.93	1.71	-0.01

As it can be seen from Table 3, the treatment group made an increase of 9.50

whereas their control group counterpart made an increase of only 6.15. The learners

who did extensive listening obtained increases of at least 8 points, outperforming most of the learners in the control group. The independent *t*-test results showed that the treatment group (M=18.55, SD=1.60),

compared to the control group (M=15.25, SD=1.71), achieved significantly greater improvement in comprehension, *t*(38)= 8.85.

Table 3

Descriptive Statistics of Listening Comprehension Gains for Both Groups

	N	Range	Min	Max	Sum	Mean	Variance	SD	Skewness
Treatment group	22	3	8	11	209	9.50	1.02	1.01	0.00
Control group	20	5	4	9	123	6.15	2.03	1.42	0.32

Taken together, the results suggest that the learners who followed the extensive listening program made a significantly bigger improvement in comprehension as compared to the control group.

5. Discussion

The study examines the benefits of extensive listening for EFL adult learners at the intermediate level. It was found that the learners who listened extensively outperformed the control group on comprehending oral texts. There were significant differences between the two group's performances on the post-test. This finding supports those reported in previous studies (Waring, 2008; Chang, Millett & Renandya, 2018). The treatment group's remarkable achievement could be attributed to the repetition of language items and language features. According to Wodinsky and Nation (1988), sufficient exposure to repeated lexical and grammatical items is necessary for language acquisition to take place. Through listening extensively to the oral texts, the treatment group were repeatedly exposed to the same words, structures, sounds and discourse features. This could have facilitated their language acquisition.

Another explanation for the improvement that those participants obtained may be automatization. Automatization is the process of becoming

automatic in recognizing words. Some researchers have assumed that low-leveled learners have to save cognitive resources for word recognition, which is usually slow and laborious. However, as they progress, they will be able to identify words faster. This allows them to save more attentional resources for more complicated tasks (Segalowitz et al., 1998; Samuels, 2002). It could be therefore hypothesized that the treatment group reached a higher level of automaticity thanks to extensive listening and hence could then save more cognitive resources for comprehending the oral texts.

In this study, the participants in the treatment group did not have to do exercises as they listened extensively, but the control group had to complete the listening tasks that accompanied the oral texts. This might have affected the groups' gains in comprehension from the pre-test to post-test. Perhaps the freedom from burden had allowed the learners who did extensive listening to boost their confidence. In foreign language learning, failure can be a painful source of insecurity, which may result in delayed language development.

6. Conclusion

The purpose of the current study was to examine the impacts of extensive listening on EFL learners' listening comprehension. An experiment among 42 adult learners at the intermediate level was conducted over a

period of two months. The participants' listening comprehension was measured using a pre-test and a post-test. The study has found that the learners who did extensive listening made significantly bigger increases in comprehension, compared to their control group counterparts.

A limitation of this study is that there was no data on the control group's performances during the treatment. The participants in this group were asked to do listening exercises taken from some books. However, their scores on these exercises were not recorded. A natural progression of this work is therefore to analyze the control group's performances to see if this type of information will further our understanding of how listening competence is developed. A further study could assess the long-term effects of extensive listening by administering a delayed post-test to see if the treatment group's increase in comprehension would maintain.

Overall, this study strengthens the idea that extensive listening produces positive effects on EFL learners' listening comprehension. The finding corroborates with those in previous studies and further our knowledge of how important repetition and automatization are in language learning. It could therefore be suggested that EFL teachers and instructors set up extensive listening programs for the sake of their learners' listening competence development.

References

Anderson, A., & Lynch, T. (1988). *Listening*. Oxford University Press.

Antle, J. B. (2011). Extensive listening and how it affects reading speed. In A. Stewart (Ed.), *JALT 2010 conference proceedings* (pp. 201-208). JALT.

Asemota, H. E. (2015). Nature, importance and practice of listening skill. *British Journal of Education, 3*(7), 27-33.

Boyle, J. P. (1987). Sex differences in listening vocabulary. *Language Learning, 37*(2), 273-284.

Brown, S. (2006). *Teaching listening*. Cambridge University Press.

Buck, G. (2001). *Assessing listening*. Cambridge University Press.

Chang, A., Millett, S., & Renandya, W. A. (2018). Developing listening fluency through supported extensive practice. *RELC Journal, 50*(3), 422-438.

Chang, A. C-S., & Millett, S. (2014). The effect of extensive listening on developing L2 listening fluency: Some hard evidence. *ELT Journal, 68*, 31-40.

Craven, M. (2019). *Breakthrough plus 3*. Macmillan Education.

Cutting, M. (2004). Making the transition to effective self-access listening. *The Language Teacher, 28*(6), 21-24.

Day, R., & Bamford, J. (2002). Top ten principles of teaching extensive reading. *Reading in a Foreign Language, 14*(2), 142-145.

Field, J. (2008). *Listening in the language classroom*. Cambridge University Press.

Goh, C. (2000). A cognitive perspective on language learners' listening comprehension problems. *System, 28*(1), 55-75.

Graham, S., & Santos, D. (2015). *Strategies for second language listening: Current scenarios and improved pedagogy*. Palgrave Macmillan.

Harmer, J. (2007). *The practice of English language teaching* (4th ed.). Pearson Education Limited.

Helgesen, M. (2003). Listening. In D. Nunan (Ed.), *Practical English language teaching* (pp. 23-46). McGraw-Hill.

Ivone, F. M., & Renandya, W. A. (2019). Extensive listening and viewing in ELT. *TEFLIN Journal, 30*(2), 237-256.

Matsuo, S. (2015). Extensive listening inside and outside the classroom. *Humanities Review, 20*, 109-115.

McErlain, T. (1999). The nature of listening: The need for listening in English for academic purposes. *Ibérica, 1*, 77-81.

Miller, L. (2003, March/April). Developing listening skills with authentic materials. *ESL Magazine, 6*(2), 16-18. https://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/ED482778.pdf

Nation, I. S. P., & Newton, J. (2009). *Teaching ESL/EFL speaking and listening*. Routledge.

Nguyen, C. D., & Pham, X. T. (2019). Examining the effects of three jigsaw listening activities on

text comprehension: An exploration study. *VNU Journal of Foreign Studies, 35*(6), 1-15. https://doi.org/10.25073/2525-2445/vnufs.4473

Nunan, D. (1998). Approaches to teaching listening in the language classroom. In Korea TESOL (Eds.), *Proceedings of the 1997 Korea TESOL conference* (pp. 1-10). Korea TESOL.

Nunan, D. (2002). Listening in language learning. In J. C. Richards & W. A. Renandya (Eds.), *Methodology in language teaching* (pp. 238-241). Cambridge University Press.

Renandya, W. A. (2011). Extensive listening in the second language classroom. In H. P. Widodo & A. Cirocki (Eds.), *Innovation and creativity in ELT methodology* (pp. 28-41). Nova Science Publishers.

Renandya, W. A., & Farrell, T. S. C. (2011). "Teacher, the tape is too fast": Extensive listening in ELT. *ELT Journal*, *65*(1), 52-59.

Richards, J. C. (2019). *Tactics for listening*. Oxford University Press.

Rixon, S. (1986). *Developing listening skills*. Macmillan.

Rost, M. (1994). *Introducing listening*. Penguin.

Rost, M. (2011). *Teaching and researching listening*. Pearson Education Limited.

Rubin, J. (1995). The contribution of video to the development of competence in listening. In D. Mendelsohn & J. Rubin (Eds.), *A guide for the teaching of second language listening* (pp. 151-165). Dominie Press.

Samuels, S. J. (2002). Reading fluency: Its development and assessment. In A. E. Farstrup & S. J. Samuels (Eds.), *What research has to say about reading instruction* (pp. 166-183). International Reading Association.

Segalowitz, S., Segalowitz, N., & Wood, A. (1998). Assessing the development of automaticity in second language word recognition. *Applied Psycholinguistics, 19*, 53-67.

Siegel, J. (2015). *Exploring listening strategy instruction through action research*. Palgrave Macmillan.

Stephens, M. (2011). The primacy of extensive listening. *ELT Journal, 65*, 311-313.

Waring, R. (2008). Starting an extensive listening program. *Extensive Reading in Japan, 1*(1), 7-10.

Wodinsky, M., & Nation, P. (1988). Learning from graded readers. *Reading in a Foreign Language, 5*(1), 155-161.

GIÁ TRỊ CỦA PHƯƠNG PHÁP NGHE MỞ RỘNG ĐỐI VỚI MỨC ĐỘ ĐỌC HIỂU CỦA NGƯỜI HỌC TIẾNG ANH NHƯ MỘT NGOẠI NGỮ

Trần Thị Ngọc Yến, Trần Thị Phương Thảo

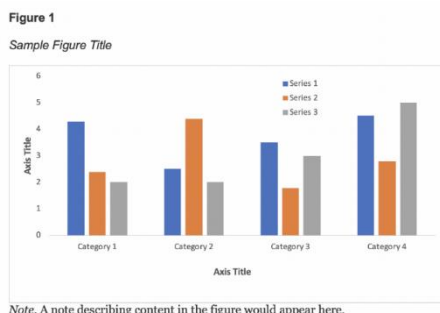*Trường Đại học Vinh, 182 Lê Duẩn, thành phố Vinh, tỉnh Nghệ An*

Tóm tắt: Giảng dạy kỹ năng Nghe là một chủ đề ít được nghiên cứu (Field, 2008) mặc dù nhiều nhà khoa học đã khẳng định nghe là một phần không thể thiếu trong quá trình phát triển ngôn ngữ. Nghiên cứu này tìm hiểu việc sử dụng phương pháp nghe mở rộng để phát triển mức độ nghe hiểu cho người học tiếng Anh như một ngoại ngữ. Thực nghiệm được tiến hành với hai lớp học tiếng Anh tại một trung tâm ngoại ngữ ở Việt Nam. Trong quá trình theo học khóa học tiếng Anh ở trung tâm, nhóm thực nghiệm thực hiện chương trình nghe mở rộng, còn nhóm đối chứng được giao các bài tập nghe ở nhà. Kết quả cho thấy so với nhóm đối chứng, nhóm thực nghiệm có mức độ hiểu cao hơn nhiều ở bài kiểm tra cuối đợt thực nghiệm. Điều này chứng tỏ phương pháp nghe mở rộng có giá trị tích cực đối với sự phát triển mức độ nghe hiểu của người học tiếng Anh như một ngoại ngữ.

Từ khóa: nghe hiểu, nghe mở rộng, kỹ thuật nghe, dạy nghe hiểu

THỂ LỆ GỬI BÀI

1. **Tạp chí Nghiên cứu Nước ngoài** là ấn phẩm khoa học chính thức của Trường Đại học Ngoại ngữ, Đại học Quốc gia Hà Nội, kế thừa và phát triển *Chuyên san Nghiên cứu Nước ngoài* của Tạp chí Khoa học, Đại học Quốc gia Hà Nội. Tạp chí xuất bản định kỳ 06 số/năm (02 số tiếng Việt/năm và 04 số tiếng Anh/năm từ năm 2019 trở đi), công bố các công trình nghiên cứu có nội dung khoa học mới, chưa đăng và chưa được gửi đăng ở bất kỳ tạp chí nào, thuộc các lĩnh vực: *ngôn ngữ học, giáo dục ngoại ngữ/ngôn ngữ, quốc tế học hoặc các ngành khoa học xã hội và nhân văn có liên quan.*

2. Bài gửi đăng cần trích dẫn ÍT NHẤT 01 bài đã đăng trên Tạp chí Nghiên cứu Nước ngoài.

3. Bài báo sẽ được gửi tới phản biện kín, vì vậy tác giả cần tránh tiết lộ danh tính trong nội dung bài một cách không cần thiết.

4. Bài báo có thể viết bằng tiếng Việt hoặc tiếng Anh (*tối thiểu* 10 trang/khoảng 4.000 từ đối với bài nghiên cứu và 5 trang/khoảng 2.000 từ đối với bài thông tin-trao đổi) được soạn trên máy vi tính, khổ giấy A4, cách lề trái 2,5cm, lề phải 2,5cm, trên 3,5cm, dưới 3cm, font chữ Times New Roman, cỡ chữ 12, cách dòng Single.

5. Hình ảnh, sơ đồ, biểu đồ trong bài viết phải đảm bảo rõ nét và được đánh số thứ tự theo trình tự xuất hiện trong bài viết. Nguồn của các hình ảnh, sơ đồ trong bài viết cũng phải được chỉ rõ. Tên ảnh, sơ đồ, biểu đồ trong bài viết phải được cung cấp trên ảnh, sơ đồ, biểu đồ.

Ví dụ:

Figure 1

Sample Figure Title

Note. A note describing content in the figure would appear here.

6. Bảng biểu trong bài viết được đánh số thứ tự theo trình tự xuất hiện trong bài viết. Tên bảng trong bài phải được cung cấp trên bảng. Yêu cầu bảng không có đường kẻ sọc.

Ví dụ:

Table 3

Sample Table Showing Decked Heads and P Value Note

Variable	Visual		Infrared		F	η
	M	SD	M	SD		
Row 1	3.6	.49	9.2	1.02	69.9***	.12
Row 2	2.4	.67	10.1	.08	42.7***	.23
Row 3	1.2	.78	3.6	.46	53.9***	.34
Row 4	0.8	.93	4.7	.71	21.1***	.45

***p < .01.

7. Quy cách trích dẫn: Các tài liệu, nội dung được trích dẫn trong bài báo và phần tài liệu tham khảo cần phải được **trình bày theo APA7** (vui lòng tham khảo trang web: https://apastyle.apa.org/style-grammar-guidelines hoặc hướng dẫn của Tạp chí trên trang web https://jfs.ulis.vnu.edu.vn/index.php/fs/about/submissions)

8. Bản thảo xin gửi đến website của Tạp chí tại https://jfs.ulis.vnu.edu.vn/. Tòa soạn không trả lại bản thảo nếu bài không được đăng. Tác giả chịu hoàn toàn trách nhiệm trước pháp luật về nội dung bài viết và xuất xứ tài liệu trích dẫn.

MẪU TRÌNH BÀY BỐ CỤC CỦA MỘT BÀI VIẾT
TIÊU ĐỀ BÀI BÁO

(bằng tiếng Anh và tiếng Việt, in hoa, cỡ chữ: 16,
giãn dòng: single, căn lề: giữa)

Tên tác giả (cỡ 13)[*]

Tên cơ quan / trường đại học (cỡ 10, in nghiêng)
Địa chỉ cơ quan / trường đại học (cỡ 10, in nghiêng)

Tóm tắt: Tóm tắt bằng tiếng Anh và tiếng Việt, không quá 250 từ, cỡ chữ: 11

Từ khóa: Không quá 5 từ, cỡ chữ: 11

Phần nội dung chính của bài báo thường bao gồm các phần sau:

1. Đặt vấn đề

2. Mục tiêu

3. Cơ sở lý thuyết

   3.1. …

   3.2. ….

4. Phương pháp nghiên cứu

   4.1. …

   4.2. …

5. Kết quả nghiên cứu

6. Thảo luận

7. Kết luận và khuyến nghị

Lời cảm ơn (nếu có)

Tài liệu tham khảo

Phụ lục (nếu có)

---

[*] ĐT.: (Sđt của tác giả liên hệ)
Email: (Email của tác giả liên hệ)