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# MỤC LỤC

# RESEARCH

## INTERLINGUAL TRANSLATION: AN ATTEMPT AT UNDERSTANDING SOME BASIC CONCEPTS

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**Abstract:** This paper attempts to look at some small fragments of interlingual translation studies. The article begins by exploring Roman Jakobson's tripartite division of translation of which interlingual translation is a component part. Then it presents in some detail the interlingual translation process. This is followed by two main sections where the core concept in interlingual translation theory and practice – "translation equivalence" (TE), some other concepts related to it, and three main approaches to TE are examined. It is clear from the paper that interlingual translation is a very complex social semiotic process, and that the concept of TE is employed in so many different senses that recently it has been denied by some scholars any value, or even any legitimate status in translation theory and translation practice. However, based on what is going on in the field of interlingual translation studies, it is suggested that the complexity of the interlingual translation process and the diversity of opinions on the concept of TE do not mean that scholars have complicated the problems. Rather, they have really contributed to the advancement of knowledge in the field, not with the intention of a final verdict, but as food for thought and invaluable reference materials for further research, making interlingual translation theory and practice an ever-moving academic discipline.

*Keywords:* interlingual translation, interlingual translation process, TE and related concepts, three approaches to interlingual TE

## 1. Introduction

I found some difficulty in choosing a title for this article, a title which being reasonably brief, would yet give some indication of what the focus of the subject matter was to be. What I was hoping to indicate was that, while the article is concerned with interlingual translation, it is not my purpose to add anything else to this already extremely complex domain of knowledge. This has been examined, and continues to be examined in ever-increasing detail, by linguists and translation scholars the world over, and I have in no way intended to extend the scope and delicacy of their research. What I want to do in this article is to take an exploratory look at interlingual translation and some of the fundamental concepts related to the nature of interlingual translation with the modest hope that it would help me broaden my mind – the still limited mind of a bilingual translation researcher and practitioner. My article will

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fall into six sections. Following Section one which introduces the study, Section two looks at three broad types of translation as proposed by the prominent Russian-born American linguist Roman Jakobson in his triadic system of translation in which interlingual translation is a component part. Section three, based on Jakobson's concept of "interlingual translation", explores and presents the concept of "process of interlingual translation". Section four is concerned specially with the concept of "translation equivalence" in interlingual translation studies and some other concepts related to it. Section five discusses three main approaches to translation equivalence in current interlingual translation theories. And Section six summarises what has been explored and affirms the achievements made in the field of interlingual translation studies for further research.

## 2. Jakobson's Triadic System of Translation

In an influential and widely quoted paper on translation studies published in a number of editions (1959, 1989, 2004, whose references in this article will be made to the 2004 edition) entitled "On linguistic aspects of translation", Jakobson puts translation firmly in a semiotic framework. According to Jakobson, in investigating translation, one must, first of all, accept the fact that although translation is essentially a linguistic activity, its principal part lies in the field of semiotics. Therefore, in order to fully understand the nature of translation, the researcher must go beyond the assumption that translation consists of transferring the meanings contained in a set of signs of one language to a set of signs of another language through a careful analysis of the source language text and effective use of dictionaries. Jakobson (2004) maintains that translation is a process that is constrained by not only language-internal factors but also language-external factors. Discussing the translation process, Jakobson argues that all

human experiences and their division made by humans can be translated into any language. Based on semiotic principles, Jakobson (2004, p. 114) differentiates translation into three main types: (1) "intralingual translation"; (2) "interlingual translation"; and (3) "intersemiotic translation". Intralingual translation, according to Jakobson, is basic to every act of understanding and communication; interlingual translation is *translation proper* (italics in original) – the type of translation we are concerned with in this paper; and intersemiotic translation accounts for all types of sign language.

Jakobson (2004) observes that in intralingual translation, a word may be substituted by either another, more or less synonymous, word or by circumlocution; but he notes that synonymy is rarely complete equivalence. Similarly, in interlingual translation, there is often no full equivalence between code-units (a word or an idiomatic phrase-word), while messages may serve as adequate interpretation of alien code-units. Proceeding from this observation, Jakobson claims that the difference between intralingual and interlingual translation is, while in intralingual translation, the rewording is done at the level of substituting one code-unit by another code-unit, in interlingual translation the rewording is done at the level of substituting one larger unit in one language by another larger unit in another language which he calls "message". Such a translation, Jakobson maintains, is the reported speech; the translator encodes the source text message and transmits it to the target text message. Thus, translating, Jakobson suggests, "involves" two equivalent messages in two different codes. By using the verb "involves", Jakobson sets aside the dilemma of the idea that translation is a form of hermeneutics (see G. Steiner, 1998), a concept commonly held by

traditional translation studies in an attempt to provide answer to the question "Can messages be equivalent when their code-units are different?". On the other hand, because translation is viewed as interpretation, it can be extended far beyond the scope of the verbal medium. In fact, as a model of understanding and of the entire cognitive potential, translation also includes the interpretation of signs of non-verbal systems such as graphs, pictures or images, dance, music (through analysis) into verbal signs (through interpreting or expressing of those meanings in verbal signs) – the type of translation which Jakobson calls "intersemiotic translation".

Of the three types of translation as proposed by Jakobson in his triadic system, interlingual translation has occupied the central position. It is the type of translation most well-developed in translation theory and practice, and often the term is taken as if it were the only type of translation involved. In what follows, I will take a brief look at how the process of interlingual translation has been formulated in translation studies; and based on semiotic principles, I will attempt to present what I understand of the process of interlingual translation.

## 3. The Process of Interlingual Translation

Various attempts have been made to model the process of interlingual translation, implicitly or explicitly, in detail or in passing (e.g. Nida, 1964, 1975; Catford, 1965; Wilss, 1982a; Hatim & Mason, 1990; Bell, 1991, and many others). For the purpose of this study, I will focus on the models as developed by three scholars: Haas, Nida, and G. Steiner.

The first attempt to model the process of interlingual translation is perhaps associated with the British translation theorist and philosopher William Haas. In a paper entitled "The theory of translation" published in *Philosophy*, *37*(141), Haas (1962) based his model of the process of interlingual translation on three entities or terms which we nowadays call "the source language text", "the translator" (including the interpreter), and "the target language text". The quote below indicates what Haas says as a way of theorising the interlingual translation/interpreting process:

> At first sight, this is what we are tempted to make of translation – an operation with three terms: two expressions and a meaning they share. When we translate, we seem to establish a relation of three distinct entities, each separately apprehended: the two expressions seen on paper or heard in the air, and the meaning in the translator's mind. (Haas, 1962, p. 208)

Theorising translation process is also one of the main concerns of the American translation theoretician and Bible translator Eugene Nida. In several of his publications, Nida (1964, 1975, and elsewhere) argues that a careful analysis of what exactly goes on in the process of translating has shown that instead of going directly from one set of surface structures to another, a competent translator actually goes through a three-stage process: analysis, transfer, and restructuring. According to this process, the translator first analyses the message of the source language text into its simplest and structurally clearest forms, transfers the analysed material in his mind from the source language text to the target language text which is the most appropriate for the audience who he intends to reach. Nida's three-stage process of interlingual translation can be represented as follows:

**Figure 1**

*Nida's Process of Translating (Nida, 1975, p. 80)*

SOURCE LANGUAGE                              RECEPTOR LANGUAGE

TEXT                                                    TRANSLATION

↓                                                          ↑

ANALYSIS                                            RESTRUCTURING

↓ ———————— TRANSFER ————————→

From another perspective, the German translation theorist George Steiner (1975/1998), who seems to identify interlingual translation process with intralingual one and sees all forms of human communication as translation, presents the interlingual translation process in the following quote:

> On the inter-lingual level, translation will pose concentrated, visibly intractable problems; but these same problems abound, at a more covert or conventionally neglected level, intra-lingually. The model 'sender to receiver' which represents any semiological and semantic process is ontologically equivalent to the model 'source-language to receptor-language' used in the theory of translation. In both schemes, there is 'in the middle' an operation of interpretative decipherment, an encoding-decoding function or synapse. Where two or more languages are in articulate interconnection, the barriers in the middle will obviously be more salient, and the enterprise of intelligibility more conscious. But the 'motions of spirit', to use Dante's phrase, are rigorously analogous. So, as we shall see, are the most frequent causes of misunderstanding or, what is the same, of failure to translate correctly. In short: *inside or between languages, human communication equals translation*. (G. Steiner, 1998, p. 49)

What Haas, Nida and Steiner have observed, in my opinion, is right seen from the point of view of their respective perspective; but they seem to neglect a number of details contributing to understanding the nature of the interlingual translation process. In Haas' formulation, details of the speaker or writer of the source language, the cultural (including situational) context in which he produces the SL text; the source language listener/reader who the speaker/writer intends to address; details of the translator, his first language or mother tongue and the culture in which he lives and produces the target language text, his role between the source language text and the target language text, his interlingual and intercultural competences; and the listener/reader who he intends to address in the target language and culture, were not explicitly provided. In Nida's translation process scheme, details of what precisely takes place in the translator's mind at the TRANSFER stage is not fully explicated. And most of these details left unmentioned by Haas and Nida are also neglected in G. Steiner's formulation; and, in addition, by seeing all forms of communication as translation and, in particular, by identifying intralingual communication with interlingual translation, G. Steiner seems to underestimate much of the latter's translation process (for more detail, see Wilss, 1982a).

Any interlingual translator would readily agree that translation is a process which begins from a text (spoken or written) in the source language and ends with a translation text in the target language. The source language text is produced or created by a person commonly called "speaker" if it is a spoken text or "writer" if it is a written text; and the target language text is reproduced (with the content transferred) from the source language text by a person called "translator" whose role can be characterized as "a mediator between the producer of a source text and whoever are its TL receivers" (Hatim & Mason, 1990, p. 223) and whose task is to make various "personal choices made on the basis of patterns that have been codified, taught, and internalized, but the translator's own nevertheless" (Retsker, 1993, p. 18; see also Wilss, 1982a; Bell, 1991; G. Steiner, 1998).

A closer observation, however, will reveal that an interlingual translation process includes two stages. The first stage is somewhat similar to that of the intralingual communication process which consists of the producer (the speaker or writer) who concurrently sends the source language message (**SLM**) referred to generally as **Sender$_1$** (**S$_1$**) and the addressee (or the intralingual translator) who receives the SLM referred to generally as **Receiver$_1$** (**R$_1$**). The second stage consists of the translator, whose role is **R$_1$** in the first stage and who concurrently acts as the producer and sender of the target language message (**TLM**) referred to generally as **Sender$_2$** (**S$_2$**), and the receiver or addressee of the TLM referred to generally as **Receiver$_2$** (**R$_2$**). Formulated in this way, the interlingual translation process can be represented diagrammatically in Figure 2 below.

**Figure 2**

*Two Stages of Interlingual Translation Process*

$$S_1 \longrightarrow \text{SLM} \longrightarrow R_1 | S_2 \longrightarrow \text{TLM} \longrightarrow R_2$$

first communication stage        second communication stage
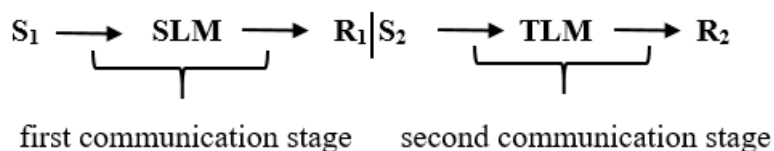
It should be noted from the figure above that we have left out three important features of the interlingual translation process: (1) the difference between what we would like to refer to as a pure intralingual communication or monolingual translation (if we want to consider intralingual communication as a form of translation) and an intralingual communication as the first stage of the interlingual translation process, (2) the roles of the communicators in the pure intralingual translation process and those of the communicators in the first stage of the interlingual translation process; and (3) the roles of the communicators/translators in the pure intralingual communication process and those of the

source language text producer, the translator-target language text producer, and the target language text receiver in an interlingual translation process.

If one attempts a detailed analysis of intralingual translation/ communication process and interlingual translation/ communication process, one can realize that they differ from each other in at least two respects. First, an intralingual translation process takes place within one and the same language, while an interlingual translation process occurs between two languages. Secondly, an intralingual translation is usually a two-way (bi-directional) process beginning from the sender to the receiver of the message and vice versa, while an

interlingual translation is a one-way (unidirectional) process beginning from the source language text speaker/writer via the interlingual translator to the target language translation receiver. In other words, in an intralingual translation, communication often takes place between two communicators, and either of them can take the role of the sender or the receiver of the message (text); in an interlingual communication, in contrast, each of the communicators takes a distinct role: the source language text speaker/writer takes the role of the sender of the SL text message ($S_1$); the translator takes a double role: that of the receiver of the SL text message and that of the sender of the transferred TL text message ($R_1 \mid S_2$); and the listener/reader of the target language takes the role of the TL receiver ($R_2$) (for more detail on this point, see Bell, 1991, p. 15; see also Koster, 2008).

The German translation scholar Christiane Nord (2000, p. 196) takes a step further, distinguishing between "receivers of a translation" and "addressees of a translation". In her opinion, receivers of a translation are the individual persons who actually read or listen to the translation, while addressees of a translation are the type or prototype of person to whom the translation is addressed. Nord observes that translators are real receivers of the SL text, but they are not normally the addressees of a SL text at least if they are members of the TL culture. Addressees, in her view, are the TL audiences of any translation. They are not real persons, but a concept abstracted from the sum total of our communicative experience; that is, from the vast number of characteristics of receivers we have observed in previous communicative occurrences that bear some analogy with the one we are confronted with in a particular situation.

## 4. Translation Equivalence and Some Translation Equivalence-Related Concepts

### 4.1. Translation Equivalence

It has been widely recognized that the key issue of interlingual translation is meaning (Firth, 1968; Catford, 1965; Neubert, 1984; Bell, 1991; G. Steiner, 1998; Hoang, 2006; and many others). Meaning is "the kingpin of translation studies" (Neubert, 1984, p. 57) and "the heart of the translator's work" (Hatim & Mason, 1990, p. 25). Meaning is so important in interlingual translation that

> without understanding what the text to be translated means for the L2 [target language] users the translator would be hopelessly lost. This is why the translation scholar has to be a semanticist of the text, not just of words, structures and sentences. The key concept for the semantics of translation is textual meaning. (Neubert, 1984, p. 57)

If one attempts a survey, asking around what people interested in translation think an interlingual translation should achieve, a most likely answer would be that it should convey as closely and clearly as possible the meaning of the original (source) text. This view being accepted, it would follow that in translating a text from one language into another, the translator is not simply converting one form of the source language text into another form of the target language translation, or, to use Haas' (1962, p. 228) metaphor, "He [the translator] is not changing vehicles or clothing". What the translator does is to transform the meaning of the source language text into the target language text with an aim to establish what has often been referred to in translation theory and translation practice as "equivalence" between the two texts.

"Equivalence" is obviously a "central organizing concept" in interlingual

translation theory and practice (Halliday, 2001, p. 15; House, 2015, p. 5); see also Wilss, 1982a, 1982b; Munday, 2016; Hoang, 2010, 2022). The exact date the term "equivalence" emerged in translation studies is indeterminate; but what seems to be certain is that the term was imported into translation studies from mathematics (Wilss, 1982a; see also Bassnett-McGuire, 2002). According to Wilss (1982a), mathematicians use the term equivalence "if between the elements of (two) sets a reversibly unambiguous relation prevails" (Brockhaus Enzyklopadie, 1966, as cited in Wilss, 1982a, p. 138). But since it migrated to translation discourse, "translation equivalence" (TE) has turned out to be an extremely complex concept, causing a lot of confusion and disagreement among translation scholars. The complexity of the concept can be seen in the fact that to date, in publications in English alone, it is given so many different meanings: "communicative equivalence" (Jäger, 1975, as cited in Koller, 1989, p. 99), "equivalence in difference" (Jakobson, 1959/1989/2004, p. 114), "equivalence of effect" (Koller, 1989), "illusionist v. non-illusionist translation" (Levý, 1969), "closest natural equivalence" (Nida & Taber, 1982, p. 12), "formal equivalence v. dynamic equivalence" (Nida, 1964, p. 159), "formal correspondence v. textual translation equivalence" (Catford, 1965, p. 27), "linguistic, paradigmatic, stylistic, and textual equivalence" (Popovič, 1976), "functional invariance" (Roganova, 1971), "text-pragmatic equivalence" (Wilss, 1982a, 1982b), "syntactic, semantic, and pragmatic equivalence" (Neubert, 1968; Baker, 2018), "equivalent correspondences" and "variant correspondences" (Retsker, 1993, pp. 22-25), "a rich diversity of similarities" (Yallop, 2001, p. 242), "functional equivalence" (House, 2008, p. 97), and many others. It is, therefore, not possible to explore all those meanings in which the concept TE is

employed. What I should do here is to answer the question whether there is equivalence between a source language (SL) text and a target language (TL) translation. Then I will pick up some translation equivalence-related concepts for examination. This will be followed by Section 5 where, placing TE in broader contexts, I will look at three approaches to TE in current translation theory.

### 4.2. Is There Equivalence Between a SL Text and a TL Translation?

This question raised in the heading is simple, but the answers to it are diverse and often polarized. Some scholars say "no", while others say "yes" (see Hoang, 2010). Scholars of the "no" view of TE base themselves on a number of arguments. They say that languages are like nomads, and no two languages can perceive the same reality in the same way (Whorf, 1956). Further, "…the 'real world' is to a large extent unconsciously built up on the language habits of the group. No two languages are ever sufficiently similar to be considered as representing the same social reality. The world in which different societies live are distinct worlds, not merely the same world with different labels attached." (Sapir, 1929, as cited in G. Steiner, 1998, p. 91). Therefore, translation from one language into another seems to be an impossible task. Furthermore, in translation practice the translator often operates between a dilemma – finding what has been referred to as "formal equivalence" and "functional equivalence". If the translator sticks to the first, he can preserve the structure and the context-free semantic sense of the original text, but might lose its context-sensitive communicative value; conversely, if the translator sticks to the second, he can preserve context-sensitive value of the original text, but might sacrifice the structure and the context-free semantic sense of the original text. To put it in another way, when

the translator favours formal equivalence, his translation can be faithful but ugly; conversely, when the translator favours functional equivalence, his translation can be beautiful but inaccurate (see Bell, 1991; House, 2008, 2015, see also Snell-Hornby, 2006).

In contrast, scholars of the "yes" view of TE also base themselves on a number of counter-arguments. The first argument rests on the idea that in actual translation practice "anything that can be said in one language can be said in another [language] with reasonable accuracy" (Nida & Taber, 1982, p. 4; see also Koller, 1995). Secondly, it is commonly held that "all human beings live in the same planet, and all have the same brains – the same neurological make-up – there is much in common to the ways in which the transformation of experience into meaning is brought about, in every language" (Halliday, 2017a, p. 195). If translation is viewed as the removal of communication barriers in order to find the equivalence of thought that lies behind verbal expressions, many words, phrases and expressions in one language can be equivalent to those corresponding elements in another language (see Jakobson, 2004). Thirdly, in arguing against the "no" view answer to the question of TE, some translation scholars hold that cultural differences should not be exaggerated, since expressions referring to culture-specific political, institutional, socio-economic, historical and geographical phenomena, which can be understood only in one particular "cultural situation" in which they are embedded, which consequently lack a corresponding expression in the target language, can nevertheless be translated by means of certain compensatory mechanisms. They suggest a number of standard procedures for overcoming such translation problems as loan words, adaptations, explications, commentaries, definitions and paraphrases (for more detail, see Koller,

1979, 1995). An example to prove this point would be the phrases: "mẹ tôi" in Vietnamese, "my mother" in English, and "моя матъ" in Russian. Although there are differences in the word order of these phrases: noun + pronoun in Vietnamese, possessive adjective + noun in English, and possessive adjective + noun in Russian, when a Vietnamese thinks of a woman he calls "mẹ tôi" (my mother), an Englishman thinks of a woman he calls "my mother" (mẹ tôi), and a Russian man thinks of a woman he calls "моя матъ" (mẹ tôi); in the mind of normal people, their thinking may be the same, and perhaps they will recall the same sweet memories, the tender care, and the pride of their mothers. If this line of reasoning is accepted, "mẹ tôi" in Vietnamese can be perfectly translated into English as "my mother" and into Russian as "моя матъ", and vice versa; and they can be considered absolutely equivalent to one another. This equivalence of thought realized in languages has perhaps constituted one of the important bases for compiling bilingual dictionaries.

### 4.3. *Some Translation Equivalence-Related Concepts*

#### 4.3.1. Dictionary Equivalence: Is it a Final Truth for the Translator?

It often happens in interlingual translation that when encountering a new word in the SL text, the first task the translator often does is to look it up in a bilingual dictionary for the word in the TL which he thinks is equivalent to that in the SL text. The equivalence between a word in the SL text and a corresponding word in the TL translation established through looking up in a bilingual dictionary is commonly referred to as "dictionary equivalence". It cannot be denied that a dictionary, particularly a standard one is the translator's tool of trade, helping him to comprehend the SL text, to produce the TL translation and even verify his knowledge of the meaning

and usage. But why is translation still a difficult job when there are enough bilingual dictionaries available? Is it due to the lack of good bilingual dictionaries that can benefit the translator? (cf. Holmes, 1988, p. 110). The answer to these questions can be given when one realizes that the view behind the nature of a bilingual dictionary of the type x = y is not entirely correct. If one consults a bilingual dictionary, even one of value, one can immediately realize that the view that for every word in any language there is an absolute equivalent to it in all other languages is untrue (see Halliday et al., 1964; Halliday, 1966a). Even two words having the same or similar spelling, and belonging to two closely related languages cannot be said to be equivalents of each other. This is because in bilingual dictionaries, equivalence is shown at word rank which is far from translation proper. Further, "The dictionary meaning of a word is no more than a stone in the edifice of sense, no more than a potentiality that finds diversified realization in speech" (Vygotsky, 1986, p. 245). This is why a good bilingual dictionary often implicitly acknowledges this fact by offering the searcher two or more "versions of translation" for any one SL word that the searcher wishes to find, and if he is a translator, he will choose the word which he thinks is the most suitable for his purpose. However, experience has shown that it is not always possible for the translator to find equivalent words in bilingual dictionaries. It is suggested that to find a word in the TL that is equivalent to the one in the SL, "The translator must [also] actualize the implicit 'sense', the denotative, connotative, illative, intentional, associative range of significations which are implicit in the original, but which it leaves undeclared or only partly declared simply because the native auditor or reader has an immediate understanding of them" (G. Steiner, 1998, p. 291). If, for example, the English-Vietnamese translator only bases himself on

the meanings listed in any dictionary, he will certainly not find the Vietnamese equivalent of "to go" in the phrase "25 days to go" which appeared in an ad on Channels S3 and ESPN about the 19th FIFA World Cup held in South Africa in the summer of 2010. The reason is because no English-Vietnamese dictionaries offer any translation of the infinitive form 'to go' in English as "nữa" in Vietnamese. If the translator does not actualize the implicit sense of "to go" and the co-textual sense of "to go" in relation to "25 days", and does not base himself on a broader non-linguistic context (i.e. the linguistic meaning of the phrase "25 days to go" in relation to the situation – the fact that the 19th FIFA World Cup would be held in South Africa in 25 days), he is sure not to be able to render correctly the phrase "25 days to go" into Vietnamese as "còn hai lăm ngày nữa" (back-translated into English as "25 days left" [before the 19th FIFA World Cup would begin]).

The above example is intended to show that the meanings provided in any bilingual dictionary should not be taken as the final truth for choosing an equivalent item and explaining translation equivalence.

### 4.3.2. Foreignising and Domesticating Translation and TE

When a translator comes across a new word or expression which appears in the SL text, he usually tries by all means to find a corresponding equivalent for his translation. However, due to the conflicting tendency of what has been referred to as "foreignising" and "domesticating" translation (see Nida, 1964, 2004; Venuti, 2008), TE seems to be a dilemma for him. Take the two French classic terms "langue" and "parole" as an example. These terms were introduced by the eminent Swiss linguist Ferdinand de Saussure in his famous *Cours de linguistique générale* (1916). The text in general and these terms in particular are not easy to translate into any language.

However, for domestication purpose or to serve the TL reader, they can be rendered, for example, into Vietnamese as "ngôn ngữ" and "lời nói"; into English as "language" and "speech", and into Russian as "язык" and "речь" respectively. But these versions of translation in the three target languages can hardly be said to be the equivalents of the original "langue" and "parole", because judging from demanding of linguistic equivalence between languages, "ngôn ngữ" and "lời nói", "language" and "speech", and "язык" and "речь" fail to capture the meanings that the author (de Saussure) has given to "langue" and "parole" in the French original text (for more detail concerning the English mistranslation of the French "langue" and "parole", see Harris, 2005, pp. xiii-iv). That explains why many linguists in the world today prefer to retain de Saussure's original terms "langue" and "parole" in their research discourse. But by retaining the source language original terms, they have coincidentally introduced "foreignness" into their TL texts. Thus, the question whether or not foreignising or domesticating translation can solve the problem of TE is still open.

### 4.3.3. Accuracy and Equivalence

In translation theory, "equivalence" and "accuracy" are sometimes treated as synonymous; and equivalence is said to involve accuracy. But "accuracy" in translation sometimes requires the translator to give up the principle of language economy; and this often makes it hard for him to achieve equivalence. One example can be seen in the translation into Vietnamese of the word "gobbledygook" on page 408 in *Từ điển về chính quyền và chính trị Hoa Kỳ* (The Harpercollins dictionary of government and politics) by Shafritz (2002). This is a four-syllable American-English word. Being a very culture-specific word, it has no one-term-to-one-term equivalent in Vietnamese. What the translators of this

dictionary have done is to translate all that is explained in the original dictionary. Accordingly, "gobbledygook" = "ngôn ngữ hành chính rối rắm, lối văn cầu kỳ" (back-translated into English as "confusing administrative language, complicated writing style"). Another example concerns the translation of the word "brinkmanship". In *Macquarie: Australia's national dictionary* edited by Delbridge, Bernard, Blair, Butler, Peters, & Yallop (2003, p. 242), "brinkmanship" is defined briefly as "the practice of courting disaster, especially nuclear war, to gain one's ends". But in Shafritz's (2002) *Từ điển về chính quyền và chính trị Hoa Kỳ*, this concept is defined and then explained at length. What the translators had to do was after rendering the definition of the concept into Vietnamese as 'chính sách "bên bờ vực thẳm chiến tranh"', they translated all four meanings/senses of the concept which is about one 16 x 24cm page long (half a page of p. 106 and half a page of p. 107). The same thing can be seen in the case of the translation of "ích quốc lợi dân" into English. In *Từ điển tiếng Việt* by Hoàng et al. (2002, p. 477), it is treated as a word (an entry). But when translated into English, *Từ điển Việt-Anh* by Bùi (2000, p. 945) gives two equivalent correspondences which are two adjectival phrases: "beneficial to one's country and people" and "useful for the country and the people". These translation facts explain in part why some translation theorists (e.g. Catford, 1965) suggest using the term "transfer" instead of the term "translation".

### 4.3.4. Adequacy and Equivalence

Another concept which is related to "equivalence" is "adequacy" introduced by Kamissarov (1980), Reiss & Vermeer (1984), and Shveitser (1993). "Equivalence" and "adequacy" are sometimes treated as synonymous and sometimes as distinct. Attempts have been made to distinguish "adequacy" from "equivalence", but due to

their fuzziness, the distinction between them is not quite clear-cut. "Equivalence", according to Reiss and Vermeer (1984), encompasses the relationships not just between separate units but also between whole texts; and on the level of units, "equivalence" does not necessarily imply equivalence of texts and vice versa. "Adequacy", in contrast, is concerned with the correspondence of linguistic units in the source text with linguistic units in the TL text; and for this reason, it is taken as the basic category of the translation process.

Distinction has also been made between "adequacy" and "adequate translation", and "equivalence" and "equivalent translation". While "adequacy" and "adequate translation" are used in connection with translation as a process, "equivalence" and "equivalent translation" are used in connection with the relationship between source text and target text which perform similar communicative functions in different cultures. In Reiss and Vermeer's (1984) view, equivalence is just one manifestation of adequacy, that is, functional adequacy between source and target text. But as Retsker (1993, p. 21) aptly points out "Since the criterion for adequacy can only be correspondence of the segment of reality depicted in the original [text], equivalence of devices is defined not by identity but by maximum approximation to the result achieved by the impact of the original". On the other hand, it has been pointed out by several translation theorists (e.g. Nida, 1964; Nida & Taber, 1982; Munday, 2016) that the basis for establishing correspondences of linguistic devices can only be functional, not formal, in nature. This is because "the demand for adequacy must be optimal rather than maximal in nature: a translation should meet certain (often somewhat incompatible) requirements and fulfill certain tasks in an optimal way" (Shveitser, 1993, p. 52). The complex process of translation contains many factors that can hinder the

establishment of formal correspondences at the level of *parole*. The same linguistic form can perform many different functions depending on a number of different verbal and non-verbal factors. Therefore, while translating, what the translator must do is to rely on many different types of knowledge if he wants to have an adequate translation that fully reflects the thoughts, feelings, emotions, and perceptions contained in the source language text. However, because text is the only material for the translator to work on, functional equivalence can be the basis for any linguistic approach to translation (Nida, 1964; Nida & Taber, 1982; Reiss & Vermeer, 1984).

It should be noted here that the quantity and quality of the factors contributing to functional equivalence vary according to the type of text being translated. What is often immutable is probably the logico-semantic basis which determines the processes of analysis and synthesis, and thus underlying all translation methods. It may happen sometimes that the translator can understand the facts described in the source language better and even more deeply than the author of the source language itself. But whether the translator is allowed to create a reality different from the one created by the author in the source language is an important issue, but it seems to go beyond our exploration here.

### 4.3.5. Communicative Effect and Equivalence

The relationship between "communicative effect" and "equivalence" is based on the view that a SL text and a TL translation are equivalent when they contain the same content (meaning) and are equally understood by the intended listeners or readers of the SL and those of the TL. The two examples below would illustrate the case in point.

The first example consists of four ANZ Bank VISA cards appearing in *The*

*Australian* on 22nd and 23rd July 1989. The four VISA cards are identical in form: they all contain details in English such as the name of the bank "ANZ bank" on the top left-hand-side corner, the word "Business" on the top right-hand-side corner, the four numbers "9999" and the word "VISA" in the bottom right-hand side, and some other details in the middle. Under each VISA card, there is a phrase: ACCEPTED HERE in English, ACEITA-SE AQUI in Portuguese, I ORAIT LONG USIM HIA in Tok Pisin (one of the three national languages of Papua New Guinea), and ACCEPTEE ICI in French.



The second example is two concurrent announcements, one in Vietnamese and the other in English heard at Noi Bai International Airport on July 2, 2019.

*Kính thưa quý khách, Hãng hàng không Quốc gia Việt Nam xin thông báo, vì lí do thời tiết chuyến bay VN 263 đi Thành phố Hồ Chí Minh lúc 14:00 giờ bị chậm. Chúng tôi thành thật xin lỗi quý khách.*

*Ladies and gentlemen, we regret to inform you that Flight 263 to Ho Chi Minh City at 14:00 is delayed due to weather condition. We apologize for any inconvenience caused.*

A cursory look at the four VISA cards shows that the immediate context in which the four main texts occur are comparable: they were produced by one and the same bank to achieve the same communicative purpose: to inform customers that the card in any of the four languages is accepted at any ANZ bank branch. They, therefore, can be considered having the same "equivalent effect" (Nida, 1964, p. 159; Newmark, 1988b, p. 48). In the same way, in the second example the Vietnamese and English texts represent comparable communicative situations: they occurred roughly at the same time, in the same place, addressing the same target audiences (air-plane passengers). Further, after the announcements were made, both Vietnamese and overseas passengers who knew English could understand them in the same way: that due to weather condition their flight to Ho Chi Minh City was delayed. The two texts, therefore, can be said to be equivalent to each other. But a closer inspection would reveal that, like the case of the four visa cards, this represents only one aspect of equivalence: functional equivalence. To see whether or not the two texts are absolutely equivalent to each other, we need to complete our observation by considering their formal features: we must know not only that the two texts are equivalent of each other in their contextual meaning, but also whether or not they operate in the same way in their formal structures; i.e. whether or not they have the same formal meaning which is part of the total linguistic meaning (cf. Halliday et al., 1964; Halliday, 1966a).

### 4.3.6. "False Friends" and Equivalence

The term "false friends" is perhaps derived from translation practice. It has been pointed out that in translating a text from one language into another, one of the most common pitfalls of the interlingual translator in his quest for equivalence is probably his feeling of "illusory equivalence" – what

Nida (1964, 2004), Savory (1968), Lefevere (1977), Venuti (2008), and other translation scholars refer to as "false friends". The "false friends" pitfall can happen both interlingually and intralingually. Interlingually, "false friends" occurs when two languages are too closely related and words in the target language are the borrowed or cognate words in the source language which seem to be equivalent but are not always so. Examples are the words "*demand*" in English and "*demander*" in French*, "ignore"* in English and "*ignorer*" in Spanish*, "virtue"* in English and "*virtus*" in Latin, and "*deacon*" in English and "*diakonos*" in Greek (see Nida, 1964, p. 160; 2004, p. 130). Intralingually, the pitfall of "false friends" can be extended to include the translator's choice of a word in the target language which he mistakenly takes as equivalent to the one in the source language. An example of this phenomenon is the translation of the word "đồng" in the Vietnamese phrase "huy chương đồng" into English. This Vietnamese phrase is so common (but so easily deceptive) that without pausing to think, the translator will render it into English as "copper medal". This is obviously a translation error; but errors of this kind should not be regarded as serious because they are no more than the consequence of translator's negligence brought about by the "false friends" pitfall. If the translator attempts to consult bilingual dictionaries for the English word corresponding to "đồng", he will find that most standard Vietnamese-English dictionaries, including the prestigious *Từ điển Việt-Anh* (Vietnamese-English Dictionary) by Bùi (2000, p. 677), will give him three translations: đồng₁ copper, brass, bronze, among which the first translation is often considered the most equivalent, "đồng" = "copper". And if the translator does the reverse, consulting *Từ điển Anh-Việt* (English-Vietnamese Dictionary) by Lê (1997, pp. 382-383), he will find that

"copper" has only one equivalent translation, "copper" = "đồng". The choice of "copper" for "đồng" is re-ensured if the translator consults another entry "copper beech" and finds that the dictionary gives him "cây sồi lá màu đồng" as the equivalent translation. So "copper medal" must unquestionably be the equivalent translation of "huy chương đồng". In fact, "bronze medal" but not "copper medal" is the equivalent translation of "huy chương đồng" in sports register. This once again raises the problem of relying solely on dictionary equivalence.

**4.3.7. Equivalent Correspondences and Variant Correspondences**

The Russian translation theorist Jakob Retsker (1993) introduces two theoretical concepts to characterize the two aspects of translation equivalence: "equivalent correspondences" and "variant correspondences". In his formulation, the concept "equivalent correspondences" is employed in two senses. In the first sense, it refers to every correspondence to a word or a combination of words in the original in a given concrete context. And in the second sense, it means a constant, regular, context-free correspondence. Retsker notes that equivalent correspondences are something like catalysts in the process of translation and interpretation. They are the very units of translation which exhibit regular correspondences in the SL and the TL, which help the translator choose the item in the TL most equivalent to that in the SL, even when the item in the source language contains some unfamiliar words.

In contrast, the concept "variant correspondences" refers to those established between words when the TL offers several words to translate the meaning expressed or realized by one and the same word in the SL (Retsker, 1993, p. 25). Some examples that follow would suffice Retsker's view here. As a singular noun, the word "exercise" in

English has at least four correspondences in Vietnamese: (1) "bài tập", (2) "sự tập thể dục", (3) "sự luyện tập", and (4) "sự sử dụng, sự vận dụng"; and as a verb, the word "exercise" has at least five correspondences in Vietnamese: (1) "tập thể dục", (2) "luyện tập", (3) "sử dụng", (4) "làm cho băn khoăn, làm cho lo lắng", and (5) "thách thức buổi lễ". The adjective "little" in English can have four correspondences in Vietnamese: (1) "nhỏ", (2) "ngắn", (3) "ít", and (4) "không quan trọng". Similarly, the noun "dấu vết" in Vietnamese can have four correspondences in English: (1) "trace", (2) "sign", (3) "track", and (4) "vestige"; the adjective "cao" in Vietnamese can have at least four correspondences in English: (1) "tall", (2) "high", "lofty", and (4) "excellent, perfect, first-class".

Variant correspondences in translation can also be found in word combinations. Take the word "flying" and its possible collocations in English as an example. Normally "flying" corresponds to "đang bay" in Vietnamese. But, when collocated with different nouns, "flying" can correspond to many word combinations in Vietnamese such as "phi công" in "flying officer" (trung úy phi công), "cơ động" in "flying column" (đội quân cơ động), "rực rỡ" in "flying colors" (thành công rực rỡ), "cấp tốc" in "flying doctor" (bác sĩ cấp tốc), "ngắn" in "flying visit" (chuyến viếng thăm ngắn); or it may lose meaning as in "flying fox" (dơi quạ) and "flying picket" (công nhân xúi giục [đình công]). If considered these examples alone, one may be led to believe that more specific meanings prevail in Vietnamese. But it is not true. If one does the reverse, translating a word from Vietnamese into English, one might end up in similar results as the case of translating "flying" from English into Vietnamese.

The distinction between "equivalent correspondences" and "variant correspondences" is crucial in translation studies, but it does not seem to solve the problem of TE since all the items we have examined to demonstrate Retsker's view are words and phrases – the units below the clause level. If we take two texts in two languages, one being the translation of the other, we will recognize that the grammatical unit that is generally recognized as "equivalence" between the two languages is the "clause" (see Catford, 1965; Halliday, 1966a; Bell, 1991; Matthiessen, 2001; Hatim & Munday, 2004; Malmkjær, 2005; Hoang, 2022). The clause is the contextual unit of language which can operate in situations, can combine with other clauses to form a clause complex ("sentence" in traditional grammar), and can be broken down into groups/phrases, words, and morphemes – the overt elements that can help identify TE. But, as Halliday (1966a, p. 29) has aptly observed, this equivalence of units is lost as soon as we go below the clause. The further down the rank scale we go, the less is left of the equivalence. Once we reach the smallest unit, the morpheme, most vestige of equivalence disappears. The morpheme is (almost) untranslatable; and, it is very rare that a particular word in one language may always be translated by one and the same word in another language, and one word in one language is often the equivalent part of a word, or of several words in another language.

### 4.3.8. Context and Equivalence

The study of context and the way it affects translation equivalence has become a major concern of not only linguists but also translation scholars (e.g. Nida, 1964; Newmark, 1988a, 1988b; Hatim & Mason, 1990; Bell, 1991; Retsker, 1993; G. Steiner, 1998; House, 1997, 2015; Halliday et al., 1964; Halliday, 1978, 2001, 2017b; Matthiessen, 2001; Hoang, 2005, 2006; and many others). It has been widely recognized in translation studies that context is an important vector, to use Halliday's (2001, 2017b) terminology, in understanding the

meaning of any text and for determining TE. But when it comes to the definition of what context is, opinions again differ and diversify, making the problem extremely complex.

Nida (1964, p. 243), for example, sees context as comprising "discourse context" and "communicative context". Discourse context refers to "the meaning of a particular unit, regardless of its extent, must be analysed in terms of a wider context of the total relevant discourse, whether this unit is a paragraph, section, chapter, or book. In other words, the immediate unit selected for analysis cannot be treated as a separate element; it must be considered as an integral part of the total discourse. Further, the meaning of the discourse as a whole must be analysed in terms of both content, i.e. the subject matter of the message, and form, e.g. epic poetry, legendary narrative, exposition or apocalyptic literature". Communicative context, on the other hand, is concerned with the meaning of a message which cannot be adequately analysed without considering the circumstances involved in the original communication, including such matters as time, place, author, audience, intent, and recorded response. Nida suggests that in studying the relationship of the source of the message, the translator has to analyse such factors as: (1) the background of the source (knowing something about the author is of great importance to decode his message); (2) the particular manner in which he produced his message, e.g. dictated, written by hand, written and then edited or dictated and then corrected by some amanuensis; (3) the factual background of the message, e.g. personal experience, data gathered from others, oral and/or written sources; and (4) the circumstances in the life of the source which prompted this particular communication. Nida (1964, p. 244) observes that the larger cultural context is of utmost importance in understanding the meaning of any message, because words

have meaning only in terms of the total cultural setting, and a discourse must be related to the wider sphere of human and thought.

From another perspective, the Russian translation theorist Retsker (1993) classifies context into "objective setting" and "speech situation". Objective setting refers to the time and place of utterance. It consists of four components which go beyond the boundary of the text: (1) the personality of the author or speaker, (2) the source in which the original [SL text] has been published, (3) the addressee for whom the utterance is meant, and (4) the purpose of the translation, the expected effect it is supposed to have on the reader or listener. Speech situation, on the other hand, refers to "the situation and the conditions of the communication, the attitude the speaker exhibits towards the addressee, the surroundings they both find themselves in, and the general goal of the utterance" (Retsker, 1993, p. 27, citing Gak, 1969, p. 20).

Drawing on Jakobson's (1960) functions of the communication process, the American linguist, sociolinguist and anthropologist Dell Hymes (1964/1972) proposes a detailed model of situational context for analyzing communicative events, which can also be relevant to interlingual translation studies and practice. Hymes' model consists of ten parameters: (1) senders and receivers/addressors and addressees, (2) audience, (3) topic, (4) settings, (5) channels, (6) codes, (7) message-forms, (8) events, (9) key, and (10) purpose. According to Hymes, senders and receivers/addressors and addressees constitute what he later (1967) called the participants. Addressor refers to the speaker or writer, i.e., one who produces the utterance, and addressee refers to the hearer or reader, i.e., one who receives or decodes the utterance. Audience is the overhearer or unintended addressees. Topic tells us about

the range of language used. Setting refers to where (location or place) and when (time) the text or communicational interaction takes place. This also includes things like posture, gesture, and facial expression. Channel refers to how the contact between the participants is maintained: spoken or written, linguistic (i.e. by means of language) or non-linguistic (i.e. by means of signs or signals). Code refers to what language, or dialect or style of language being used. Message-form tells us about the forms intended; whether the piece of language is a sermon, a fairytale, a love story, a lecture, etc. Event tells us about the nature of the communicative event within which a text may be embedded. Key involves our evaluation (in this case we stand as the observers and evaluators of the text) of the text; i.e. whether the text is a good speech, a good lecture, or an interesting seminar on language teaching. And purpose refers to the outcome which the participants wish to happen.

From systemic functional linguistics perspective, "context" is viewed as an integral component part of the widely recognized four strata-model of language: context, semantics, lexicogrammar, and phonology/graphology (see Halliday, 1978; 1991, 2017b; Hasan & Perrett, 1994; Hasan, 2011; Halliday & Matthiessen, 2014). Context encompasses "context of culture" and "context of situation", and within context of situation a distinction is made between "linguistic context" and "situational context".

Linguistic context is one in which the meaning of a linguistic unit: a word or a phrase can be determined by its relationship to surrounding units in a text. This type of meaning can be referred to as co-textual meaning (Halliday & Hasan, 1976, 1985) or "co-text" (to use Catford's 1965 terminology). Linguistic context helps the translator decipher (understand or guess) the meaning of the linguistic units (words,

phrases, or sentences) that are encoded in the SL text and select the corresponding equivalent units in the TL translation. Without the help of linguistic context, translators, even competent ones, may find it difficult to find a word in any target language equivalent to the word "selective" in the English sentence "Nowadays admissions to American colleges and universities are very selective". Similarly, without the help of linguistic context, it would be difficult for any translator to find in any target language a phrase equivalent of the Vietnamese phrase "điếc ăn người" in the sentence "Hắn thường điếc ăn người". The main reason is that no bilingual dictionaries ever contain what Retsker (1993, p. 26) calls the "occasional meaning" of this phrase to tell the translator that "điếc ăn người" means, for example, "selectively deaf" in English.

Situational context is one in which the meaning of a linguistic unit is not determined solely by the elements surrounding it in the text, but, in many cases, by numerous factors outside the text itself. In translating, if the translator only sticks to the words, phrases or sentences of the SL text, he is sure not to render properly the following dialogue from English into any language, particularly Vietnamese, because much of "who is speaking to whom" is not explicated in it:

A:  *Whatever are you doing up here?*

B:  *I'm trying to repair the bell. I've been coming up here night after night for weeks now. You see, I was hoping to give you a surprise.*

A:  *You certainly did give me a surprise! You've probably woken up everyone in the village as well. Still, I'm glad the bell is working again.*

(Adapted from Alexander, 1976, p. 14)

The eminent British linguist John R. Firth (1957, p. 182), who laid the foundation

for systemic functional linguistics and modern pragmatics, offers a model of situational context (which he calls "context of situation") which consists of three abstract parameters:

A. The relevant features of participants: persons, personalities.
   (i) The verbal action of the participants.
   (ii) The non-verbal action of the participants.
B. The relevant objects.
C. The effect of the verbal action.

Drawing on insights from Malinowski's (1923, 1935) notion of "context of culture" and Firth's model of "context of situation", Halliday et al. (1964), Halliday (1978), and Halliday and Hasan (1985) introduce the notion of "register" to account for the features of a text at the level of context of situation which is highly relevant to interlingual translation theory and translation practice (Hatim & Mason, 1990; E. Steiner, 1998; Hoang, 2018, 2022) in general and to determining TE in particular. Halliday et al. (1964) and Halliday (1978) argue that domains of language behaviour are defined as a unified cluster of purposes in recognized sphere of activity. Each domain can further reveal the functional variations by introducing the concept "register". These registers differ from profession to profession, vocation to vocation. Halliday et al. (1964) maintain that the notion of register is based on the social fact of what people do with their language. It is language variety used in social activity in a different situation. It has been defined quite explicitly as being a characterization of texts in respect of their formal linguistic properties.

In Halliday et al.'s (1964) formulation, register is a functional variety of language. It is characterized by three contextual categories: field of discourse, tenor (originally "style") of discourse, and mode of discourse. Field of discourse refers to what is going on, to the area of operation of language activity. Under this heading, registers are classified according to the nature of the whole event of which the language activity forms part. In this type of situation in which language activity accounts for practically the whole of the relevant activity, such as an essay, a discussion or an academic seminar, the field of discourse is the subject-matter. On this dimension of classification, we can recognize registers such as politics and personal relations, and technical registers like biology or mathematics. Tenor of discourse is concerned with the relations among the participants. To the extent that these affect and determine features of language, they suggest a primary distinction between colloquial and polite. This dimension is unlikely ever to yield clearly defined, discrete registers. It is best treated as a cline, and various more delicate cuts have been suggested. And mode of discourse refers to the medium or mode of the language activity and it is this that determines, or rather correlates with, the role played by the language activity in the situation. The primary distinction on this dimension is that into spoken and written language, the two having, by and large, different situational roles. Halliday et al. (1964, p. 93) state: "It is the product of these three dimensions of classification that we can best define and identify register". They note, however, that the criteria are not absolute or independent; they are all variables in delicacy, and the more delicate the classification the more the three overlap. The formal properties of any given language event will be those associated with the intersection of the appropriate field, tenor, and mode. Many scholars, both systemic functional and non-systemic functional, (e.g. Catford, 1965; Gregory, 1980; Hatim & Mason, 1990; Matthiessen, 2001; E. Steiner, 1998, 2001, 2004; Taylor, 1998) claim that studies in

register analysis are relevant to translators of all kinds, because "The establishment of register equivalence can be seen […] as the major factor in the process of translation; the problems of establishing such equivalence, a crucial test of the limits of translatability" (Gregory 1980, p. 466).

## 5. TE in Broader Contexts: Three Approaches to TE

The above discussion clearly shows that the concept of TE has been employed in so many different senses that it is impossible to capture it in any single definition. In what follows, I will attempt to examine TE in broader contexts, looking at this concept from the point of view of three approaches current in translation theories which I would refer to respectively as (1) the linguistic approach to TE, (2) the communicative approach to TE, and (3) the translational approach to TE.

### 5.1. The Linguistic Approach to TE

The linguistic approach to TE is said to be associated with the studies by the British linguist and translation scholar Ian Catford (1965, 1967, 1989) and the prominent German translation scholar Weiner Koller (1979, 1989, 1995).

#### 5.1.1. Catford

In a paper on linguistics and machine translation written in 1960 and reprinted in McIntosh and Halliday (1966), Halliday made the following guiding suggestion for bridging a general linguistic theory to translation studies:

> It might be of interest to set up a linguistic model of the translation process starting not from any preconceived notions from outside the field of language study, but on the basis of linguistic concepts such as are relevant to the description of languages as modes of activity in

their own right. (Halliday, 1966b, p. 137)

It is precisely Halliday's idea that Catford (1965) has taken up as the goal of his book entitled *A linguistic theory of translation*. In this "lucid, succinct and penetrating little book" (Gregory, 1980, p. 460), Catford has developed his linguistic theory of translation, setting it particularly within the compass of Halliday's (1961) early version of the systemic functional linguistics (SFL) model. Catford has fruitfully categorised a number of concepts such as translation equivalence, formal correspondence, textual equivalence, transference, translation shifts between levels, word classes, units (rank-shifts), structure, system, meaning, and so on (for more detail, see Catford, 1965, 1989; see also Newmark, 1988a; Malmkjær, 2005; Halliday, 2017b, p. 106).

TE is a central concept in Catford's theory of translation. As with Halliday (1966a), Newmark (1988a), Bell (1991), and Malmkjær (2005), Catford sees the sentence (the 'clause' in the current SFL model) as the unit in which TE can be established. He distinguishes between TE as an empirical phenomenon and TE as a theoretical consideration. Empirically, Catford (1965, p. 27) suggests, TE can be discovered by comparing SL text and TL text; and theoretically, TE can be discovered by establishing the underlying conditions, or justification, of TE.

Discussing TE as an empirical phenomenon, Catford (1965) classifies equivalence into "formal correspondence" and "textual equivalence". Formal correspondence is any category in the TL such as unit, class, structure, element of structure, etc. which occupies the same position in the economy of the TL as the given SL category occupies in the SL. He aptly observes that every language is unique; its categories are defined in terms of

relations holding within the language itself. For this reason, formal correspondence is always approximate. Textual equivalence refers to any TL form (text or part of text) which is observed to be equivalent to a given SL form (text or part of text). According to Catford (1965), textual equivalence can be discovered through a comparison of the source text with the target text and by using "the authority of a competent bilingual informant or translator" (p. 27). To find the French textual equivalent of the English textual segment *My son is six*, for example, the researcher can ask a competent English-French translator to put it into French. If the competent translator supplies *Mon fils a six ans*, the researcher then can say that it is the textual equivalent of the English original *My son is six*. Suppose in an English text, there are a number of mentions of *My son*, and the translator renders all these mentions into French as *Mon fils*, the researcher can firmly confirm that *Mon fils* is the textual equivalent of *My son*. Another way of discovering a textual translation equivalent is to adopt what Catford (1965, p. 28) refers to as *commutation* (italics in original) and observation of concomitant variation. In this technique, the researcher may systematically introduce changes into the SL segment and observe what changes if any occur in the TL segment as a consequence. Catford suggests that a textual translation equivalent is the segment of the TL text which is changed when and only when a given segment of the SL text is changed. A simple exercise for discovering a translation equivalent in this case is that the researcher replaces all mentions of *My son* by *Your daughter* in the text and asks the translator to translate *Your daughter is six* into French. The target text this time is *Votre fille a six ans*. If all mentions of *My daughter* are translated into French as *Votre fille*, the changed segment of the French text *Mon fils*/*Votre fille* can then be firmly taken as equivalent of the changed segment of the English original text *My son*/*Your daughter*. Catford notes that in simple cases, one can rely on one's own knowledge of languages involved. This is the only thing one can do with recorded text when the original translator is not present. In such a case, the researcher acts as his own informant and discovers textual equivalents intuitively without going through an overt procedure of commutation. Catford (1965) suggests that commutation is the ultimate test for textual equivalence; it is useful in cases where equivalence is not of simple equal-rank and unit-to-unit type as *My son* and *Your daughter* as illustrated above.

Discussing TE as a theoretical consideration, Catford observes:

> The SL (source language) and TL (target language) items rarely have 'the same meaning' in the linguistic sense; but they can function in the same situation, SL and TL texts or items are translation equivalents when they are *interchangeable in a given situation* (italics in original). (Catford, 1965, p. 49)

What Catford actually means is that meaning is language-specific. Therefore, TE can only be understood as denotative equivalence, not equivalence in meaning. As with Sapir (1929) and Whorf (1956), Catford sees a language as a closed system sealed off from other languages. He observes that linguistically, a unit of the SL and a unit of the TL are rarely of the same meaning. However, in comparable interlingual contexts of situation, they can be used in similar referential functions: the SL units and TL units are considered to be equivalent if they are interchangeable in a given situation. Catford (1965, p. 49) suggests that the interchangeability of situation can mostly be achieved at the level of the clause, because, as he explains, the clause is the basic grammatical unit of language use – the idea widely shared by many SFL scholars (e.g. Halliday, 1978, 1985a, 1985b, 1998;

Butt et al., 2000; Halliday & Matthiessen, 2014; Thompson, 2014; and Hoang, 2021, 2022). Below is the English clause and the German translation Catford (1967, p. 133) provides to illustrate his point.

**English**: *The Milkman hasn't come this morning.*

**German**: *Der Milchmann ist heute morgen nicht gekommen.*

According to Catford (1967), the English and German clauses represent comparable communicative situations; therefore, they can be said to be equivalent to each other. However, the German translation does not indicate what part of the day the utterance was spoken: morning or afternoon, or evening. In this case, if a back-translation from German into English is performed, the English back-translated version would be *The milkman didn't come this morning*. Based on the result of the above analysis, Catford concludes that the contextual meaning of the source and target language units is not always the same, because in establishing equivalence, translators must always be based on macro-textual or contextual information. This explains why semantic ambiguity often occurs in the TL text. He suggests that the question under what circumstances and to what extent the macro-textual features are appropriate for translation can only be answered in a specific text. This leads to the fact that the quality of a translation depends on a number of situational characteristics which can be clarified during the translation process. Catford provides the condition for TE which reads as follows:

> translation equivalence occurs when an SL and a TL text or item are relatable to (or at least some of) the same features of substance. (Catford, 1965, p. 50)

But whether there are rules for translation equivalence still seems to be an open issue. Catford states:

> Provided the sample is big enough, translation-equivalence probabilities may be generalized to form 'translation rules' applicable to other texts, and perhaps to the 'language as a whole'. (Catford, 1965, p. 31)

It can be said in summary that *A Linguistic theory of translation* is a wonderfully rich contribution to translation theory in general and translation equivalence study in particular. Its author – Ian Catford has developed a very comprehensive picture of translation by systematically examining it in the light of a general theory of language – systemic functional linguistics (SFL). His theory of translation can serve as a basis for any scholar who wants to expand his account in the light of new theoretical developments and descriptive findings of SFL (cf. Matthiessen, 2001, p. 43).

### 5.1.2. Koller

Among the scholars who study TE, the German translation theorist Koller (1979, 1989, 1995 and elsewhere) has perhaps offered the most comprehensive account (cf. House, 2015). In his publication entitled *Einführung in die Übersetzungswissenschaft* (Research into the Science of Translation), Koller (1979) proceeds by examining the concept of "equivalence" and its linked term "correspondence" (which closely resemble Catford's (1965) concepts of "formal correspondence" and "textual equivalence"). Correspondence, according to Koller (1979), lies in the area of comparative linguistics (see Ellis, 1966; Halliday, 1966b, 2001, 2017b). In establishing formal correspondences, the researcher is suggested to compare two linguistic systems and then to establish the similarities and differences between the two languages. The comparative parameters are those belonging to de Saussure's (1983) plane of *langue*. The examples Koller provides to illustrate his point are the identification of the

transference of syntactic, morphological, and phonological transference markers from the SL to the TL text. Textual equivalence, in contrast, is concerned with equivalent units in SL text and TL text pairs and contexts. The parameters for determining TE belong to de Saussure's (1983) plane of *parole*. In Koller's view

> while knowledge of correspondences is indicative of competence in the foreign language, it is knowledge and ability in equivalences that are indicative of competence in translation. (Koller, 1979, p. 185, as cited in Munday, 2016, p. 75)

In discussing equivalence, Koller (1989, 1995) maintains that the concept of equivalence postulates a relation between SL text (or text element) and TL text (or text element). He suggests that equivalence should be defined in terms of "the frame and the *conditions* to which one refers when using the concept of equivalence" (Koller, 1989, p. 100). Koller makes a *normative* statement of TE which reads as follows:

> there exists equivalence between a given source text and a given target text if the target text fulfils certain requirements with respect to these frame conditions. The relevant conditions are those having to do with such aspects as content, style, function, etc. (Koller, 1989, p. 100)

Proceeding from this normative statement, Koller provides a five-factor framework necessary for determining the equivalence of a TL text to the SL text:

(1) The *extralinguistic content* transmitted by a text: the kind of equivalence oriented towards this factor is called *denotative equivalence*. It refers to the kind of equivalence oriented towards 'invariance of content' or 'invariance at content level'; its central concern is the lexicon (the

words and syntagma in a language).

(2) The *connotations* or *connotative equivalence* transmitted by means of the word choice, (especially where there is a specific choice between synonymous expressions) with respect to level of style (register), the social and geographical dimension, frequency, etc.

(3) The *text and language norms* (usage norms) for given text types or *text-normative equivalence* relates to text-type specific features.

(4) The *receiver* (reader) to whom the translation is directed or *pragmatic equivalence* refers to the TL receptor's response. This type of equivalence is similar to Nida's (1964) "dynamic equivalence".

(5) Certain formal-aesthetic features of SL text or *formal equivalence* refers to the production of an "analogy of form" in the translation by exploiting the formal possibilities in the TL or even by creating new forms if necessary. It is the kind of equivalence which relates to textual characteristics such as the form of the text, word play, and individual stylistic features.

(Koller, 1989, pp. 100-101)

In short, in Koller's view, a TL text is judged to be equivalent to the SL text when it achieves denotative equivalence, connotative equivalence, text-normative equivalence, pragmatic equivalence, and formal equivalence.

### 5.2. The Communicative Approach to TE

The communicative approach to TE is associated with the eminent American linguist and translation scholar Eugene Nida.

Unlike several of his contemporaries who express doubt about the problem of translatability, Nida (1964) and Nida in Nida and Taber (1982, p. 4) state explicitly that "anything that can be said in one language can be said in another" language with reasonable accuracy by establishing equivalent points of reference in the receptor's culture and by matching his cognitive framework through the restructuring of the constitutive parts of the message (cf. Hoang 2005, p. 65). Nida (1975) points out that untranslatability has often been discussed in terms of absolute rather than relative equivalence. If Catford (1965) drew on Halliday's early version of the SFL model to develop his linguistic theory of translation, Nida based himself primarily on Chomsky's (1957, 1965) early theory of transformational generative (TG) grammar to develop his translation model. In *Toward a science of translating* (1964) and *The theory and practice of translation* co-authored with Taber (1982), Nida has brought translation within the compass of a science by integrating translation studies into linguistics and communication, focusing in particular on the universal features of human language, and the subsequent semantic and pragmatic works.

Another point of interest in Nida's theory of translation is that he has shifted away from the traditional view that a word has a written form and a fixed meaning towards a functional view that a word has meaning through context and its meaning can create different responses in different cultures. Nida classifies meaning into linguistic meaning, referential meaning (denotative meaning as usually indicated in dictionaries) and emotive or connotative meaning. As a linguist who is deeply influenced by ideas of American descriptive linguistics and then of TG grammar, Nida develops his new theory of translation by presenting a series of techniques for discovering meaning. The goal is to help

researchers, especially translators, define different linguistic units, clarify ambiguities in the SL, and identify cultural differences to eventually achieve the "closest natural equivalence" in the SL and the TL. In addition, Nida develops a number of techniques for identifying referential and emotive meaning and for analyzing semantic structure (for more detail, see Nida, 1964, pp. 84-85, 95; see also Hoang, 2006, 2022).

Unlike Jakobson and other translation scholars, Nida does not seem to be concerned about equivalence-related concepts such as "literal translation", "free translation" and "faithful translation"; and unlike Catford, Nida does not distinguish between "formal correspondence" and "textual equivalence". In his theory of translation, Nida (1964, p. 159) proposes two types of similarities which he refers to respectively as "formal equivalence" and "dynamic equivalence". The implication of this distinction is that there is never absolute TE. What the translator tries to do is to search for the "closest natural equivalent of the source-language message" (Nida & Taber, 1982, p. 12). In Nida's formulation, formal equivalence focuses attention on the message itself, in both form and content. In this type of equivalence, attention is paid to the nearest possible symmetry between the linguistic elements in the TL (Nida calls it "receptor language") and the corresponding linguistic elements in the SL (Nida, 1964, p. 159). In other words, formal equivalence in Nida's formulation is oriented towards the SL structure, making an influence on determining the accuracy of the structure of the translated text in the TL. The most typical of this type of equivalence is what he calls "gloss translation", in which the linguistic structure of the SL text is preserved in the linguistic structure of the TL translation, accompanied by a footnote explaining the meaning. In contrast, dynamic equivalence refers to what Nida (1964, p. 159, citing Rieu and Phillips,

1954), calls "the principle of equivalent effect", in which the relationship between the TL receptor and the TL message must essentially be the same as the relationship which existed between the SL receptor and the SL message. In other words, dynamic equivalence translation is directed more towards equivalence of receptor language audience's response than towards equivalence of form (see Hoang, 2005, pp. 66-7). Thus, for Nida a translation which is judged to be "the closest natural equivalent" to the SL text must be the one that matches (1) the receptor language and culture as a whole, (2) the context of the particular message, and (3) the receptor-language audience (see Nida, 1964, p. 167).

Nida's approach to TE which is oriented towards the TL receptor is typical of the approach to communicative translation. It allows the translator to alter grammatical structure, vocabulary and basic grammatical relationships to achieve naturalness; and the transference from the SL and the "foreignness" of the SL context to the TL can be minimized (Nida, 1964, pp. 166-168). This approach is similar to Catford's (1965) which views TE as an empirical phenomenon. The main difference lies in that while Catford wants to know if a language unit of a SL text is equivalent to a language unit of a TL translation by asking the competent bilingual or translator, Nida advocates asking the audience in the receptor language if the translation achieves similar communicative effect in the TL – a view of TE which can invite further discussion (for more detail see Hoang, 2022).

### 5.3. The Translational Approach to TE

The translational approach to TE can be attributed to the two German translation scholars Albrecht Neubert (1968, 1989) and Wolfram Wilss (1982a, 1982b). This approach is based on the assumption that the text to be translated has different degrees of translatability. This can be seen in that a relatively untranslatable text may contain some optimally translatable segments (sentences, paragraphs, or passages); and conversely, an optimally translatable text may contain some untranslatable segments (sentences, paragraphs, or passages). The fact that some segments of an SL text are translatable while some others are not shows that the translation of a text may facilitate the translator on the one hand and cause problems to him on the other. These problems may entail a correlational imbalance between an SL text and a TL translation which can be presented diagrammatically in Figure 3 below.

**Figure 3**

*Imbalance in Translation (Wilss, 1982a, p. 150)*
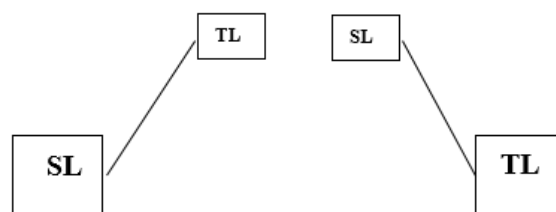


Neubert (1968) and Wilss (1982a) emphasize the need for a theory of translation to handle equivalence relations. They argue that the problem of the imbalance in TE is caused mainly by the style (form) and content (meaning) of text. When these linguistic factors interact with two other non-linguistic factors derived from the translator's subjectivity: "undertranslation" and "overtranslation", the loss of information and the surplus of information in translation (caused by the translator) may occur. This can result in six types or degrees of imbalanced translation:

1. a translation which lacks content
2. a translation which lacks style
3. a translation which lacks both content and style
4. a translation which exceeds content
5. a translation which exceeds style
6. a translation which exceeds both content and style.

Neubert (1968) notes that the translator works with *de facto* existing texts, and in actual translation he must cope with specific text types, using specific transfer strategies. This is why it is important to classify texts according to their degree of translatability. Neubert tentatively groups texts into four categories as follows:

1. exclusive SL-oriented texts: texts in the field of area studies
2. primarily SL-oriented texts: literary texts
3. SL- and TL-oriented texts: scientific/technical or language for specific purposes texts
4. primarily or exclusively TL-oriented texts: texts intended for propaganda abroad.

What seems to have been well established in translation practice is that if ten translators of one and the same language are asked to translate a text from one source language into their own, they will surely produce ten different versions of translation. However, if one looks carefully into their translations, one can find somewhere in the ten translated versions there is what (Popovič, 1976) refers to as "invariant core", which can be said to be equivalent to the SL text. This invariant core is reflected in basic and constant semantic elements in the text; its existence can be demonstrated by semantic condensation which can be recognized by conducting an empirical test; i.e. by comparing the SL text with the TL text(s) or by asking a competent bilingual or translator (cf. Catford, 1965). Core invariant content, therefore, is part of a dynamic relationship. It should not be confused with what has often been referred to as the "essence", "spirit" or "soul" of the text. From this point of view of translation practice, Neubert (1968) suggests that one should base oneself on the "core invariant content" of the translated versions to compare them with that of the SL text to establish equivalences between the TL text(s) and the SL text.

Like Jakobson (2004) and Nida (1964, 1975), Neubert and Wilss see translation as lying in the realm of semiotics. The criteria for TE, they suggest, must comprise syntactic, semantic, and pragmatic components; and among these components, semantic equivalence should be given priority over syntactic equivalence, and pragmatic equivalence modifies the other two. According to Neubert and Wilss, TE overall should be determined by three parameters: (1) the relationship between signs themselves, (2) the relationship between signs and what they stand for, and (3) the relationship between signs, what they stand for, and those who use them (for more detail, see Wilss, 1982a; see also Bassnett-McGuire, 2002).

## 6. Concluding Remarks

In this article, I have attempted to make an inquiry into some fractions of the current knowledge of interlingual translation theory and practice. I began my inquiry by examining in some detail Roman Jakobson's triadic system of translation in which the concept of "interlingual translation" is located and defined. Then, seeing interlingual translation as a complex social semiotic act of communication, I strove to explore the interlingual translation process, starting it from the source message/text producer (speaker/writer) who sends the message/text to the translator/interpreter (who is both source message/text receiver and target message/text producer), and ending it at the receiver (listener or reader) of the target message/text translation. Realizing that all the attempts made by interlingual translation theorists and practitioners so far have aimed at one ultimate goal: equivalence of the TL translation to the SL text, I raised the question, "Is there equivalence between a SL text and a TL translation?". In answer,

I presented two conflicting views: the "no" view of TE and the "yes" view of TE. Then I examined in some detail the concept of TE from both micro and macro perspectives. From the micro perspective, I explored TE and other translation equivalence-related concepts which are often used as criteria for determining TE of the TL translation to the SL text: "dictionary equivalence", "foreignising and domesticating translation and equivalence", "accuracy and equivalence", "adequacy and equivalence", "communicative effect and equivalence", "'false friends' and equivalence", "equivalent correspondences and variant correspondences", and "context and equivalence". And from the macro perspective, I explored how TE is conceptualized in three approaches current in translation theory and practice: the linguistic approach to TE, the communicative approach to TE, and the translational approach to TE.

It can be seen from my study that interlingual translation is a very complex social semiotic process, involving the participation of so many factors. It can also be seen from my study that TE is an extremely complex concept, perhaps one of the most problematic and controversial concepts in interlingual translation studies: it has been analysed, evaluated and discussed from different points of view; it has been approached from many different perspectives; in fact, the term TE has been employed in so many different senses that recently it has been denied by some translation scholars (e.g. Wilss, 1982b; Munday, 2016; Baker, 2018) any value, or even any legitimate status in interlingual translation theory. But judging from what is going on in the field, it is my view that the complexity of the problem of the interlingual translation process and the diversity of opinions on the concept of TE do not mean that scholars have complicated the problem. Rather, they have really contributed to the

advancement of knowledge in the field, not with the intention of a final verdict, but as food for thought and invaluable reference material for future research, making interlingual translation – "probably one of most complex types of event yet produced in the evolution of cosmos" (Richards, 1953, as cited in Brislin, 1976, p. 79) – an ever-moving academic discipline.

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# DỊCH LIÊN NGÔN: MỘT CỐ GẮNG NHẬN DIỆN
# MỘT SỐ KHÁI NIỆM CƠ BẢN

## Hoàng Văn Vân

*Trung tâm Nghiên cứu giáo dục ngoại ngữ, ngôn ngữ và quốc tế học,*
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**Tóm tắt:** Bài viết dự định xem xét một vài phần nhỏ lẻ trong nghiên cứu dịch liên ngôn. Bài viết bắt đầu bằng việc khám phá mô hình tam phân của học giả Roman Jakobson trong đó dịch liên ngôn là một bộ phận cấu thành. Sau đó, bài viết trình bày chi tiết quá trình dịch liên ngôn. Phần trình bày này được tiếp nối bằng hai mục trong đó khái niệm cốt lõi trong lí luận và thực hành dịch liên ngôn là "tương đương dịch thuật", một số khái niệm liên quan khác, và ba cách tiếp cận tương đương dịch thuật chính được nghiên cứu. Bài viết cho thấy rõ ràng rằng dịch liên ngôn là một quá trình kí hiệu xã hội rất phức tạp, và khái niệm tương đương dịch thuật được sử dụng theo nhiều nghĩa khác nhau đến mức mà gần đây một số nhà nghiên cứu đã phủ nhận bất kì giá trị nào, thậm chí bất kì vị thế hợp pháp nào của nó trong lí thuyết và thực hành dịch. Tuy nhiên, dựa vào những gì đang diễn ra trong lĩnh vực nghiên cứu dịch liên ngôn, bài viết cho rằng sự phức tạp của quá trình dịch liên ngôn và các quan điểm đa dạng về khái niệm tương đương dịch thuật không có nghĩa là các học giả đã làm phức tạp vấn đề. Thay vào đó, họ đã thực sự đóng góp vào sự tiến bộ của kiến thức trong lĩnh vực này, không phải với mục đích đưa ra phán quyết cuối cùng, mà là những gợi ý đáng suy nghĩ và những tài liệu tham khảo quý báu để nghiên cứu sâu hơn, làm cho lí luận và thực hành dịch liên ngôn trở là một ngành học luôn luôn vận động.

*Từ khóa*: dịch liên ngôn, quá trình dịch liên ngôn, tương đương dịch thuật và các khái niệm liên quan, ba cách tiếp cận tương đương dịch thuật trong dịch liên ngôn

# CONTACTLESS SERVICES IN VIETNAM'S HOSPITALITY INDUSTRY: CASE STUDIES OF THE JW MARRIOTT HANOI AND THE NOVOTEL HANOI THAI HA HOTEL

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**Abstract**: In Vietnam, contactless services in the hotel business are still relatively new. We provide an overview of the research on contactless services and related matters in this study. Following the fishbone or cause and effect diagram first introduced by Kaoru Ishikawa in 1968, the theoretical framework was developed on the five hotel internal factors (5M) that influence the implementation of contactless services in Vietnamese hotels. Our research is grounded in this theoretical framework to investigate the actual condition of providing contactless services at two 5-star hotels, the JW Marriott Hanoi and the Novotel Hanoi Thai Ha. To accomplish the purpose of the research, we used a variety of methodologies, including desk study and analysis; participant observation; questionnaire surveys; and in-depth interviews. Based on the findings of the research, the paper provides discussions and recommendations for the deployment of contactless services in Vietnamese hotels.

*Keywords*: contactless services, hospitality industry, condition, requirements

## 1. Introduction

In 2020 and 2021, the COVID-19 pandemic caused significant hurdles to Vietnam's tourism industry. Tourism performance continued to deteriorate in 2021. Domestic tourists reached approximately 40 million in 2021 (52.9% less than in 2019), with just 19 million accommodated tourist arrivals (56.3% less than in 2019). International tourist arrivals to Vietnam fell by 80.6% in 2021, to 3.5 million (Vietnam National Administration of Tourism [VNAT], 2021, p. 1). The percentage of employees who work part-time or leave the industry is increasing. Many hotels in Vietnam have used contactless service solutions to reduce the spread of the coronavirus as a result of the difficult and extended COVID-19 pandemic conditions. Inherent in the hotel business is a focus on direct interaction and service between staff and customers. However, as information technology (IT) advances at a breakneck pace, the application of technology to services is growing in popularity. In addition, the global epidemic situation is still complex. Therefore, a solution of contactless services benefits both the customers and the service providers.

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Contactless services fall into three categories: (1) integrating contactless solutions into the hotel's spatial and temporal arrangement; (2) installing applications on smartphones to order services and pay at hotels and restaurants' gates; and (3) utilizing the internet of things (IoT) technology in the form of robots to serve and deliver products to customers. Contactless services in hotels are attracting the attention of academics all around the world. However, almost no research on hotel contactless services has been found in Vietnam. Therefore, the objective of our research is to address the issue of the conditions for deploying contactless services in hotels in Vietnam. We take into account both internal and external factors that affect the contactless services in the hospitality industry. Internal factors include equipment investment, hotel operations, procedures, staff training, and so on. We use 5M model in this study, which can be interpreted as follows: (1) mechanisms and policies of hotels; (2) machinery and supporting divisions; (3) money or financial investment; (4) man power's information technology (IT) capacity; and (5) material or technical facilities to deploy contactless services (Kaufman Global, 2021, p. 1). External factors refer to state and municipal policies and ordinances, among others, which have limited influence. In contrast, internal factors are part of hotels' attempts to introduce contactless services, and they have a direct and significant impact on hotels' operation effectiveness in general and its contactless implementation in particular. Considering these, in this study, we focus on hotels' internal factors.

Using data acquired from our inspections and surveys of hotels in Vietnam, as well as an in-depth examination of the JW Marriott Hanoi and Novotel Hanoi Thai Ha hotels, we discuss the current situation in general and hotels' readiness, and give recommendations for the deployment of contactless services in Vietnamese hotels.

## 2. Literature Review

For more than three decades, numerous international scholars have been interested in the theory of encountering and contacting in services, most notably Solomon et al. (1985, p. 100); Jo et al. (1990, p. 71); and Guiry (1992, p. 666). Increasingly, academics are focusing on how contactless services may improve businesses' performance. Bordoloi and Fitzsimmons (2018, p. 157) claimed that contactless services can help firms attract new clients and cut costs associated with service delivery. Additionally, numerous scholars, such as Callinan et al. (2017, p. 47); Lee (2018, p. 5); Fonjong and Tian (2019, p. 161); and Reinartz et al. (2019, p. 359), assert that the application of digital technology will result in positive service experiences, enabling businesses and customers to innovate. Furthermore, Lee (2018, p. 5); Amar et al. (2019, p. 5); and Joe et al. (2020, p. 77) claimed that the growth of social networks and mobile technology facilitated the development of contactless services. Even in the future, face-to-face interactions will gradually be phased out in favor of contactless interactions.

Numerous scholars have examined contactless services in the hotel industry, including Lee (2018) with the article "Innovation: from small "i" to large "I" (p. 9); Joe et al. (2020) with the article *Effects of Social Influence and Perceived Enjoyment on Kiosk Acceptance: A Moderating Role of Gender"* (p. 6); Lee et al. (2020) with the study *"Untact": A New Customer Service*

*Strategy in the Digital Age"* (p. 13); Lee et al. (2020) introduced the article "*Optimal Capacity and Operation Design of a Robot Logistics System for the Hotel Industry*" (p. 76). According to studies, the application of contactless services in hotels can be classified into three categories: (1) incorporating contactless service solutions into hotel spatial and temporal arrangements: including room service, takeaway lunch box, massage, shuttle bus, reserving a time slot for a walk in the garden, reserving a private room at the bar... A success story in this category is Shilla Seoul and Lotte Seoul hotels (Korea) which increased room service deliveries to 40%...; (2) installing applications on smartphones to order services and pay at hotel and restaurant gates. For instance, the "Taobao" application is used by the Alibaba group's Tao Café restaurant chain in China; the "Siren Order" application is used by the Starbucks shop chain in Korea to book an item and pay at the

shop exits; and (3) utilizing IoT technology in the form of robots to serve and deliver products to customers. Examples include the Ambassador hotel group (Korea) which uses mobile devices to administer hotel rooms; the Novotel hotel (Korea) which uses robots to provide services such as delivering items to guest rooms. (S. M. Lee, 2018; W. J. Lee et al., 2020; S. M. Lee & D. H. Lee, 2020). This type of execution is common around the world, but it is not widely used in Vietnam yet.

Academics who are interested in examining the conditions that would be required for the implementation of contactless services in hotels can be summarised as follows: As Grant Thornton Vietnam (2015) points out, it's about the customers' needs, hotel mechanisms and policies, and their financial potential and investment in contactless services (p. 2).

**Figure 1**

*Grant Thornton Vietnam's Research Model on the Requirements for Contactless Service Implementation (2015)*
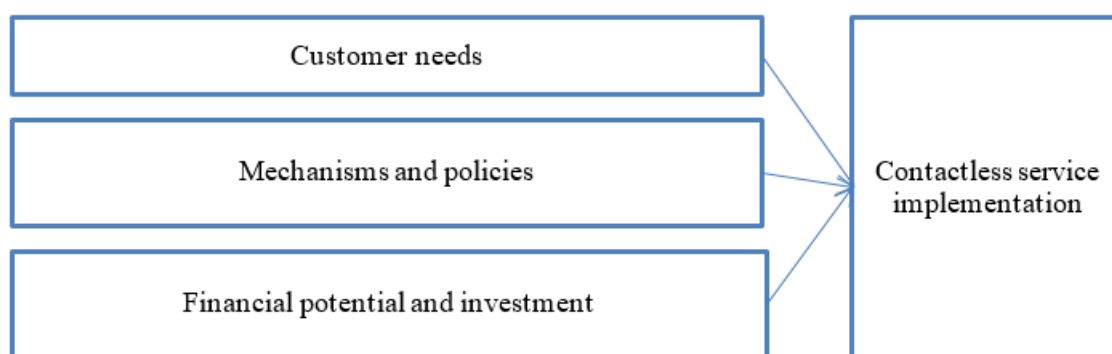


Kuo et al. (2017) modeled the supply and demand side dynamics affecting the

deployment of contactless services (p. 1309).

**Figure 2**

*Kuo et al. Research Model on The Requirements for Contactless Service Implementation (2017)*
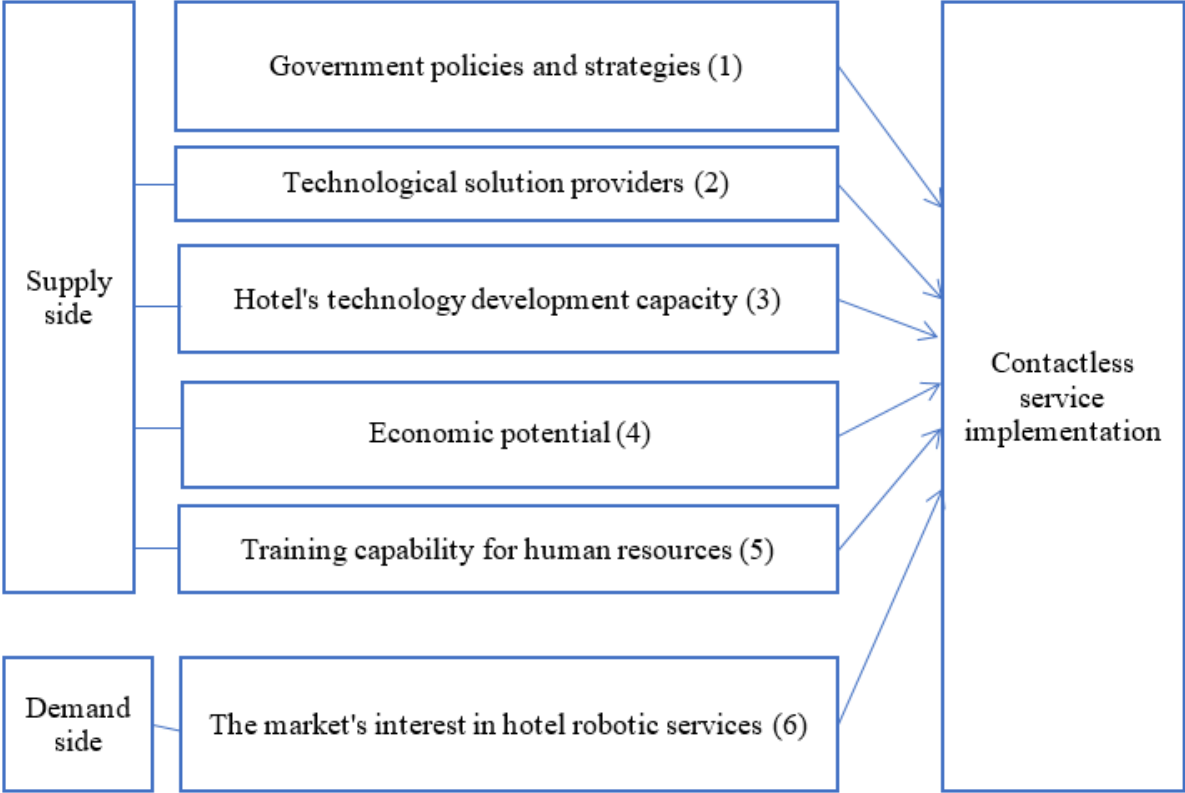


Furthermore, when researching the application of new technologies in the hotel industry, Lau (2020) believes that hotel directors must consider both internal factors such as return on total investment, training activities, and job opportunities as well as external factors such as state rules and legislation (p. 498). Lau only addressed one external factor: state rules and legislation. The author is primarily concerned with the remaining five internal factors that affect hotel operation.

**Figure 3**

*Lau Aurthur's Research Model on the Requirements for Contactless Service Implementation (2020)*
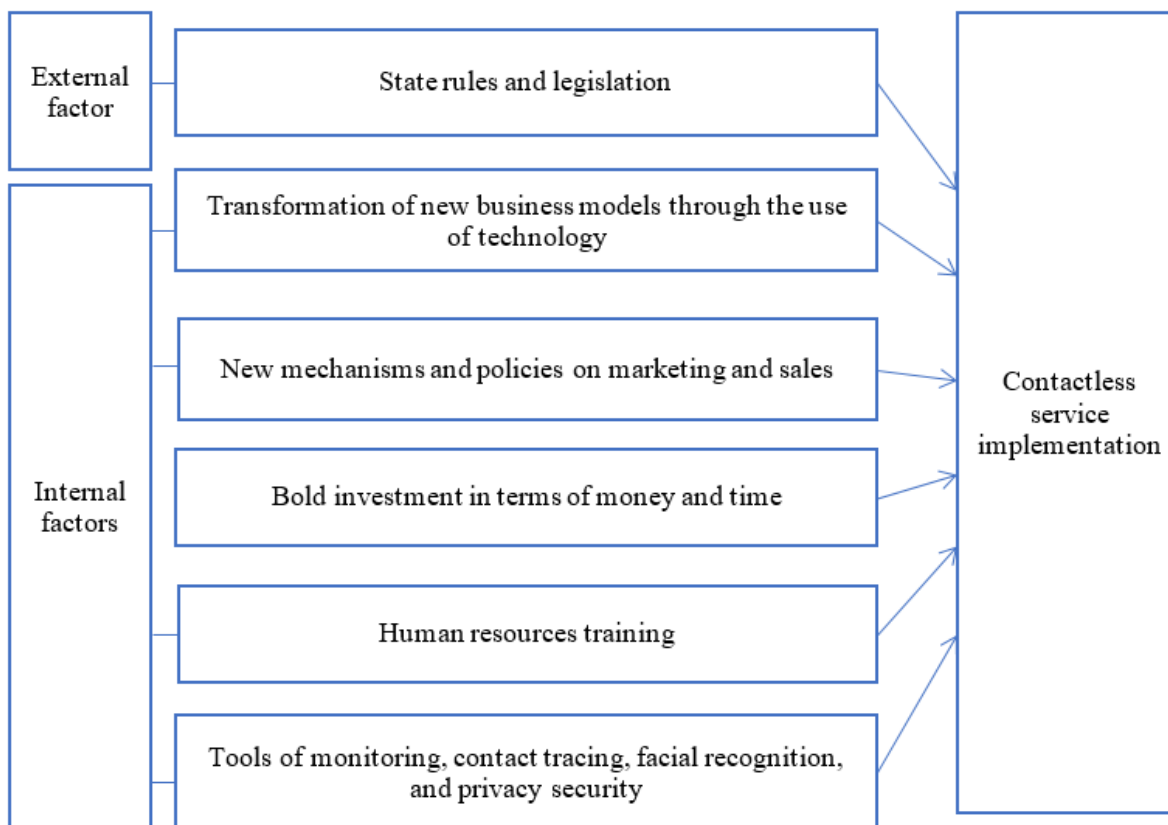


There is almost no research on hotel contactless services in Vietnam yet, although in recent years, many studies have examined hotel management's effectiveness and customer satisfaction. Nguyen and Pham (2015) noted that service quality has a direct and beneficial impact on customer satisfaction in hotels (p. 171). Nguyen and Bui (2019) identified innovation as an element with the greatest and most comprehensive influence on hotel business performance in Vietnam (p. 142). In a study on the impact of information technology on hotel business performance, Tran and Nguyen (2019) confirmed that the use of IT in the reception, food and beverage, and housekeeping divisions will help hotels reduce their operating costs, improve productivity, service quality, and market share. Hotels, on the other hand, need to

improve the IT aspect of the above divisions (p. 92). Due to the absence of research on hotel contactless services in the country, this study is well justified.

## 3. Methodology

We conducted the research in 2020 and 2021. Data was collected using secondary documents, participant observation, a questionnaire, and in-depth interviews. Secondary research includes gathering and analysing domestic and foreign-published studies, papers, reports, and statistics. Those areas of research relate to smart tourism, virtual tourism, service encounters, and untact or contactless tourism. The purpose of reading papers is to integrate concepts, identify research issues, and discover gaps. We conducted a field

survey at a selected number of hotels in Hanoi to examine the status of the application of contactless services. Activities included observation, recording, and preliminary assessment at certain hotels. Following that, we create frameworks to investigate the elements influencing the deployment of contactless services in hotels. We found that a survey utilising a questionnaire was required to establish which components of the study framework were most important. As a result, the questionnaire-survey approach was adopted. Furthermore, the questionnaire survey aimed to better grasp the staff's impression of contactless services. After collecting survey data, we interviewed experts to discuss solutions for implementing contactless services in hotels.

The survey sample size was determined using the following formula:

$$n = z^2_{1-\alpha/2}P(1-P)/d^2$$

(Ryan, 2013, p. 111)

Wherein:

P: expected prevalence is 50% (=0.5)

d: desired precision (confident limit around the point estimate), is 5% (= 0.05)

z: the value for 95% confidence intervals (= 1.96)

We specifically administered surveys to 384 hotel personnel. The questions test their contactless services' readiness and effectiveness. We asked hotel staff about their perception of contactless services and customer satisfaction to bolster our case. We used the Likert scale with five levels, from "completely agree" to "completely disagree." 1 = Totally unready; 2 = Unready; 3 = Neutral; 4 = Slightly ready; and 5 = Absolutely ready (Susan, 2004, p. 3). We draw conclusions about hotel contactless service readiness based on the mean scores

of internal factors. The data is then analysed, summarised, and evaluated. We use a linear regression model to determine the relationship between hotel factors and contactless service implementation.

## 4. Results

### 4.1. Analysis of Using 5M Model for This Article's Research Framework

Through our literature review and examination of good contactless service management, we found Kaoru Ishikawa's (1968) resource management framework (5M). The introduction fits corporate governance in general and includes elements impacting the implementation of contactless services, specifically 5 internal factors. It is hard to ignore the two elements of clients and favorable policies while examining external issues. We tried to understand the customer's perspective through the employees' opinions. According to the Strategy for the Development of Key Products in the Tourism Industry (Ministry of Culture, Sports and Tourism [MCST], 2017, p. 11), and the Master Plan for the Application of Information Technology in the Tourism Sector from 2018 to 2020, with Orientations to 2025 (Prime Minister, 2018, p. 1), the tourism and hotel industry is encouraged to apply and deploy smart tourism services. Similarly, the mechanism and policy factor is the most crucial inside the hotel. The hotel's suitable organization of equipment, financial investment resources, and acceptable human resource development will be influenced by clearly identifying the development path and objective. As a result, the 5M framework's resource management features are reasonably complete. Thus, we confirm that the 5M framework is appropriate for this research.

**Figure 4**

*Cause and Effect Diagram (Ishikawa, 1968, p. 19)*
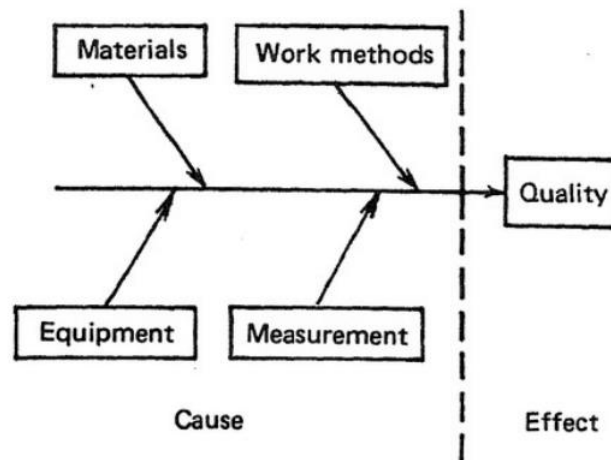


### 4.2. Influencing Factors in the Implementation of Hotel Contactless Services

We find that internal factors always outweigh external factors in all of the study models on the criteria for implementing contactless services discussed above. Kuo et al. (2017) underline the hotel's mechanisms and policies (1) and IT capacity (5). Both Kuo and Lau (2020) believe that hotels must consider the following factors: an effective business model (2); economic potential, financial investment for contactless services (3); and the ability to train and foster talents (4). In addition, Kaufman Global (2021) recommended the 6Ms of effective production (p. 1). Based on the above-mentioned experts' concepts for implementing contactless services, we synthesise and generalise five internal factors as conditions for contactless service implementation, which are illustrated as follows:

**Figure 5**

*Factors Influencing the Implementation of Contactless Services*
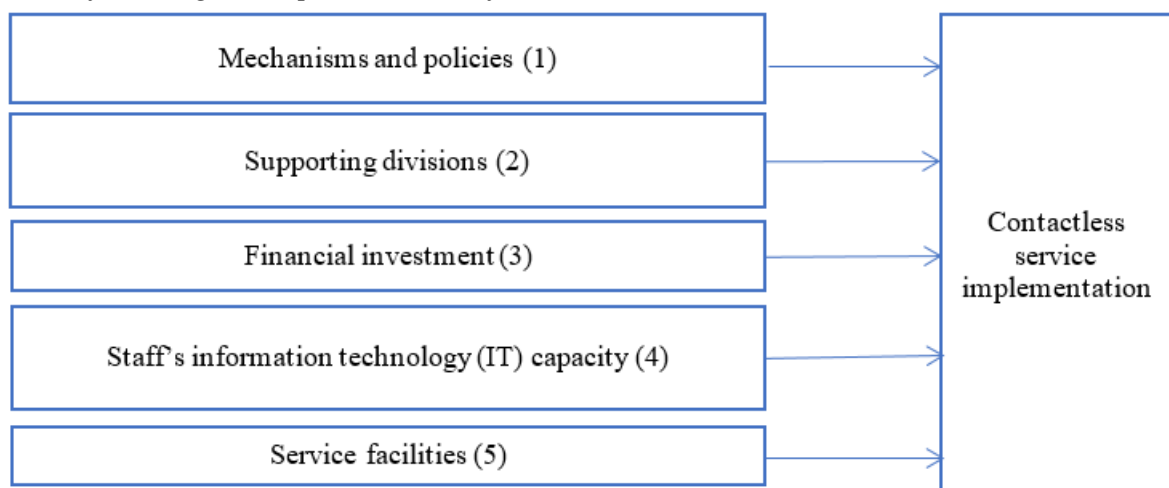
*4.3. The Current Situation of Contactless Service Implementation at the JW Marriott Hanoi and Novotel Hanoi Thai Ha*

**4.3.1. The Readiness for Contactless Services**

We examine two 5-star hotels in Vietnam as case studies based on the theoretical framework of factors influencing the implementation of hotel contactless services, including mechanisms and policies, supporting divisions, financial investment, staff IT capacity, and service facilities. We surveyed hotel staff to learn about contactless service implementations. The results of the survey are analysed using the theory of interval values. The interval value on a 5-level Likert scale is calculated using the following formula:

Interval value = (Maximum score – Minimum score)/ number of scores:
n = (n-1)/n = (5 -1)/ 5 = 0.8 (Susan, 2004, p. 3)

As indicated in the research methodologies section, the mean score range corresponds to five levels. The readiness for implementation will be determined using the levels of interval values. In particular, they are 1.00-1.80 (totally unready), 1.81-2.60 (unready), 2.61-3.40 (neutral), 3.41-4.20 (slightly ready), and 4.21-5.00 (absolutely ready). On the basis of the mean values of each internal factor, it is clear that there is a high probability of the contactless services being implemented.

**Table 1**

*Descriptive Statistics of Internal Factors and the Implementation of Contactless Services (Survey Data Processing Findings, 2021)*

|  | Mean | Standard deviation |
|---|---|---|
| Contactless service implementation | 4.29 | 0.64599 |
| Mechanisms and policies | 4.47 | 0.58415 |
| Supporting divisions | 4.09 | 0.93882 |
| Financial investment | 4.22 | 0.91932 |
| Staff's IT capacity | 4.62 | 0.58898 |
| Service facilities | 4.32 | 0.80888 |

The mean values of the variables show that only one factor in the supporting division is at level 4 of the interval value, and all the others are at level 5, indicating they are ready to provide contactless services.

**4.3.2. The Extent to Which Contactless Services are Implemented**

*Extent of implementation of contactless services*: 41.3% of respondents said their hotels will continue to use contactless services after the COVID-19 outbreak (4.08/5). Positive ratings ranged from 4.08 to 4.43. Using contactless services to improve high-tech utility gets 4.43/5.

**Table 2**

*Findings on the Hotels' Implementation of Contactless Services (Survey Data Processing Findings, 2021)*

| No. | Statement: We are now implementing contactless services… | Lowest – Highest score | Mean | Standard deviation (SD) |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | as a must during the COVID-19 outbreak | 2 – 5 | 4.31 | 0.77 |
| 2 | and will keep them on-going even after the COVID-19 | 1 – 5 | 4.08 | 0.98 |
| 3 | with enhancing high technology utility | 2 – 5 | 4.43 | 0.76 |
| 4 | with selecting foreign hosting service providers | 1 – 5 | 4.35 | 0.86 |
|  | *Average* | *2.25 – 5.00* | *4.29* | *0.65* |

46.7% believe it is a must to provide contactless services during the COVID-19 pandemic, 41.3% believe their hotel will keep them even after the pandemic, 53.3% select foreign hosting service providers to better secure customers' personal information, and 56% believe their hotel must use artificial intelligence technology applications.

More than 40% of respondents said contactless services boost labour productivity and customer satisfaction, but they can't replace traditional service, which requires more attention and dedication. 61.9% of respondents thought installing software to deploy contactless service solutions in hotels was a good idea.

52.4% of customers are satisfied

with personalization, 38.1% with technology-supported services, and 33.3% are eager to use contactless services again. Customers are satisfied with tech-enabled services, say 44.1% of staff.

### 4.3.3. Correlation Between Internal Factors Influencing the Implementation of Contactless Services

The regression model shows that the correlation between the two hotels' internal factors for actual implementation is greater than 0.3 and Cronbach's Alpha is over 0.6. The scale is reliable. Service facilities to organise contactless services (5) has a strong correlation with hotel mechanisms and policies (1), supporting divisions (2), and financial investment (3).

**Table 3**

*Correlation Between the Internal Factors and the Implementation of Contactless Services (Survey Data Processing Findings, 2021)*

| Factors | (1) | (2) | (3) | (4) | (5) | (6) |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Mechanisms and policies (1) | 1 | | | | | |
| Supporting divisions (2) | 0.546** | 1 | | | | |
| Financial investment (3) | 0.688** | 0.702** | 1 | | | |
| Staff's IT capacity (4) | 0.499** | 0.616** | 0.655** | 1 | | |
| Service facilities (5) | 0.729** | 0.709** | 0.871** | 0.639** | 1 | |
| Contactless service implementation (6) | 0.674** | 0.509** | 0.445** | 0.322** | 0.522** | 1 |

*Note: ** $p < 0.01$ has statistical significance with a correct probability of 99.9%.*

Brian C. Cronk's (2020) level scale determines the extent of correlations among variables as follows: Strong correlations are defined as having an absolute value greater than 0.7. Correlations with absolute values less than 0.3 are regarded as weak. Correlations with absolute values ranging from 0.3 to 0.7 are considered moderate (p. 53). As a result, the five internal factors have a moderate to strong correlation with the implementation of contactless services (6), with the strongest correlation being the hotel's mechanisms and policies (0.674) and the weakest correlation being the staff's IT capacity (0.322). Thus, it can be seen that the five internal factors

affecting the implementation of the contactless services have a moderate or strong correlation; there is no weak correlation.

### 4.3.4. Participant Observation in the Two Hotels

The JW Marriott Hotel Hanoi promotes the Marriott Bonvoy app and encourages Vietnamese participation. Customers are accustomed to using the app and want to maximise its benefits. Most Vietnamese prefer traditional room booking and check-in over mobile apps. The contactless service is implemented by the

Security, the Front Office, the Sales, and the Hotel Management Board. The Front Office communicates with guests and responds to Marriott Bonvoy requests. Receptionists are trained to use the Marriott Bonvoy app to access the hotel's loyalty database. If a guest doesn't have the app, the staff recommends it. Hotel receptionists know "mobile request and chat." Mobile apps can be used to notify guests about available rooms and fulfil requests. The Reception, the Operator, and Shift Managers use computers and smartphones to organise contactless services. The internet system functions properly, ensuring fast transmission speeds.

The Novotel Hanoi Thai Ha Hotel emphasises online customer communication. Successful strategies include ALLSAFE. Websites, social media, and hotel confirmation emails feature the tool. All consumers and potential customers are aware of the service, which reduces customer-staff contact. Customers who use online check-in and check-out will receive forms, electronic invoicing, etc. via email. IT, sales, marketing, and the Hotel Management Board are involved in contactless service. Online customer service includes exchanging, supplying, and answering information, conversing with guests, and responding to guest requests via the guest feedback system. Hotel division heads train and administer staff training programmes according to Accor Hotels' standards. The hotel staff is IT- and equipment-savvy. The hotel's staff is well-versed in IT and equipment operation.

### 4.3.5. Evaluation of Contactless Service Implementation in the Two Hotels

The implementation of contactless services in the two case-study hotels is shown in the research model as involving five factors, with the most influencing factor in turn being as follows: (1) mechanisms and policies; (2) supporting divisions; (3) financial investment; (4) service facilities; and (5) staff's IT capacity.

The two hotels have implemented contactless services very well in terms of categories 1 and 2, specifically: (1) integrating contactless service solutions into the hotel's spatial and temporal arrangements; and (2) installing an application on the smartphone to order services and pay at the hotel or restaurant's gates. However, hotels have not yet implemented category 3 solutions, which include the use of IoT technology to serve and deliver products to consumers via robots.

The two hotels have policies in place to expand the use of technology in service delivery in order to reduce physical contact points, such as mobile check-in, online booking, cashless payment, QR codes for surveys, or service introduction.

The majority of customers of Marriott International and AccorHotel Group participate in programmes that make use of technology, such as mobile check-in or express check-in and check-out, since the hotels have systems in place to maintain customers' personal information, including institutions; guest authorizations for credit card payment; room type preferences; room location; and so on.

Hotel staff can still show their readiness to help by remaining visible in places where customers can see them, allowing customers to choose between technology-based services and staff-communicating experience.

However, hotels have not invested in high-tech applications such as artificial intelligence (AI), facial recognition, or door locks using PIN passwords. The replacement of the hotel digital lock system necessitates a large and uniform investment, but present financial resources are limited due to the impact of the COVID-19 outbreak. This predicament will likewise necessitate significant efforts on the part of the hotels in the future.

### 4.3.6. In-Depth Interview

We consulted experts for the article's recommendations. Ms. Nguyen Thanh Binh, Deputy Director of VNAT's Hotel Department, and Mr. Nguyen Quang, Chairman of the Vietnam Housekeeping Club, were interviewed.

Ms. Nguyen Thanh Binh focused on businesses that need to implement contactless services with the following conditions: a regularly updated customer database; the most appropriate software for the hotel's key market based on the use of language; the process of providing services; association and cooperation with reliable partners that provide smart service management software; and internal communication and smart service dissemination. Loyal guests are rewarded with smart services first.

Mr. Nguyen Quang promotes contactless hotel services. Contactless services require a necessary infrastructure. It's the result of smart investing. Many trustworthy technology solution providers can be partners in developing a hotel's technical infrastructure. Mr. Quang said the following factors affected the adoption of contactless services: (1) mechanisms and policies; (2) supporting divisions; (3) financial investment; (4) service facilities; and (5) staff's IT capacity.

## 5. Discussions

In terms of the conditions for deploying contactless services, external factors such as state regulations and laws, or technology providers, are important for the development of the country's digital transformation and smart tourism, while internal factors are important to improve the efficiency of contactless services in the hotel. These factors must be strengthened concurrently and according to the hotel's customer-attraction strategy.

In terms of the status of implementing contactless services, hotels are doing well in arranging time and space for contactless services. Some hotels are using smart locks, face recognition, online booking, e-commerce, cashless payment, and so on. However, not many hotels use AI technology or robots in their hotel services. Integrating robots or AI into hotel services improves competitiveness without reducing guest friendliness. The people behind the scenes and the front-line staff are constantly increasing contact with customers in novel ways. Traditional service will continue to be an important component in the hotel industry for observing and recognising situations that necessitate subtlety in behaviour.

The field of contactless services in the hospitality industry is not affected by the hotel's size. A large hotel may have the economic potential to be the leader in this field, but small hotels may have advantages in implementing contactless services synchronously and completely.

## 6. Recommendations

From the research results above, including the survey data analysis, participant observation, and in-depth interview, we suggest the recommendations below for implementing contactless services in Vietnam's hospitality industry:

### 6.1. At the State Level

- Invest resources in the next five years to pilot the development of contactless services in hotels in major cities across the country;

- Encourage the use of contactless services in small and medium-sized businesses.

- The tourism industry collaborates with other sectors, like information and communication technology and security, to increase the adoption of contactless services in hotels.

- The National Tourism Promotion Agency conducts market research to determine how to increase market interest in the development of contactless services in hotels.

### 6.2. At the Hotel Industry Level

- Hotel management boards should have a policy and orientation toward implementing digital technology to deploy contactless services;

- Develop software for customer interactions on mobile devices that is optimised for their hotel's primary markets;

- Strengthen research and investment in sync with the hotel's strategy for attracting potential customers in terms of facilities, equipment, software, etc. to facilitate the deployment of contactless services.

- Train staff on visitor security, safety, and privacy. Smart services are primarily introduced through hotel reward programmes.

- Improve coordination among hotel divisions, especially IT, sales and marketing, front office, food and beverage, housekeeping, security, and human resources, in the delivery of contactless services;

- Invest in IoT-based services that maximise customer conveniences, such as smart hotel applications, IoT locks, check-in kiosks, facial recognition devices, chatbots, and robots that deliver luggage, bring products to the room, etc.

- Have a division oversee contactless service operations. Specifically, monitor the attraction of customers who prefer contactless services, maintain an updated customer database, and gather customer feedback.

## 7. Conclusions

The hotel industry in Vietnam is well-versed in contactless technology. This study shows that contactless services are feasible in hotels in Vietnam. Hotels in Vietnam are using existing resources to adopt contactless services like mobile check-in, private time booking at the bar, restaurant, or garden promenade, room service, on-the-spot delivery, takeaway, or express check-out. Technology-based devices can support contactless services such as QR codes for hotel information, facial recognition cameras, and smart door locks opened by PIN codes sent to customers' mobile phones. Chatbots, product and luggage delivery robots, and mobile devices that can control hotel room status have not yet been used in contactless services in Vietnam hotels. Contactless services offer customers new and exciting experiences. With the advancement of new technologies, contactless services will become increasingly important in the hotel business for providing safety, convenience, and enjoyment to customers and staff.

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# DỊCH VỤ KHÔNG TIẾP XÚC
# TRONG NGÀNH KHÁCH SẠN VIỆT NAM: NGHIÊN CỨU
# TRƯỜNG HỢP KHÁCH SẠN JW MARRIOTT HANOI
# VÀ KHÁCH SẠN NOVOTEL HANOI THÁI HÀ

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**Tóm tắt**: Tại Việt Nam, dịch vụ không tiếp xúc trong các doanh nghiệp khách sạn còn khá mới mẻ. Trong bài viết này, chúng tôi nghiên cứu tổng quan dịch vụ không tiếp xúc và những vấn đề liên quan. Chúng tôi dựa vào mô hình 5M của Kaoru Ishikawa (1968) để xây dựng khung lý thuyết gồm năm yếu tố bên trong của khách sạn có ảnh hưởng tới việc triển khai dịch vụ không tiếp xúc trong khách sạn ở Việt Nam. Căn cứ vào khung nghiên cứu này, chúng tôi thực hiện điều tra các điều kiện thực tế về cung cấp dịch vụ không tiếp xúc tại hai khách sạn 5 sao, gồm JW Marriott Hanoi và Novotel Hanoi Thái Hà. Để đạt được mục tiêu nghiên cứu, chúng tôi đã sử dụng nhiều phương pháp nghiên cứu khác nhau, gồm nghiên cứu thư viện, phân tích dữ liệu; quan sát có sự tham dự; điều tra bằng bảng hỏi và phỏng vấn sâu. Qua các kết quả nghiên cứu, bài viết đưa ra thảo luận và khuyến nghị đối với việc triển khai dịch vụ không tiếp xúc trong các khách sạn ở Việt Nam.

*Từ khóa*: dịch vụ không tiếp xúc, ngành khách sạn, điều kiện, yêu cầu

# TEACHER'S CHANGES
# AND CHALLENGES IN CLIL IMPLEMENTATION*

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**Abstract:** This study aims at finding out high school English teachers' changes and challenges in content and language integrated learning in Vietnam. Survey questionnaires and in-depth interviews have been chosen to collect data for the study. The results show that teachers have made encouraging changes in lesson planning, material development, lesson delivery and assessment. The challenges encountered by the teachers involve the subject knowledge, teachers' time and effort allowances, learners' motivation and supporting policies. The results of the study can be considered an informative source of reference for future CLIL implementation at schools across our country.

*Key words:* CLIL, language, content, integrated learning

## 1. Introduction

Content and Integrated Learning (CLIL) has been becoming a very welcoming educational approach since David Marsh first introduced this term in 1994. In this approach, students learn a subject (content) and either a foreign or a second language at the same time.

So far, CLIL has been considered similar to but distinctive from language immersion and content-based instruction. In other words, it is an educational theory that integrates language teaching and content derived from other subjects. This approach is of great advantage to learners' cognitive development, and is more widely applicable than language immersion, and so is increasingly more appreciated around the world.

In Vietnam, besides English as a Medium of Instruction (EMI), CLIL appears to be a new approach that school managers aim at for a new, more holistic way of delivering content, as well as English and cognitive development at the same time.

With its rapid development, many studies related to CLIL have been conducted to gather information about the implementation and experiences in many education systems. (Nikula & Marsh, 1996; Dalton-Puffer, 2007; Lorenzo, 2008; Ruiz de Zarobe & Jimenez, 2009; Yassin et al. 2009). A similar one should be carried out in Vietnam to provide more information for teachers, managers and policy-makers with the hope of creating a better environment for CLIL implementation in our country.

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## 2. Literature Review

### 2.1. Definition of CLIL

Marsh (2002) describes CLIL as an approach which may involve languages, intercultural knowledge, understanding and skills, preparation for internationalization and development of education itself. By that he means subjects are taught through a second or foreign language with "dual-focus aims"; namely, the learning of content happens simultaneously with the learning of a second or foreign language. This receives a big applause from Ball et al. (2015) when they state that CLIL is an advisable way of transferring the content through a second language.

Furthermore, the growth of CLIL approach has proved that it is incredibly innovative. In CLIL, language not only functions as a tool of giving instructions but as the medium of delivering the subject matter as well (Dalton-Puffer et al., 2010; Grieveson & Wendy, 2017). This well supports declaration of Eurydice (2006) that CLIL is not restricted to language teaching; it is, nevertheless, a pioneering methodological approach that highlights both content and language.

### 2.2. Characteristics of CLIL

As an educational approach, CLIL is at times used interchangeably with similar-but-not-identical terms such as immersion program, bilingual education, content-based instruction, or English as a medium of instruction (Dalton-Puffer et al., 2010; Heine, 2010; Costa, 2016). These terms, to some extent, resemble but not fully reflect what CLIL is. As Coyle et al. (2010), stated, CLIL and these terms may have some joint basic theories and practices but they are not synonymous. To be more exact, CLIL has distinguished characteristics that differentiate it from other bilingual teaching methods. Regarding CLIL in the context of English teaching, Ioannou-Georgiou and Pavlou (2011) have reviewed scholars' ideas and asserted that CLIL has three following prominent features:

(i)  the content is taught through English so that students can grasp the content and foster their second or foreign language at the same time;

(ii)  CLIL has altered sociolinguistic and political setting, being consistent from preschools through to higher education, which requires that adaptation is a must to be successfully applied. This is because CLIL makes use of a second or foreign language as a learning tool in a non-language subject and both aims (language and the subject) have a distinguished-but-joint role in CLIL implementation and there is no one-size-fit-all material, guideline or even policy for any particular teaching situation and condition.

(iii)  CLIL endorses the development of academic, cognitive, cultural, linguistic, social, and other learning skills (as cited in Mehisto et al., 2008). This is upheld by Pokrivcakova (2015) when she affirms that CLIL is an approach that not only integrates the content and a foreign/ second language but also creates a natural learning context to develop critical learning skills.

The above marking features are the ones teachers should note and apply in order to successfully implement CLIL as a teaching approach at their schools and classes.

### 2.3. Types of CLIL

There have been many CLIL programmes around the world and they vary from one another. It can be 45-minute (or even shorter) subject lessons or full immersion in curriculum in which the subjects may be taught by either subject specialists or by language teachers or co-work of both. Depending on the ways CLIL

lessons are delivered, Bently (2010) suggests three following typical models of CLIL:

(i) Soft CLIL: Topics from the curriculum are taught as part of a language course.

(ii) Modular CLIL: A subject such as Science or Art is taught for a certain number of hours using the target language.

(iii) Hard CLIL: Almost half the curriculum (or even above) is taught in the target language.

**Figure 1**

*Models of CLIL (Bently, 2010)*

| Soft CLIL | Types of CLIL | Time | Context |
|---|---|---|---|
| | Language-led | 45 minutes, once a week | Some curricular topics are taught during a language course. |
| | Subject-led (modular) | 15 hours during one term | Schools or teachers choose parts of the subject syllabus which they teach in the target language. |
| Hard CLIL | Subject-led (partial immersion) | About 50% of the curriculum | About half of the curriculum is taught in the target language. The content can reflect what is taught in the L1 curriculum or can be new content. |

Definitely, teaching content along with English is challenging for both subject and language teachers (Cambridge ESOL, 2011). For subject teachers, they need to transfer the subject knowledge clearly and correctly, provide students with vocabulary and structures used with the subject contents while using proper classroom language to explain, raise questions, and check their students' English progress. For language teachers, they have to discover the students' learning styles, find suitable teaching techniques, accurately answer the students' questions related to the learning material and simultaneously extend and enrich their students' language and skills. Importantly, both of these teachers are expected to constantly provide their students with help when CLIL is being employed.

### 2.4. The CLIL Framework

The CLIL framework was first developed in the 1990s by Coyle and some other researchers in order to promote recognition of CLIL components and

support teachers' teaching (Straková, 2013). The framework consists of 4Cs including content, communication, cognition and culture.

Content means concepts, facts, themes, etc. related to the subject. It, however, should not be viewed in isolation or just as the acquisition of knowledge, skills or understanding of a field, but as part of a cognitive development and intercultural perception process, in which the learners obtain, transfer and create their own subject knowledge along with developing learning skills (Coyle, 2015).

> Content refers to *"the subject matter, theme, and topic forming the basis for the program, defined by domain or discipline according to knowledge, concepts, and skills (e.g. Science, IT, Arts)."* (Coyle, 2006, p. 9)

Communication is another key aspect of CLIL. In CLIL, "language is used to learn, to communicate and to externalize and internalize understanding" (Coyle, 2015, p. 90). In that way, communication

embeds the language that is utilized to build up knowledge through interaction in the learning context. In this case, language is regarded as a learning vehicle, a tool of communication. In other words, using language to learn and learning to use language at the same time is a clear mode to reflect the concept of communication in CLIL. When describing communication in CLIL, Coyle et al. (2010) call for the attention to the language triptych with three vital dimensions consisting of language of learning (vocabulary and structures that are necessary to learn specific content knowledge), language for learning (language needed for performing successfully in a learning environment) and language through learning (new language students access for themselves when they use the language in order to support, enrich learning and apply what they have already leant).

> Communication means *"the language used to create and communicate meaning about the knowledge, concepts, and skills being learned (e.g. stating facts about the sun, giving instructions on using software, describing emotions in response to music)."* (Coyle, 2006, p. 10)

Cognition corresponds to the cognitive level of the learning in CLIL, which is based on the constructivist idea of knowledge. It signifies the progress of students' learning, thinking, critical and creative skills, in such a way that they are able to create their own knowledge, while progressively enhancing their cognitive capability in a momentous learning process.

> Cognition refers to *"the ways that we interact and engage with knowledge, experience, and the world around us; socially (e.g. social conventions for expressing oneself in the target language), pedagogically (e.g.*

> *classroom conventions for learning and classroom interaction), and/or according to discipline (e.g. scientific conventions for preparing reports to disseminate knowledge)."* (Coyle, 2006, p. 10)

Culture is an indispensable element of CLIL since it interlinks the three other Cs by setting the context for learning in CLIL. This element embeds two other Cs of CLIL, namely citizenship or community (Coyle, 2015). Developing culture in CLIL means developing plurilingual competence for students which includes fostering pluricultural awareness so as to prepare them to learn, communicate and work successfully in diverse contexts in the future.

> Culture means *"the ways that we interact and engage with knowledge, experience, and the world around us; socially (e.g. social conventions for expressing oneself in the target language), pedagogically (e.g. classroom conventions for learning and classroom interaction), and/or according to discipline (e.g. scientific conventions for preparing reports to disseminate knowledge)."* (Coyle, 2006, p. 11)

In short, the 4Cs Framework implies that the ful practice of all the four components ensures the success of a CLIL lesson in which students learn to use language appropriately while using language to learn effectively.

## 3. Methodology

### 3.1. Research Setting

In 2019, a CLIL training course was organized at a university in Hanoi. There were 40 high school teachers of English participating in this course as a part of their professional development. All of the teachers were key personnel at their schools. This was the first time they worked with the

concept of CLIL in their teaching. After the training course, these teachers were expected to apply CLIL in their teaching and, in the next few years, prepared for CLIL implementation in their workplace.

The training course was in blended learning mode with 90 online class hours and 90 face-to-face class hours. Studying online, the trainees were introduced to CLIL with its key terms, concepts and history. They discussed cases of implementing CLIL all over the world to find out the similarities and differences to their teaching contexts and draw lessons for their own situations. In on-site training part, the trainee-teachers practised how to plan a CLIL lesson, adapt materials, deliver the lessons and assess students during and after CLIL lessons.

After the training program, the teachers were expected to apply what they had learnt about CLIL to their teaching of English at their schools with the hope of changing their own way of delivering English lessons as well as raising the attitude of change for other teachers including both English teachers and subject teachers at their schools.

### 3.2. The Participants

Although there were 40 teachers participating in the aforementioned CLIL training program, four of them still worked with the old version of English textbooks and were too busy so only 36 teachers who were teaching students with the new English textbooks joined this study.

Among 36 teachers taking part in the study, three are male teachers aged from 38 to 43 while 33 female teachers are at the age of 26 to 42. All of the teachers have at least 4 years teaching English at high schools and are either heads, deputy heads or key teachers of the English divisions at their schools.

Obviously, in this particular context, with these language teachers, CLIL does not mean teaching another subject and English at the same time. The training program is just a trigger that could activate the teachers to explore and apply CLIL step by step in the future. The teachers are encouraged to apply "*soft CLIL*" in their teaching, reflect their teaching, observe the students learning and work with subject teachers as much as possible. The study, therefore, has been conducted to find out changes and challenges in aspects the teachers have been trained about CLIL regarding lesson planning, material development, lesson delivery and learning assessment.

### 3.3. Objectives of the Study

The study aims at finding out the changes made by the teachers after the CLIL training program and the challenges coming upon to them during the CLIL trial at their schools.

### 3.4. Research Questions

The study seeks to answer the following research questions:
- What changes have the teachers made after the CLIL training program?
- What are the challenges encountered by the teachers during their application of CLIL at their schools?

### 3.5. Research Method

The research has been mainly conducted under the light of qualitative and quantitative method. Data from questionnaires and interviews have been collected and analyzed to find out answers for the research questions.

### 3.6. Data Collection Instruments

In this study, a questionnaire has been designed as the main instrument to find

out the teachers' changes and challenges in the CLIL implementation. Apart from some questions related to the participants' demographic information, the main part of the questionnaire with 48 statements seeks for information about teachers' changes in lesson planning, material adaptation and development, lesson delivery and assessment as well as challenges they encountered during the CLIL implementation. The questionnaire uses Likert scale ranging from one to five, moving from strongly disagree to strongly agree respectively and ends with two open-ended questions at which the participants could add more information about their changes and challenges, give details or more explanations of what they have stated in the above 48 statements.

The researcher also conducts in-depth interviews with teachers to clarify their opinions on the stated changes and challenges. The results found are believed to support data collected from the questionnaire.

## 4. Findings and Discussion

### 4.1. Demographic Information

**Table 4.1**

*Age*

|  |  | Frequency | Percent | Valid percent | Cumulative percent |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Valid | below 30 | 1 | 2.8 | 2.8 | 2.8 |
|  | 31-35 | 13 | 36.1 | 36.1 | 38.9 |
|  | 35-40 | 14 | 38.9 | 38.9 | 77.8 |
|  | above 40 | 8 | 22.2 | 22.2 | 100.0 |
|  | Total | 36 | 100.0 | 100.0 |  |

**Table 4.2**

*Teaching Experience*

|  |  | Frequency | Percent | Valid percent | Cumulative percent |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Valid | below 5 years | 1 | 2.8 | 2.8 | 2.8 |
|  | 6-10 years | 2 | 5.6 | 5.6 | 8.4 |
|  | 11-15 years | 14 | 38.8 | 38.8 | 47.2 |
|  | 16-20 years | 17 | 47.2 | 47.2 | 94.4 |
|  | above 20 years | 2 | 5.6 | 5.6 | 100.0 |
|  | Total | 36 | 100.0 | 100.0 |  |

As can be seen from Table 4.1, three fourth of the teachers are from 31 to 40 years old while 22.2 percent of them are in their early forties (aged 41 - 43) and there is only one teacher (aged 26) who is at the initial stage of the teaching career. A majority of the teachers have taught English from 11-20 years (86%) while two teachers have six to ten years teaching experience and another two have more than 20 years teaching English (as shown in Table 4.2).

**Table 4.3**

*Teaching Location*

|  |  | Frequency | Percent | Valid percent | Cumulative percent |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Valid | rural | 13 | 36.1 | 36.1 | 36.1 |
|  | suburb | 9 | 25.0 | 25.0 | 61.1 |
|  | urban | 14 | 38.9 | 38.9 | 100.0 |
|  | Total | 36 | 100.0 | 100.0 |  |

The numbers of participants teaching English in rural and urban districts are relatively the same (36.1% and 38.9% respectively) while the number of teachers from suburb is slightly lower, accounting for 25 percent.

### 4.2. Teachers' Changes in CLIL Implementation

**Table 4.4**

*Changes in Lesson Planning*

| Statements | N | Minimum | Maximum | Mean | Std. Deviation |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1  I state the learning outcomes clearly. | 36 | 3 | 5 | 4.06 | .333 |
| 2  I start planning the lessons from language base. | 36 | 3 | 5 | 4.08 | .439 |
| 3  I choose content that allows for learning to be active. | 36 | 3 | 5 | 4.06 | .333 |
| 4  I differentiate content-obligatory and content-compatible language. | 36 | 3 | 5 | 4.06 | .333 |
| 5  I work with subject teachers. | 36 | 2 | 5 | 3.36 | 1.018 |
| 6  My lesson adds at least 2 Cs. | 36 | 4 | 5 | 4.08 | .280 |
| 7  My lesson have a good balance of content and language. | 36 | 2 | 5 | 3.31 | .980 |
| Valid N (listwise) | 36 |  |  |  |  |

*Note.* 1 strongly disagree, 2 disagree, 3 neutral, 4 agree, 5 strongly agree.

In the first, third, fourth and sixth statements, the means are from 4.06 to 4.08. It means that the majority of the teachers agree that they state the learning outcomes clearly, choose the content that allows learning to be active, differentiate content-obligatory and content-compatible language and add at least 2 Cs in each lesson. The means of statements numbered 5 and 7 are 3.36 and 3.31 respectively. Accordingly, most of the teachers are neutral as to whether they work with subject teachers or not, and they are not sure about the good balance of content and language in their lessons. The mean of the second statement is 4.08, which indicates a tendency of teachers to start planning their lessons from language base. In the interviews, teachers share that they are aware of the fact that in preparing a CLIL lesson, they should start from the content but in their cases they cannot follow this CLIL guideline as their lessons are just a part of the whole curriculum and what they prepare and teach should aim at achieving objectives of English subject not the content subjects.

**Table 4.5**

*Changes in Material Development and Adaptation*

| | Statements | N | Minimum | Maximum | Mean | Std. Deviation |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 8 | I make changes on materials taken from CLIL resources before using in my class. | 36 | 2 | 5 | 3.86 | .593 |
| 9 | I use more videos in my lessons. | 36 | 2 | 5 | 3.86 | .593 |
| 10 | I use graphic organisers to support understanding of input. | 36 | 2 | 5 | 3.86 | .593 |
| 11 | I use more relia in my lessons. | 36 | 2 | 5 | 3.86 | .593 |
| 12 | I create my own CLIL materials (worksheets, presentations) in English to be used in class. | 36 | 2 | 5 | 3.08 | .874 |
| 13 | I provide different sorts of input to help understanding. | 36 | 3 | 5 | 4.06 | .475 |
| | Valid N (listwise) | 36 | | | | |

Most of the statements in Table 4.5 show great agreement of teachers on material development and adaptation toward the CLIL approach with means ranging from 3.86 to 4.06. Correspondingly, they agree that they make changes on materials taken from CLIL resources before using in their class, use more videos, graphic organisers, relia from different sorts of input to support understanding. Only statement numbered 12 shows the central tendency of teachers deciding that they are neutral as to whether they create their own CLIL materials or not. In the in-depth interviews, teachers explain that they usually take materials from CLIL resources on the Internet and make changes before using them. In many cases, after the altering process, the new versions of teaching materials are totally different from the original ones. They mostly take advantage of terms from the original materials and design the new tasks to match their lesson objectives.

**Table 4.6**

*Changes in Lesson Delivery*

| | Statements | N | Minimum | Maximum | Mean | Std. Deviation |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 14 | I usually set the classroom up (seating, posters, resources) to support communication. | 36 | 3 | 5 | 4.03 | .446 |
| 15 | In my lessons, language is a vehicle to do things (role plays/tasks etc.) | 36 | 3 | 5 | 4.03 | .446 |
| 16 | I review the key vocabulary and key content concepts. | 36 | 3 | 5 | 4.03 | .446 |
| 17 | I allow students to discuss or work on content concepts in their mother tongue. | 36 | 2 | 5 | 3.53 | .910 |
| 18 | I provide learners with key terms and structures on the CLIL topic. | 36 | 3 | 5 | 4.03 | .446 |

| | | N | Minimum | Maximum | Mean | Std. Deviation |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 19 | I formulate different questions to promote lower-order and higher-order thinking skills. | 36 | 3 | 5 | 4.03 | .446 |
| 20 | I use clear instructions for assignments and activities. | 36 | 3 | 5 | 4.03 | .446 |
| 21 | I check the understanding of task instructions. | 36 | 3 | 5 | 4.03 | .446 |
| 22 | I use different types of activities. | 36 | 3 | 5 | 4.03 | .446 |
| 23 | I use a range of thinking skills. | 36 | 3 | 5 | 4.03 | .446 |
| 24 | I use task-based learning. | 36 | 3 | 5 | 4.19 | .577 |
| 25 | I reduce teacher's talking time and increase student's talking time. | 36 | 3 | 5 | 4.08 | .368 |
| 26 | I assign the students different roles. | 36 | 3 | 5 | 4.22 | .540 |
| 27 | I gradually hold back my help to the students. | 36 | 3 | 5 | 4.06 | .333 |
| 28 | I create a supportive and stress-free atmosphere. | 36 | 4 | 5 | 4.08 | .280 |
| 29 | I get the students collaborate on activities and share experiences. | 36 | 4 | 5 | 4.08 | .280 |
| 30 | I usually support students in carrying out activities and help them to solve problems. | 36 | 3 | 5 | 4.06 | .333 |
| | Valid N (listwise) | 36 | | | | |

Table 4.6 reveals that all of the statements have means of at least 3.53. This shows great agreement of teachers on changes in lesson delivery toward CLIL including setting up the learning environment, delivering content and language, implementing tasks, helping the students, etc. This result also corresponds with the interview in which teachers affirm that they have tried their best to apply what they have learnt during the CLIL course to create a sense of CLIL in their lessons and motivate their students, who love learning science and find English a hard subject.

**Table 4.7**

*Changes in Assessment*

| | Statements | N | Minimum | Maximum | Mean | Std. Deviation |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 31 | I assess the students' learning basing on the outcomes. | 36 | 3 | 5 | 4.06 | .333 |
| 32 | I usually use high-order questions to check if the students understand what has been taught. | 36 | 3 | 5 | 4.03 | .291 |
| 33 | I assess students through the tasks that require them to understand taught knowledge or skills to complete. | 36 | 3 | 5 | 4.03 | .446 |
| 34 | I inform students about the objective of each lesson and ask them to tell me if they can achieve the objectives at the end of the lesson. | 36 | 3 | 5 | 4.06 | .333 |
| 35 | I provide constructive feedback. | 36 | 4 | 5 | 4.19 | .401 |

| | | N | Minimum | Maximum | Mean | Std. Deviation |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 36 | I let students comment on their friends' work. | 36 | 4 | 5 | 4.17 | .378 |
| | Valid N (listwise) | 36 | | | | |

All statements in Table 4.7 have means from 4.03 to 4.19 which hints the teachers agreement on assessing activities as assessing the students' learning basing on the outcomes, using high-order questions to check if the students understand what has been taught, assessing students through the tasks that require them to understand taught knowledge or skills to complete, informing students about the objectives of each lesson and ask them to assess if they can achieve the objectives at the end of the lesson, providing constructive feedbacks and let students comment on their friends' work. Among them, the last two statements have a slightly higher level of agreement than the others. In the interviews, teachers affirm that they now assess their students more during their lessons than they used to.

### *4.3. Teachers' Challenges in CLIL Implementation*

**Table 4.8**

*Teachers' Challenges in CLIL Implementation*

| | Statements | N | Minimum | Maximum | Mean | Std. Deviation |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 37 | I have to read a lot to gain knowledge about CLIL. | 36 | 4 | 5 | 4.17 | .378 |
| 38 | I sometimes get lost. | 36 | 3 | 5 | 4.08 | .554 |
| 39 | Integrating content in an English lesson takes time. | 36 | 4 | 5 | 4.22 | .422 |
| 40 | My students find it hard to learn content and language at the same time. | 36 | 2 | 5 | 4.06 | .630 |
| 41 | My students like learning other subjects rather than English. | 36 | 4 | 5 | 4.19 | .401 |
| 42 | My students are willing to prepare for the lessons. | 36 | 2 | 5 | 3.97 | .810 |
| 43 | Some of my students need more help than the others. | 36 | 3 | 5 | 4.11 | .523 |
| 44 | Some subject teachers are unwilling to collaborate. | 36 | 3 | 5 | 4.11 | .523 |
| 45 | I am overwhelmed with workload. | 36 | 4 | 5 | 4.39 | .494 |
| 46 | I cannot work much with CLIL as I wish because I have to cover the lessons as stated in the syllabus. | 36 | 3 | 5 | 4.11 | .523 |
| 47 | I do not have enough support from the school managers. | 36 | 4 | 5 | 4.28 | .454 |
| 48 | I can only assess "content" during the lessons. | 36 | 3 | 5 | 4.11 | .523 |
| | Valid N (listwise) | 36 | | | | |

In terms of challenges encountered during the CLIL implementation, teachers show a high level of agreement in Table 4.8 with the lowest mean of 3.97 for statement 42 (students are willing to prepare for the lessons) and the highest mean of 4.39 for statement 45 (I am overwhelmed with workload), while means of other statements are between 3.97 and 4.49 range. None of the participants answer the open-ended question

requiring them to add more challenges to the list.

The interview shows that the teachers encounter difficulties in enriching themselves with knowledge of CLIL, helping the students, struggling with their limited time amount and workload with reasonable support from authorities and managers.

*"I am working in a rural area. My students don't like learning English because they think this subject is very hard to learn and takes time. They argue that if they spend the same amount of time learning the subjects, they can get good marks in Maths, Physics, Geography, etc. but they still get disappointed results in English. In addition, some students study English more slowly than others even though they are smart in other subjects. I have to spend more time working with them."* (Teacher T12)

*"At my school, we have a lot of tests and we usually use multiple choice tests to save time. They are easy to mark and compile as we can download the tests from the Internet and edit them to use. But now when applying more assessment techniques in CLIL I see that I cannot test CLIL in 45- or 60-minutes tests because they are designed to be conducted for all classes of the same grade at my school so I can only assess it during my lessons."* (Teacher T27)

*"I know that integrating content into my lessons can help raise my students' interest but for most of the cases I do not have enough time to prepare a good lesson as I expected. I have to teach 20 lessons for students of grade 10 and 11 a week. Also, I have to design, review and mark the tests, monitor the class in which I am the master teacher, work with parents and other teachers, join the school meetings and other professional development activities, etc. In short, I want to apply CLIL but I just can try to apply it as much as possible because it takes very, very much time to prepare and teach a lesson in this approach while I have too many other tasks to do and I have to follow the syllabus and curriculum."* (Teacher T23)

The above statement is well backed up by another teacher's sharing that at her school, the teachers are encouraged to apply new things but accompanied with a warning that they are free to apply CLIL approach providing that their application does not interfere with the school curriculum and assessment plan.

The teachers also find preparing CLIL lessons challenging in respect of working with subject teachers. They disclose that not many subject teachers are willing to help. Some subject teachers are either too busy or find cooperating with English teachers a burden as they are not good or even "blind" in English. In some schools, when subject teachers are not happy to cooperate and when the teachers find the subject knowledge too difficult to obtain, the teachers needed to ask for help from the principal but for most of the time, the principal could do nothing as there is no rule that allows him/her to require the subject teachers to help the language teachers. The trainee-teachers also add that only young subject teachers who can use some English and who wish to vary and improve their teaching are willing to support them.

### 4.4. Discussion

The participants' demographic information shows a big advantage for CLIL implementation at schools as the majority of the teachers have taught English for 11-20

years and are at the age of 35-45, the ages that have a big transition on the career ladder, moving from the stage of gaining acceptance from peers, developing and improving skills to the stage of demonstrating commitment and solidifying position at work. By remaining dedicated to their teaching job, teachers can receive greater responsibility as well as the resulting rewards and recognition. When they are willing and eager to apply CLIL, even the softest type, they can transfer their CLIL knowledge and ambitions to their peers and at the same time triggering the hope of change at their students, their colleagues and the manager in terms of motivating students, building up collaboration, develop thinking skills, etc.

In respect of lesson planning, the means of statements numbered 1, 3, 4 and 6 indicate a big change of teachers in defining clear learning outcomes, selecting CLIL materials that promote active learning, separating content-obligatory language from content-compatible language and adding as many Cs into the lessons as possible. They, to some extent, have made use of Coyle's 4Cs framework, which has initially been proposed to support teachers in lesson planning. As a matter of fact, these changes are meaningful regarding the fact that teachers still have to strictly follow the language syllabus and plan their lessons from language base instead of content base as expected in normal CLIL lessons. This situation can be explained with the interview results in which the teachers confirm that they can only add some "CLIL factors" not the "CLIL features" to their classes since their lessons, in their true nature, are much slanted to language. In the very first stage of CLIL implementation, this is counted as a good signal for enhancing teachers' perception and awareness.

From the findings of teachers' changes in material development and adaptation, it can be interpreted that teachers are well aware of the role of materials in delivering CLIL lessons. The teachers also make great effort on changing the materials to match the lesson objectives as well as adding multimedia, relia and other interesting resources to motivate their students and make their lessons more attractive. In their many years of teaching, these teachers have been familiar with preparing, adapting and even developing their own materials but working with CLIL materials is not an easy task for such language teachers like them. Again, this research is just a very starting step which aims at investigating the application of "soft CLIL" while the application of "hard CLIL" needs long-term preparation and a backup legal system. The teachers' efforts, therefore, should be noted as a significant trigger for CLIL implementation in the future.

In the matter of lesson delivery, the teachers have demonstrated a dramatic change when all-except-one of the teachers agree on changing aspects listed in statements numbered 14 to 30 (Mean = 4.03 to 4.22). The total agreement of the teachers on the lesson indicates that they understand and well maintain what is called "core features" of a CLIL lesson proposed by Mehisto et al. (2008) including the lesson's multiple focuses, safe and enriching learning environment, authenticity, active learning and scaffolding. The teachers are not only aware of CLIL teaching strategies and techniques but also can apply some of them in their classes. They are true when they believe that content knowledge, to some extent, can motivate their students who prefer learning Science to English. Only statement 17 has mean of 3.53 which suggests that a majority of the teachers agree that they allow students to discuss or work on content concepts in their mother tongue. This mean, however, is still a bit slanted to the central tendency (Mean = 3.4). This can be rationalized by the teachers' teaching

habit in English, namely asking the students to use as much English in their lessons as possible. In reality, the use of mother tongue in CLIL is tolerated and acceptable according to Papaja & Wysocka-Narewska (2020).

With regard to assessing the lessons, all of the teachers acknowledge the contribution of CLIL to their changes. Previously, as English teachers, they use such tests as 15-minute, 30-minute, 45-minute, 60-minute tests to assess the students. These tests mostly contain multiple choice items. Under the light of CLIL, they now look at the objectives of the lessons, the outcomes of each semester and assess the students through high order questions, tasks that require high thinking skills, positive comments and feedback and let the students help and correct one another to mirror the objectives and outcomes. The teachers' changes from more summative assessment and achievement tests to more formative assessment with more focus on motivating students through positive feedback, fostering learner's autonomy through self-assessment and creating a collaborative learning environment through peer assessment. These changes well reflect the positive fact that in their "CLIL lessons", the teachers employ all types including assessment of learning, assessment for learning and assessment as learning but they concentrate more on the two latter in assessing CLIL. This is understandable as what the teachers have applied reflect Sadler (1989) and Cohen (1994)'s opinions for formative assessment and assessment as and for learning. Accordingly, they argue that these forms of assessment are for both teachers and learners. As for teachers, through formative activities alongside classroom tasks, they could better evaluate their students' skills and competences. As for students, in receiving authentically evaluative experience, they could identify work of

high quality and evaluate their own progress towards it. These ways of assessment surely have positive washback on bringing changes to students' learning process and teachers' teaching methods.

Finally, as can be seen from data collected, all of the teachers agree that changes they encounter during the CLIL implementation centering around critical points related to teachers' own issues (subject knowledge, time constraint and workload), the students' motivation and perception and legal support from line agencies. All of the teachers admit that preparing a CLIL lesson is time-consuming and effort-taking while they, at the same time, are suffering from the current workload at their schools. Unfortunately, as there is not much help and many policies to support teachers who wish to apply CLIL in their teaching, the teachers have to handle everything on their own in current situations. Obviously, the teachers' efforts should be appreciated by their school managers and also higher level managers if the managers wish to create a more active and effective teaching environment at their schools, their districts or their cities.

## 5. Conclusion

The study was conducted to investigate the trainee-teachers' changes and challenges in CLIL implementation after a CLIL training program. The findings show that teachers have made promising changes in lesson planning, material development, lesson delivery and assessment. These significant changes indicate that the teachers are well aware of CLIL key concepts, elements and principles and have tried their best to integrate content, bring the 4Cs and the sense of CLIL to their classes. The challenges they have encountered during the CLIL implementation should be taken into consideration as the success of a CLIL program needs systematic supports and

collaboration of all the managing and operating bodies related to the program including not only the teachers themselves but also the authorities, the parents, the students, the experts and other entities of the whole society. With more research and trial programs to be carried out in Vietnam, we do hope that the application of CLIL will be feasible in our country in the future.

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# NHỮNG THAY ĐỔI VÀ THÁCH THỨC GIÁO VIÊN GẶP PHẢI KHI TRIỂN KHAI DẠY HỌC TIẾNG ANH TÍCH HỢP NỘI DUNG CHUYÊN NGÀNH***

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**Tóm tắt:** Nghiên cứu này được thực hiện nhằm mục đích tìm hiểu những thay đổi và thách thức giáo viên bậc trung học phổ thông gặp phải trong quá trình triển khai dạy học tiếng Anh tích hợp nội dung chuyên ngành. Phiếu khảo sát và phỏng vấn sâu là hai công cụ được chọn để thu thập dữ liệu nghiên cứu cho đề tài. Kết quả nghiên cứu cho thấy giáo viên đã có những thay đổi đáng khích lệ trong việc soạn giáo án, phát triển tài liệu giảng dạy, sử dụng các chiến lược, kĩ thuật giảng dạy và đánh giá học sinh theo đường hướng dạy học tích hợp ngoại ngữ và nội dung chuyên ngành (CLIL). Những thách thức mà giáo viên gặp phải bao gồm kiến thức chuyên ngành, thời gian hạn hẹp, khối lượng công việc nhiều, động lực học của học sinh và sự thiếu vắng các chính sách hỗ trợ việc giảng dạy theo đường hướng CLIL. Kết quả nghiên cứu có thể là nguồn thông tin tham khảo cho công tác triển khai việc dạy học theo đường hướng tích hợp ngoại ngữ và nội dung chuyên ngành ở nước ta sau này.

*Từ khóa:* CLIL, ngoại ngữ, nội dung chuyên ngành, dạy học tích hợp

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# VALIDATION OF A TOOL TO MEASURE THE LEVEL OF SCHOOL-UNIVERSITY PARTNERSHIP

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**Abstract:** This study aims at developing and validating an audit tool that could be used to assess school-university partnerships. Specifically, the study followed four steps of (i) evaluating and modifying contents and items of the original tool, (ii) qualitatively assessing content validity of the revised scale basing on expert ratings, and revising the scale accordingly, (iii) conducting cognitive interviews with potential participants, and making further revision, and (iv) quantitatively evaluating the validity and reliability of the audit tool based on data collected from 463 participants, and finalizing the tool. In the end, an audit tool consisting of 36 questions that fit into two scales (i.e., *"Shared goals and values"* and *"Partnership operations and management"*) was confirmed. The study also discussed potential uses of the tool for *both currently working partnerships* and *newly formed partnerships*; and *at different levels*.

*Keywords:* school university partnership, level of partnership, validation

## Introduction

Teacher education plays a critical role in enhancing the quality of future teachers. However, the quality of teacher education in the world in general and in Vietnam in particular has raised deep concerns among researchers. Most of the recent reviews of initial teacher education (ITE) programs listed the disconnection between the university and school as a significant issue challenging ITE. In order to improve the quality of teacher education, it has been suggested that *school-university partnerships (SUPs)* should be the key (Allen, 2013; Bernay et al., 2020; Burroughs et al., 2022; Maheady et al., 2019; Moss, 2008; Willis et al., 2018).

The benefits of school-university partnerships for supporting pre-service teachers and involved parties are well documented, and factors that contribute to an effective partnership are also proposed in many studies (e.g., Behringer et al., 2018; Maheady et al., 2019; Wanni et al., 2010). However, institutions in the implementation and evaluation process may have a difficult time assessing where they are and what can be done to strengthen their connections with schools. A new partnership might also experience great challenges because an assessment instrument is not in place to guide its planning and implementation. Therefore, the creation of an evaluation tool that aids institutions in determining the degree of school-university partnerships is required. This is especially essential in the context of Vietnam where the need of

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establishing connections between pedagogical institutions and schools is currently being emphasized by the Ministry of Education and Training of Vietnam. A number of recent policy documents requiring close partnership between and among institutions have been put in place. For instance, Dispatch no. 1201 (MOET, 2020a) stresses the importance of partnership between pedagogical universities, educational management institutes and schools to organize professional development activities for in-service teachers in the Enhancing Teacher Education Program (ETEP). Dispatch no. 3089 (MOET, 2020b), on the other hand, requires close collaboration between schools and higher education institutions, research institutes and businesses to organize STEM educational activities for students. While collaboration is desired by local authorities to improve educational experiences for teachers and students, the development of an evaluation instrument that enables the identification of areas for improvement in a school-university partnership becomes increasingly crucial.

We were unable to locate a national 'tailor-made' tool for evaluating partnership experiences in the context of Vietnam as well as identify a validated tool in the foreign educational contexts. Thus, the purpose of this study was to create a measurement tool that is both valid and reliable for performing ongoing evaluations of school-university partnerships in Vietnam and in other settings.

## Literature Review

### Conceptualizing School - University Partnership

The term 'partnership' commonly denotes notions of sustained relationship, equality, respect, reciprocity and ownership (Gutiérrez, 2008). It is often considered synonymous with words like *association,* *collaboration, participation, joint decision making* and *long-term relationship* (Oxford English Dictionary - OED, 2011). Yet, there exists a lack of clarity surrounding the precise definition of the term, and the underlying principles of a partnership (Bailey & Dolan, 2011; Maheady et al., 2019).

In early literature on partnerships, attempts were made to distinguish between '*partnership*' and related concepts, such as 'collaboration'. Carnwell and Carson (2005), for example, believe that 'partnership' refers to "who we are", whereas '*collaboration*' is more about "what we do". According to them, partnership is the highest level of working relationship between different people and organizations. In other words, when individuals get more involved, they would start collaborating with each other and through collaboration, a stronger sense of involvement would be secured. Once sufficient trust, respect and willingness could be gained on each individual party's side, partnership would develop.

> In the context of higher education cooperation, 'partnership' has been defined as: …a dynamic collaborative process between educational institutions that brings mutual though not necessarily symmetrical benefits to the parties engaged in the partnership. (Wanni et al., 2010, p. 18)

When viewed in this light, partnership cannot be forced; rather, it must be developed within relationships where the collaborative partners are prepared to discuss issues of trust, equality, and mutual authority while also being willing to share differences, challenge the traditional forms of authority they typically attribute to their roles and relationships, and search for more inclusive solutions to their problems.

**Conditions for Effective School-University Partnership**

Despite the diverse ways in which a partnership could be defined, there are certain characteristics that are shared across different definitions. Much of the recent literature on successful partnerships points to a common set of conditions which comprise "the importance of shared leadership, shared goals, development of social and intellectual skills needed for collaborative work, and adequate time" (Arhar et al., 2013, p. 219). The following list pre-requisites for success is noted: the presence of an organizational structure, a core group of people actually working on the collaboration, a commitment of significant amounts of time and energy, flexibility, an understanding of how 'the other organization' works, determination to learn from inevitable conflicts and a desire to work together on something, and a shared sense of trust and pride in the outcomes of the collaboration. There are a number of features recurring across previous research, which will be elaborated below:

*1. Shared Values and Vision*

Smooth collaboration may be challenging due to the fundamentally different underlying cultural assumptions of schools and universities, which frequently referr to differences in organizational cultures. Research, academic independence, academic integrity, and high academic standards are traditionally valued by universities, whereas schools emphasize the practical issues (Wasonga & Wanzare, 2011). This necessitates a change in mindset from all involved to create shared values and vision. To enable a shared understanding of these values, the institutional missions must be made clear early in the process, and the engaged members must understand why they are there and what they value (Wasonga & Wanzare, 2011).

*2. Shared Goals and Objectives*

An effective partnership also relies on shared goals and objectives between two parties. Researchers (e.g., Arhar et al., 2013; Wasonga & Wanzare, 2011) have noted that the potential conflict in school-university collaboration lie in the conflicts in purposes and goals. This may be due to the lack of communication before the partnership; thus, a successful one requires partners to work together towards common goals and objectives. As goals and objectives are set out to achieve during the partnership, Wasonga and Wanzare (2011) warn that collaborators need to have realistic expectations.

*3. Factors Affecting the Operational Processes*

**Operational Structures**

From a process perspective, Wasonga and Wanzare (2011) argue that collaborative partners should create an organizational framework that directs the collaboration process. This outlines a procedure for making decisions, involving the appropriate people, getting the right approvals for action when necessary, and conducting required follow-up. Similarly, Ansari and Phillipps (2004) are of the view that partnerships require active participation of the stakeholders in the sharing of ideas, experiences, skills, as well as the presence of joint decision-making and action mechanisms.

**Resources**

Resources are needed to enable productive collaboration between universities and schools. Resources in this context include money, time, space, as well as expert advice and knowledge (as can be seen in Green et al., 2020). Everyone involved often has to commit a lot of time and share their own expertise and knowledge. Funding, on the other hand, whether offered by the

school, the institution, or a third party, can be provided to participants in the partnership so that they can take the opportunity to achieve their goals.

*4. Ways to Minimize Barriers in School-University Partnership*

Pitfalls of SUPs have been identified in the literature (see Green et al., 2020) and accordingly, a number of suggestions have been documented in previous studies on ways to overcome these problems. First, there is a need to build mutual respect, trust and a sense of being valued so that relationships can develop. "Sharing common understandings and values is important, as is acknowledging and respecting differences in perspectives" (McLaughlin & Black-Hawkins, 2004, p. 279). In this process, partners are required to be open and clear about their expectations of and their roles in the relationship (Wanni et al., 2010). In fact, it is possible to characterize collaboration as a process in which members of various institutions constantly negotiate the power dynamics necessary for goal-setting and implementation. Institutions need to take efforts in finding ways to cooperate (despite the possible differences in tasks, responsibilities and approaches). In a study on school-university partnerships, Wanni et al. (2010) also found that for partnerships to be mutually beneficial to all parties involved, it is particularly important that those in higher education learn to act in different ways, "to converse in new languages and to listen to different voices" (Day, 1991, p. 69). Additionally, conflicts frequently arise during the actual collaboration process, such as those related to personnel selection, so they must be resolved within the collaboration itself (Wasonga & Wanzare, 2011). Thus, strong communication between and among partners is crucial in order to maximize transparency both within and outside of the partnership (Brandstetter et al., 2006).

**Assessing School - University Partnership**

Together with the growth of partnerships, there is also increasing need for tools that may allow stakeholders to review, evaluate the effectiveness of partnership activities, as well as plan for future ones. However, to date, more attempt have been paid to (i) mapping current partnerships against some checklists of qualities of successful partnerships (as having been reviewed in the previous section; Adams et al., 2004; Magee, 2003) or (ii) measuring the impacts of partnership activities on different stakeholders (e.g., Ng & Chan, 2012). The checklists may vary according to different disciplines and contexts. However, most existing assessments of school-university partnership, including assessment of its impacts on different stakeholders tend to be restricted to analysis of a limited number of successful cases (Behringer et al., 2018; Smith et al., 2021). More systematic assessments of SUPs at a larger scale appear to be extremely rare. Development of a tool that would allow for more systematic evaluation of school-university partnership in teacher education is thus of pressing need. The conceptualization of partnership in this study and the review of conditions for effective partnerships between schools and universities in the previous section lay the foundation for the development and validation of an assessment tool for measuring school-university partnership level.

**Methods**

In order to develop the school-university partnership level (SUP_level) questionnaire, we followed the two phases of (i) instrument design/ modification and (ii) instrument validation, as suggested by Stein et al. (2007) and Armstrong et al. (2005). Specifically, in the *design/ modification* phase, attempts were made to specify key contents and domains in the

survey. The survey after being modified was subject to a rigorous process of *validation* including (i) qualitative content validation (expert judgement); (ii) cognitive interviews and (iii) quantitative factor analysis. The four steps including both modification and evaluation work will be further clarified in the sections that follow.

**Steps of the Development and Validation Process**

In this section, the four specific steps in the designing phase will be further elaborated and the outcomes from each stage will be briefly reported.

***Step One: Survey Content and Domain Specification***

In developing the SUP_level questionnaire, priority was given to looking for measurements that are already in use. Our search for relevant scales to measure school-university partnership suggested a number of scales namely: Afsana's (2009)

*Partnership Assessment Toolkit*, Henrick et al.'s (2017) *Framework for Assessing Research-Practice Partnerships*, Vestergaard et al.'s (2021) *Partnerships for development framework*. However, these scales and frameworks are either designed for use in another discipline (e.g., health, poverty management research) or target research-practice partnerships (i.e., Henrick et al., 2017) rather than teacher education. The ***Quality Partnerships in Professional Experience (QPiPEx) Audit Tool*** (Walker et al., 2019) was one rare instrument that was specifically designed to evaluate school-university partnership in teacher education. The underlying constructs it measures also appeared to align with our conceptualization of a SUP. Walker et al.'s (2019) audit tool was thus selected to be the starting point for the current study. The tool consists of four main sections, each targeting one aspect of the partnership between schools and universities. Table 1 below provides a brief summary of the tool.

**Table 1**

*Original Structure of the QPiPEx Audit Tool*

| Section 1: Aligned values and vision | 9 items | 5 point Likert scale (1= strongly disagree → 5= strongly agree) |
|---|---|---|
| Section 2: Shared goals and objectives | 9 items | 5 point Likert scale (1= strongly disagree → 5= strongly agree) |
| Section 3: Operational processes and procedures | 9 items | 5 point Likert scale (1= strongly disagree → 5= strongly agree) |
| Section 4: Minimizing barriers to professional experience partnerships | 9 items | 5 point Likert scale (1= strongly disagree → 5= strongly agree) |
| Total | 36 items | |

Although the scale matches with our conceptualisation of a SUP in our context, as of March 2022, we could not find any information about the validity and reliability of the scale yet. Therefore, attempts were made in this study to refine and validate the scale.

To refine the questionnaire, the research team worked together to evaluate

the items and domains in the original tool for usefulness, clarity, and redundancy. Redundant items were eliminated; ambiguous ones were reworded, double-barreled items (i.e., items that touched upon more than one issue) were rewritten to avoid any possible confusion. Below is an example of the questionnaire evaluation and revision process:

**Table 2**

*Examples of Questionnaire Evaluation and Revision*

| Original item | Comments | Revised version |
|---|---|---|
| 1.0 There is a well-defined and long-term vision for the Professional Experience partnership and both organizations are commited to ensuring its success. | - Double-barelled (2 main ideas in a statement.) | - There is a well-defined and long-term vision for the Professional Experience partnership.<br>- We are committed to ensuring success of the partnership. |
| 1.4 There is an appreciation of the diverse and dynamic nature of the respective partners organizations and that the management of change is constant. | - Double-barelled<br>- "Management of change" belongs to process and procedure. | - We appreciate the diverse and dynamic nature of the respective partners. |

The revised version was then translated into Vietnamese through a translation-back translation process before being sent to experts for content validity assessment in the next step.

### Step Two: Qualitative Content Validation

One of the important qualities of a good survey is that it needs to measure what it is supposed to measure (Collins, 2003; Saw & Ng, 2001). In other words, *content validity* needs to be ensured. Of the multiple methods available for testing *content validity*, the Index of Content Validity (CVI) and the Content Validity Ratio (CVR) were selected for use in the current study because of their ease of computing, high comprehensibility, and their abilities to provide information about both item and scale (Armstrong et al., 2005; Polit et al., 2007).

#### The Index of Content Validity (CVI)

*Item CVI (I-CVI)* is usually calculated to evaluate the relevance of individual items in the scale. The score could be calculated by dividing the number of experts who rate an item as "very relevant" by the total number of experts (Zamanzadeh et al., 2015). The result of the calculation is a number between 0 and 1. It has been suggested that items with I-CVI > 0.79 are considered relevant, whereas those between 0.70 and 0.79 will need to be revised; and if the value is below 0.70 the item should be eliminated (Zamanzadeh et al., 2015).

*Scale CVI (S-CVI),* on the other hand, reflects the content validity of the whole scale. S-CVI could be conceptualized as either *Universal Agreement among experts (S-CVI/UA)* or the *Average item quality (S-CVI/ Ave;* Zamanzadeh et al., 2015). S-CVI/UA could be computed by adding all items with I-CVI equal to 1 divided by the total number of items, while S-CVI/Ave could be attained by taking the sum of the I-CVIs divided by the total number of items (Zamanzadeh et al., 2015). If a scale has an S-CVI/UA ≥ 0.8 and an S-CVI/Ave ≥ 0.9, it can be considered having excellent content validity (Shi et al., 2012). In this study both S-CVI/UA and S-CVI/Ave were calculated.

#### The Content Validity Ratio (CVR)

The Content Validity Ratio (CVR) measures the essentiality of an item (Yamada et al., 2010). The formulation for the CVR is CVR = (Ne – N/2)/ (N/2), with Ne being the number of experts rating an item as "essential" and N being the total number of experts (Zamanzadeh et al., 2015). The CVR score may take any values between 1 and −1, with a high absolute score indicating higher level of agreement among experts (Zamanzadeh et al., 2015).

In order to evaluate the content

validity of the *SUP_level questionnaire*, first of all, a group of experts were identified. These were expected to be professionals who (i) were working in a teacher-education institution and (ii) had been involved in school-university cooperation activities. Invitation letters were sent to 10 potential experts and in the end the research received support from five, which according to Armstrong et al. (2015) is a fair number. As soon as agreement to be an expert rater was received, a package containing (i) a cover letter, (ii) the SUP_level questionnaire, and (iii) the content validity survey (together with instructions on how to rate each item) were sent to individual experts.

### Step Three: Cognitive Interviews

Cognitive interviewing is a methodology that examines how respondents interpret and answer survey questions (Collins, 2003). The role of a cognitive interviewer, thus, would be encouraging participants to verbalize their thoughts as well as asking additional questions about the basis for respondents' answers (Beatty & Willis, 2007). Questions that were used most often in the interviews were: "Please tell me what you are thinking as you answer this question."; "What steps are going through your head as you pick an option for this question?"; "What do you think the question is asking you"; and "Please think aloud and tell me how you would answer this question" (Ryan et al., 2012). It is believed that this process would help researchers identify and correct potential problems with survey questions (Ryan et al., 2012).

In this study, cognitive interviews were conducted with two university lecturers and two school teachers. The interviews lasted between 45 minutes to 1 hour and were audio recorded. Moreover, the interviewers also took notes of interviewees' reactions during the interviews. Based on the interview recordings and notes, the researchers would then classify the items into three categories: (i) items with no problem; (ii) items with minor misunderstanding; and (iii) unclear items. Items that experienced "minor misunderstanding" were then reworded, while "unclear" items were either removed, reworded or recombined with another question. Based on the findings from both expert review and cognitive interviews, the survey was once again revised by the research team. Changes were mostly related to the Vietnamese wording of the items.

### Step Four: Quantitative Factor Analysis

The survey, after being revised, was transferred to Google Forms and sent to high school teachers, university lecturers, school leaders, as well as faculty members who have been involved in school-university partnerships in the Vietnamese contexts. Specifically, questionnaires were sent to faculty members of three teacher training universities in the North, Central, and South of Vietnam to collect responses from faculty members and university lecturers. The faculty members then forwarded the form to their partner schools. In the end, a total of 463 questionnaires were collected. The data after being exported to Microsoft Excel (from Google Forms), were imported into Stata (Version 14.1) for data screening, cleaning, and analysis.

### Results

This section is designed so as to present and discuss results of each step described earlier.

## Outcome From Step 1

The first version of the survey was developed. The questionnaire had the same four sections as the original questionnaire, but there were 49 items in total (15 items in Section 1; 14 items in Section 2; 10 items in Section 3; and 10 items in Section 4).

## Outcomes From Step 2

### *I-CVI Results (Relevancy of Individual Items)*

The I-CVI calculations for the relevancy of each item suggested that forty-three items (87.75%) were marked as relevant and the I-CVIs ranged from 0.40 to 1.00. Thirty five items had an ICVI = 1.00; eight had a score of 0.80; two had a score of 0.60; and four a score of 0.40.

### *S-CVI Results (Relevancy of the Overall Questionnaire)*

The S-CVI/UA = 0.71 and the S-CVI/Ave = 0.90. Overall, the Universal Agreement method demonstrates moderate content validity while the Average approach shows high content validity of the SUP_level.

### *CVR Results*

The CVR was generated for each item. Items that were marked not essential had a CVR < 0.99 (this value is based on the total number of experts, N = 5). Nonessential items can be eliminated. Yet in this case, no item was identified as non-essential.

## Outcomes From Step 3

Initial checking of scale reliability suggested very high values of Cronbach's alpha for all four scales (Table 3), which according to Tavakol and Dennick (2011) may suggest redundancy in the scale.

**Table 3**

*Assessment of Scale Reliability*

| Scale | Items | Cronbach's alpha value |
|---|---|---|
| A - Aligned values and vision | A1 A3 A2 A4 A5 A6 A7 A8 A9 A10 A11 A12 A13 A14 A15 | 0.981 |
| B - Shared goals and objectives | B1 B2 B3 B4 B5 B6 B7 B8 B9 B10 B11 B12 B13 B14 | 0.984 |
| C - Operational processes and procedures | C1 C2 C3 C4 C5 C6 C7 C8 C9 C10 | 0.979 |
| D - Minimizing barriers to professional experience partnerships | D1 D2 D3 D D5 D6 D7 D8 D9 D10 | 0.982 |

The findings necessitated further factor analysis to refine the measurement models (Williams et al., 2010). Initial checking of (i) the determinant of the correlation matrix (Det = 0.000); (ii) Bartlett test of sphericity (p = 0.00); and (iii) Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy (KMO = 0.984) suggested that factor analysis could be conducted on the current set of data.

Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) using orthogonal Varimax rotation was thus employed to refine the measurement model.

Since the aim of EFA was to make sure that each item on the scale only measures a single behavior (Güvendir & Özkan, 2022), cross-loaded items (i.e., items that load on more than one factor) were removed from the scale. In this process, items were removed one by one starting from the most cross-loading one and continuing until no cross-loading items could be observed. The analysis was repeated 13 times with 13 items being removed from the scale, including: B13, A2, B1, B2, B5, B7, B11, A1, A3, B4, A4, A12, B10 (in order). In the end, a two-factor structure could be achieved (Table 4).

**Table 4**

*The Two-Factor Structure*

| **Factor 1**: Shared goals and values | A8, A9, A10, A6, A7, A5, A11, A15, A13, A14 | Number of items in the scale: 10<br>Scale reliability coefficient: 0.978 |
|---|---|---|
| **Factor 2**: Partnership operation and management | D5, D9, D6, D8, D7, D4, D3, D10, D2, D1, C9, C10, C2, C4, C1, C8, C3, B12, B6, C5, C7, C6, B8, B9, B14, B3 | Number of items in the scale: 26<br>Scale reliability coefficient: 0.99 |

**Outcome of Step 4**

The final scale had 36 items as could be seen in Table 4 above. It is observable that while Items in section A remained the same, items in sections B, C and D had been subsumed together and reduced. Our observation of the items in these three sections suggests that they are all related to the management process. Therefore, the section was renamed as "Partnership operation and management". The two scales had very good reliability scores (Cronbach's alpha = .978 and .99 accordingly). Thus, in the final version (see Appendix), the questionnaire was refined to 36 items which fit into two scales, namely "Shared goals and values" and "Partnership operations and management".

**Discussion**

The final version of the questionnaire suggested that school-university partnerships in Vietnam could be viewed (and assessed) in terms of "shared goals and values" and "partnership operations and management". The finding is generally consistent with previous ideas on key elements of school-university partnership (Afsana, 2009; Green et al., 2020; Wasonga & Wanzare, 2011). The subsumption of the three factors (i.e., shared goals and objectives, operational process and procedures, minimizing the barriers to professional experience partnerships) into a single factor of "partnership operations and management" in the final version has actually helped focused attention to the

bigger issue of operation and management, or in other words to the activities in a partnership. It makes sense that similar to other activities like maintaining conversations, managing resources, *discussing goals and objectives* and *minimizing barriers* should be part of the partnership operations.

The questionnaire developed and validated in this study is a crucial part in assessing the degree of the university-school cooperation. It appears to be a useful tool for evaluating the many SUP dimensions, and as such, it can offer crucial information for measuring and creating successful partnership activities.

As discussed earlier in the choice of the audit tool (the questionnaire), this is among the first attempts to develop and validate a tool to systematically evaluate partnership between schools and universities. It thus serves as a methodological contribution to the field. A comprehensive series of subsequent phases were used to construct the measurement tool for the investigation. In order to improve the content of the survey, a review of the literature on the factors influencing a successful SUP, qualitative content validation, and the implementation of expert review and cognitive interviews, and quantitative factor analysis were used. The survey questions were subsequently amended, which led to the refining of the final content. A crucial step in making sure the survey created is reliable was validating the survey's items, which was carried out in step four in this study.

The approved tool could be useful for various partnership arrangements. It would be a helpful tool for both parties to utilize to undertake routine assessments of partnerships that are already established. Results from the questionnaire may also give the management and administration committees information about changes in the partnership over time if used often, such as at periodic assessments of a partnership.

The tool may (1) give newly formed partnerships a practical framework for partners to begin investigating the opinions or aspirations of various stakeholders by comprehending their shared values and objectives and (2) highlight to participants what to do and what to avoid in the operational processes and procedures. The tool would be of diagnostic use for partnerships that are having problems since it could assist partners in methodically identifying areas of dispute (and consensus) in values and goals at the implementation level and in developing action plans to strengthen the relationships. Additionally, it offers a common language that can make negotiations and communication between various school and university parties easier.

The tool's ability to be used to evaluate partnerships at different levels is another potential advantage. Data collected at middle management level (i.e., among head of department, teacher leaders, and program managers) as well as data from those who directly work together in the partnership (i.e., pre-service teachers, school teachers, and university lecturers/ supervisors) may be compared to assessment data at the highest level (i.e., administrative board, university leaders, and school leaders). Potential incompatibilities might be found by comparing and contrasting the perspectives of various stakeholders as such, and corrective measures could be implemented where they were most necessary.

## Conclusion

A tool to assess stakeholders' perceptions of the school-university partnership has been developed and validated in this study. The tool could be helpful in examining the partnerships' ongoing activity. It could also operate as a useful roadmap for future research into potential connections between independent variables (such as demographics) and low and high degrees of partnership. In our process of developing this tool, we conceptualize partnership as a universal term and consider the tool to be used in a variety of settings. Therefore, further research can also take into account the particularities of Vietnamese contexts in the development a measurement tool for assessing a SUP particularly for this setting.

## Declaration of Conflicting Interests

The authors declare no conflict of interest.

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# Appendix

## FINAL QUESTIONNAIRE
## LEVEL OF PARTNERSHIPS BETWEEN TEACHER EDUCATION INSTITUTIONS AND PARTNERING SCHOOLS

*This questionnaire aims at exploring your institution's experiences of school-university partnership. For questions in this section, please decide the extent to which you Agree/ Disagree with the following statements (1= strongly DISAGREE → 5= strongly AGREE).*

### PART A. Aligned values and vision

| | 1= strongly disagree → 5= strongly agree | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| *At our institution…* | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 1- We appreciate the diverse and dynamic nature of the respective partners. | | | | | |
| 2- We understand that our duties/ tasks/ core business are partially interdependent. | | | | | |
| 3- We value working together (with the partner schools) for a common good. | | | | | |
| 4- We understand the drivers of the partnership(s). | | | | | |
| 5- We understand the challenges that the partnership(s) provide(s). | | | | | |
| 6- We understand the opportunities that the partnership(s) provide(s). | | | | | |
| 7- We are willing to move beyond traditional roles and relationships to ensure the partnership is effective. | | | | | |
| 8- There is regular review or evaluation of the partnership achievements. | | | | | |
| 9- There is regular review or evaluation of the partnership directions. | | | | | |
| 10- If changes are required, everyone is consulted prior to decisions being made. | | | | | |

### PART B. Partnership operation and management

| | 1= strongly disagree → 5= strongly agree | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| *At our institution…* | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 11- Partners meet regularly to review the goal(s) of the partnership. | | | | | |
| 12- There is a participatory decision-making system. | | | | | |

| | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 13- We invest personnel in the partnership. | | | | | |
| 14- We invest time in the partnership | | | | | |
| 15- Staff in the respective partnership have opportunities to engage in professional development activities. | | | | | |
| 16- Pre-service teachers play an important role in the decision-making process in the partnership. | | | | | |
| 17-There are shared understandings of management structures between partners. | | | | | |
| 18- There are established management and operational protocols between partners. | | | | | |
| 19- There are opportunities for staff to work in each other's organization. | | | | | |
| 20- The partnership is supervised by a steering group/ committee with partner representation. | | | | | |
| 21- There is formal agreement between partners. | | | | | |
| 22- Leaders/managers in my institution support and promote the partnership. | | | | | |
| 23- There are regular meetings between partners with agendas and minutes recorded. | | | | | |
| 24- There are formal reporting mechanisms in place to share information about the activities within the partnership. | | | | | |
| 25- Lines of communication are open, with designated key contacts within each organization identified. | | | | | |
| 26- There is an established risk management plan in place if the partnership fails/suspended/dissolved. | | | | | |
| 27- Potential barriers to the partnership(s) have been identified and possible solutions have been developed. | | | | | |
| 28- There are plans in place to address differences in organizational priorities, goals and tasks. | | | | | |
| 29- Experienced and committed staff (from the respective partner organizations) are in the leadership team. | | | | | |
| 30- Both partners invested in the success of the partnership from the beginning. | | | | | |
| 31- There are strategies in place to deal with the break-down of relationships within the partnership. | | | | | |
| 32- Honest and robust conversations about the partnership are warranted. | | | | | |
| 33- The value of the partnership is clearly articulated within partner organizations. | | | | | |
| 34- There are well-established and transparent financial and resource management structures. | | | | | |
| 35- There is no doubling up of procedures (processes or systems). | | | | | |
| 36- There are processes in place to address complaints, relationship breakdown and blockers. | | | | | |

# XÁC TRỊ CÔNG CỤ ĐÁNH GIÁ MỨC ĐỘ QUAN HỆ ĐỐI TÁC GIỮA TRƯỜNG ĐẠI HỌC VÀ TRƯỜNG PHỔ THÔNG

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**Tóm tắt:** Nghiên cứu nhằm mục đích phát triển và xác trị một công cụ có thể được sử dụng để đánh giá quan hệ đối tác giữa trường đại học và trường phổ thông. Cụ thể, nghiên cứu thực hiện theo bốn bước: (i) đánh giá và sửa đổi các cấu phần cũng như nội dung các câu hỏi của công cụ ban đầu, (ii) lấy ý kiến đánh giá của chuyên gia về sự phù hợp nội dung của thang đo và chỉnh sửa, (iii) thực hiện phỏng vấn nhận thức (cognitive interview) với một số đại diện trường đại học và phổ thông để đánh giá mức độ tường minh của các câu hỏi và tiếp tục điều chỉnh với những câu hỏi có vấn đề, và (iv) đánh giá tính hợp lệ và độ tin cậy của công cụ thông qua phân tích định lượng dựa trên dữ liệu được thu thập từ 463 người tham gia và hoàn thiện công cụ. Bản cuối cùng của công cụ bao gồm 36 câu hỏi được chia làm hai thang đo "Sự tương đồng của mục tiêu và giá trị" và "Các quy trình quản lý và hoạt động của quan hệ đối tác". Nghiên cứu cũng thảo luận về khả năng sử dụng công cụ để đánh giá các quan hệ đối tác hiện có cũng như các quan hệ đối tác đang trong quá trình hình thành. Công cụ cũng cho phép đánh giá mối quan hệ đối tác ở các mức độ khác nhau.

*Từ khóa:* quan hệ đối tác giữa trường đại học với trường phổ thông, mức độ quan hệ đối tác, xác trị công cụ

# EXPLORING THE RELATIONSHIP
# BETWEEN INTERCULTURAL SENSITIVITY
# AND LANGUAGE LEARNING MOTIVATION:
# A STUDY ON EFL UNDERGRADUATE STUDENTS
# AT A VIETNAMESE UNIVERSITY

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**Abstract:** This research was conducted to investigate the relationship between intercultural sensitivity and language learning motivation among EFL undergraduate students at Hanoi University, a public higher education institution in Hanoi, Vietnam. The findings revealed a positive correlation between intercultural sensitivity and language learning motivation as EFL students had high levels of both factors, yet students seemed to lack confidence in intercultural communication. It is suggested that the teacher should communicate with EFL students about the importance of intercultural communicative competence, intercultural sensitivity, and language learning motivation. Besides, the course on intercultural sensitivity should also be embedded in the curriculum.

*Keywords:* intercultural sensitivity, language learning motivation, intercultural communicative competence, EFL, L2

## Background Information and Problem Statement

Linguistic background is considered indispensable to second language (L2) learners but cannot be sufficient to guarantee success in communicating with speakers from other cultures. Mistakes in intercultural communication due to the lack of cultural knowledge, indeed, are sometimes worse than ones in linguistic competence (Bennett, 1997). Because of a special relationship between language and culture as demonstrated by scholars (Hofstede & Bond, 1991; Ting-Toomey & Chung, 2012; Yunlong, 2014), it appears that learning a foreign language means acquiring its culture, so good background knowledge of a specific culture might facilitate the learning process of a language, and enhance one's intercultural communicative competence consequently.

According to Chen and Starosta (1996) and Chen and Starosta (1998) there are three concepts, namely intercultural sensitivity, intercultural awareness, and intercultural communicative competence; these concepts should be separate even though they are closely related items (Chen & Starosta, 2000). While intercultural awareness refers to the cognitive aspect, intercultural sensitivity specifies the affective factor of an individual, and intercultural communicative competence

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represents the behavioral aspect, indicating that the study of intercultural communicative competence itself is a broad concept and requires different dimensions to validate relevant data (Chen & Starosta, 2000). Together with linguistic background, intercultural sensitivity may help learners enjoy differences in cultures and become competent in intercultural communication (Bennett & Bennett, 2003; Chen & Starosta, 2000). As the acquisition of cultural aspects is developed during the language learning process, sensitivity towards (inter)cultural perspectives is facilitated as well, leading EFL students to achievements of good linguistic background and intercultural sensitivity. Hence, this study focuses on the 'intercultural sensitivity' of EFL students at an undergraduate level in the context of a higher education institution in Vietnam, and their level of intercultural sensitivity is evaluated as a significant indicator of intercultural communicative competence.

In addition, to successfully learn and possess the essential linguistic background, L2 learners should have learning motivation. Wiseman (2002) includes motivation as an additional element in the definitions of intercultural communicative competence and the anticipation of actual engagement in communication across cultures. It reveals that the dimension of motivation is significant, which leads learners to success in language and communicative competence acquisition. Therefore, the current study also places its focus on motivation as an indicator of prospective success of L2 learners and intercultural communication.

The context of English learning in Vietnam might be different from others to some extent, but learners' attitudes and awareness of intercultural communicative competence have been of interests among Vietnamese scholars, resulting in a range of studies carried out by researchers, such as Dao & Do (2019) and Tran & Seepho (2016). Meanwhile, little research on motivation to learn English has been conducted, especially in association with intercultural communicative competence. Given the possible gaps in relation to the research context and research approach, findings of the existing literature may not be generalizable to the context of language learning and teaching in Vietnam.

In an attempt to explore the levels of intercultural sensitivity and language learning motivation among EFL students, and the correlation between the two variables, the present quantitative study examines the following research questions:

**Research question 1**: *What is the intercultural sensitivity level of EFL students?*

**Research question 2**: *What is the language learning motivation level of EFL students?*

**Research question 3**: *Is there any correlation between EFL students' intercultural sensitivity and language learning motivation?*

## Theoretical Framework

### Intercultural Sensitivity

As an affective dimension of intercultural communicative competence, intercultural sensitivity refers to a mindset developed by each individual, helping one identify any differences in others' behaviors, perceptions, or feelings when conducting intercultural communication (Chen & Starosta, 2000). Hence, an interculturally sensitive person can not only have awareness of differences during interaction with others but also accept, appreciate and respect ideas exchanged. Emphasizing on the process of changes in one's mindset, (Bennett, 1984) considers an individual who has intercultural sensitivity once that person possesses the ability to "transform themselves not only affectively but also cognitively and behaviorally from denial stage to integration stage in the

developmental process of intercultural communication" (p. 3). According to Chen and Starosta (2000), intercultural communicative competence is an umbrella term that encompasses the cognitive (awareness), affective (sensitivity), and behavioral (adroitness) ability of interactants in the process of intercultural communication. Chen and Starosta (2000) offer a definition of intercultural sensitivity as someone's "ability to develop a positive emotion towards understanding and appreciating cultural differences that promote appropriate and effective behavior in intercultural communication" (p. 4). To specify what accounts for intercultural sensitivity, Chen and Starosta (2000) develop a scale consisting of six elements: self-esteem, self-monitoring, open-mindedness, empathy, interaction involvement, and non-judgment.

Self-esteem refers to the ability to "establish a sense of self-value and self-worth" (Chen & Starosta, 2000, p. 4) from one's optimistic perspectives and confidence in interaction, resulting in that person's positive emotion and motivation to recognize and respect any differences in cultures and situations. In other words, self-esteem can be labeled 'interaction confidence' as one's and others' cultural values can be exchanged while positive feelings can be maintained. Social psychologists Hofstede and Bond (1991) state a similar idea that once a person is aware of her/his value orientations and is exposed to another culture with positive feelings and emotions, s/he can recognize and accept it more easily. The self-esteem factor is important as it can be considered a cognitive background to self-monitoring that an individual utilize to apply behavioral adjustment, aiming to realize any situational constraints, then regulate and respond appropriately. Chen and Starosta (2000) conclude that high self-monitor speakers tend to be "more attentive, other-oriented,

and more sensitive to the expressions of their culturally different counterparts" (p. 5). The element of self-monitor, therefore, can be labeled 'interaction attentiveness'.

The third element is open-mindedness, which refers to someone who is willing to explain him or herself and accept explanation of their counter-partners (Chen & Starosta, 2000). Therefore, those speakers become receptive to others' needs and differences and can translate emotions into actions in intercultural communication. The fourth element is empathy, referring to empathic people concerning others' feelings and reactions. Reynolds and Valentine (2004) also advise that it is important to know how the culture uses emotion in intercultural communication; other researchers, such as Bennett (1984), Gudykunst (1993) (as cited by Chen & Starosta, 2000), suppose the concept of empathy is "a core component" because empathic people concern others' feelings and reactions, and tend to show "affect displays, active listening" (p. 5), so they can be labeled 'respect for cultural differences'.

The two last elements interaction involvement and non-judgement seem to have relations, one is about action of someone (e.g. like or enjoy the communication of distinct-culture persons, or dislike it) towards people, while the other is about special quality of a speaker who is capable of sincerely listening to others whose culture is different. Johnson (2001) states that communication choices made by people could show whether they feel welcomed or valued. It is inclined that when meeting someone and talking about a topic both individuals enjoy, they can find attraction in communication and dynamically involve in interaction. On the contrary, an individual may withdraw from the communication event if it is not the case of enjoyment between the two speakers (Samovar & Porter, 1991), which might then lead to judgement – the action of hastening

in any conclusion without enough details (Chen & Starosta, 2000). Once one can be aware of the importance of non-judgment, s/he can enjoy interacting and establishing relationship with people from different cultural backgrounds (Chen & Starosta, 2000). In other words, interaction involvement represents 'interaction enjoyment', while non-judgement represents 'interaction engagement'.

### Language Learning Motivation

According to Dörnyei (2009), motivation "provides the primary impetus to initiate learning the L2 and later the driving force to sustain the long and often tedious learning process" (p. 117). Besides, the learning process is often lonely, difficult, and time-consuming, while success of an L2 learner depends on extent of their desire and efforts in goal achievement (Gilakjani et al., 2012). Therefore, it is widely agreed that motivation is responsible for determination of human behavior as it helps energize and give direction during their learning process (Dörnyei, 2009). Researchers and teachers seem to agree that motivation plays a significant factor as it influences degrees of rate and success of L2 learners.

Motivation seems to be key explanation to any success or failure of difficult tasks (Gardner, 2001a). It is so easy to state a learner of a foreign language can be successful with right motivation (Brown, 2000), especially within the situation that learning a foreign language is a difficult, time-consuming process (Gardner, 2001a). There are a variety of research and experiments that support the importance of motivation, especially motivation of foreign language learning. According to Dörnyei (2009), one of the focuses in teaching foreign languages is to keep learners motivated as their long-term goals may not be attained without appropriate levels of motivation despite good quality of curriculum or teaching methods.

Gardner (2001b) stated that "motivation is a central element along with language aptitude in determining success in learning another language in the classroom setting" (p. 2), which further places a significant emphasis on important roles of motivation to any learner. An individual, accordingly, who only has language aptitude might not become a successful learner, but the one whose abilities are remarkable can possibly achieve her/his goals with "sufficient motivation" (Dörnyei, 2001, p. 117). This idea was similarly argued by Gardner and Lambert (1972) when they emphasized that motivational factors can override the aptitude effect.

Generally, motivation is a push that helps one in a particular situation (Brown, 2000) regardless of her/his language aptitude. Motivation can be an internal force or personal choice of an individual, aiming to meet their needs for specific goals; in contrast, there are some external forces, which could serve as a push to learners, such as a reward for well-done results. Thanks to motivation, an L2 learner can overcome difficulties during the learning process, maintain desire for goal achievements, and embrace the situation to succeed. Probably because of its significance in second language acquisition, motivation has been concerned and supported by many studies and experiments to improve learners' abilities and proficiencies. In this study, motivation is assumed to become a driving force that stimulates EFL students to acquire and develop their linguistic knowledge, and enhance the competence of intercultural sensitivity.

It seems that one gains success thanks to motivation regardless of his/her professions and fields. Motivation has unique attributes that concern researchers and scholars, such as Weiner (1979), Lunenburg (2011), Herzberg et al. (1959), Maslow (1970), Gawel (1996). In the context of classroom, motivation is greatly

concerned, especially between two learners, one has higher scores whereas the other does not. The situation leads to an attributional question: Why does one succeed or fail? Why does my classmate get a better mark on the exam than me? Weiner (1979) generalizes theories and ideas on such 'why' questions, one of them is "stability and affect"; it was stated "the affects of depression, apathy, and resignation were reported primarily given internal and stable attributions for failure (lack of ability, lack of typical effort, personality deficit)" (p. 14). This argument shows that there is a connection between emotions of learners and degree of their success.

In 1972, Robert Gardner and Wallace Lambert conducted research on motivation in second language learning, from which they coined the two types: *instrumental motivation* and *integrative motivation*. The instrumental side is about acquiring a language to obtain specific goals, such as advancing professions or careers, reading technical documents, having job promotion, or earning higher salary, and so forth. The integrative side, however, portrays learners who would like to integrate into a (new) culture "of a second language group and become involved in social interchange in that group" (Brown, 2000, p. 162). Accordingly, an instrumentally motivated L2 learner has pragmatic considerations such as obtaining a better job, whereas an integratively motivated learner is more interested in learning and understanding the target language's culture and people (Vaezi, 2008).

It seems an uneasy task to decide which one is more important, the instrumental motivation or the integrative motivation, because both are obviously significant to L2 learning. According to Vaezi (2008), because success of L2 learning can be foreseen, the integrative motivation is somehow considered superior to the instrumental motivation. Accordingly,

when students appreciate culture of the target language, they have dynamics to acquire and practice the language on a daily basis to learn the language and its culture. On the other hand, instrumental motivation is important and meaningful to learners who do not have much access to the L2 culture or native settings. Vaezi (2008) points out the opposition between Gardner and Lambert's research versus Dörnyei's study. The former places emphasis on the importance of integrative motivation other than instrumental motivation in a formal learning environment, whereas the latter claims that what learners could achieve for what they need is more meaningful and significant than the integrative motivation.

According to Dörnyei (2009), there are two main motivation components: intrinsic and extrinsic. Intrinsic motivation refers to the enjoyable engagement, which drives an individual into doing an action, whereas extrinsic motivation refers to a force that makes one take an action because there are external rewards of doing so, such as possessing a bachelor's degree, or getting promotion at work. Brown (2000) considered intrinsically motivated behaviors are aimed at bringing about "internally rewarding consequences" (p. 164), such as feelings of competence, achievement, and self-determination. Extrinsically motivated behaviors, on the other hand, are conducted with anticipation of a reward from outside (Brown, 2000), such as bonus, prizes and positive feedback.

Brown (2000) also analyzes to show the relationship between intrinsic and extrinsic motivation by arguing which one is more superior. An intrinsic motivation may be integrative motivation when one learns a foreign language for integrative purposes, whereas an extrinsic motivation becomes instrumental motivation if an individual would like to achieve external rewards. It is seemingly agreed that intrinsic motivation is more powerful than extrinsic motivation,

because one can still succeed even without existence of any external rewards. Instead, that individual strives for self-esteem and fulfilment (Brown, 2000). According to Bruner (1966, as cited by Brown, 2000), the "autonomy of self-reward" should be promoted, being free from the control of rewards and punishments is considered the most effective approach to young and adult learners.

The construct of motivation types, however, are not entirely similar, intrinsic motivation is not the same as integrative motivation, and extrinsic motivation cannot be another word for instrumental motivation.

Brown (2000) highlights the difference between the intrinsic-extrinsic construct from Gardner's integrative-instrumental orientation. For instance, one could learn a foreign language with intrinsic purposes so that future career (such as becoming an interpreter) can possibly be advanced and earn good incomes. Similarly, a prize gained from a foreign language contest can become a powerful force that develops an L2 learner's positive affect toward speakers of a second language. Bailey (1986, as cited by Brown, 2000) produces a diagram to show the relationship between the four components of motivation.

**Table 1**

*Motivation Dichotomies*

|  | **Intrinsic** | **Extrinsic** |
|---|---|---|
| **Integrative** | L2 learner wishes to integrate with the L2 culture (e.g., for immigration or marriage) | Someone else wishes the L2 learner to know the L2 for integrative reasons (e.g., Japanese parents send kids to Japanese-language school). |
| **Instrumental** | L2 learner wishes to achieve goals utilizing L2 (e.g., for a career) | External power wants L2 learner to learn L2 (e.g., corporation sends Japanese businessman to U.S. for language training) |

Note. From Principles of language learning and teaching (Vol. 4), by H. D. Brown, 2000, Longman.

Overall, there are four main types of motivation: instrumental motivation, integrative motivation, intrinsic motivation, and extrinsic motivation. They are somehow in common, as ones refer to L2 learners' self-determination (integrative and intrinsic motivations) regardless of any rewards, whereas the others refer to learners' specific achievements and purposes. Some researchers may think that the *integrative and intrinsic motivations* are superior because of their attributes to internal forces of learners and develop learners' autonomy; nevertheless, other scholars suppose that the *instrumental and extrinsic motivations* might be more powerful as learners' success can be anticipated. Even so, there is no doubt to affirm that motivation is crucial to any L2 learners regardless of their language aptitude. Their motivation can be

instrumental or integrative, and then be changed into extrinsic or intrinsic.

***Studies on the Relationship Between Intercultural Communicative Competence and Motivation***

As intercultural communicative competence is important, and language learning motivation is significant to L2 learners, various studies have been conducted on the themes to offer models and new hypotheses to enhance L2 learners' abilities. Besides, studies on the combination of both factors are also greatly concerned as the variables of the two constructs may provide educators, researchers and learners with their relationship and influences on fostering learners' competence. One of the studies was conducted by Tsai (2012) on effects of

intercultural learning on English learning motivation among study-abroad students. Participants in this research were Asian students from China, Japan, Korean, Taiwan; the researcher utilized questionnaire as the data collection instrument. The result shows that the students had significant acquisitions from intercultural programs, resulting in their high motivation in learning English; additionally, there is a correlation between integrative and instrumental motivations, emphasizing necessities of both motivation types in encouraging L2 learners in English acquisition.

Mirzaei and Forouzandeh (2013), with an aim to measure learners' intercultural communicative competence and explore the relationship between Iranian L2 learners' intercultural communicative competence and language learning motivation, conducted a quantitative study, in consideration of gender that may influence their intercultural communicative competence development. There were 180 B.A. and M.A. English Studies participants from several Iranian universities. To collect the data, the researchers constructed an intercultural communicative competence questionnaire from Deardorff's theory. The result shows that "there was a strong, positive correlation between the L2 learners' ICC and L2-learning motivation" (Mirzaei & Forouzandeh, 2013, p. 313). Moreover, the study asserts that L2 learners' ICC levels are not affected by their gender differences.

Badrkoohi (2018) investigated the relationship between intercultural communicative competence and factors that de-motivate L2 learners. To collect the data and information, Badrkoohi adopted a scale of Chen and Starosta (2000), aiming to assess L2 learners' interaction engagement, interaction confidence, respect for cultural differences, interaction enjoyment, and interaction attentiveness. Besides, to investigate what de-motivate learners, she

used another questionnaire of 35 items of five factors: learning contents and materials, teachers' competence and teaching styles, inadequate school facilities, lack of intrinsic motivation, and test scores. Participants of the study were 60 EFL learners of intermediate level of language proficiency in a foreign language institute in Tehran. As employing a mixed method, an interview set of questions was applied to explore participants' perception of the relationship between two variables (intercultural communicative competence and demotivation). The result shows that there is a negative relationship between the two factors, and the interview data shows participants' belief in negative relationship between two variables.

As a developing nation having focus on foreign language teaching and learning, Vietnamese researchers are interested in the theme as well, resulting in various studies on the relationship between intercultural communicative competence and language learning motivation among EFL learners. The study conducted by Vu (2020) on constructivist learning and intercultural communicative competence concludes that (i) learners could acquire both linguistic and cultural knowledge to understand other English speakers with intercultural sensitivity, and (ii) there is a connected relationship between language learning motivation and intercultural communicative competence.

Obviously, there are studies conducted by international and Vietnamese scholars and researchers, showing that there has been great concern on intercultural communicative competence, and language learning motivation, especially the approaches and models to facilitate and improve quality of teaching and learning to EFL learners. The studies found offered new methods and ideas for improving students' intercultural communicative competence and their attitudes towards the competence, with or without consideration of language

learning motivation. However, the findings on levels of affective variables have not been found, and the constructs of learners' motivation to learn foreign languages have not been explored. As language learning is considered a lonely and time-consuming process (Gardner, 2001a), it is necessary to keep language learners' affective aspects at the high level. The present study, therefore, is conducted on both variables (intercultural sensitivity and motivation) to potentially contribute to the literature.

## Methods

### Research Procedures

The research was conducted at a public higher education institution in Hanoi, Vietnam. The institution has 20 faculties and departments, including the English Department (ED), which offers the four-year full-time program of English Studies in two vocational orientations: ELT and Interpreting-Translation. Upon agreement of the Dean of the English Department, Hanoi University, the researcher contacted 450 EFL students studying the second, third, and fourth years and invited them to participate in the study during the first semester of the academic year 2021-2022. To bring convenience and guarantee safety of

participants during the high period of the covid-19 pandemic, a link of e-questionnaire was designed and sent to 450 students. The questionnaire was completed by participants anonymously and submitted online. As a result, the study received 224 responses; the data collected were then analyzed with deployment of the SPSS software.

### Data Collection and Analysis

To fulfil the research purposes, the questionnaire used in the first research phase was adopted to measure the two main variables: students' *intercultural sensitivity* and their *language learning motivation*.

The questionnaire serves three purposes: (1) to evaluate intercultural sensitivity among EFL learners (to answer the first research question), (2) to assess language learning motivation (to answer the second research question), and (3) explore correlation between learners' ability of intercultural sensitivity and learning motivation (to answer the third research question). In this regard, a questionnaire consisting of two parts of a five-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree) was adopted to serve the study purposes as follows:

**Table 2**

*Constructs of the Questionnaire*

|  | Constructs | Items | Total |
|---|---|:---:|:---:|
| **Section 1**<br>**Intercultural**<br>**sensitivity** | Interaction engagement | 1, 11, 13, 21, 22, 23, and 24 | 24 |
|  | Respect for cultural differences | 2, 7, 8, 16, 18, and 20 |  |
|  | Interaction confidence | 3, 4, 5, 6, and 10 |  |
|  | Interaction enjoyment | 9, 12, and 15 |  |
|  | Interaction attentiveness | 14, 17, and 19 |  |
| **Section 2**<br>**Language learning**<br>**motivation** | Integrativeness | From 1 to 12 | 25 |
|  | Instrumentality | From 13 to 25 |  |

The quantitative data collected via questionnaire survey were analyzed statistically under the guidelines of Pallant (2013). The procedure included three steps: (1) screening and cleaning the data, (2) preparing the variables for analysis, and (3) choosing and using the statistical techniques for analysis. In order to seek the proper answers to the research questions, descriptive and inferential statistics analysis were employed.

To explore the level of intercultural sensitivity and language learning motivation among EFL students, the respondents were asked to rate their level of agreement with the five-point Likert scale; in details, the highest mean score (=5) indicated the most agreeable items, and the lowest mean score (=1) indicated the least agreeable ones. Paige et al. (2003) noted the Likert scale technique score statement could indicate the degree of

agreement. Five-point Likert scale, hence, was adapted and summarized in Table 3.

**Table 3**

*Interpretation of Five-Point Likert Scale*

| Rating | Mean | Agreement level |
|--------|------|-----------------|
| 5 | 4.51 – 5.00 | Very high |
| 4 | 3.51 – 4.50 | High |
| 3 | 2.51 – 3.50 | Not sure |
| 2 | 1.51 – 2.50 | Low |
| 1 | 1.00 – 1.50 | Very low |

*Note.* From "Culture learning in language education: A review of the literature," R. M. Paige, H. L. Jorstad, L. Siaya, F. Klein, & J. Colby, in D. L. Lange & R. M. Paige (Vol. Eds.), & J. H. Sullivan (Series Ed.), *Culture as the core: Perspectives on culture in second language learning* (pp. 173-236), 2003, Information Age Publishing.

**Table 4**

*Research Questions and Corresponding Analysis Techniques*

| Research questions | Tools | Aim to find | Type of analysis |
|--------------------|-------|-------------|------------------|
| What is the intercultural sensitivity level of EFL students? | Questionnaire, Section 1 | EFL students' ability of intercultural sensitivity | Descriptive |
| What is the language learning motivation level of EFL students? | Questionnaire, Section 2 | EFL students' degree of language learning motivation | Descriptive |
| Is there any correlation between EFL students' intercultural sensitivity and language learning motivation? | Questionnaire, Sections 1 & 2 | The correlation between intercultural sensitivity and language learning motivation | Descriptive and inferential analysis |

**Summary of Findings**

Data from the questionnaire revealed high levels of intercultural sensitivity and language learning motivation among EFL students. Also, the correlation between intercultural sensitivity and motivation to learn English was significant and positive.

*Levels of Intercultural Sensitivity*

Questionnaire data showed the high level of intercultural sensitivity with the high mean scores of dimensions, including interaction engagement (3.73), respect for cultural differences (4.23), interaction enjoyment (3.68), and interaction attentiveness (3.69). Only the interaction confidence dimension was at the lowest (3.13).

**Table 5**

*Mean Scores on Each Dimension of Intercultural Sensitivity*

| Dimensions | Mean | SD | Interpretation |
|---|---|---|---|
| Interaction engagement | 3.73 | .37 | High |
| Respect for cultural differences | 4.23 | .48 | High |
| Interaction confidence | 3.13 | .56 | Not sure |
| Interaction enjoyment | 3.68 | .66 | High |
| Interaction attentiveness | 3.69 | .48 | High |
| **Total** | **3.69** | **.51** | **High** |

The total mean score of 3.69 for the variable of intercultural sensitivity revealed the fact that although the participants were highly sensitive to intercultural issues, they were not very confident at interacting and communicating with people from other cultural backgrounds. Even so, students were engaged with the communication, enjoyed their interaction with others, and they were attentive to the situation of intercultural communication. Students of the study highly respected differences of cultural perspectives. Amid the high levels of dimensions, the results of interaction confidence should be viewed more closely as shown in the following table:

**Table 6**

*Descriptive Results of Interaction Confidence*

| Item | Interaction Confidence | Mean | SD | Interpretation |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| 3 | I am pretty sure of myself in interacting with people from different cultures. | 3.50 | .721 | Not sure |
| 4 | I don't find it very hard to talk in front of people from different cultures. | 2.80 | .956 | Not sure |
| 5 | I always know what to say when interacting with people from different cultures. | 2.89 | .709 | Not sure |
| 6 | I can be as sociable as I want to be when interacting with people from different cultures. | 3.34 | .909 | Not sure |
| 10 | I feel confident when interacting with people from different cultures. | 3.15 | .758 | Not sure |
| | **Overall mean score** | **3.13** | | **Not sure** |

*Note.* M = Mean (N = 224), SD = Standard Deviation, N = Number

The factor was constructed from five items 3, 4, 5, 6, and 10, with the mean score of 3.13, which is a 'Not sure' rate, indicating a common agreement among students about the degree of confidence when interacting with individuals from other cultures. Particularly, they were not sure about the situation of meeting and interacting with culturally distinctive people (M = 2.89), or becoming sociable (M = 3.34). However, the two lowest mean scores of item 4 (M = 2.80) and item 5 (M = 2.89) revealed that there was a high number of participants who found it hard to talk to culturally distinctive people. Hence, it is understandable when up to 54% of them were uncertain about what to say (item 5) when interacting with others from different cultures, while 29% disagreed or strongly disagreed with the item, meaning that they might find it confusing about what they should say in the given context.

*Levels of Language Learning Motivation*

Data from questionnaire showed the high level of language learning motivation with the high mean scores for both dimensions of integrativeness (4.18) and instrumentality (4.13). Accordingly, the total mean score of English learning motivation among EFL students was as high as 4.15, considered the 'high' level.

**Table 7**

*Mean Scores of Dimensions of ELM Scale*

| Dimensions | Mean | SD | Interpretation |
|---|---|---|---|
| Integrative motivation | 4.18 | .50 | High |
| Instrumental motivation | 4.13 | .51 | High |
| **Total** | **4.15** | **.50** | **High** |

It is worth noticing that the highest mean score for integrativeness was for the purpose of meeting and conversing with more and varied people (item 2, M = 4.59).

**Table 8**

*Descriptive Results of Integrative Motivation*

| Item | I study English … | M | SD | Label |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | to be more at ease with other people who speak English | 4.58 | .593 | Very high |
| 2 | to meet and converse with more and varied people | 4.59 | .600 | Very high |
| 3 | to better understand and appreciate English art and literature | 4.40 | .726 | High |
| 4 | to participate more freely in the activities of other cultural groups | 4.39 | .756 | High |
| 5 | to know the life of the English-speaking nations | 4.37 | .741 | High |
| 6 | to understand English pop music | 4.00 | .876 | High |
| 7 | The more I get to know native English speakers, the more I like them | 3.86 | .849 | High |
| 8 | to know various cultures and peoples | 4.39 | .674 | High |
| 9 | to keep in touch with foreign friends and acquaintances | 4.20 | .752 | High |
| 10 | to know more about native English speakers | 4.22 | .754 | High |
| 11 | The British are kind and friendly | 3.59 | .775 | High |
| 12 | The Americans are kind and cheerful | 3.62 | .754 | High |
| | **Overall mean score** | **4.18** | | **High** |

*Note*. M = Mean (N = 224), SD = Standard Deviation, N = Number

Meanwhile, the highest mean score for instrumentality was for the purpose of future career (item 13, M = 4.65).

**Table 9**

*Descriptive Results of Instrumental Motivation*

| Item | Items: I study English because … | M | SD | Label |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| 13 | I'll need it for my future career | 4.65 | .609 | Very high |
| 14 | it will make me a more knowledgeable person | 4.48 | .669 | High |
| 15 | it will someday be useful in getting a good job | 4.61 | .604 | Very high |

| Item | Items: I study English because … | M | SD | Label |
|------|----------------------------------|-----|------|-------|
| 16 | other people will respect me more if I know English | 3.62 | 1.004 | High |
| 17 | I will be able to search for information and materials in English on the Internet | 4.53 | .627 | Very high |
| 18 | I will learn more about what's happening in the world | 4.33 | .702 | High |
| 19 | language learning often gives me a feeling of success | 3.95 | .851 | High |
| 20 | language learning often makes me happy | 3.99 | .836 | High |
| 21 | an educated person is supposed to be able to speak English | 3.41 | 1.125 | Not sure |
| 22 | I can understand English-speaking films, videos, TV or radio | 4.38 | .658 | High |
| 23 | I can read English book | 4.33 | .696 | High |
| 24 | to know new people from different parts of the world | 4.34 | .644 | High |
| 25 | without it one cannot be successful in any field | 3.12 | 1.192 | Not sure |
| | **Overall mean score** | **4.13** | | **High** |

*Note*. M = Mean (N = 224), SD = Standard Deviation, N = Number

### Correlation Between Intercultural Sensitivity and Language Learning Motivation

Based on the results of Pearson correlation, it was found that intercultural sensitivity and English learning motivation were positively correlated (p = 0.00). In addition, there were significant relations between dimensions of intercultural sensitivity and ones of English learning motivation, especially the strong correlation between: (a) interaction engagement and integrative-instrumental motivation (r = .278, r = .214); (b) interaction attentiveness and integrative-instrumental motivation (r = .246, r = .239); and (c) intercultural confidence and integrative-instrumental motivation (r = .214, r = .152). This means that EFL students with high sensitivity to intercultural communication are highly motivated to learn English, and vice versa. In other words, those who possess a high level of instrumental motivation and integrative motivation can possibly be sensitive to intercultural interaction and they can (a) enjoy engagement in interacting with others, (b) pay attention to obtain information while conversing with others, (c) show personal confidence at communicating with others, (d) show their respect to cultural differences, and (e) show their positive and enthusiastic feelings.

**Table 10**

*Pearson Correlation Between Intercultural Sensitivity and Learning Motivation*

| | | Language learning motivation |
|---|---|---|
| **Intercultural sensitivity** | Pearson Correlation | .272** |
| | Sig. (2-tailed) | .000 |
| | N | 224 |

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

When condensing the data into two categories, it reveals that intercultural sensitivity and language learning motivation were significantly and positively correlated (r = .272, p = 0.00). This means that students with high competence in intercultural

sensitivity are more motivated to learn English, and vice versa.

**Discussion and Conclusion**

The level of intercultural sensitivity among EFL students should necessarily be evaluated as cultural background and intercultural sensitivity can be acquired and developed during the language learning process. Furthermore, the degree of motivation should also be assessed since positiveness can be maintained during the process of English learning, resulting in achievements in competence of both linguistics and intercultural sensitivity. The study, therefore, explores the topic and yields several essential findings.

First, the EFL students of the study generally have a high level of intercultural sensitivity, yet they seem to lack confidence necessary to conduct intercultural communication. As the data revealed, EFL students are confused about what to discuss with culturally distinct people, unsure of themselves in interaction with others, and not sure about their confidence in the context of intercultural communication, resulting in the fact that they find it challenging to communicate with others. According to Deardorff (2014), intercultural sensitivity is not an in-born ability but requires training programs that could equip L2 learners with necessary cultural knowledge, competence and skills so that their interaction confidence can be improved. With confidence in intercultural interaction, EFL students can also "deal with the feeling of alienation, frustration, and stress caused by the ambiguous situation in the process of intercultural communication" (Chen & Starosta, 2000, p. 4). Accordingly, they may increase the degrees of other dimensions of intercultural sensitivity, such as the feelings of being more engaged, more pleasantly enjoying while conversing, being more attentive towards intercultural communication

circumstances, and having further respect for cultural differences.

Second, the EFL students of the study generally have a high level of language learning motivation, with the high levels of instrumental motivation, integrative motivation, and their positive attitudes and interests in native culture and community. The gap between EFL students' levels of integrativeness versus degrees of instrumentality is inconsiderable. The instrumental motivation represents students' concern for prospective employment opportunities, while integrative motivation represents students' desire to meet and communicate with people from various cultural backgrounds. More noticeably, EFL students consider that their learning of English can bring them ease and feelings of being comfortable at communicating with others who speak English, indicating evidence of integrative motivation. Obviously, when L2 learners have instrumental and integrative motivation, coupled with positive attitudes toward the learning situation, their language achievement could be obtained consequently (Gardner, 2001b).

Third, the correlation between intercultural sensitivity and language learning motivation is significant and positively related, which was in line with an initial assumption of the study. It means that the higher level an individual's motivation is, the higher degree that person's intercultural sensitivity will be. It, in that case, can be anticipated that one can enjoy interacting with culturally distinct people with their positive feelings, attention, personal confidence and respect to cultural differences. Also, one who has high sensitivity towards intercultural communication can be motivated to learn English thanks to her/his strong instrumentality and integrativeness. An individual who is de-motivated to learn a second language may experience less communication with other

cultures and might learn less about the cultural norms of the target community (Badrkoohi, 2018). Therefore, the high level of intercultural sensitivity seems to be an impetus to drive one's motivation to a higher level. The current study shows the positive relationship between intercultural sensitivity and language learning motivation, which can also explain the willingness to communication of an L2 learner. Lack of motivation would be related to a lack of willingness to communicate, which then consequently leads to the lack of intercultural competence (Badrkoohi, 2018). Thus, intercultural sensitivity is positively related to language learning motivation; motivation can have positive associations with intercultural sensitivity, and willingness of an EFL student to communicate in a culturally distinct context can be anticipated from the degree of motivation.

Fourth, the findings of the study reveal that the contemporary training programs delivered to EFL students have been effective as their sensitivity to intercultural communication can be enhanced within the language learning process. However, 'interaction confidence' seems to be EFL students' weakness probably because of limited real-life experiences. It is suggested that teachers should communicate with their students about the importance of intercultural communicative competence, intercultural sensitivity, and language learning motivation which could help increase their performances during and after the program. In addition, more practices should be provided so that students could gain experiential lessons. With the pressure of assignments and academic evaluations, students might have the impetus to improve their skills and competence. This suggestion aligns with a recommendation of Deardorff (2014), stating that intercultural competence should be intentionally addressed throughout the curriculum and experiential learning. In other words, intercultural sensitivity should be embedded in the teaching and learning programs, aiming to increase motivation to learn English, leading to higher levels of intercultural communicative competence, and boosting students' confidence in intercultural communication context.

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## Appendix 2: The Questionnaire

Dear Student,

Thank you for your participation in the Survey on Intercultural Communicative Competence (ICC) and Language Learning Motivation (LLM) of EFL Students.

The questionnaire has two sections: Section 1 - Intercultural Communicative Competence Scale (24 questions), and Section 2 - Language Learning Motivation Scale (25 questions). These questions will take about 10 minutes to complete. The survey is anonymous, your name is not required; hence, no one will be able to identify you or your answers and no one will know whether or not you participated in the study. Please note that no one will be personally identified when the results of the survey are reported.

Your participation in this study is voluntary (your choice). By completing the questionnaire, you are voluntarily agreeing to participate. You are free to decline to answer any particular question you do not wish to answer for any reason. If you have any questions or concerns about the research study or this questionnaire, please contact Huyen Nguyen on +84-978-466-689 or by email huyenhtqt@hanu.edu.vn.

Thank you very much.

Hanoi, September 2021.

## Section 1

## Intercultural Communicative Competence Scale

*Adopted from the Scale developed and validated by Chen and Starosta (2000)*

Below is a series of statements concerning intercultural communication. There are no right or wrong answers. Please work quickly and record your first impression by indicating the degree to which you agree or disagree with the statement. Thank you for your cooperation.

| | Statements | Strongly agree (5) | Agree (4) | Uncertain (3) | Disagree (2) | Strongly disagree (1) |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | I enjoy interacting with people from different cultures. | | | | | |
| 2 | I think people from other cultures are narrow-minded. | | | | | |
| 3 | I am pretty sure of myself in interacting with people from different cultures. | | | | | |

| | Statements | Strongly agree (5) | Agree (4) | Uncertain (3) | Disagree (2) | Strongly disagree (1) |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 4 | I find it very hard to talk in front of people from different cultures. | | | | | |
| 5 | I always know what to say when interacting with people from different cultures. | | | | | |
| 6 | I can be as sociable as I want to be when interacting with people from different cultures. | | | | | |
| 7 | I don't like to be with people from different cultures. | | | | | |
| 8 | I respect the values of people from different cultures. | | | | | |
| 9 | I get upset easily when interacting with people from different cultures. | | | | | |
| 10 | I feel confident when interacting with people from different cultures. | | | | | |
| 11 | I tend to wait before forming an impression of culturally-distinct counterparts. | | | | | |
| 12 | I often get discouraged when I am with people from different cultures. | | | | | |
| 13 | I am open-minded to people from different cultures. | | | | | |
| 14 | I am very observant when interacting with people from different cultures. | | | | | |
| 15 | I often feel useless when interacting with people from different cultures. | | | | | |
| 16 | I respect the ways people from different cultures behave. | | | | | |
| 17 | I try to obtain as much information as I can when interacting with people from different cultures. | | | | | |
| 18 | I would not accept the opinions of people from different cultures. | | | | | |

| | Statements | Strongly agree (5) | Agree (4) | Uncertain (3) | Disagree (2) | Strongly disagree (1) |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 19 | I am sensitive to my culturally distinct counterpart's subtle meanings during our interaction. | | | | | |
| 20 | I think my culture is better than other cultures. | | | | | |
| 21 | I often give positive responses to my culturally different counterpart during our interaction | | | | | |
| 22 | I avoid those situations where I will have to deal with cul-turally-distinct persons. | | | | | |
| 23 | I often show my culturally-distinct counterpart my under-standing through verbal or nonverbal cues. | | | | | |
| 24 | I have a feeling of enjoyment towards differences between my culturally-distinct counter-part and me. | | | | | |

*Note*. Items 2, 4, 7, 9, 12, 15, 18, 20, and 22 are reverse coded before summing the 24 items. Interaction Engagement items are 1, 11, 13, 21, 22, 23, and 24, Respect for Cultural Differences items are 2, 7, 8, 16, 18, and 20, Interactional Confidence items are 3, 4, 5, 6, and 10, Interaction Enjoyment items are 9, 12, and 15, and Interaction Attentiveness items are 14, 17, and 19.

## Section 2

### English-Learning Motivation Scale

*Adopted from the Survey Questionnaire by Vaezi (2008)*

Below are a number of statements with which some people agree and others disagree. We would like you to indicate your opinion about each statement by ticking the boxes below which best indicates the extent to which you disagree or agree with that statement.

| | Statements | Strongly agree (5) | Agree (4) | Uncertain (3) | Disagree (2) | Strongly disagree (1) |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | Studying English can be important to me because it will allow me to be more at ease with other people who speak English. | | | | | |
| 2 | Studying English can be important to me because it will allow me to meet and converse | | | | | |

| | Statements | Strongly agree (5) | Agree (4) | Uncertain (3) | Disagree (2) | Strongly disagree (1) |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | with more and varied people. | | | | | |
| 3 | Studying English can be important for me because it will enable me to better understand and appreciate English art and literature. | | | | | |
| 4 | Studying English can be important to me because I will be able to participate more freely in the activities of other cultural groups. | | | | | |
| 5 | It is important for me to know English in order to know the life of the English-speaking nations. | | | | | |
| 6 | Studying English is so important to me so that I can understand English pop music. | | | | | |
| 7 | The more I get to know native English speakers, the more I like them. | | | | | |
| 8 | Studying English is important to me so that I can know various cultures and peoples. | | | | | |
| 9 | Studying English is important to me so that I can keep in touch with foreign friends and acquaintances. | | | | | |
| 10 | I would like to know more about native English speakers. | | | | | |
| 11 | The British are kind and friendly. | | | | | |
| 12 | The Americans are kind and cheerful. | | | | | |
| 13 | Studying English can be important for me because I'll need it for my future career. | | | | | |
| 14 | Studying English can be important for me because it will make me a more knowledgeable person. | | | | | |

| | Statements | Strongly agree (5) | Agree (4) | Uncertain (3) | Disagree (2) | Strongly disagree (1) |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 15 | Studying English can be important for me because it will someday be useful in getting a good job. | | | | | |
| 16 | Studying English can be important for me because other people will respect me more if I know English. | | | | | |
| 17 | Studying English can be important for me because I will be able to search for information and materials in English on the Internet. | | | | | |
| 18 | Studying English can be important for me because I will learn more about what's happening in the world. | | | | | |
| 19 | Studying English can be important for me because language learning often gives me a feeling of success. | | | | | |
| 20 | Studying English can be important for me because language learning makes me happy. | | | | | |
| 21 | Studying English can be important to me because an educated person is supposed to be able to speak English. | | | | | |
| 22 | Studying English is important to me so that I can understand English-speaking films, videos, TV or radio. | | | | | |
| 23 | Studying English is important to me so that I can read English books. | | | | | |
| 24 | Studying English is important to me because it will enable me to get to know new people from different parts of the world. | | | | | |

| | Statements | Strongly agree (5) | Agree (4) | Uncertain (3) | Disagree (2) | Strongly disagree (1) |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 25 | Studying English is important to me because without it, one cannot be successful in any field. | | | | | |

**Thank you for your contribution.**

# KHÁM PHÁ MỐI QUAN HỆ GIỮA ĐỘ NHẠY LIÊN VĂN HÓA VÀ ĐỘNG LỰC HỌC NGOẠI NGỮ: NGHIÊN CỨU ĐỐI VỚI SINH VIÊN CHÍNH QUY NGÀNH NGÔN NGỮ ANH TẠI MỘT TRƯỜNG ĐẠI HỌC Ở VIỆT NAM

Nguyễn Thanh Huyền

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**Tóm tắt:** Nghiên cứu này thực hiện để điều tra mối quan hệ giữa độ nhạy liên văn hóa và động lực học ngoại ngữ đối với sinh viên chính quy ngành Ngôn ngữ Anh tại Trường Đại học Hà Nội, là cơ sở giáo dục đại học công lập tại Hà Nội, Việt Nam. Kết quả nghiên cứu thể hiện mối tương quan dương giữa độ nhạy liên văn hóa và động lực học ngoại ngữ bởi sinh viên Ngôn ngữ Anh đều đạt mức cao đối với hai yếu tố này; tuy vậy, dường như các sinh viên thiếu sự tự tin trong giao tiếp liên văn hóa. Nghiên cứu gợi ý các thầy, cô nên chia sẻ với sinh viên Ngôn ngữ Anh về tầm quan trọng của năng lực giao tiếp liên văn hóa, độ nhạy liên văn hóa, và động lực học ngoại ngữ. Bên cạnh đó, chương trình giảng dạy nên tích hợp môn độ nhạy liên văn hóa.

*Từ khóa*: độ nhạy liên văn hóa, động lực học ngoại ngữ, năng lực giao tiếp liên văn hóa, tiếng Anh như Ngoại ngữ (EFL), ngôn ngữ thứ hai (L2)

# STUDENTS' PERCEPTIONS TOWARDS E-QUIZZES IN ONLINE EFL CLASSROOMS

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**Abstract.** Technology is being increasingly integrated into teaching environments in view of enhancing EFL students' online learning experience. This article presents the outcomes of research employing a motivation theory technique to examine students' experience using game-play quizzes at a university in Vietnam. Questionnaire and focus group interview with students were used to learn about the extent to which students perceive e-quizzes in their learning process. Quantitative data collected was analyzed using SPSS and Huberman's (1994) analytical framework was used to clarify qualitative data from interviews. Key findings based on quantitative data revealed that almost all students presented favourable views towards quizzes use. Findings from the interview noted that online quizzes enriched the quality of student learning in the classroom, with the highest influence reported on motivation, enjoyment and improved preparation and participation. The study also suggests that the use of online games in the classroom is likely to raise competitiveness, thereby improving intellectual stimulation, long-term retention of knowledge and digital skills.

*Keywords:* EFL students, e-quizzes, positive views, quality of learning

## 1. Introduction

Due to the Covid-19 outbreak, practically all schools and institutions throughout the world had to cancel their physical classrooms and shifted to online virtual classrooms in early 2020. The techniques used by teachers to convey the curriculum, as well as other components, have differed considerably across the world. Information technology and internet technology, according to Zhou, Li, and Wu (2020), are essential for online teaching and learning. In this perspective, the most obvious reason for incorporating technology into language schools is to increase student motivation and inspiration. In order to

satisfy the needs of students, teachers are also encouraged to cover vital learning themes and to employ various teaching tactics that assist students in becoming more active participants with good motivation and devotion to their study. Fitriani et al. (2021) claim that adopting online platforms in teaching and learning will help students become self-directed learners.

However, some instructors may find it difficult. Many instructors found it challenging to teach online and involve students in their teaching. In this sense, games can be used to break the ice as it is a creative and interesting learning activity. Games not only help students achieve their

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English learning objectives but they also encourage students to participate actively in their education, fostering constructive learning, skill development, and problem-based learning (Parreoa, 2016). Gamification is a relatively new notion in education, despite the fact that games have long been used in the classroom. Because gamification is such a new idea, there has not been much research done on it yet. While gamification research is still in its infancy, results have been varied. One of them is, when used correctly, it has a beneficial influence on learning and motivation, making it suited for use in both offline and online classrooms. This effect may also be seen in foreign language schools. Despite being recommended for inclusion in the teaching framework, gamification is presently employed in foreign language instruction very sporadically.

Despite the potential for gamified e-quizzes to be utilized in foreign language classrooms and a rising body of research on the subject, the growing corpus of studies has been too brief and included a limited number of participants. Existing research has produced no concrete or long-term results. Furthermore, scholars have not investigated the acceptance and use of e-quizzes by Vietnamese university students. This study aims to fill such gaps in the literature.

## 2. Purpose of The Study

It was the purpose of the study to investigate the perceptions of Vietnamese university students towards the use of online quizzes in English-language learning. The research questions are as follows:

1. What are students' perceptions of gamified e-quizzes use pertaining to attention, attitude, relevance, confidence and satisfaction?

2. What do students perceive as potential advantages of gamified e-quizzes use in English-language learning?
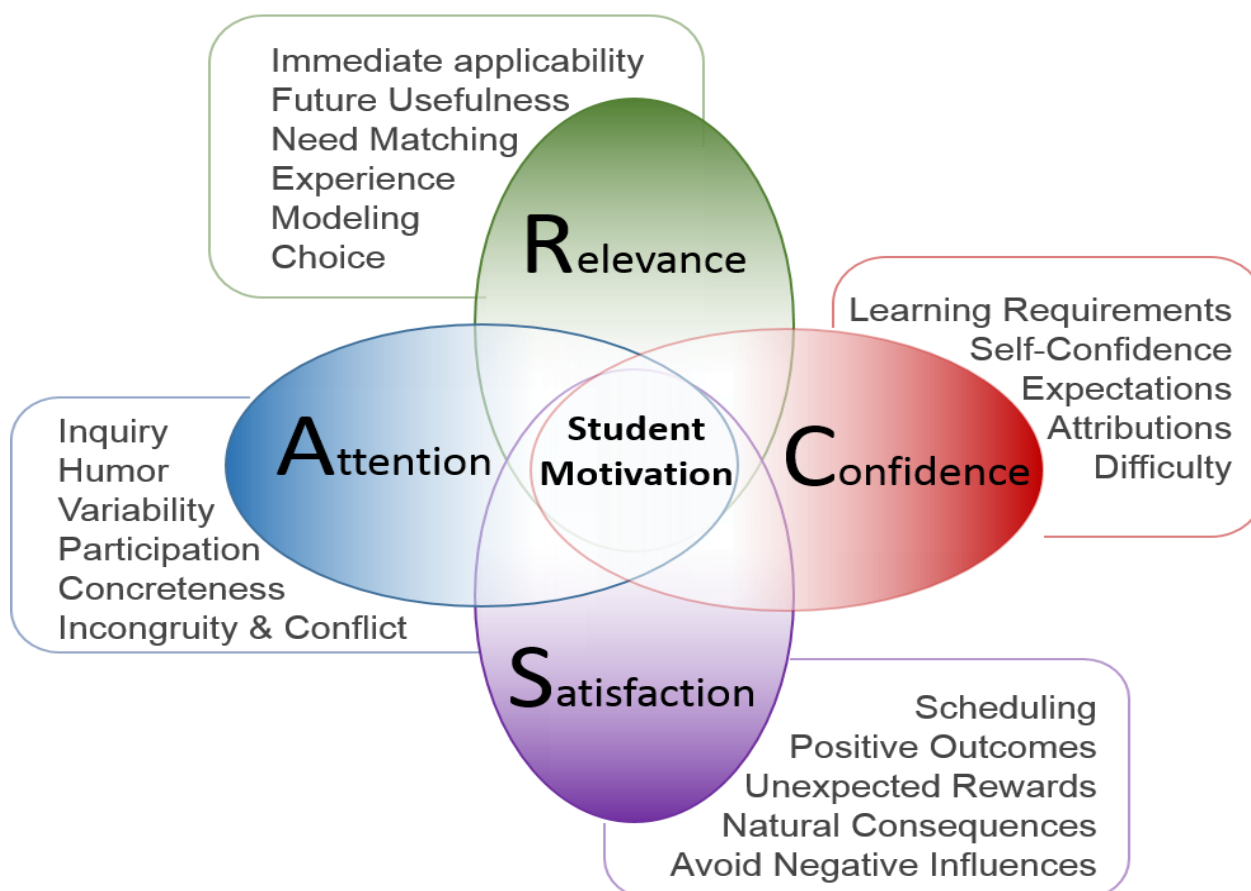
## 3. Literature Review

### 3.1. Theoretical Framework

This research employed a motivation theory technique. This is because motivating learners to participate is critical to eLearning success; designing for motivation gives strategies for overcoming motivation gaps, increasing engagement, and driving learning and behavior change. While the Technology Acceptance Model (TAM) has been widely used in educational research to investigate factors influencing students' attitudes toward the use of digital games (e.g., Bourgonjon et al., 2013), there has been little prior research examining motivational variables influencing students' perceptions of e-quizzes. TAM was attacked for failing to include human, organizational, and environmental factors (Mathieson, 1991; McFarland & Hamilton, 2006). Keller's (1987) Attention, Relevance, Confidence, Satisfaction (ARCS) model is one of the most highly disputed motivational theories in education, and it has been suggested that it be used as a criterion for deciding if a game could boost learning motivation (Karoulis & Demetriadis, 2005). The ARCS model of Keller (1987) has also been tried in gamification (Huang, Huang, Diefes-Dux & Imbrie, 2006) and computer-based learning (Dempsey & Johnson, 1998; Su & Cheng, 2015). The ARCS model, like many other motivation models, assumes that people are motivated to the point that their actions are expected to produce good results (Robbins, 2005).

**Figure 1**

*Model of Motivation: ARCS Instructional Design (Kurt, 2021)*

Immediate applicability
Future Usefulness
Need Matching
Experience
Modeling
Choice

Relevance

Learning Requirements
Self-Confidence
Expectations
Attributions
Difficulty

Inquiry
Humor
Variability
Participation
Concreteness
Incongruity & Conflict

Attention

Student
Motivation

Confidence

Satisfaction

Scheduling
Positive Outcomes
Unexpected Rewards
Natural Consequences
Avoid Negative Influences

By analyzing four dimensions: (1) attention, (2) relevance, (3) confidence, and (4) satisfaction, the researcher wants to build on prior studies about students' perceptions of e-games. Curiosity and arousal, interest, boredom, and other related topics like sensation seeking fall under the attention category. The second category, relevance, refers to learners' views that the instructional needs are in line with their objectives, suitable to their learning methods, and related to their previous experiences. The third category, confidence, refers to the students' own belief to accomplish something and confidence in their ability to succeed. The fourth and final condition of motivation is contentment. It comprises the right combination of internally and extrinsically rewarding rewards that both maintain and discourage undesired learning patterns. These four categories served as a foundation for aggregating the different concepts, theories, techniques, and tactics related to learning motivation (Keller, 1987), but it was later demonstrated that they did not fully account for variability in persistence across learners. Those who were highly driven would persevere until they achieved their objective, but those who were less motivated would postpone or give up even if the eventual goal was vital to them.

### 3.2. Game-Based Learning

In the 1980s, the primary focus of game use in English teaching and learning was on their use in the classroom. Later, it was determined that game-based learning

was beneficial in assisting learners' learning processes and comprehension of various curricular topics. Game-based learning has lately acquired significance in the field of education, particularly in the teaching and learning of the English language, as individuals see the immense potential of games in enhancing learners' educational performance (Groening & Binnewies, 2019; Lopez & Tucker, 2019). Understanding of game-based learning has expanded substantially over the years, as has understanding that games may aid to consolidate English language instruction and learning. When games are used in the classroom, children are more likely to actively participate. Players also expressed a desire to be able to study effectively and enjoyably while playing games. Traditional methods of teaching and learning English have become less common in the classroom as a result of these discoveries throughout time, as instructors are now transitioning to a new era in which teaching and learning are preferred to be done through the use of e-learning platforms. Adoption of digital games in schools is seen to be an effective teaching and learning medium since it may (a) increase students' motivation to study (Charsky & Ressler, 2011; Kebritchi & Hirumi, 2008; Klein & Freitag, 2010; Yang, 2012), (b) allow students to learn a foreign language in a more enjoyable way (Bolliger, 2015), (c) enhance autonomy in learning (Wang & Lieberoth, 2016), (d) increase students' engagement in the classroom (Smith, 2018) and (e) promote competitiveness (Ruggiero, 2013).

### 3.3. Previous Studies on Students' Perceptions of Learning With Digital Games

Whether the use of games actually leads to positive learning and motivational outcomes might be highly dependent on students' perceptions and experience of learning with games. Several studies examined students' views on digital games in education (e.g., Bourgonjon et al., 2009; Bolliger, 2015; Park et al., 2012; Fithriani, 2018; Gamlo, 2019; Wang & Lieberoth, 2016). It showed students' positive attitude towards digital games since it increases concentration in learning and provides enjoyment at the same time (Wang & Lieberoth, 2016). A study was conducted by Fithriani (2018) on 30 EFL learners who were attending an extra English course that relies on technological resources. It revealed the positive attitude of students with games, especially in teaching grammar. In addition, Gamlo (2019) implemented a study on foundation-year students at King Abdulaziz University to find out the role of games on students' motivation to learn English. These studies are based on an extension of the technology acceptance model (TAM, Davis, 1989). In the current study, the author will focus on the motivation model. The author deliberately selected students that used digital games in their online classroom on a regular basis.

## 4. Research Methodology

### 4.1. Setting and Participants

EFL first year students at Hanoi Pedagogical University 2 were the study's target participants. The sample size for this study is 45 students. The students' levels on the Common European Framework of Reference range from (A1) to (B1), and they are between the ages of 18 and 20. They studied Reading and Writing 2 and Listening and Speaking 2 at the same time. The English classes were exclusively delivered online. The response rate was 100%; 45 students completed the survey.

### 4.2. Data Collection

In this inquiry, the researcher used two instruments to collect data: a questionnaire survey and an interview. The questionnaire includes a total of 17 questions. Su and Cheng's (2015) initial

perceptions of attention (A), relevance (R), confidence (C), and satisfaction (S) in digital games were modified. All items are scored on a 5-point Likert scale, with 1 indicating strong disagreement and 5 indicating strong agreement. A focus group interview consisting of nine students was used to find out potential advantages of using game-play quizzes in the classroom.

### 4.3. Data Analysis

The survey data was statistically analyzed with SPSS 20.6 to provide descriptive statistics for evaluating students' perceptions of e-quizzes. Responses from students in the semi-structured interview comprise qualitative data. In this study, the researcher applies Huberman's (1994) analyzing technique. After conducting semi-structured interviews with students, the author begins transcribing and translating the data as needed. Data reduction is the initial stage of data analysis. It refers to the 'process of selecting, focusing, simplifying, abstracting, and transforming the "raw" data that appear in written-up field notes or transcription.' The second major flow of analysis activity is data display. A 'display' is an organized assembly of information that permits conclusion drawing and action taking. The third stream of analysis activity is conclusion drawing and verification. The author draws conclusions concerning the literature on gamified e-quizzes.

**Figure 2**

*Huberman's Analysis Process (Huberman, 1994)*
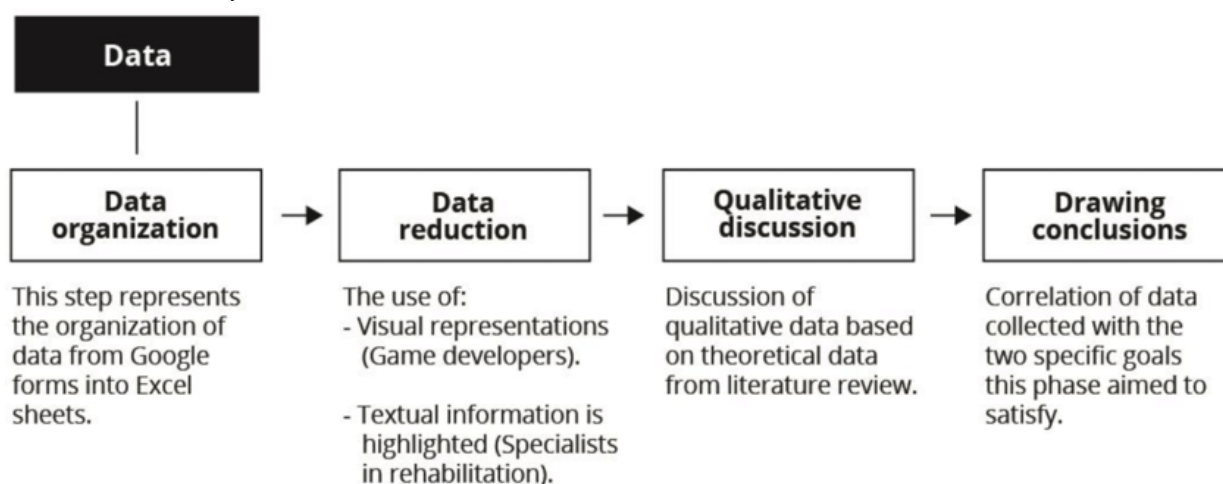


## 5. Findings

### 5.1. Students' Perceptions of Gamified E-Quizzes Use Pertaining to Attention, Relevance, Confidence and Satisfaction

#### Attention

**Table 1**

*Descriptive Statistics for Students' Attention*

| Items | M | SD |
|---|---|---|
| A1. The designs of the games draw my attention. | 3.95 | .09 |
| A2. The manner in which the quizzes are presented helps me focus my attention. | 3.97 | .73 |
| A3. The e-quizzes aroused my curiosity. | 3.88 | 1.05 |
| A4. After participating, the quizzes made my learning experience more interesting. | 3.72 | 1.07 |

Participants were agreeable with all items on the preference subscale. They were enthusiastic about the themes of the quizzes. As can be shown in the table, a majority of students confirmed that e-quizzes in the

classroom helped them focus their attention and aroused curiosity (M=3.97 and 3.88 accordingly). Obviously, they had interesting experience (M=3.72).

**Table 2**

*Descriptive Statistics for Relevance*

| Items | M | SD |
|---|---|---|
| R1. I can link the content of the gamified e-quizzes to knowledge with which I am already familiar. | 3.83 | .61 |
| R2. The content of gamified e-quizzes is linked to my daily experiences. | 3.55 | .85 |
| R3. The content of gamified e-quizzes is valuable and worth learning. | 3.95 | .65 |
| R4. Gamified e-quizzes in this course are very helpful to me. | 3.88 | .76 |
| R5. Playing gamified e-quizzes helped me prepare for course exams. | 3.97 | .83 |
| R6. I was motivated to improve my learning after playing gamified e-quizzes. | 3.95 | .65 |

Participants were generally agreeable with items pertaining to the relevance of e-quizzes. The majority agreed or strongly agreed with all statements on this subscale. In detail, students agreed or strongly agreed that they could link the content of the gamified e-quizzes to knowledge with which they were already familiar. They also confirmed the valuable learning content of e-quizzes. These results are not surprising due to the degree to which this medium has been designed as a form of formative assessment.

**Table 3**

*Descriptive Statistics for Confidence*

| Items | M | SD |
|---|---|---|
| C1. I am confident that I can develop my learning using gamified e-quizzes. | 3.53 | .7 |
| C2. I am confident that I can apply what I learn from gamified e-quizzes to my daily life. | 3.62 | .75 |
| C3. I believe I will learn enough about course content from gamified e-quizzes so that I can perform well on the final exam. | 2.37 | .95 |

Regarding confidence, students were confident that they could apply what they learn from e-quizzes to their life (M=3.62). They also felt that e-quizzes could enhance their learning (M=3.53). However, they disagreed or strongly disagreed that they learned enough about course content from given games that they could get good academic results.

**Table 4**

*Descriptive Statistics for Satisfaction*

| Items | M | SD |
|---|---|---|
| S1. I enjoyed the Listening and Speaking and Reading and Writing 2's learning quizzes. | 3.69 | .77 |
| S2. I am satisfied with my learning achievement in the Listening and Speaking and Reading and Writing 2's learning quizzes. | 3.88 | .69 |
| S3. I would like to keep using mobile quizzes in the future. | 3.79 | .86 |
| S4. I would like to use mobile learning quizzes in other courses. | 3.97 | .59 |

The majority of respondents agreed or strongly agreed that they desired to continue to utilize mobile quizzes (M=3.97 and 3.79). They also enjoyed the course thanks to online quizzes.

In short, respondents felt strongly that e-games could help them develop their learning. Moreover, the data reported that they were satisfied with the experience of using online games in their course.

### 5.2. Potential Advantages of Gamified E-Quizzes Use in English Language Learning

#### 5.2.1. Motivation to Learn

Regarding the students' motivation to learn, eight students mentioned that playing e-quizzes helped them to become more interested in the subject and to better understand the value of what they learned.

One noted, 'I'm motivated to analyze my understanding and knowledge of anything I've lately learned.'

Another added, 'when I take the quizzes, I get to put my knowledge into practice, thus I am eager to learn and analyze my knowledge.' It seems that she thought that the use of games would motivate students to study and review lessons.

'By taking quizzes, I can put theory into practice. It takes the monotony out of merely listening to theory.'

One student felt e-games motivating her to take examinations in challenges and rewarding them with points. In her own words, 'you give us some advice, but I still lose points. As a result, I need to study textbooks and pay strict attention to your instructions.'

'I need to pay attention to every detail of your teaching in order to win the games.'

'The quiz questions assisted me in determining which topics/terms I needed to understand for the classroom discussions.'

Respondents believed that using games will encourage them to study, attend lessons, and get more actively engaged during sessions. They expected that using them would boost their interest in and passion for English-language study.

#### 5.2.2. Preparation and Participation

Not only were students eager to start working with games; often they were willing to continue playing even when school was finished.

'I always look forward to your quizzes. I'd want to win at least once, but everything has gone wrong. I'm sure I'll give it my all next semester.'

'I used to show up to courses without having read the materials. However, the questions compelled me to read the chapters. I was convinced that I could pass the course since I could converse about the contents.'

'The tests forced me to come to class having read the material. Because I had completed the readings ahead of time, merely rereading my notes prior to the exam day greatly aided me on the final. I believe I avoided anxiety in this manner because I planned ahead of time.'

'I don't study the chapters ahead of time since I know my teacher will go over the crucial parts during the lecture. Quizzes, on the other hand, motivated me to read the chapters ahead of time. I honestly would not have read them if there had been no tests.'

#### 5.2.3. Enjoyment

Among the comments from students, they stressed that they played the e-quizzes for pleasure and as a de-stressor (to relieve tension), mood-boosting, enjoyment and entertainment. For instance, S1 reported, 'I enjoy taking your tests since they help me relax.' 'The quizzes' themes are fascinating,' said another.

'I can relieve tension by playing video games.'

'I like playing quizzes after listening to your explanation.'

'Your quizzes contribute to my everyday learning. They're both amusing and appealing.'

'It really improves my mood. I am no longer concerned about my studies. I recommend at least one quiz every course.'

'I appreciate it when my instructor allows us to play games. However, the slow internet connection occasionally stops me

from keeping up with my pals.'

These remarks stress the fact that e-quizzes may be utilized to create an enjoyable environment for language learning. It may be used to assist teachers in designing innovative learning environments and motivating students to study in a pleasant and interesting atmosphere.

### 5.2.4. Competitiveness

Competition as a game characteristic was mentioned by five students who had noticed that competition helped the students to stay engaged because of their desire to win the game. For instance, a student reported,

'I was careless in the first few classes. After that, I discovered that I wanted to win in order to obtain a bonus from my teacher. It irritated me when I scored lower than others. So I attempted to read more and revise my expertise.'

One student stated, 'I was disengaged since I did not gain enough points to win the game. I tried to read books before class and was successful three times.'

One student felt a sense of accomplishment and intellectual stimulation when she succeeded in finishing the game. In her own words, 'I couldn't put into words how thrilled I am to have won multiple times when playing e-quizzes.'

'I believe my understanding has improved because I have been on the leader board three times, including once as the champion.'

Obviously, they appear to have been driven to perform something due to competitiveness. Although there was no built-in rivalry in the e-games, students occasionally created their own competition by comparing their own success to that of their classmates.

### 5.2.5. Immediate Feedback

There is a continuing need for educators to develop effective, creative teaching ways to promote students' learning. The teacher's feedback does play a part in this process when she used e-quizzes in her classroom.

'You constantly review the questions after playing quizzes so that I retain the information longer.'

'It's great that I can get instant feedback from you so I can go over my information again.'

'Your explanations after each question help me recall the information for a longer period of time.'

'When I finished the quizzes, I received immediate and thorough feedback on my performance. I remembered my score and the pages where I could re-read the content.'

### 5.2.6. Digital Skills Enhancement

Some other students (S1, S2, S4, S7, S9) also raised technical issues that were related to their digital assignments. For example, 'these quizzes have helped me enhance my computer skills as well as my understanding of various game applications' (S9).

'I am familiar with several programs for creating my own quizzes through playing my teacher's quizzes.'

'I was encouraged to investigate further applications that can be utilized in language education. This gives me more confidence in my work.'

## 6. Discussion

The present study examined the perceptions of students toward the game-based learning method in an EFL classroom. The questionnaire results revealed that in general, the participants evaluated e-quizzes positively. Respondents feel that the contents of e-quizzes are connected to their past knowledge because of the multiple

benefits, according to the findings of this study. This is in line with conclusions of Bourgonjon et al., 2009; Bolliger, 2015; Fithriani, 2018; Gamlo, 2019; Park et. al, 2012; Wang & Lieberoth, 2016 as they conclude that educational technology used in the classroom can assist students and teachers in staying interested in their study activities.

According to students, this tactic is a means of pushing students to participate in class activities while learning the English language. Gamified e-quizzes help students develop an interest in their educational activities by stimulating them via the use of digital games. This is consistent with studies conducted by Charsky and Ressler (2011); Kebritchi and Hirumi (2008); Klein and Freitag, 2010; Yang, 2012. Preparation and involvement, as well as the acquisition of digital skills, were cited as benefits of playing e-games. In this study, e-quizzes involve the use of features like scores, badges, rankings, and rewards, making immediate feedback possible. This encourages students to engage in the learning environment and enables them to accomplish tasks. One of the aspects that contributed to student learning, according to the students in this study, was the capacity for students to learn in an enjoyable atmosphere. This finding corroborates with Bolliger's (2015) conclusion as e-games allow students to learn a foreign language in a more enjoyable way. Students' acknowledged competitiveness during gameplay as a crucial component in developing students' learning. It should be noted that when the competition was not incorporated into the game, students formed their own competition by comparing their accomplishment to that of their classmates. The perceived significance of competition is consistent with Ruggiero's (2013) research, which emphasizes competitiveness as a positive aspect of using games in the classroom. While students see competition

as an important component of a game that increases engagement, drive to study, and cognitive learning outcomes, the perceived effect of competition on learning and motivational outcomes is unclear. In addition, e-quizzes used in this study also stimulate students' intellectual effort. In fact, students will be stimulated not only when they are challenged, but also when they see that they can successfully meet the challenges that are presented. Last but not least, by taking quizzes, students can get immediate feedback from the teacher. Regardless of the materials being taught, regardless of the age or background of the students, forgetting happens. As reported by students, playing quizzes helped them review knowledge thanks to the teacher's feedback.

The findings and conclusions of this study show that English language learners have a positive attitude about completing online quizzes. Despite the fact that the Covid-19 pandemic exerted certain limitations on the amount of authentic material in games as a teaching and learning condition, respondents had high aspirations for this application to be utilized in their classroom.

## 7. Conclusions

The study's goal was to investigate Vietnamese university students' attitudes on the usage of game-based quizzes in English-language learning. The outcomes of this study will help scholars and practitioners better understand the adoption of e-quizzes in foreign language learning among Vietnamese university students. It can be concluded from the statistics that integrating and employing gamified quizzes in English-learning courses is a realistic option. Participants were usually excited about using them in the classroom to learn English. They mentioned motivation, fun, preparation and participation, competitiveness, immediate

feedback and digital skill enhancement as possible advantages.

Some limitations must be highlighted. To begin with, the data are geographically limited due to their collection by a single Vietnamese institution. Second, all respondents attended a public university that is regarded as one of the greatest educational institutions in northern Vietnam. As a result, readers should exercise caution when interpreting the study's conclusions, as they may not be generalizable to other circumstances. To better represent the population, other researchers may collect data from a range of Vietnamese higher education institutions, both private and public. Finally, the researcher distributed the survey to her students during class. This might have influenced student responses by introducing bias (Gravetter & Forzano, 2009) or worries about power and influence (Creswell, 2014). Avoidance of such bias or worries should be attempted in similar studies.

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# Appendix

## I. Questionnaire

Dear participants,

This questionnaire aims at surveying students' perceptions towards the use of e-quizzes

in online classrooms. Your participation in the questionnaire is greatly appreciated. The information gathered will only be included in the research paper and will not be utilized for any other purpose.

Thanks for your cooperation!

*Please by tick (✓) the number that can best indicate what applies to you. Make sure to mark only one.*

1 = Strongly disagree          4 = Agree

2 = Disagree                   5 = Strongly agree

3 = Neutral

### 1. Attention (A)

| Item | Content | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
|------|---------|---|---|---|---|---|
| A1 | The designs of the learning games draw my attention. | | | | | |
| A2 | The manner in which the quizzes are presented helps me focus my attention. | | | | | |
| A3 | The e-quizzes aroused my curiosity. | | | | | |
| A4 | After participating, the quizzes made my learning experience more interesting. | | | | | |

### 2. Relevance (RE)

| Item | Content | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
|------|---------|---|---|---|---|---|
| RE1. | I can link the content of the gamified e-quizzes to knowledge with which I am already familiar | | | | | |
| RE2. | The content of gamified e-quizzes is linked to my daily experiences. | | | | | |
| RE3. | The content of gamified e-quizzes is valuable and worth learning. | | | | | |
| RE4. | Gamified e-quizzes in this course are very helpful to me. | | | | | |
| RE5. | Playing gamified e-quizzes helped me prepare for course exams. | | | | | |
| RE6. | I was motivated to improve my learning after playing gamified e-quizzes. | | | | | |

### 3. Confidence (C)

| Item | Content | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
|------|---------|---|---|---|---|---|
| C1 | I am confident that I can develop my learning using gamified e-quizzes. | | | | | |
| C2 | I am confident that I can apply what I learn from | | | | | |

| Item | Content | | | | | |
|------|---------|---|---|---|---|---|
| | gamified e-quizzes to my daily life. | | | | | |
| C3 | I believe I will learn enough about course content from gamified e-quizzes so that I can perform | | | | | |

**4. Satisfaction (S)**

| Item | Content | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
|------|---------|---|---|---|---|---|
| S1 | I enjoyed the Listening and Speaking and Reading and Writing 2's learning quizzes. | | | | | |
| S2 | I am satisfied with my learning achievement in the Listening and Speaking and Reading and Writing 2's learning quizzes. | | | | | |
| S3 | I would like to keep using mobile quizzes in the future. | | | | | |
| S4 | I would like to use mobile learning quizzes in other courses. | | | | | |

**II. Interview questions**

Please describe the benefits you gained through playing digital games in learning English in this class. (Please describe a specific example.)

# TÌM HIỂU NHẬN THỨC CỦA SINH VIÊN VỀ TRÒ CHƠI TRỰC TUYẾN TRONG LỚP HỌC TRỰC TUYẾN CHUYÊN NGỮ TIẾNG ANH

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**Tóm tắt:** Công nghệ đang được tích hợp vào môi trường giáo dục nhằm nâng cao quá trình học trực tuyến của sinh viên chuyên ngữ tiếng Anh. Bài viết này cung cấp kết quả của nghiên cứu sử dụng lý thuyết động lực để tìm hiểu về nhận thức về việc sử dụng ứng dụng trò chơi của sinh viên tại một trường đại học Việt Nam. Tác giả đã sử dụng bảng khảo sát và phỏng vấn với sinh viên để tìm hiểu về nhận thức của sinh viên về trò chơi trực tuyến trong quá trình học tập. Dữ liệu định lượng được phân tích bởi SPSS và dữ liệu định tính được phân tích theo khung phân tích của Huberman (1994). Kết quả cho thấy hầu hết sinh viên đều có cảm nhận tích cực về việc sử dụng trò chơi. Kết quả phỏng vấn ghi nhận rằng các trò chơi trực tuyến làm tăng chất lượng học trong lớp thông qua động lực, niềm vui, sự chuẩn bị và tham gia. Nghiên cứu cũng cho thấy việc sử dụng các trò chơi trực tuyến trong lớp có khả năng nâng cao sự cạnh tranh, từ đó nâng cao sự kích thích trí lực, sự ghi nhớ kiến thức lâu dài và kỹ năng công nghệ thông tin.

*Từ khóa:* sinh viên chuyên ngữ tiếng Anh, trò chơi trực tuyến, thái độ tích cực, chất lượng học

# GENERIC STRUCTURE POTENTIAL ANALYSIS
# OF VIETNAMESE PRECEDENTS

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**Abstract**: Genre is the linguistic level that is of interest to many researchers as evident in a large number of research papers related to genre analysis. In linguistics, genre analysis also has several directions of research with distinct techniques. In this paper, the theory of Generic Structure Potential, which was developed by Hasan Ruquaiya (1989), was used to investigate the macrostructure of legal discourse. The legal discourse chosen to examine was Vietnamese precedents. The method used in this article was the descriptive method through content analysis from the qualitative approach. The result of this study showed the macrostructure of Vietnamese precedents from the perspective of Generic Structure Potential. The article contributed to the picture of genre analysis with a variety of legal discourses. The description of the macrostructure helps to characterize the cultural context of Vietnamese precedent discourses that is considered as a stratum of discourse analysis from the perspective of Systemic Functional Linguistics.

*Keywords*: macrostructure, Vietnamese precedent, generic structure potential, genre analysis

## 1. Introduction

Linguistics is an abstract and complex field of study with diverse theories. Among those theories, Systemic Functional Linguistics (henceforth, SFL) is a theory in which many scholars are interested at this present time. In Vietnam, over the past 10 years, there have also been studies on SFL. Many researchers around the world and in Vietnam acknowledge that SFL plays a useful role in the analysis of different languages, not just English. Among the theories developed based on Systemic Functional Grammar whose father is Halliday, Generic Structure Potential

(henceforth, GSP) formulated by Hasan (1989) is considered one of the effective theories in genre analysis of discourse. In Vietnam, some linguists have started to research and analyze some types of texts in Vietnamese from the perspective of GSP.

SFL is interested in "language in use" which operates in many fields of study. Law is an area where language plays an extremely important role. Using the wrong expressions in the legal field will entail unpredictable consequences. However, in Vietnam, the study of legal language on the SFL aspect still has many gaps in the research. One of the most prominent issues that attract lots of interest from jurists is

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"precedent". Case law is not a new issue in the legal profession in countries where their legal system is common law. Even in countries with the civil-law legal system, it is not novel to mention "precedent". However, in our respectful country, precedents have only been studied to apply since 2005 and the first precedents were officially announced in 2016.

## 1.1. Research Questions

With the desire to capture the trend in research, the study of Vietnamese precedents which are considered completely new legal discourses is embarked. The first step in studying these legal discourses is to approach their macrostructure. It is believed that SFL and GSP will frame a suitable method to start conducting genre analysis.

For the above reasons, the following key research questions are outlined to seek for the answers:

(i) What are the features of Vietnamese precedents?
(ii) What is the macrostructure of Vietnamese precedent in terms of GSP?

## 1.2. Previous Studies

As mentioned above, GSP has been widely studied and applied in genre analysis of a text. Around the world, there were a number of articles which used GSP to conduct genre analysis. With the "tale" genre, Hasan (1984), Ewata and Eds (2018) analyzed the macrostructure of that type of discourse in detail. News and magazine discourses have been studied by more scholars, namely Fatemeh Naderi (2012), Olaniyan (2014), Olagunju (2015), Sunday and Eds (2017), Putranto and Eds (2018), Kyaw and Eds (2019). In the field of advertising, studies on GSP could be mentioned such as Nurhayati and Eds (2017), Hayati (2018), and Nugroho (2019). Some other genres were also studied such as Ajayi (2019) on Christian Street evangelism

in Southwestern Nigeria, Adedamola and Eds (2020) with an article relating to banking discourses; Dalimunte and Eds (2020) with a paper researching English language textbooks of economics and Islamic economics in an Indonesian university from the perspective of GSP. However, legal discourses have not been examined, and consequently their macrostructure, especially that of precedents or judicial documents remains a non-charted territory in linguistic research.

In Vietnam, among the small number of studies on genre or genre analysis from the perspective of GSP, outstanding articles on applying GSP to analyze some genres of discourse must be mentioned, for instance, T. M. T. Nguyen (2018) with a study related to English introductory pages of institution websites in Vietnam; T. L. Nguyen (2018) with a paper mainly about GSP and writing business correspondence in English, Do (2018) with the research named "Practical applications of discourse study on language teaching", or Kieu (2019) with research relating to English-Vietnamese blog language. Again, these studies demonstrate that genre investigation of Vietnamese precedents has not been carried out from the view of GSP. That means our genre analysis of Vietnamese precedent discourse will be meaningful and make helpful contributions to the use of SFL.

## 2. Theoretical Framework

### 2.1. Legal Discourse

#### (i) The Concept

Until now, the concept of legal discourse has generally been agreeable among linguists. In the research on the language of law, Finegan (2013) listed the types of texts that belong to the genre of legal discourse. According to that, it is the language used in written legal documents; the interpretation of legal documents in

judicial decisions; the language used in the courtroom; written contracts that create legal rights and obligations: leases, insurance policies, wills and disclaimers; interactions between public authorities and citizens: police interviews with crime suspects and stakeholders; regular emails and other checked correspondence relating to possible illegal communication; face-to-face and telephone conversations (e.g., secretly-recorded interactions between persons suspected of criminal conspiracy) (Finegan, 2013, pp. 482-483). It can be inferred that precedents can be classified as one of the categories of legal discourse in the shape of judicial decisions. Therefore, precedent discourses will contain certain characteristics of the legal discourse. That is why in the next section we will describe the basic features of the legal discourse that have been mentioned by previous studies.

### (ii) The Feature of Legal Discourse

Legal English is widely known for its complexity from both perspectives: syntax and vocabulary. Gustafsson (1984) mentioned lexical complexity to difficulties in meaning understanding and called it conceptual complexity because the meaning of a word cannot be understood without legal knowledge despite the word's clear content (Gustafsson, 1984). The following are some of the main features of the legal discourse.

- Procedure and formality in the process of building legal discourse

Yon Maley (1987) analyzed Australian and British law in terms of features of the legislative language and its role in law-making. She examined the interplay of history, social functioning, participant roles, accepted legislative goals and the use of language to show that the language of law can be studied from the aspect of style or register (Halliday, 1989). Accordingly, an analysis of the style or the context of legal discourse reveals contradictions that coexist in legal

documents. The reason for this linguistic feature is that legal texts often include provisions on the legal rights and obligations of the entities involved. These regulations shall predict the possible behavior of citizens in the future. Therefore, the development of these legal norms must ensure flexibility as well as certainty and stability. The important role of legal documents is to develop legal norms on rights and obligations. That is the reason why modal verbs such as "shall, must, and may" play a very crucial part in creating binding for provisions in legal documents from the aspect of linguistics (Maley, 1994, p. 30).

- The ambiguity and complexity of legal discourse

Mellinkoff (1963) with the study on legal language described the characteristics of this language genre as "wordiness, lack of clarity, pomposity and dullness". He also concluded that the use of archaic words and phrases from Old English, the Middle Ages, French and even Latin is the feature of this genre as well. In addition, the use of formal words and structures in both spoken and written language is normal in legal discourses. Moreover, the use of legal technical words and phrases that ensure accuracy but are embedded with vague intentions of the legislator makes the legal language difficult to understand and extremely complicated (Mellinkoff, 1963).

Bhatia (1983a, 2013) has also done a lot of research on legal language and its application in the teaching of English for specific purposes. Similarly, he examined the ambiguity and complexity as the featured characteristics of the legal texts (Bhatia, 1983b, 1987). Danet and Van Dijk (1985) concluded that the features of the legal discourse could be noticed as the following: the dense use of technical terms such as "real property", "fee simple"; the use of common terms but with completely different

meanings in the legal context such as "assignment", "beneficial"; the use of archaic expressions such as "hereinafter" "wheresoever"; the use of doublets such as "cease and desist", "will and bequeath"; preference to use "shall" over "will"; the use of present emphatic, e.g. "do(es) hereby convey"; the use of irregular prepositional phrases and the high frequency of "any".

- Lengthy sentence

The length of sentence is one of the prominent features mentioned in the studies of Gustafsson (1975). He considered that to be one of the main characteristics of the legal language. It was explained that the use of lengthy sentences was just a habit that followed the old traditional writing system in English. That kind of characteristic can be easily found not just as a trend, but as a tradition in English legal documents. Bhatia (1983a) or Gibbons (1994) also mentioned long-sentences as a characteristic of legal language when studying this genre of language.

- Complexity in grammar and sentence structure

The next feature in the legal language is the rather complicated grammar and sentence structure. This feature is emphasized in the study of Tiersma (1999). Similarly, Quirk et al. (1972) mentioned the characteristic of legal language with complex prepositional phrases such as "in respect of", "in accordance with", etc. These phrases tend to appear more frequently in legal English than in other English genres (Quirk, 2010). The complexity of the sentence structure shown in Bhatia's studies is that in most cases the subordinate clauses appear to the left of the main clause, the subordinate clauses are adverbial clauses that usually begin with "if", "where" or

"when". Bhatia (2014) argued that placing adverbial clauses at the beginning of a sentence is reasonable, therefore it has become popular. It was the intention of the editors to put adverbial clauses first to let the listeners/speakers focus more on these and then to reduce their attention to other parts of the sentence intentionally ("delaying the introduction of the legal subject") (Bhatia, 2014, p. 110).

Complex grammar and sentence structure are also reflected in the use of embedded clauses in legal language. According to Quirk (2010), the use of embedded clauses complicates sentence grammar and creates the sentence length. Gibbons (1994) clarified that the embedded clauses taken together would give rise to the length and complexity of the sentence structure. This is one of the features of the legal language. If a subordinate clause is wrapped in another, it causes unnecessary complexity and creates a disruption in the flow of the sentence. In addition, in the aspect of syntax, legal discourse is also characterized by nominalizations, domination of passive sentences, omission of relative pronouns, frequent use of complex conditions, a high percentage of prepositional phrases, unusual length, complexity of multiple envelopes and frequency of negations.

- Adverbial clause

Another outstanding feature of the legal language is the dense appearance of adverbial clauses and their position. In traditional English grammar, the occurrence of adverbial phrases can be seen in every possible position in the sentence. They can be placed before the subject, after the subject, between the subject and the verb, between the auxiliary and the main verb, after the main verb and after conjunctions

(Nguyen et al., 2012). However, in legal discourse, Mellinkoff (1963) showed that most cases were found of adverb insertion between auxiliary and main verbs. This placement of adverbial phrases can make legal English more special. In addition, Mellinkoff believed that besides the dense occurrence frequency, the position of adverb phrases was a remarkable feature of legal discourse. It is put in unusual places in sentences where adverbs are not normally placed. They are inserted between the auxiliary and the main verb, or in some places immediately after conjunctions (Mellinkoff, 1963).

In summary, the most basic features of the legal language are long sentences, complex grammar and sentence structure, dense occurrence and irregular positions of adverbial clauses. It is these basic characteristics that make the legal language complicated, difficult to understand, and difficult to access for those who do not have expertise in this field.

### 2.2. Generic Structure Potential

Genre analysis is of interest to many scholars from different perspectives. There are three main directions of genre analysis of text/ discourse: Systemic Functional Linguistics (highlighted GSP by Hasan), English for Specific Purposes (Swales with well-known papers) and Genre as Social Interaction (Sade Olagunju, 2019, p. 63). On the line of this research trend, Rhetoric Genre Study (Freedman & Artemeva, 2006; Freedman & Medway, 2003) is also becoming an applicable direction to investigate genre theory and the diverse genre in language use. In this paper, the analytical framework of GSP will be applied to conduct the analysis of the genre of Vietnamese precedents.

Structure of a text refers to the overall structure, the global structure of the message form (Hasan, 1989, p. 53). On the basis of Register Theory developed by Halliday, Hasan introduced a new concept called Contextual Configuration. Accordingly, Contextual Configuration– a specific set of values that realizes the field, tenor and mode, "permits statements about the texts structures" to be made (Halliday & Hasan, 1985, p. 56). Contextual Configuration can help analysts predict the structure of a text through the features of it. The features of Contextual Configuration include: (1) what elements must occur? (2) what elements can occur? (3) where must they occur? (4) where can they occur? (5) how often can they occur? As understood from Hasan's analysis of contextual configuration, "element" can be seen as a sentence/ utterance or a group of sentences/ utterances that functions in language use (Halliday & Hasan, 1989, p. 59, 61). In addition, T. M. T. Nguyen (2018) considered the multimodal part (e.g., images) as an element of GSP. Therefore, in the light of SFL, a Contextual Configuration can predict the following about text structure:
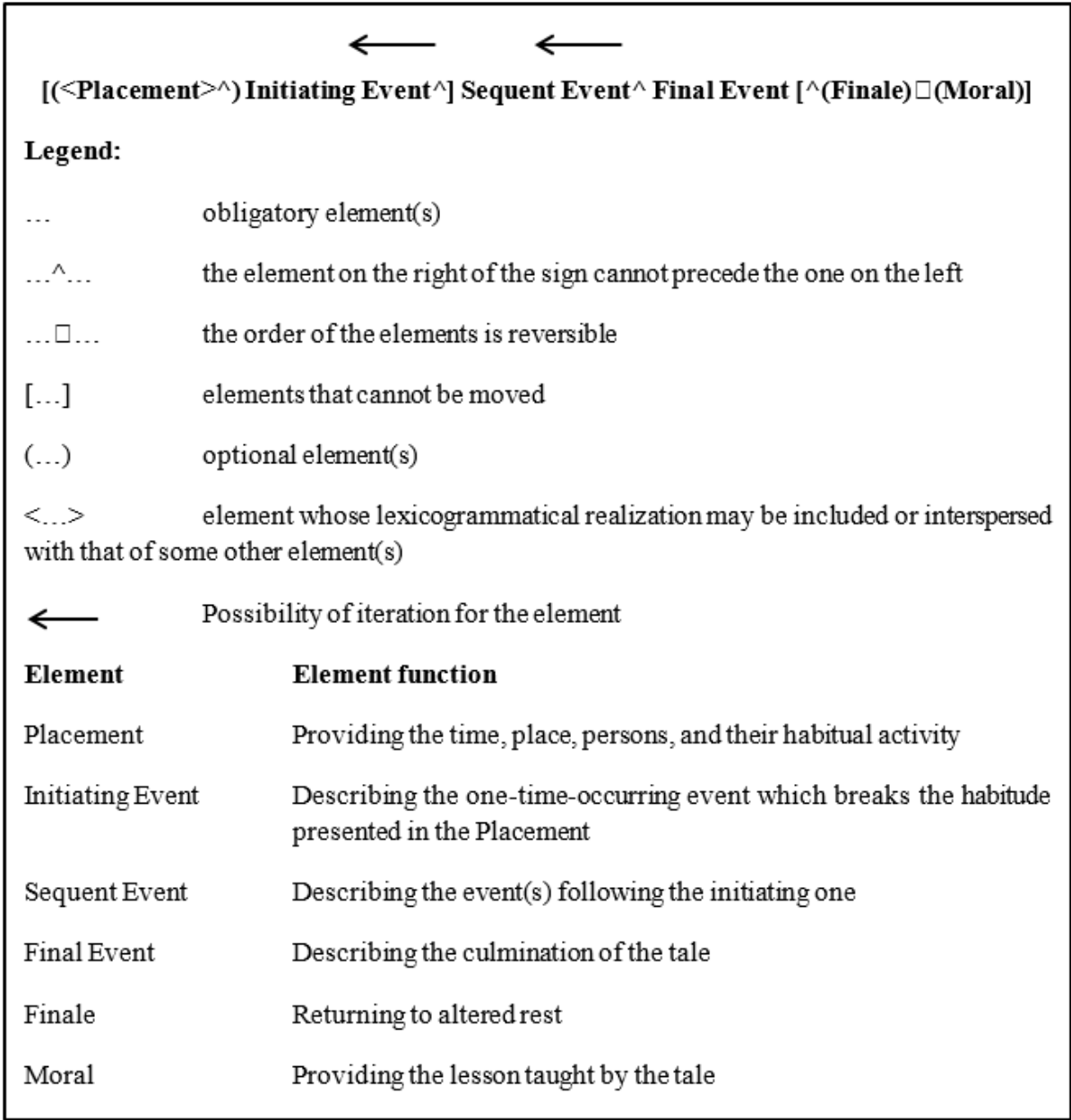
(i)   Obligatory elements
(ii)  Optional elements
(iii) Sequencing of elements
(iv)  Iteration

Investigating some classic English fairy tales, Hasan (1984) proposed the following Generic Structural Potential of fairy tales as shown in the following Figure 1.

Accordingly, the GSP model for fairy tales includes six elements, namely Placement, Initiating Event, Sequent Event, Final Event, Finale and Moral. In the scope of this research, our data is Vietnamese precedents.

**Figure 1**

*GSP Model for Fairy Tales (Hasan, 1984, p. 54) (Redrawn From Ewata, Oyebade & Onwu, 2018, p. 77)*



**[(<Placement>^) Initiating Event^] Sequent Event^ Final Event [^(Finale)□(Moral)]**

**Legend:**

| | |
|---|---|
| ... | obligatory element(s) |
| ...^... | the element on the right of the sign cannot precede the one on the left |
| ...□... | the order of the elements is reversible |
| [...] | elements that cannot be moved |
| (...) | optional element(s) |
| <...> | element whose lexicogrammatical realization may be included or interspersed with that of some other element(s) |
| ⟵ | Possibility of iteration for the element |

| Element | Element function |
|---|---|
| Placement | Providing the time, place, persons, and their habitual activity |
| Initiating Event | Describing the one-time-occurring event which breaks the habitude presented in the Placement |
| Sequent Event | Describing the event(s) following the initiating one |
| Final Event | Describing the culmination of the tale |
| Finale | Returning to altered rest |
| Moral | Providing the lesson taught by the tale |

## 3. Corpus Description

### 3.1. An Overview of Vietnamese Precedents

First of all, the concept of precedent needs to be understood uniformly. The concept of precedent is different in many countries. However, in Vietnam, "precedent is the findings and decisions in the valid Judgment or Decision[1] of the Court on a

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[1] Judgment and Decision are two types of a competent Court's official documents where the hearings of court are written.

specific case selected by the Council of Judges of the Supreme People's Court and announced by the Chief Justice of the Supreme People's Court as a precedent for the courts to study and apply in trial" (Article 1, Resolution 04/2019/NQ-HDTP of the Council of Judges of the Supreme People's Court).

A Court Judgment becomes precedent when it is made according to a four-step process: suggestion; comment; approval; announcement. Individuals, agencies and organizations may submit suggestions for Judgments of the Court in legal effect to be approved as precedent. According to Article 7, Resolution 04/2019/NQ-HDTP of the Council of Judges of the Supreme People's Court, precedent must include the following main contents:

(i)   Number and name of precedent

(ii) Precedent source: number, name and judgment of the Court chosen to be a precedent

(iii) Introduction of the content of Judgment and the Court's findings

(iv) Legal basis related to the case

(v)   Keyword related to this precedent

(vi) Content of the case and previous Court's findings

(vii) Quoting part of Judgment and the Court's findings to be chosen a case law (source of law)

### 3.2. Research Corpus

Vietnamese precedents selected as research data were 43 texts in total. They are all the discourses which were selected and approved by the Council of Judges of the Supreme People's Court in the period from 2015 to February 2021. There were 316 pages in the research corpus of Vietnamese precedents. This data was helpful to describe the macrostructure of that type of legal discourse. From the aspect of ethics in research, many full proper names given in the following examples were presented in the same way as in the Vietnamese precedents announced by the Viet Nam Supreme People's Court. Because these names were officially open in Viet Nam, the usage of those names was acceptable from the ethical perspective.
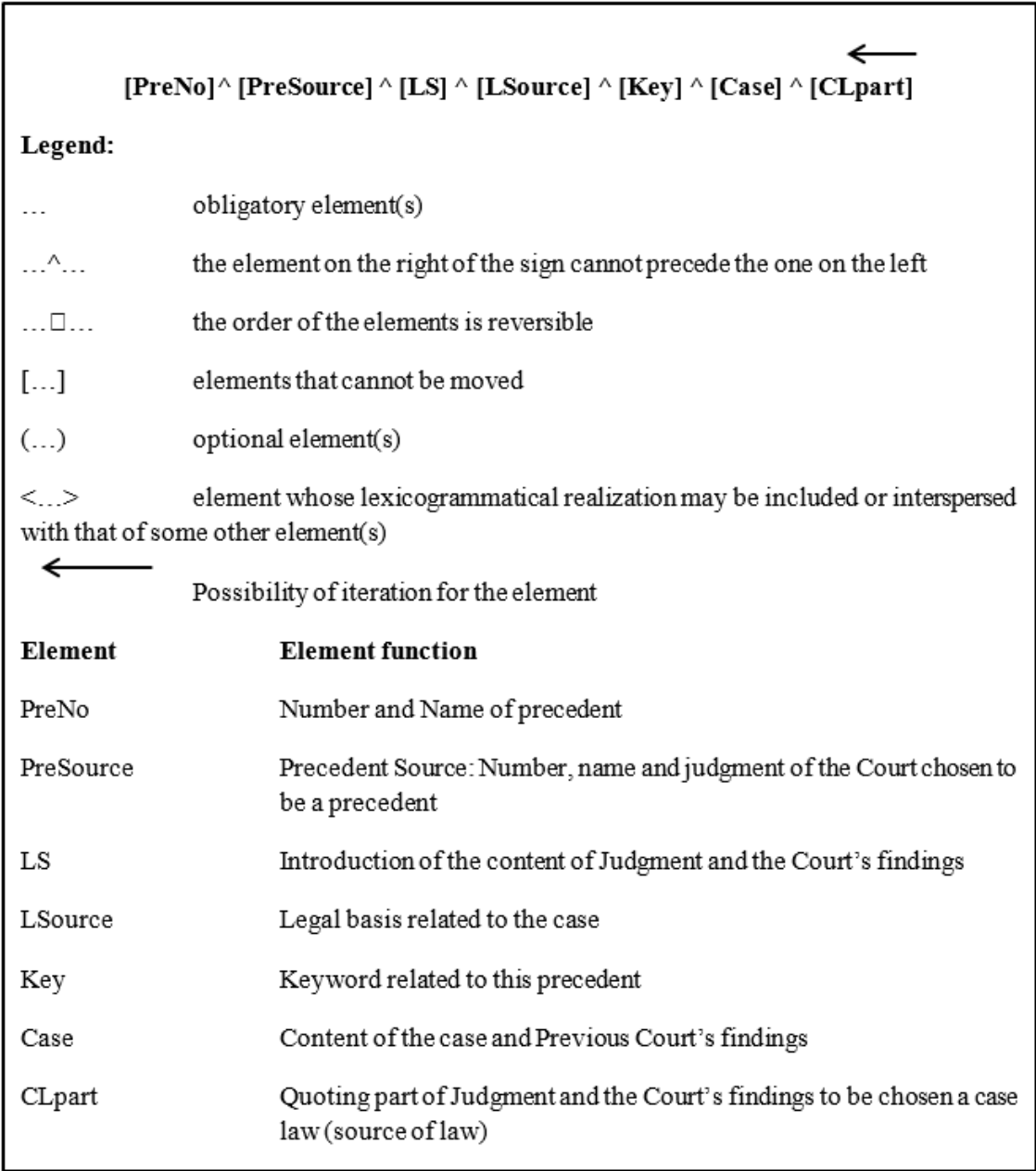
## 4. Findings and Discussion

Based on five questions drawn by GSP for genre analysis of a text, we conducted a survey of 43 Vietnamese precedents with four concentrations: (i) obligatory elements; (ii) optional elements; (iii) sequencing of elements; (iv) iteration. By determining these elements, the GSP of Vietnamese precedents must be defined (T. M. T. Nguyen, 2018, p. 74).

### 4.1. Obligatory Elements

As presented in the above, the basic contents of Vietnamese precedents must consist of seven parts in the announcement of the Chief Justice of the Supreme People's Court. That is to say the published precedents must have seven mandatory elements. The survey results have once again confirmed these elements. The survey results are illustrated in Figure 2 below.

**Figure 2**

*GSP Model for Vietnamese Precedents*

$$[PreNo]^\wedge [PreSource] \wedge [LS] \wedge [LSource] \wedge [Key] \wedge [Case] \wedge [CLpart]$$

**Legend:**

| | |
|---|---|
| … | obligatory element(s) |
| …^… | the element on the right of the sign cannot precede the one on the left |
| …□… | the order of the elements is reversible |
| […] | elements that cannot be moved |
| (…) | optional element(s) |
| <…> | element whose lexicogrammatical realization may be included or interspersed with that of some other element(s) |
| ← | Possibility of iteration for the element |

| Element | Element function |
|---|---|
| PreNo | Number and Name of precedent |
| PreSource | Precedent Source: Number, name and judgment of the Court chosen to be a precedent |
| LS | Introduction of the content of Judgment and the Court's findings |
| LSource | Legal basis related to the case |
| Key | Keyword related to this precedent |
| Case | Content of the case and Previous Court's findings |
| CLpart | Quoting part of Judgment and the Court's findings to be chosen a case law (source of law) |

Among these obligatory elements, the last element CLpart (Quoting part of Judgment and the Court's findings to be chosen a case law - source of law) is the repeated element. This is essentially a piece of text, which serves as an obligatory element. However, the content of this section is taken verbatim from the CC section (Case content). For that reason, CLpart must be treated as the recurred element. This repeating element is an obligatory element which always appears in Vietnamese precedents. The figure below is used for the illustration of seven elements in a Vietnamese precedent (Precedent No. 04/2016/AL).

**Figure 3**

*Extraction of Precedent No. 04/2016/AL*



## 4.2. Structure of Case Content

Case content is an obligatory element appearing in the macrostructure of Vietnamese precedents. This obligatory element accounts for a very large volume of precedents, usually from ½ to 2/3 of the content. Therefore, it would be a mistake not to conduct a GSP of CC analysis.

The results showed that CC may contain seven components as in Figure 4. The

results of the survey on the occurrence of these elements are presented in Table 2 below.

**Table 2**

*The Distribution of Elements in the Vietnamese Precedents*

| Precedent number/element | CC | CFI1 | CA1 | CFI2 | CA2 | CR | CF | CL | CD |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 01; 07 | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | X |
| 02; 03; 04; 05; 19; 21; 08; 10; 25; 13; 14; 15; 16; 33 | X | X | X | | | X | X | X | X |
| 06; 09; 24 | X | X | X | Xa | Xa | X | X | X | X |
| 11; 12; 17; 20; 29; 31; 32; 26; 17; 43 | X | X | X | | | X | X | Xb | X |
| 18; 22; 30; 41 | X | X | X | | | | X | X | X |
| 23 | X | X | X | | | | X | Xb | X |
| 28 | X | X | X | X | | X | X | Xb | X |
| 34; 36; 37; 38; 40 | X | X | X | | | X | X | Xb | X |
| 35; 39 | X | X | X | X | X | X | X | Xb | X |
| 42 | X | X | | | | | X | Xb | X |

*Note*: X: appeared in the Vietnamese precedents

Xa: CFI and CA recurred 3 times

Xb: CL is placed in to the beginning of CD

From Table 2, it can be seen that the obligatory elements include: CC, CFI, CF, CL, CD. Optional elements include: CA, CR. And, CFI, CA and CR are recursive elements. The GSP of CC part is illustrated in Figure 4 below.

**Figure 4**

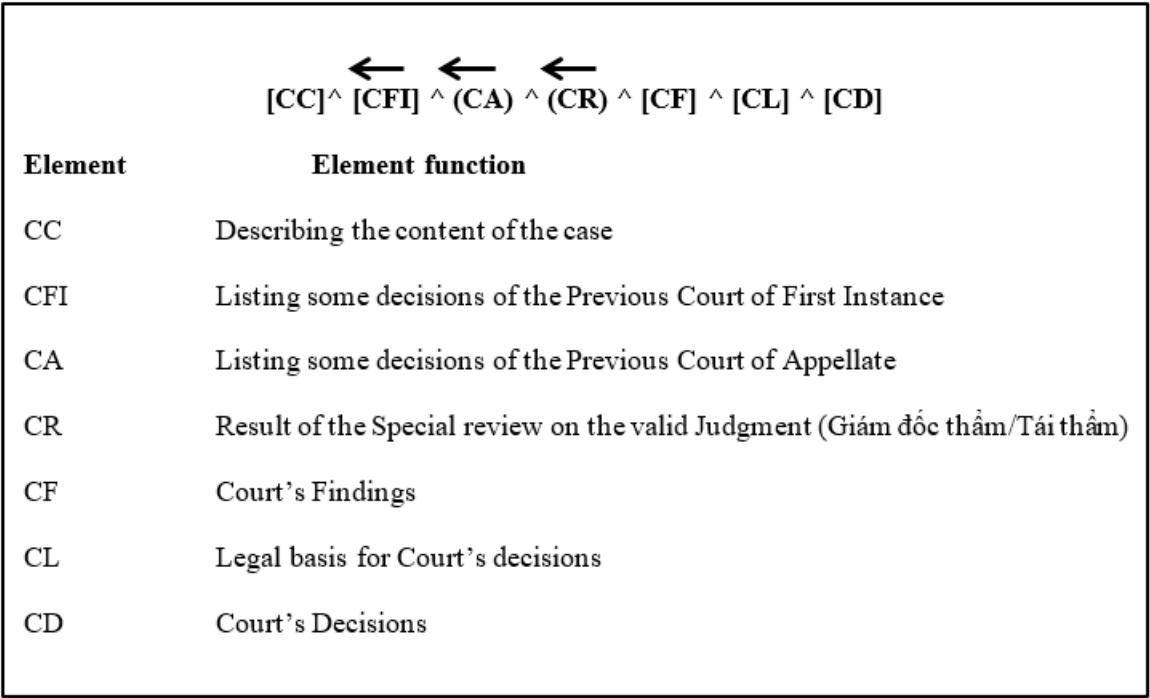*GSP Model for the "Case" Part of Vietnamese Precedents*

[CC]^ [CFI] ^ (CA) ^ (CR) ^ [CF] ^ [CL] ^ [CD]

| Element | Element function |
|---|---|
| CC | Describing the content of the case |
| CFI | Listing some decisions of the Previous Court of First Instance |
| CA | Listing some decisions of the Previous Court of Appellate |
| CR | Result of the Special review on the valid Judgment (Giám đốc thẩm/Tái thẩm) |
| CF | Court's Findings |
| CL | Legal basis for Court's decisions |
| CD | Court's Decisions |

**Figure 5**

*Extraction of Case Content in Precedent No. 04/2016/AL*

*4.3. Macrostructure of Vietnamese Precedents from GSP Perspective*

Thus, by investigating 43

**Figure 6**

*GSP of Vietnamese Precedents*

[PreNo]^ [PreSource] ^ [LS] ^ [LSource] ^ [Key] ^ [CC]^ [CFI] ^ (CA) ^ (CR) ^

[CF] ^ [CL] ^ [CD]^ [CLpart]
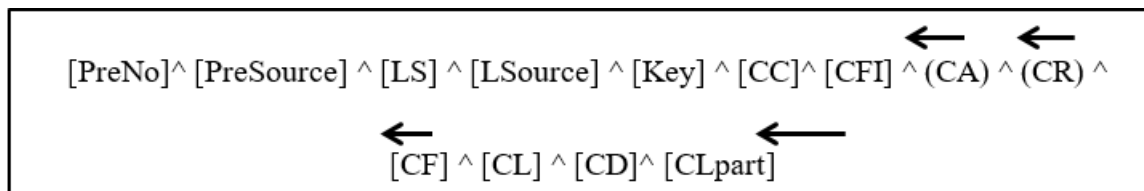
In the total of examined Vietnamese precedents, the obligatory elements based on the request of the competent authority all appeared. Complying with the prescribed contents is an obligation of the precedent-writing agency. This is a feature of legal discourses which must comply with a certain format of the competent authority. This will also be similar to other administrative and legal documents.

The content of the main part of the case law is CC. This section is composed of seven elements. Of which there are 5 obligatory elements, 2 optional elements and 3 recursive elements. Two optional elements CA, CR depend on how many times the case in that precedent is heard. If the case is heard at first instance and appellate once, the CA appears once and the CR must not appear. Similar inferences can be accepted. And elements that can recur are affected in the same way. If the precedent related to the case is heard many times, the iteration of CFI, CA, CR will be the same. This is understandable, since the CC part of the precedent must state the decisions of the previous courts. Therefore, CFI, CA and CR will recur in precedents.

Different types of the discourses will inevitably have their own macrostructure. Le, King-kui and Ying-Long (2008) and many other linguists have drawn the macrostructure of the diverse genre from the view of GSP and those results proved the difference in the structure of the discourses.

Vietnamese precedents, it can be summarized that the GSP of Vietnamese precedents is as follows.

T. M. T. Nguyen and H. H. Ngo (2017) investigated the macrostructure of abstracts of English and Vietnamese scientific articles and achieved the results with eleven elements of English research papers and ten elements of Vietnamese research papers. Meanwhile, Usman, Rizkiand Samad (2019) explored the macrostructure of political advertising posters for election activities in Aceh, Indonesia to show the distinctions in its constituent elements (p. 132). In that paper, the authors researched the genre analysis from the two different views of scholars Bhatia and Barron. The article showed that there were nine factors (moves) if applying Bhatia's model and seven factors if applying Barron's model.

**5. Conclusion**

Analyzing the genre of a text is not only theoretically meaningful, it also makes practical sense. Similarly, the genre analysis of Vietnamese precedents can be applied in summarizing precedents, or guiding research for Vietnamese law researchers. Through the investigation, the macrostructure of Vietnamese precedents can be represented by the following diagram: [PreNo] ^ [PreSource] ^ [LS] ^ [LSource] ^ [Key] ^ [CC] ^ [CFI] ^ (CA) ^ (CR) ^ [CF] ^ [CL] ^ [CD] ^ [CLpart]. GSP theory is a useful method in analyzing text genres. It is hoped that this paper will contribute to the analysis of a new genre of language - legal discourse named

"precedent". Through the GSP analysis of Vietnamese precedents, these kinds of legal discourse research will be relevant sources for legal experts and linguistic scholars to seek for a new model or improve Vietnamese precedents in the near future. In addition, it is expected that there should be much more ESP investigations of other professional genres.

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# TIỀM NĂNG CẤU TRÚC THỂ LOẠI CỦA ÁN LỆ TIẾNG VIỆT

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**Tóm tắt**: Thể loại là cấp độ phân tích được nhiều nhà nghiên cứu quan tâm và có đa dạng các công trình nghiên cứu. Trên bình diện ngôn ngữ học, phân tích thể loại cũng có vài đường hướng nghiên cứu với những thủ pháp riêng biệt. Trong bài viết này, lý thuyết Tiềm năng cấu trúc thể loại (Generic Structure Potential) của Hasan Ruquaiya (1989) được sử dụng để tiến hành khảo sát cấu trúc vĩ mô của diễn ngôn pháp lý. Diễn ngôn được chọn để khảo sát là án lệ tiếng Việt. Phương pháp được sử dụng trong bài viết này là phương pháp miêu tả ngôn ngữ học. Kết quả của nghiên cứu này là xác lập được Tiềm năng cấu trúc thể loại của án lệ tiếng Việt. Bài viết góp phần vào thực tiễn phân tích các thể loại diễn ngôn pháp lý từ góc nhìn của Lý thuyết Tiềm năng cấu trúc thể loại. Việc mô tả cấu trúc vĩ mô giúp xác lập đặc điểm của Chu cảnh văn hoá của diễn ngôn án lệ tiếng Việt, một tầng bậc của việc phân tích diễn ngôn từ góc nhìn của Ngôn ngữ học chức năng hệ thống.

*Từ khoá*: cấu trúc vĩ mô, án lệ tiếng Việt, tiềm năng cấu trúc thể loại, phân tích thể loại

# TOWARDS A TRANSLATOR COMPETENCE MODEL
# FOR VIETNAMESE CONTEXT:
# A REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE*

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**Abstract**: Translation competence, as the fundamental objective of any translation program, has been a subject of interest in Translation Studies for decades. Developing a translation competence model eminently suitable for the local industry is a crucial step towards the professionalization of the translation market in Vietnam. This paper presents a critical review of current literature on translation competence, its acquisition and various translation competence models with reference to the context of Vietnam. An in-depth analysis from the article is expected to give specific recommendations for policy-makers, translation educators, translation service users and translation practitioners to strive for the common goal of a professionalized industry.

*Keywords:* translation/ translator competence, translation competence acquisition, translation competence models

## 1. Introduction

Since the beginning of the twenty-first century, there has been widespread agreement amongst experts in Translation Studies that translation is a complex cognitive activity, involving expertise in a number of areas and skills (Schafner & Adab, 2000). Although developing translation competence is widely seen as a fundamental objective of any translation program, the fact that translation is a "multi-dimensional phenomenon" may explain why there have been few attempts to validly and reliably measure translation competence (Angelelli & Jacobson, 2009). The study of translation competence and its acquisition is relatively new compared to other disciplines.

Early works on translation competence started in the mid-1980s and became prominent in the 1990s when the first models were proposed by Bell (1991), Neubert (1994), Kiraly (1995), Cao (1996), Hansen (1997), etc. However, they mainly dealt with translation competence tangentially as few authors emphasized the importance of its strategic component. Empirical-experimental studies of written translation during this period only examined partial aspects of translation competence's components rather than focusing on its entirety. As we cross into the new millennium, the number of research on translation competence has increased considerably with a more interdisciplinary framework established.

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In recent years, a new pedagogical model of competence-based training which features an integrated approach to teaching, learning and assessment has been advocated. With its foundations in cognitive constructivist and socio-constructivist learning theories, this training model aims at making learning more meaningful for trainees by integrating common practices of the relevant professional profile into the training curriculum. According to Hurtado Albir (2015), the translators and interpreters' professional profile, essentially defined by analyzing emerging practices in the labor market, will help identify the competences required in the training process. Do (2015, 2016), Le (2017) and Hoang (2020) reaffirmed the crucial role of designing a market-oriented curriculum for translator education in Vietnam. But it is important to point out the socio-cultural differences between the working environment for translators and interpreters across the world and how they determine the way translation competence is conceptualized and evaluated in its own context.

It is worth considering that the official interpreter-translator training in Vietnam at tertiary level has emerged since the 2000s but it was largely influenced by the pedagogical approach of foreign language teaching (Le, 2017). The latest international conference on *Translation 4.0: Research, Training and Practice* held in October 2020 at the University of Languages and International Studies (Vietnam National University, Hanoi) highlighted that the absence of a state-level association for translation profession, accompanied by the lack of professional profile for translators-interpreters, has exaggerated the inadequacies in translator education. No clear criteria for measuring translator and interpreter competence have inevitably entailed learning outcomes for translator training programs which can hardly respond to the market needs. These shortcomings

have posed an urgent need for upcoming studies to construct the professional profile which describes specific competences for Vietnamese practitioners in the field.

This article is a review of the literature about developing translation competence model with a particular emphasis on the Vietnamese context. Following the general discussion on translation competence models across the world, it critically analyses the Vietnamese current situation to illustrate. Hopefully, the paper will be of reference for policy-makers, translation scholars and translator educators who are enthusiastically working towards the professionalization of the local translation industry.

## 2. A Review of Current Literature on Translation Competence

This section will specifically and selectively examine some common theories to conceptualize translation competence and describe the process of translation competence acquisition. A systematic investigation of proposed translation competence models from different perspectives will be provided. This is followed by the analysis of the Vietnamese translation market to date, highlighting the need for developing a context-based translator competence model.

### 2.1. Translation Competence and Translation Competence Acquisition

#### 2.1.1. Defining Translation Competence

In addition to studying translation (as a product, process and behavior), Translation Studies have also been concerned in recent decades with competences that enable translators to perform the task required by professional settings. This competence identifies the translators and "distinguishes them from the non-translators" (Hurtado Albir, 2017). In

fact, the notion of competence has enjoyed a long history of analysis in other disciplines such as Applied Linguistics, Work Psychology and Pedagogy but one of the most complete definitions is the one put forward by Lasnier (as cited in Hurtado Albir, 2017) in which he views competence as "a complex *know how to act* resulting from integration, mobilization and organization of a combination of capabilities and skills (which can be cognitive, affective, psycho-motor or social) and knowledge (declarative knowledge) used efficiently in situations with common characteristics". The current study adopts this definition as it can depict the complex and multifarious nature of competence, which is not merely limited to declarative knowledge (know what) and operative knowledge (know how), but it can be acquired by doing and applying knowledge in an efficient manner (know how to act).

Correspondingly, *translation competence* is viewed and defined differently over the last thirty years by various authors in Translation Studies. The perception of this competence changed from a "bilingualism mode" to a "multi-componential competence" which comprises sets of technological, cultural, or linguistic skills (Lowe, 1987; Bell, 1991; Pym, 1992; Kiraly, 1995; Hatim & Mason, 1997; Hansen, 1997; Neubert, 2000; Pym, 2003). Nevertheless, the effort exerted by PACTE Group (2000, 2003 & 2005) is the most evidently determined for defining the term. Their empirical-experimental researches have described translation competence as "the underlying system of knowledge and skills needed to be able to translate" (2000, p. 100). They also highlight four unique features of translation competence. First, it is an *expert knowledge* that is not attributed to all bilinguals. Second, it is basically *procedural* rather than *declarative knowledge*. Third, it is composed of numerous *interrelated sub-competencies*;

Fourth, the *strategic component* is central. There is clearly a consensus amongst scholars that translation competence is a mixture of different knowledge, skills and attributes and it is not a feature of any bilingual.

One of the useful but seemingly polemical distinctions was made by Kiraly (2000) between "translation competence" and "translator competence", developed after that by Bernadini (2004) as a broad difference between "translator training" and "translator education". As Pym (2009) elaborated, "translator training" is associated with translation competence (mostly linguistic skills) and the acquisition of which will always be a combination of instruction and practice. "Translator education", on the other hand, recognizes the need for students to acquire a wide range of interpersonal skills and attitudes (translator competence), in addition to the purely technical skills. Students must be taught not just how to do things; rather, they must become members of the various overlapping professional communities engaged in the production of translations. This approach shed a new light on defining key objectives for long-term training programs. Although "translation competence" and "translator competence" are used interchangeably in some of the literature, they may refer to two slightly different concepts, which are explained in the next sections.

### 2.1.2. Acquisition of Translation Competence

As certain authors (Campell, 1998; Waddington, 2000, as cited in PACTE group, 2020) state, no model of translation competence can be complete without encompassing the translation competence acquisition process. Some of the prominent models brought forward are: Harris's natural translation (1980), Toury (1995) with the model of the process whereby a bilingual becomes a translator (also known as

"socialization as concerns translating"); Chesterman's five stages of translation expertise (1997) referred to as novice stage, advanced beginner stage, competence stage, proficiency stage, expertise stage; PACTE Group's model describes translation competence acquisition as a process of restructuring and development ranging from novice knowledge (pre-translation competence) to expert knowledge (translation competence). This process also highlights the importance of strategic competence (Hurtado Albir, 2007).

As observed, all the aforementioned authors agree that translation competence is an acquired rather than innate ability, and that its acquisition is a cyclical process that goes from an initial stage to a stage of competence consolidation. Although empirical knowledge of what they are and how they work is lacking, understanding these essential features would form the basis for building a comprehensive and relevant translation model in a given context. Furthermore, sufficient insights into the stages of translation competence acquisition will favor the development of a logically sequenced curriculum for translator education.

### 2.2. The Need for Developing Translation Competence Models

The salient features of the 21st century professional translation world, such as technologization, globalization and collaboration, have undoubtedly pushed translators to upgrade their skills toolkit to survive in the ever-changing and competitive market (Wu, Zhang & Wei, 2019). For over thirty years now, a number of new skills and sub-competences have emerged. In his manual for new translators, Daniel Gouadec (as cited in Sakwe, 2015) reports that the new translator must in fact be ready to become "an information management expert, technician, terminologist, phraseologist, translator,

adapter, proofreader, reviser, quality control expert, post-editor, editor, graphic design expert and Web page designer, technical writer, Website designer, Web page integrator, file manager, macro-command writer and in some cases IT specialist, all rolled into one". The shift of requirements on translators has been consequently addressed by several authors such as Bowker (2002) and Pym (2005). They postulated that the conditions of modern translation professional life as well as the impact of globalization are challenges for translator training, as learners need to possess these new skills in order to be able to confront them.

From a didactic perspective, it was reported by Piotrowska (2015) that Translation Pedagogy, developing at the break of the 21st century and greatly expanding in translation teaching methodologies, has been undergoing important paradigm shifts and methodological changes, in that "it has moved from conventional transmissionist teacher-centred approaches to experiential and professionally-oriented learning models" (p. 16). This evolution thus posed considerable challenges to translator training which must help would-be translators develop the necessary competences to perform well in their future working environment. Within this context, a new pedagogical model has emerged known as "competence-based training". Hurtado Albir (2007) believes that the fundamental advances represented by competence-based training are: greater transparency of professional profile in study programs, greater emphasis on the outcome of learning, more flexibility and a greater integration of all aspects of a curriculum. In competence-based training, the notions of "professional profile" or "professional competences" are evidently the main yardstick for developing guidelines in curriculum design.

In the case of translation profession,

the "translator's profile" is not to be confused with how well anyone translates. It concerns the perception of a translator's value – what employers think a particular translator can do, and how well or badly the translator is assumed to do it. A "profile" can be regarded as a summary of the competences, which are considered necessary in order to function in a given professional context (Sakwe, 2015). It should be noted that different working contexts may define the set of necessary requirements for the translators. For example, the competences needed for translators during the pandemic can differ from that previously, or the European markets may have some pre-conditions which are not similar to the Asian's. Needless to say, the goal to professionalize the Vietnamese translation industry can be reached on condition that high priority is given to the development of a market-oriented translator competence model.

## 2.3. Various Translation Competence Models Across the World

Translation competence, as the cornerstone of Translation Studies, has been evolving from partial research to holistic and empirical models (Eser, 2015). Research into translation competence attempts to respond to the needs of translation didactics as well as translation sector. This paper, therefore, gives an overall analysis of the models of translation competence which study the concept as a multi componential term from three major perspectives: translation research, translation education and translation profession. This way of division doesn't necessarily indicate three independent approaches, rather, it shows how they are intricately bound up with each other.

### 2.3.1. Translation Competence Models for Education Purposes

To some extent, the prevalence of

multi-componential translation competence models can be attributed to the proliferation of translator training programs. In translation course design, the sub-competencies in multi-componential models often appear as learning objectives for translation students. For example, Schäffner (2000) and her colleagues proposed six translation sub-competences for translator trainees in their four-year undergraduate program in Modern Languages with Translation Studies: *linguistic competence*, *cultural competence*, *textual competence*, *domain/ subject specific competence*, *(re)search competence, and transfer competence*.

Similarly, for the purpose of translation curricular design, Kelly (2005) listed seven areas of competence for translation graduates corresponding to necessary knowledge, skills, aptitudes and attitudes including: *communicative and textual competence* in at least two languages and cultures, *cultural and intercultural competence*, *subject area competence*, *professional and instrumental competence*, *attitudinal or psycho-physiological competence*, *interpersonal competence*, and *strategic competence*.

Also from the pedagogical viewpoint, Gonzalez Davies and Scott-Tennent (2005) put forward six aspects that a translator should master: *language work* (in both languages), *subject matter* (encyclopedic knowledge related to different disciplines), *translation skills* (paper, electronic and human), *computer skills* and *professional skills* (translator's rights, contracts, etc.).

These multi-componential models, although can inform the identification of learning objectives in translation education, are often narrowly limited to a certain course module or subject field. Moreover, researches that are based largely on propositions or anecdotal experience of

translator trainers or practitioners have been criticized for the lack of empirical support (Hurtado Albir & Alves, 2009; Pym, 2013), and therefore has been viewed as "simple speculations" (Lesznyák, 2007).

### 2.3.2. Translation Competence Models for Research Purposes

More recently, research in translation has relied on empirical data derived from the behaviours and mental activities of professional translators and/or translator trainees to identify the components of translation competence, using instruments such as think aloud protocols, questionnaires, observations, keystroke logs and screen recordings (Ehrensberger-Dow & Massey, 2008; Quinci, 2015). Several translation competence models have been tested using such techniques, among which two of the most frequently mentioned are those by the PACTE Group (2003) and Göpferich (2009).

PACTE Group (2003) studied translation as a communicative activity and viewed translation competence from two perspectives using both qualitative and quantitative methods to triangulate data. They categorized the translation competence sub-competences as *Bilingual sub-competence* which comprises pragmatic knowledge, sociolinguistic knowledge, textual knowledge, and grammatical-lexical knowledge; *Extra-linguistic sub-competence* that is comprised of bicultural knowledge, encyclopedic knowledge, and subject knowledge, knowledge about translation sub-competence; *Instrumental sub-competence* relating to the use of documentation sources and the information and communication technologies for translation; *Strategic sub-competence* which helps guarantees the effectiveness of translation process and solves encountered problems. This essential component is believed to control the whole translation

process: *psycho-physiological competence* or the mixture of cognitive and attitudinal components types and psycho-motor mechanisms.

In the same vein, Göpferich (2009) offers a model of translation competence based on the PACTE Group's, which consists of *strategic competence and motivation*, *communicative competence* in at least two languages, *domain competence*, *psychomotor competence*, *translation routine activation competence*, *tools and research competence*.

These models have been supported to various degrees by empirical data on translators' behaviours and cognitive processing, but they primarily study the competences translators need to translate a text to a required standard. They "marginalize, or neglect, the competences that translators also rely on as professionals in the translation industry" (Biel, 2011, as cited in Wu, Zhang, Wei, 2019). In other words, this strand of research reflects an underlying epistemology that views translation primarily as a cross-lingual activity and that "overlooks the important vocational nature of translation as a business or professional service". Consequently, they "are forever condemned to lag behind both technology and the market" (Pym, 2013).

### 2.3.3. Translation Competence Models for Professional Purposes

Bearing the above research strand, the concept of *translator competence* by Kiraly (1995, 2000) has emerged to highlight the professional competence that translators need as practitioners in the modern translation market. Kiraly (1995) points out that "in choosing the term *translator competence*, emphasis is placed on the complex nature of the professional translator's task and the nonlinguistic skills that are required". This emphasis on professional aspects may be a response to the challenges of the market facing translators,

such as performing non-traditional, language-related tasks (Kiraly, 2006) and having flexibility, creativity, independence of thinking, and problem-solving skills (Baer and Koby, 2003), as well as mastering the latest tools used in translation (Olvera-Lobo, 2007). This viewpoint is crucial in designing a translator training curriculum which can well respond to the market needs.

Accordingly, some models of translator competence (Kiraly, 2006, 2013; EMT Expert Group, 2017) have been introduced. For instance, Kiraly (2006, 2013) argues that as well as translation competence *per se*, professional translators require *personal competence* and *social competence* to succeed in the professional translation market. The EMT Expert Group (2017) proposed a more detailed and hierarchical model of translator competence which defined five areas of competences, including *language and culture competence (transcultural and sociolinguistic awareness and communication skills), translation competence (strategic, methodological and thematic competence), technology (tools and applications), personal and interpersonal competence*, and *service provision competence.*

In an attempt to internationalize its accreditation system, NAATI (2015) also introduced a competency model of translator and interpreter which covers a set of KSAs (knowledge, skills and attributes). In considering the terminology related to their work, NAATI prefers using the term "competency" to "competence" as the former refers *to* KSAs that successful people have while the latter indicates "measurable, specific and objective milestones describing what people have to accomplish to consistently achieve or exceed the goals for their role". There are eight interrelating components to be assessed, including *language competency in two languages, intercultural competency, research competency, technological competency,*

*thematic competency, transfer competency, service provision competency, ethical competency.* Although these sub-competences are used for both translators and interpreters, the specific skills and attributes for the two are essentially different due to their task performance requirements. Recent analysis revealed that there were significant areas of commonality between NAATI and other the internationally-recognized certification bodies, such as EMT (European Master of Translation), ITI (Institute of Translation and Interpreting in the UK), ATA (American Translator Association), CATTI (China Accreditation Test for Translators and Interpreters), JTA (Japan Translation Association). However, what distinguishes those competence models pertain to their purposes of certification, entry requirements (on language skills and candidates' portfolio), conditions for accreditation at different levels, etc. There is widespread agreement that the certifying bodies, which can be owned by either academic institutions or professional associations, play an essential role in guaranteeing the professionalization of the translation industry. Nonetheless, previously published studies on the translation competence levels are not consistent and few writers have been able to draw on any systematic research into contextualized accreditation for professional translators and interpreters.

It is worth noting that although the competences in all these models are labelled and formulated differently, they both place professionally related competences at the same level as translation competence. Even though the placement of the competences does not necessarily imply that one is prioritized relative to the others, these models are similar in that they "represent a change in epistemology and both view translation as a cross-lingual as well as a vocational activity" (Wu, Zhang, Wei, 2019). It is argued, therefore, that from a

multi-componental point of view, translator competence is either an expansion of translation competence or a combination of the multi-components of translation competence and professional competence, all of which are essential for translators.

Pedagogically, such a profession-oriented approach can help translator trainers set training objectives and assess trainees' competence development (Way, 2008; García González & Veiga Díaz, 2015; Quinci, 2015). It can be used as a framework of reference for translator trainees to identify the knowledge and skills they have acquired and those they need to develop. For translation researchers, especially those using empirical approaches, it helps determine what exactly needs to be investigated. Therefore, the current article takes a multi-componental perspective and uses the term *translator competence* for review and analysis (Wu, Zhang, Wei, 2019).

In summary, this section has reviewed different approaches, each of which offers a different perspective to capture the concepts of translation competence and how it is acquired and developed, with a number of relevant models as references. However, the problem is, each context with its own social, economic, and ideological features may create different market requirements for translators. The next section will specifically analyze the Vietnamese context as an example for illustration.

## 2.4. The Context of Vietnam: The Translation Industry and Translator Education

Vietnam's GDP reached more than USD 340 billion in 2020, making it the fourth largest economy in Southeast Asia, according to the IMF World Economic Outlook. In the context of strengthening diplomacy, cultural, scientific and technical cooperation of Vietnam with other countries,

"society is in dire need of a translation force of excellence both in terms of quantity and quality" (Nghiem, 2020). As a result, research and training on translation to meet with social demand in this area is a necessity. In fact, interests in the translation industry of Vietnam have grown for decades. Prominent issues in question during the first two decades of the 21$^{st}$ century, however, only restricted to the link between market demands and translator training. For example, Nguyen (2005), Lam (2007), Pham and Ton (2007), Tran (2007, as cited in Do, 2015) made their great effort to point the challenges of foreign language universities to train qualified translators. Nonetheless, specific recommendations on the training programs have not been made until then.

Recently, the issues on domestic translation industry have continued to receive attention in several works. Hoang's journal article (2020) on "Translation Profession Status in Vietnam" gives an overview on the status of the translation profession in Vietnam by analyzing documentary and empirical data and to demonstrate the degree of professionalization of the profession and the indicators of an official profession. The results suggest that although definite steps have been taken on the way to professionalization from the academic context, there is still a lack of professionalization from the domestic market in Vietnam where translation is only seen as a "semi-profession". Until now, no direct legal instrument has been introduced to define the profession's requirements and the indirect documents also were not enough to distinguish between language teachers and translators/interpreters. Qualifications required to enter the profession are not specified. One of the most conspicuous findings is that no association relating to translation has been established to promote translators' rights and to bring stakeholders together. The author attributed the lack of

certification or any other tool for earning credibility to the misunderstanding/de-qualification of the translation profession. The paper, however, has not treated translators' competence in accordance with the profession status in much detail.

Similarly, with her keen interest in translator education, Do (2015, 2018, 2019, 2020) have conducted a number of studies investigating various issues, namely the role of translator competence in educating professional translators with the case of University translation program in Vietnam (2015); the multi-perspective approach to translation practice and translation pedagogy with data from language services sectors and University translator training programs in Australia and Vietnam (2018); the development of graduate's employability with the case of University translation programs in Vietnam (2019); and the link between translator's work requirements and graduates' preparedness with data from Australia and Vietnam (2020). Findings from her researches which mostly concern pedagogical implications for translator trainers and program developers correspond very aptly with the socio-constructivist approach to translator education. Nonetheless, there is still considerable uncertainty with regard to the successful integration of translator competence development into the training process.

To provide an insight into market situation, Nghiem (2020) conducted a survey research using questionnaires and in-depth interviews with representatives of organizations, enterprises that use translation services and training institutions in the North, South and Central of Vietnam. Reflecting upon the findings of the study, it was recommended that translation training should not be conducted in a "massive manner". Instead, there is a need to develop a code of conduct for the practice of translation and to mainstream this code into the training. The study also investigated the

society's requirements and expectations on translators and interpreters' competencies (i.e., bilingual proficiency, professional behavior, general and specialized knowledge). However, this significant aspect has been dealt with to a very limited extent since there is no specific description on these sub-components, how they are assessed and introduced in the academic curriculum.

Regarding the trends, directions and challenges in translator education in Vietnam, Le (2017, 2020) agreed with the abovementioned scholars that the local translator training today is being carried out in an asystematic fashion. He scrutinizes significant challenges for the translator education in Vietnam, namely: the acute shortage of theoretical background for practice; the unreasonable absence of an independent organization for translation and interpreting accreditation; the mismatch between academic programs and market demands; and the lack of professional training for trainers; the inadequate awareness of administrative organizations and leaders at different levels about translation profession. He also calls for "reliable empirical studies undertaken by translation scholars and trainers in Vietnam" to tackle these knotty issues in translator education. Specifically, the author stresses the following issues to put back on the agenda: a massive survey research on Vietnamese translation market to identify the current situation; necessary competences for translators working specifically in Vietnamese translation industry; evaluation and assessment of translation competences via training process and certification; training of trainers; professionalization of the translation industry, among others. These studies, despite being rarely found evidence on translator education in Vietnam, have opened new paths for further research discussing macro-level issues.

## 3. Towards the Development of Translator Competence for Vietnamese Context

The development of a good translator competence model will undoubtedly take time and efforts, requiring close coordination between various stakeholders (Le, 2017). The following sections will present some steps to take as recommendations for policy makers and relevant parties in the arenas of administration, education, and translation industry.

### 3.1. Market Research to Identify the Demand of Vietnamese Translation Industry

The market demand for translation is often cited as a determinant on the way translators should be trained as the ultimate aim of translator education, ideally, is employability and preparing qualified graduates for the market (Pym, 2009; Piotroska, 2015). Although there have been a plethora of different translation competence models, some of their components or sub-competences are driven by the local factors, i.e., how the domestic industry is operating, how socio-economic factors are exerting influences on the translation profession. It is therefore crucial to conduct a comprehensive market research on the translator competence requirements as the first step. This will serve as the basis for establishing a translator profile, guiding the training process and working towards the professionalization of the translation industry in Vietnam. However, an equally important question is operationalizing the term "market" in the research process. Although figures are of utmost importance when it comes to markets, statistics relating to the translation market in any specific region must be approached with extreme caution (Gouadec, 2007) for the following reasons: (a) it is impossible to identify all practicing translators, either because many

are not officially registered, or because they are lumped together with other professional categories; (b) those carrying out the surveys are often unfamiliar with the translation industry and may therefore make the wrong assumptions when extrapolating figures; (c) authors of surveys and reports often tend to copy what previous surveys have reported; (d) in most surveys, the turnover generated by sub-contractors is counted twice: on their own account and as part of their work providers' accounts; (e) one should not overlook related jobs and activities in support of translators and localizers (administrative and support staff, integrators, printers, publishers, project managers, etc.). This being said, translation markets are essentially complex. Any market segment is a combination of hierarchically organized features and the translation markets may be rightly defined as a sum of innumerable market segments, some clearly identified, other more hazy. Consideration is therefore needed of *language pair* and *direction of translation*, *territory*, *degree of specialization*, *category*, *context*, *scale*, *accessibility*, *volume*, and *scope of service* when it comes to market research in translation.

Also, the mode of translation (written translation versus oral translation/ interpreting) is another factor deserving careful consideration as these two market segments are at large quite distinct. Regarding translation and interpreting, language transfer, to the outsider, is the most obvious common feature, making these activities seem like close siblings. Many leading theorists of interpreting and translation view them as branches of a single overarching profession or academic discipline known as "Translation Studies" (Pöchhacker, 2004; Gile, 2009, as cited in Setton & Dawrant, 2016). This may be convenient in a broad taxonomy of academic disciplines, but "as cognitive tasks, and therefore for training, written translation and

interpreting are different enough in terms of input, conditions of practice, output, reception and use to be treated as distinct activities and skillsets". That's why the discussion of competences for both translators and interpreters falls outside the scope of this paper, rather, its focus is only placed on competence models for written translators. A closer look at the interpreting market segment would serve as a continuous spur to future research.

### 3.2. Working Towards a Model of Translator Competence for Vietnamese Context

Once the market requirements on translators are identified, the translator competence model should be proposed. It is expected that the model will be validated by empirical research in translation. The participation of relevant stakeholders such as translation professionals, translation scholars, translation service users and providers, translator trainers is essential to generate reliable qualitative results. Also of particular notes is about the description of translator competence levels.

In the professional arena, there are different performance and specialization levels in the translation market (professional and non-professional translators of various kinds and at various levels). Likewise, the education of translators is generating a need for greater precision as regards the level of performance each translator can guarantee and the requirements to be met in each case. A detailed competence descriptor scale encompassing descriptive categories and level descriptors would facilitate comparison between different grading systems in academic and professional contexts and would serve as a guide for creating translation study programs, designing assessment procedures, producing textbooks and teaching materials, issuing official certificates, recognizing and validating academic qualifications,

establishing professional and academic profiles, and establishing professional quality control criteria (PACTE Group, 2018). In doing this, Vietnam should draw on proposed descriptions of translation competence and translation competence acquisition developed in the academic and professional arenas. Some of the most prominent ones include: PACTE Groups' experimental research projects on translation competence acquisition; the translation competence profile drawn up by EMT (European Master's in Translation); the description of professional translators' competences according to the UK's National Occupational Standards; the description of levels for translator certification produced by NAATI (Australia's National Accreditation Authority for Translators and Interpreters); the description of the ATA (American Translators Association) certification program.

It is noteworthy that developing a translator competence model, though being a crucial task, is only an initial step in professionalizing the translation industry of Vietnam. While there is still no consensus on what makes something become a profession until now, Millerson (1964, as cited in Hoang, 2020) successfully framed a list of some characteristics as follows from previous literature: (a) the use of skills based on theoretical knowledge; (b) education and training in these skills; (c) the competence of professionals measured by examinations; (d) a code of conduct to ensure professional integrity; (e) performance of a service that is for the public good; and (f) a professional association that organizes members. Among the six characteristics, what distinguishes occupation from profession is "the competence of professionals measured by examinations" (as cited in Hoang, 2020) and this competence is usually linked to legal instruments related to translation and translator certification. Therefore, the establishment of a professional association

for Vietnamese translators and interpreters which may be in charge of certifying procedures (assessing translator competence) is of utmost importance.

## 4. Conclusion

As this paper has demonstrated, scholars have attempted to specify the components of translator competence and have proposed various models from different perspectives (i.e., academic, pedagogical and professional), which suggests that the concept of translation competence is either expanding or not yet stable. Although these competence models might be considered "speculative" (Presas, 2000) to some extent, they do respond to the need to define didactic objectives in translator education and translation sector. By expounding upon the different definitions concerning translation competences, the focus is on how the local context determines the formation of a market-based competence model for Vietnamese translators. Specific steps to take and relevant factors to consider have also been put forward, with greater emphasis on conducting a market research on translation competence, proposing a translator competence model and introducing a translation competence level description. It is thus expected that this paper will contribute to the on-going discussion of professionalizing the translation industry in Vietnam although there is a long road ahead.

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# XÂY DỰNG KHUNG NĂNG LỰC BIÊN PHIÊN DỊCH TRONG BỐI CẢNH VIỆT NAM: TỔNG QUAN NGHIÊN CỨU

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**Tóm tắt**: Năng lực dịch thuật được coi là một nội dung cốt lõi của các chương trình đào tạo biên phiên dịch và trở thành một chủ đề được quan tâm của Nghiên cứu dịch thuật trong nhiều năm qua. Việc xây dựng khung năng lực dịch thuật phù hợp với bối cảnh trong nước là một trong những bước đi cần thiết nhằm hướng tới mục tiêu chuyên nghiệp hóa thị trường biên phiên dịch tại Việt Nam. Bài viết này phân tích các tư liệu và nghiên cứu trong và ngoài nước về năng lực dịch thuật, quá trình thụ đắc năng lực dịch thuật và các mô hình năng lực dịch thuật gắn với bối cảnh của Việt Nam. Qua đó, bài viết đưa ra một số khuyến nghị cho các nhà hoạch định chính sách, nhà giáo dục biên phiên dịch và các đối tượng cung cấp, sử dụng dịch vụ biên phiên dịch để cùng chung tay thực hiện mục tiêu đề ra.

*Từ khóa*: năng lực dịch thuật, thụ đắc năng lực dịch thuật, khung năng lực dịch thuật

# JACK LONDON AND ERNEST HEMINGWAY: THE SIMILARITIES IN BUILDING CHARACTERS' SELF-CONSCIOUSNESS AND SELF-MANAGEMENT IN "TO BUILD A FIRE", "THE LAW OF LIFE", AND "THE SNOWS OF KILIMANJARO"

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**Abstract:** Jack London and Ernest Hemingway are among eminent American writers of the twentieth century. With a desire to express the importance of emotional intelligence in literature, this article aims to find out how self-consciousness is expressed in short stories, namely "The law of life", "To build a fire", and "The snows of Kilimanjaro". A qualitative method is undertaken to collect vital data for investigating self-consciousness and conclusions. Findings show that the direct correlation between self-consciousness and self-management impacts the final result of the characters. Moreover, this research figures out the similarities of two authors in using writing techniques to build characters' self-consciousness. As a result, a deeper insight into London's and Hemingway's works and their resemblances concerning character building are provided.

*Keywords:* emotional intelligence in literature, self-consciousness, self-management

## 1. Introduction

According to Goleman (1995), emotional intelligence (EI) is an assemblage of multifaceted components in which each is the basis of others' development. Moreover, there is a general consensus on the paramount importance of emotional intelligence in developing human cognition and competencies: Its principles facilitate a deeper understanding and assessment of the behaviors, attitudes, interpersonal skills, and even the potential of people. Hence, the researcher desires to figure out how emotional intelligence and its dimensions

have been applied in literary works.

Literature is considered the mirror reflecting human life through a system of characters by whom the authors convey their reflections and personal perspectives about social individuals. Moreover, "To build a fire", "The law of life" by Jack London, and "The snows of Kilimanjaro" by Ernest Hemingway are masterpieces which have been appreciated by generations of readers since their release in the early twentieth century. It can be argued that they reach a certain true-to-life level. For that reason, should this research report any EI components in those lifelike stories, it could

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not only reinforce the impact of emotional intelligence on life but also show the great vision of the two eminent writers regarding the truth of life in EI's perspective. Therefore, this research aims to analyze the main characters to gain insight into self-consciousness and emotional intelligence among fictional characters. Besides, the study is expected to enrich readers' general understanding of the motif of death versus life, and the experience of facing an unexpected death. Last but not least, the researcher aims to figure out the similarities in the art of writing of the two famous writers.

To fulfill the aforementioned objectives, the writer of this thesis attempts to answer the following questions:

1. How are protagonists conscious of themselves?

2. What features make the protagonists self-conscious characters?

3. How is Hemingway's art of writing similar to Jack London's one in creating self-conscious characters?

## 2. Literature Review

### 2.1. Emotional Intelligence

This theory was first introduced by Daniel Goleman. He defined emotional intelligence as the ability to perceive emotions of one's self to appropriately and effectively respond to those feelings. By developing emotional intelligence, individuals could understand more about themselves and be able to sense the emotions of others, moderating conflict; promoting understanding and relationships; and fostering stability, continuity, and harmony that nourish the relationships.

All EI models share a core of four major EI domains: self-consciousness, self-management, social consciousness, and relationship management (Cherniss & Goleman, 2001).

### 2.2. An Overview of Self-Consciousness

Self-consciousness is mainly treated as a construct within EI; however, researchers' opinions diverge on the definition of this terminology. For example, Keenan et al. (2003) considered it the ability to regard the self as an individual. Goleman (1995) perceived self-consciousness as knowledge of one's emotions. This research will define self-consciousness as the ability to be conscious of external or internal stimuli toward oneself. It means that self-consciousness could be recalling one's past (autobiography) and contemplating the future (prospection).

The classification that conceptualizes self-consciousness as comprising two distinct categories: objective and subjective self-consciousness, rests on the attention to one's inner thoughts and feelings. Meanwhile, based on the scale that individuals are concerned about others' consciousness, there are two subcategories of self-focus attention, which are private and public self-consciousness. In particular, when a person becomes the object of his or her consciousness; it is objective self-consciousness. Meanwhile, a state of subjective self-consciousness can be characterized by the perception that a person's self-consciousness appreciates himself or herself as standard. Private self-consciousness is theorized as a general consciousness of the self as an individual whereas public self-consciousness rests on a person's general consciousness as a social individual (Wojslawowicz, 2005).

### 2.3. An Overview of Self-Management

The definition of self-management is conceptualized depending on the context. For example, concerning healthcare field, Barlow et al. (2002) referred to self-management as the ability to manage the symptoms, treatment, physical and psychosocial activity to maintain a

satisfactory quality of life. In terms of psychology, self-management is the ability to effectively take control of emotions, thoughts, and behaviors in different situations (Niroula, 2020). It is also the working definition of self-management in this research.

### 2.4. Jack London and "The Law of Life", "To Build a Fire"

Jack London (1876-1916) is a well-known American author in the late 19th century. He held strong perspectives on writing philosophy. London is among naturalist writers who have attempted to record objective and detached depictions of humans' nature without idealism or avoidance of the ugly. He built characters who face troubles and struggle to survive in nature to embody heredity and environmental determinism.

"The law of life" was first published in 1901. It revolves around KosKoosh who used to be a tribe's leader and is now abandoned due to his poor physical condition. Koskoosh concludes valuable lessons based on his circumstances: Death is an unavoidable fact of life, and the fate of any individual is less important than the survival of the species.

"To build a fire" was first released in 1902, but the version published in 1908 gained much popularity. The plot revolves around an unnamed man trekking through Yukon with only a dog. Regardless of warning about the dangers of the cold in this severe land, he goes on his trip and falls victim to the unrelenting and unforgiving power of nature due to his lack of imagination about the severe environment.

### 2.5. Hemingway and "The Snows of Kilimanjaro"

Ernest Miller Hemingway (1899-1961) was a well-known American. Human's attitude toward the presence of death is one of his most concerned philosophies. His sharp ideas about death are evocated openly and omnipresently behind his works.

"The snows of Kilimanjaro", written in 1938, reflects several of Hemingway's concerns via the protagonist Harry. It is set in African savanna where a man infects gangrene. He indulges in alcohol abuse, insults his wife by resentment of her money and upbringing. Then, he contemplates his life and admits his decay of talent through his procrastination before he dies.

All three aforementioned stories are masterpieces which have been appreciated by generations of readers. Despite their length, they are still lifelike and are the typical literary works for authors' writing techniques.

## 3. Findings and Discussion

### 3.1. The Main Character of "The Law of Life"

#### 3.1.1. Consciousness of Human Life

In the story "The law of life", the protagonist's good self-consciousness about life is a prerequisite for good self-management to display. The accumulation of knowledge regarding human frailty and nature enables relentless Koskoosh to understand and respect the power of nature. That makes every perception, belief, and action in his remaining time worthy esteemed. In other words, the old man's long valuable experience and observation is the root of his good consciousness which is the premise of decent behaviors in every circumstance. Besides, his self-consciousness is a clear example for objective and private self-consciousness because his consciousness regards himself as an individual and focuses on his inner world.

With the objective self-consciousness about each individual's responsibilities towards the community, Koskoosh is fully conscious of his

contribution to the tribe. Via his connection to the past, it is indisputable that he has all missions completed. As a leader, he devotes his youth to the existence and development of the tribe. Moreover, with his strong private self-consciousness, he often reminds himself about the tribe's tradition, so no resentment arises in the heart of the abandoned man. Instead, he behaves in a dignified way: acceptance and encounter. His good self-management expressed by the acceptance of mortality and the connection to the tribe's tradition justifies the dignity of the respected old leader. It can be said that he is a representative of self-conscious characters.

### 3.1.2. Consciousness About Death

With a keen sense, Koskoosh has objective consciousness of the necessity for the elimination of the weak of the biological law. He is willing to be left behind for the tribe's continuity because death is the final destination of his life journey. It remarks on the complete cessation of his devotion. Hence, calmness and willingness are responses to his good self-management to death. The way he expresses his inner desire for living and succumbs to death reveals his impeccable characteristics. The protagonist's perspectives on his situation and the internal struggle allow further appreciation of his dignity. It is a result of his good self-consciousness and self-management. Koskoosh is physically defeated by the power of nature. Nevertheless, his mental power achieves a glorious victory, because his consciousness, thoughts, and actions are always within his control, no matter how severe the surroundings are. Nature can deprive him of his breath but fails to spoil his self-consciousness. Even though he must die, he is the one who makes the decision to stop futile resentment towards the inevitable and tragic event. It is the death that allows us readers to see how respectable and dignified the man is.

Through the protagonist Koskoosh, London conveys the message that everyone must face death, and each person may have his own way of doing it. Koskoosh is a representative of those who decently take death. Moreover, when a person's time has gone, they can hardly do anything to retrieve it. No individual can be beyond the control of nature physically. As such, death is not something that one can fight against. Besides, Old Koskoosh is a very typical self-conscious character. His strong and keen consciousness of his physical weakness, of his circumstance, and most importantly, of his feelings and inner struggles is surely the focal point of success of Jack London with this short story. This old man has objective and private self-consciousness. Unlike his physical strength, which declines in time, his observation and insight into life gets sharper and more acute than the ages, and reach their peak at the moment of his death: no matter how strong one is compared to other individuals in life, he is powerless and helpless before nature. As a strong individual, Old Koskoosh is wise enough to surrender to the Law of Life.

### 3.2. The Protagonist of "To Build a Fire"

#### 3.2.1. Subjective Self-Consciousness of His Competencies

Throughout the story, the protagonist's poor consciousness of his own limits and capacities is doomed to a series of hazards, failures, and a bitter ending. The deep-seated pride in his knowledge is the origin of the first mistake - the wrong appraisal of self-position in the relationship with the environment. With his poor and distorted subjective self-consciousness, he regards himself as beyond the impact and power of the weather when he decides to venture a rarely used shortcut unknowingly entering a dangerous area to reach his ultimate destination without taking any hazardous warning signals from the weather

into consideration. His ego and poor subjective self-consciousness blind him to nature's power. Under the delusion of physical strength, he fails to perceive human frailty and helplessness in such extreme circumstances. His strong-willed stubbornness and ignorance side by side with his devaluation of real-life experience shared to him by human fellows gradually cause him to die. Tormented by the severe nature, he admits the utmost power of nature in contrast with his helplessness and irrelevant bookish knowledge. His death put an end to his ignorant arrogance, and it is the price he must pay for his poor self-consciousness. By stressing the protagonist's feelings, London directs the reader's attention to the importance of self-consciousness in life's journey because it is an indirect reason for other mental and physical activities.

### 3.2.2. Private Self-Consciousness of Death

Despite having a chance to be conscious of the deadly risk he faces in the first time getting wet, he refuses to take it. Only when his body is out of control does he belatedly realize and succumb to death. This is such a tragic and predictable ending of his poor subjective self-consciousness, for he embeds his life in the unreliable "lifebelt" which is his ability to promptly light a fire to keep his body warm. In a world of "the survival of the fittest", the protagonist is defeated and loses his life. That leaves a message about the price of poor self-consciousness: poor management and unpleasant results. He underestimates hiking experience of other gold diggers, the power of nature by his overconfidence. In correspondence to the man's poor self-consciousness, the poor management causes the degenerated state of the man. Particularly, his poor self-management manifests itself as his careless preparation for the journey to the new land.

Consequently, he takes life-risking acceptance to travel alone leading to inhuman behavior in a desperate situation. When the protagonist realizes the things, he bets his life on - his intellect, experience, and judgment - are useless, he dies as the ultimate price of his poor self-consciousness. Poor consciousness, in other words, makes him a loser with his pointless death.

The tragic circumstance of the man has made clear to the readers not only the fundamental principle of life but also the importance of emotional intelligence. The harshness of nature could be fatal in particular situations, which is inevitable. But numerous troubles can be avoided had the man gotten better self-consciousness. Should everything start with the moral consciousness, the result would be positive. Looking back on the nameless man's journey, it can be concluded that his poor subjective self-consciousness is responsible for all troubles and his death. It becomes his primary motivation for the delusive ability to control his destiny and the natural elements. He underestimates hiking experience of other gold diggers and the power of nature by his overconfidence. In correspondence to the man's poor self-consciousness, the poor management causes the degenerated state of the man. Particularly, his poor self-management manifests itself as his careless preparation for the journey to the new land. Consequently, he takes life-risking acceptance to travel alone leading to inhuman behavior in a desperate situation. When the protagonist realizes the things that he bets his life on - his intellect, experience, and judgment - are useless, he is dying as the ultimate price of his poor self-consciousness. Poor consciousness, in other words, makes him a loser with his pointless death.

### 3.3. Character Henry of "The Snows of Kilimanjaro"

#### 3.3.1. Self-Focused Attention Towards Death

The protagonist's private consciousness concerning his death appears during the story as a prediction of his tale. The most obvious implication of death is the severity of his injuries. In response to the presentiments of death, the injured man is filled with tangled emotions. Harry's death can be considered meaningless, careless, and frivolous, due to ridiculous reasons. Harry has a wealthy life, but ironically, he is dying because of a thorn scratch without medical care. Additionally, the setting of the story is the time that iodine is a common medicine. Thereby, it is unacceptable that his untreated thorn scratch turns into gangrene due to a lack of anti-infective drugs. The absurd cause for such a severe injury makes his death a mockery of life. This pointless death is a failure resulting from his poor self-consciousness and self-management. In particular, poor consciousness leads to careless medical preparation before a trip to a wild area. It also causes his disregard for the niggling injury and soon makes the protagonist cost his life. Moreover, poor management that fails to control medicine and rescue plan directs Harry to a pointless and regrettable death.

#### 3.3.2. Private Consciousness About the Relationship With His Wealthy Wife, Helen

While waiting to die on the cot, Harry contemplates the relationship with his wealthy wife - Helen. Only when he seriously considers this affair does he frankly admit the connection between them is one-sided love and an unfulfilling relationship. Harry's injury is the incident that makes the crack in his relationship clearer. This affair should be mutual love and respect, but the truth is contradictory.

While Helen nurtures their marriage with her love, Harry sustains it with his regret and resentment regarding life and career. Additionally, this unfulfilling marriage results from his poor self-consciousness and self-management. First, his consciousness makes mistake as he enters this marriage without careful consideration. Harry quickly puts his life in the palm of fate and lets it manipulate him. By then, his poor private self-consciousness soon causes his poor self-management. It gives him a short-term vision to enter a marital relationship with indulgence and idleness. Therefore, he unjustly treats his wife with a grumpy and insulting attitude. Harry's immersion in a material life also causes him no long-term plan after the marriage. As a result, his writing talent cannot be flourished despite his desire. Were he not seriously infected, he would continue living his meaningless life.

#### 3.3.3. Self-Consciousness and Torment About His Unfinished Career

Besides his existence and marriage, the unsatisfactory career is of great concern to Harry. He thinks about the death of his writing career and becomes conscious of his failure to achieve artistic success. Harry's private self-consciousness and poor self-management cause him to suffer from deep regret for his wasted life and talent. Hemingway unfolds this fact via the dying man's streams of consciousness about his writing journey. Negative emotions dominate the man's consciousness of his career. The shame stemming from his cruel attitude to his wife, his resentment against the early death of his career, and frustration at wasting his talent bombard the protagonists all the time. Poor self-consciousness deprives Henry of his ability to manage his behaviors properly during the time when he is still healthy and strong. It also deprives him of his dignity in the final moments of his life, in the role of a husband. He cannot liberate himself from a grumpy

and desperate mood and cannot refrain from using cruel and malice words when talking to his wife. His pointless death can be considered both a release from mental torment and punishment for meaningless life without remarkable career dedication.

In a nutshell, negative emotions dominate the man's consciousness of his career. The shame stemming from his cruel attitude to his wife, his resentment against the early death of his career, and frustration at wasting his talent bombard the protagonists all the time. Poor self-consciousness derives Henry of his ability to manage his behaviors properly during the time when he is still healthy and strong. It also deprives him of his dignity in the final moments of his life, in the role of a husband. He cannot liberate himself from a grumpy and desperate mood and cannot refrain from using cruel and marlice words when talking to his wife. His pointless death can be considered both a release from mental torment and a punishment for meaningless life without any career remarkable dedication.

"The snows of Kilimanjaro" is undoubtedly a typical short story that reflects Hemingway's famous writing style. Firstly, the third-person point of view grants readers a privilege to see what happens both outside and inside the character's mind. Moreover, thanks to the stream of consciousness, the protagonist's inner world is divulged. Take Harry's flashback for example, it reveals the truth behind his marriage with his rich wife. Moreover, the foreshadowing technique is successfully employed to create dramatic tension for the death of the protagonist. For instance, those birds of prey waiting around the camp are the first implication of Harry's death. Another literary device that Hemingway used in this short story is the iceberg theory. It embraces minimalistic forms of expression leading to the limitation of writer's direct comments and the intense involvement of readers' feelings.

## 4. Conclusion

### 4.1. Self-Consciousness and Its Effects on the Outcome of the Characters

Through the last hours of the protagonists, the direct correlation between self-consciousness and self-management has been evidenced. It means that the quality of self-consciousness is associated with that of self-management. For example, a failure to have proper consciousness will mean a failure to respond effectively to the situations. Koskoosh's good self-consciousness leads him to good self-management and a desirable ending. The compilation of observation and experience makes him acutely aware of the law of life. Hence, during his life, he dedicates himself to the tribe and completes the mission that nature gives. Until the last breath, obedience and acceptance remain as his attitudes to nature. Even when death is imminent, the old leader's good consciousness keeps him calm and welcomes it with dignity. In contrast, the unnamed man and Harry soon get bitterness as a result of their lack of consciousness. It turns their seem-to-be-exhilarating experience into a deadly journey. The nameless man's poor consciousness causes his overconfidence and disregard for nature and experienced hikers. Hence, no matter how vigorous his attempt is, the final ending is the tragic freezing death. Similarly, Harry's poor self-consciousness that skips medical preparation before the trip to Africa gets him into trouble with gangrene and drives him to deviant behavior toward his wife. Eventually, just a ridiculous death awaits Harry.

By and large, three characters have the same desperate circumstance of death but different attitudes and emotions toward death. Those differences decide the outcome of the protagonists. The nameless man and Harry are losers not only externally due to

their pointlessly early death but also internally because they cannot control themselves and fail to reach a desirable result. Meanwhile, Koskroosh is an external loser because he must die when reaching ripe old age, yet he is an internal winner thanks to his dignified and wise death. Undeniably, to have good self-management, one needs to gain good self-consciousness first.

### 4.2. How are the Author's Arts of Writing Similar?

Concerning to content motif, both Jack London and Ernest Hemingway put their protagonists in tragic situations. The response of the characters towards the external triggers reveals how well they are conscious of themselves. Keen and acute self-consciousness allows them to keep their mood in control, and thus acts with dignity. In contrast, poor and weak self-consciousness leads to improper actions that are fueled by negative and harmful emotions. Both writers use flashback and symbols as part of the characters' stream of consciousness, which effectively depicting the correlation between the characters' inner world and their response to the outer world.

Regarding the art of writing, there are three artistic continuances between Jack London and Ernest Hemingway. Firstly, their stories were all created with stream of consciousness. This tactic takes advantage of the third-person point of view to paint a transparent mural of the existence of individual consciousness. Hemingway's writing can be regarded as more typical of stream of consciousness, while Jack London's work merely resorts to factors of stream of consciousness. The next similarity between two writers is to envisage the last hours to generalize the whole life of the characters. This technique interweaves the past with the present to look back at the protagonists' life. Besides, death is the utmost dramatic and fierce moment when people have overwhelming fears about their

loss of control, separation, an uncertain future, and suffering. Therefore, people may show their typical characteristics when confronting the end of life. It is why both Jack London and Hemingway place their protagonists in the final stage of life to visualize the picture of their life. The last factor that London's and Hemingway's stories have in common is foreshadowing. They use imagery to allude to future events and build anticipation and dramatic tension in the narrative.

### 4.3. Limitations of the Study

This thesis has several inevitable limitations. Firstly, this research does not cover every similarity between the two authors due to time and data limitations. Secondly, the aspects of self-consciousness and self-management could be more elaborated if more works were included in this research as data.

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# SỰ TƯƠNG ĐỒNG GIỮA HAI TÁC GIẢ JACK LONDON VÀ HEMINGWAY TRONG VIỆC XÂY DỰNG NHÂN VẬT TỰ Ý THỨC TRONG CÁC TRUYỆN "TO BUILD A FIRE", "THE LAW OF LIFE" VÀ "THE SNOWS OF KILIMANJARO"

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**Tóm tắt:** Jack London và Ernest Hemingway là hai nhà văn điển hình và nổi tiếng của văn học Mỹ trong thế kỷ XX. Bài báo này thực hiện nghiên cứu về các tác phẩm "The law of life" (Luật đời), "To build a fire" (Nhóm lửa), and "The snows of Kilimanjaro" (Tuyết trên đỉnh Kilimanjaro) của hai tác giả với mục đích khám phá cách sự tự ý thức của nhân vật được thể hiện, qua đó chứng minh sự hiện diện của cảm xúc trí tuệ trong văn học. Phương pháp định tính được sử dụng trong nghiên cứu để thu thập dữ liệu quan trọng dẫn tới những kết luận về sự tự ý thức. Kết quả cho thấy mối tương quan trực tiếp giữa sự tự ý thức và ý thức tự chủ hành vi tác động đến kết cục cuối cùng của các nhân vật. Thêm vào đó, nghiên cứu cũng này chỉ ra những điểm tương đồng của hai tác giả trong việc sử dụng kỹ thuật viết để xây dựng sự tự ý thức của nhân vật. Những thông tin trên được kì vọng sẽ mang đến cái nhìn chi tiết sâu sắc hơn về các tác phẩm của London và Hemingway cũng như sự giống nhau của hai tác giả đến việc xây dựng nhân vật tự ý thức.

*Từ khóa:* trí tuệ cảm xúc trong văn học, tự ý thức, tự làm chủ hành vi

# AN E-PORTFOLIO: A PROMISING TOOL FOR PROMOTING LEARNERS' AUTONOMOUS LEARNING COMPETENCIES IN AN EFL SPEAKING COURSE

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**Abstract:** This study aims to explore autonomous learning competencies perceived by twenty EFL learners who took part in an English speaking course in which an e-portfolio was utilized as a learning tool in a Ho Chi Minh City-based language center. The exploratory sequential mixed-methods research employed semi-structured interviews and a closed-ended questionnaire for data collection, i.e., the qualitative data from the semi-structured interviews were initially gathered, and the quantitative data were then collected to confirm the qualitative results. The findings indicated the participants' positive perceptions of autonomy-related competencies in an e-portfolio-based speaking course, consisting of accountability closely related to sense of responsibility, self-regulation referring to an ability to monitor their learning process, and self-assessment involving the process of discovering their identity and reflecting on their academic performance. The paper also highlights some pedagogical implications in a bid to enhance the effectiveness of English language teaching and learning in terms of the e-portfolio application.

*Keywords:* autonomous learning competencies, e-portfolio, English speaking skills

## 1. Introduction

In language education in general and English language teaching and learning in particular, learner autonomy involves learners' responsibility for decisions relating to their learning process. Benson (2001) argued that a learner cannot be fully autonomous unless he/she negotiates for making decisions and taking responsibility in their learning. According to Little (2004), learner autonomy is associated with "learning how to learn intentionally" (p. 105). That is, learners are self-aware of their own strategies, techniques, motivation, strengths, and weaknesses that contribute to their

success in language learning. To promote life-long learning and stimulate the growth of students' capacities, learner autonomy needs to be fostered (Egel, 2009). Nguyen (2011) pinpointed that problem solving, decision making, and organization which are typical characteristics of autonomous learners may contribute to learners' success and competencies.

As far as language assessment is concerned, an e-portfolio is regarded as an assessment tool which shows students' learning progress. Moreover, e-portfolios enhance learners' awareness about their responsibility for their own learning from

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the beginning to the end (Gülbahar & Tinmaz, 2006). According to Abrami and Barrett (2005), an e-portfolio provides "a structured context for students and teachers to present text, audio, video in a fluid form which can be easily processed and it integrates synchronous and asynchronous communication functions" (p. 8). In the context of the current research, however, an e-portfolio has not been applied as an assessment and learning tool in a speaking class to develop EFL learners' autonomous learning skills. In addition, e-portfolios and learner autonomy are quite unfamiliar to both the teachers and the learners in the research setting. Given the aforementioned rationale, this study aims to explore the EFL learners' perceptions of the implementation of e-portfolios to foster the learners' autonomous learning skills in an English speaking course at a language center in Ho Chi Minh City, Vietnam. The research question is formulated based on the research objective as follows.

How do EFL learners perceive their autonomous learning skills in an e-portfolio-based EFL speaking class?

## 2. Literature Review

### *Autonomous Learning Competencies*

According to Little (2003, as cited in Lena & Cinthya, 2013), learner autonomy encourages learners to become independent, self-reliant, and accountable for their own learning. Additionally, self-assessment is one of the fundamental features of autonomous learning as its merits have been evidenced in a range of studies (Gholami, 2016; Hati et al., 2021; Ngo, 2019; Phan, 2021). In this study, autonomous learning competencies are categorized into three aspects: self-regulation, self-assessment, and accountability. First of all, self-regulation is a process in which learners can choose suitable learning strategies, tasks, or goals for their learning. Secondly, self-

assessment refers to the achievement or the benefits they obtain when they take responsibility for their own learning. Learners will do their work with motivation, confidence, and interest, which encourages learners to learn autonomously. Finally, personal accountability is how learners develop their self-independence with or without the teacher's engagement. They can improve a high sense of belonging or responsibility (Garita & Elizondo, 2016).

The first aspect of autonomous learning competencies is self-regulation. Schunk and Zimmerman (1997) pointed out that self-regulation requires planning and managing the time, attention, and focus on education, rehearsal, code, and the organization of information, making the working environment productive, and using social resources effectively. This means that self-regulation motivates learners to set their learning goals, and organize plans and strategies used to achieve their goals. Self-regulation helps monitor learners' learning process, and control social resources setting (Wang, 2004). Self-assessment – the second aspect refers to learners' ability to take control over their own learning process by improving their self-assessment skills, motivating their learning, and allowing learners to follow the learning progress (Erice, 2008). In relation to e-portfolios, according to Yastıbaş (2013), e-portfolio assessment helps to improve learners' self-assessment skills. Specifically, learners attempt to recognize their strengths and weaknesses and overcome their weaknesses. In a similar line, Tonbul (2009) indicated that learners are able to reflect on their learning and identify their strengths and weaknesses by using an e-portfolio as an assessment and learning tool. Finally, accountability is referred to as "a social relation in which an actor feels an obligation to explain and to justify his or her conduct to some significant other" (Bovens, 2005, p. 2). That is, an individual or an organization

needs to be aware of their responsibility for outcomes. In educational contexts, learners should have their responsibility for their own learning regardless of teachers' requirements.

### E-Portfolio

In light of information and communication technology (ICT) in language teaching and learning, an e-portfolio has emerged as a new mode of portfolios implemented in a writing class. Over the last two decades, e-portfolio-based assessment in EFL teaching has undergone substantial development. From its establishment in Europe, e-portfolio as an assessment tool was first used in educational programs in Canada as well as the United States, and it was then followed by an enormous e-portfolio movement in the US universities (Hamp-Lyons & Condon, 2000; Klenowski, 2010). Sutherland and Powell (2007) defined an e-portfolio as "a purposeful aggregation of digital items - ideas, evidence, reflections, feedback which 'presents' a selected audience with evidence of a person's learning or ability" (p. 1). Likewise, Gray (2008) stated that an e-portfolio refers to a collection of digital artifacts articulating three vital points such as experiences, achievements, and efficient learning.

### Previous Studies

As far as prior studies concerning e-portfolios and learner autonomy, Duong (2021) explored autonomous learning skills perceived by 35 English majors at a public university in Ho Chi Minh City, Vietnam and their writing competence after the e-portfolio-based writing course. The tests, writing logs, and semi-structured interviews were employed to collect the data. The findings showed the improvement in writing skills and positive perceptions of autonomous learning skills such as goal setting, material seeking, study planning, reflecting, and peer feedback giving.

Likewise, Huynh and Bui (2019) conducted a study on EFL teenagers' perspectives on learner autonomy and effects of portfolios on their writing skills. The findings demonstrated that the portfolio helped the students enhance their involvement in learning, e.g., promoting the ability to monitor and prepare the writing task and evaluating their own performance in the evaluation stage. Moreover, it was proved that the portfolio improved the students' use of written English to complete the portfolio assignments. In EFL speaking skills, Safari and Koosha (2016) found out that portfolios enabled learners to promote learner autonomy, self-reflection, and peer feedback and to develop their speaking skills. Learners also believed that they could fix their mistakes efficiently and monitor their learning process by virtue of portfolios compared to the traditional assessment. In brief, it is noticed that a number of studies on the use of portfolio in relation to learner autonomy and English language skills have been conducted; nevertheless, there is a scarcity of research on the deployment of e-portfolio in the English speaking course to enhance learners' autonomous learning competencies.

## 3. Methodology

### Research Design

This study employed an exploratory sequential mixed-methods research design in which the qualitative data collection and analysis was first carried out, which led to the process of garnering and analyzing the quantitative data to discover unresolved matters and verify such discoveries quantitatively. The qualitative approach is used as a scientific method to collect the non-numerical data, and it was used to gain an understanding of reasons, opinions, and motivation (Johnson & Christensen, 2008). Meanwhile, quantitative research is defined as a systematic investigation of observable

phenomena by gathering statistical, mathematical, or computational techniques (Given, 2008). Specifically, the qualitative data were gathered and processed in the first phase, and the results of this phase directed the second phase – a quantitative phase. In this study, semi-structured interviews and a closed-ended questionnaire functioning as the research instruments were used to collect quantitative and qualitative data after a 10-week speaking course. Initially, semi-structured interviews were conducted and analyzed to explore the participants' thoughts about autonomous learning competencies gained during the course. Then the questionnaire, constructed based on the qualitative results, was administered to the participants to confirm the qualitative results.

### Research Setting and Participants

This research project was undertaken at a language center in Ho Chi Minh City, Vietnam. The center has four branches and has provided a variety of foreign language courses such as English, Korean, Chinese, and Japanese to language learners since 2001. This center is famous for English communication courses with a focus on learners' speaking and listening skills. Over the past years, the center has had more than 20 English communication classes with more than 200 students from elementary level to upper-intermediate level. Improving learners' speaking and listening skills is the core objective of such communication courses. The paper aims at developing autonomous learning skills in a speaking course, so listening skills are excluded from the study.

The participants of this study consisted of twenty EFL learners who have been learning English communication courses at the language center, where the current study was conducted. The participants shared the same level of English proficiency (i.e., elementary). There were

fifteen females (75%) and five males (25%) from the eighteen to twenty-nine years old. Additionally, seven out of twenty participants spent less than one hour daily self-practicing their English, whereas thirteen participants allotted from one to three hours per day to practice their English. Amongst the twenty participants, five of them were conveniently invited for semi-structured interviews.

### The Teaching Procedure

The textbook of this course is *New English File Elementary*, written by Oxenden, Latham-Koenig, and Seligson (2008). Three units with social topics such as daily routine, hometown, family and friends, leisure time, etc. were included in the 10-week speaking course.

The teaching procedure is described as follows. The first stage is pre-course training. The 90-minute training was offered to the teacher-in-charge to facilitate the English speaking teaching process with the deployment of an e-portfolio to develop students' autonomous learning skills. The learners were also instructed how to apply an e-portfolio in a speaking course within thirty minutes in the first week of the course to ensure that all learners explicitly knew how to make a reflection and store artifacts in e-portfolios. The second stage is the employment of an e-portfolio in the speaking course. On the first day, the teacher asked their learners to find out the materials related to the topic and then put them in the e-portfolio. The learners had to access Google Drive and created a folder on their own. They were encouraged to observe a range of resources from their classmates' e-portfolios for reference. After that, the learners reflected on what they had achieved in the previous two weeks and got prepared for materials autonomously before a new lesson. More specifically, each individual was encouraged to give reflection on their achievements in the e-portfolio every two

weeks and find out the necessary information by using some searching tools and techniques such as Google, Google Scholar, Bing, etc. The third stage is feedback giving. The reflections were first conducted by the learners themselves, and they then provided comments and suggestions for their classmates' assignments. They could use either English or Vietnamese to reflect on their learning process. The teacher also gave comments on the learners' findings and reflections. The last stage is practicing. The learners were expected to use the input information and practice speaking skills.

**Figure 1**

*The Teaching Procedure Research Instruments*
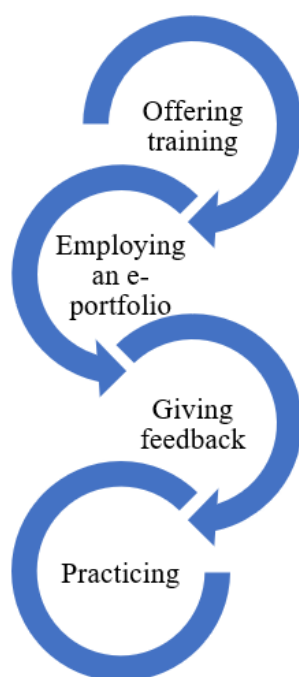


The purpose of the interview was to explore learners' perceptions of the e-portfolio used as a learning tool to enhance their autonomous learning competencies. The interview was conducted with a set of twelve predetermined questions exploring learners' perceptions of the use of e-portfolio in an English speaking course in relation to autonomous learning competencies. The interviewees were

labeled from the first learner (L1) to the fifth learner (L5).

The questionnaire which was designed based on the interview data analysis and research purpose consists of two sections. The first section in the questionnaire features items about the participants' personal information, such as gender, age, level of English proficiency and time for English self-practice. The second section includes 16 items addressing the learners' perceptions of the use of e-portfolio to promote autonomous learning competencies in an EFL speaking course. In this section, the five-point Likert scale (from strongly disagree to strongly agree) questionnaire consists of three major parts including self-regulation (7 items), self-assessment (5 items), and accountability (4 items). The questionnaire was designed in English and translated into Vietnamese. The Vietnamese version was administered to the respondents so that they did not experience any language barriers in responding to the questionnaire. The Cronbach's alpha is .82, which means the reliability of the questionnaire was high.

***Data Collection and Analysis***

Prior to the data collection, the research instruments were piloted with three participants sharing similar characteristics with those in the main study. After the English speaking course, interviews were carried out with five participants. Each interview was conducted in Vietnamese within 30 - 35 minutes, and all interviews were recorded for later analysis. After the preliminary interview data analysis had been garnered, the copies of the questionnaire were administered to participants who spent around 15 minutes to answer all the items in the questionnaire. Explanations were given based on participants' requests.

With respect to data analysis, two types of data (qualitative and quantitative data) were collected. The qualitative data

generated from the interviews were analyzed through content analysis. Specifically, all the recorded interviews were first listened to and transcribed into words. The raw data were then read, reread and coded. Finally, similar opinions were grouped into categories and themes. Meanwhile, the data gathered from the questionnaires were processed by using the software SPSS in terms of descriptive statistics, i.e. mean (M) and standard deviation (SD). The scale was interpreted as 1.00-1.80: strongly disagree; 1.81-2.60: disagree; 2.61-3.40: neutral; 3.41-4.20: agree; 4.21-5.00: strongly agree.

## 4. Results and Discussion

### *Results*

The data collected from the semi-structured interviews demonstrated that the learners had positive perceptions of the use of e-portfolio for fostering autonomous learning competencies in a speaking course. Their perceptions could be divided into three autonomous learning competencies, including self-regulation, self-assessment, and accountability in their learning process. Some general excerpts are as follows.

> I feel that I can learn independently. I learn a lot of new ideas from my friends' speaking and then use these in my upcoming speaking task. (L1)

> I think I am more aware of my learning because I have to prepare my lesson every day by preparing the meaning of new vocabulary, setting up the outline that suits the topic, and looking for the relevant information. (L3)

In addition to the qualitative data gathered from the interviews, the questionnaire designed based on the interview results was used to collect quantitative data. Table 1 depicts the overall mean scores of three aspects of autonomous learning skills. Statistically, the learners'

accountability referring to how the learners develop their sense of independence occupied the highest mean score (M=3.73, SD=.97). Meanwhile, the mean scores of self-regulation (e.g., learners' identifying task goals, finding suitable materials, and using suitable learning strategies) and self-assessment (e.g., identifying their strengths and weaknesses and evaluating their English speaking skills autonomously during the learning process) were quite high (M=3.68, SD=1.02; M=3.60, SD=.85 respectively). This means that the learners mostly showed their agreement on the three aspects of autonomous learning skills. It can be interpreted that they positively perceived the contribution of e-portfolios to learner autonomy development during the English speaking course.

**Table 1**

*Learners' Perceptions of Aspects of Autonomous Learning Skills*

| No. | Aspect | n = 20 | |
|-----|--------|--------|-----|
| | | M | SD |
| 1 | Accountability | 3.73 | .97 |
| 2 | Self-regulation | 3.68 | 1.02 |
| 3 | Self-assessment | 3.60 | .85 |

Regarding self-regulation, the collected data from the interviews showed the learners' positive perceptions of self-regulation in learning English by applying e-portfolios in Google Drive. Three out of five learners illustrated that they were able to choose the materials, set the goals, and organize the strategies in the learning process during the e-portfolio-based courses. L1 confirmed that she could identify the task goals, find the necessary vocabulary, and prepare the exercise well before she attended the lesson.

> Every day, before I attend the lesson in the classroom, I realize I have to prepare my work, including preparing the necessary vocabulary,

looking for the meaning in the dictionary and then uploading it in Google Drive to share with my teacher and my classmate, thus my work is well done. (L1)

Similarly, L2 revealed that he felt more confident when he attended the lesson because he prepared the homework well and then posted it in his e-portfolio (Google Drive) before.

I am aware that I need to read carefully the homework at home before I go to class, my teacher will make some requirements during the lesson, and if you don't prepare your work well, you can't do these tasks. Therefore, I have to look for the new vocabulary, make an outline, and read books, then post them into Google Drive that my teacher and my friend can see and give me feedback. I feel more confident when I join my lesson. (L2)

L3 also shared that he was aware of setting ideas and preparing the necessary materials in his learning although it was the first time he had attended the e-portfolio's lesson. He had to be alert to arrange the topic before attending the lesson by looking up in the books or on the internet.

I should prepare my lesson independently by checking the vocabulary's meaning, setting the task goals, and looking for the concerned materials on the internet or in books on a daily basis. (L3)

This finding is corroborated with the quantitative finding. Table 2 demonstrates the results concerning self-regulation during the e-portfolio-based speaking course. The identifying the requirements of the task, setting goals, finding suitable materials, choosing suitable learning strategies, and modifying ideas while speaking) showed that the majority of learners (M=3.67 and SD=1.15) agreed they had a positive attitude

in their self-regulation after the e-portfolio-based speaking course. The mean score of each item accounts for more than 3.50. This means that the learners believed they had a confident attitude in their self-regulation in organizing their assignments.

**Table 2**

*Learners' Perceptions of Self-Regulation*

| No. | I think e-portfolios in the course helped me … | n = 20 | |
|---|---|---|---|
| | | M | SD |
| 1 | identify the requirements of the task | 3.85 | 1.09 |
| 2 | set goals for the speaking tasks | 3.85 | 1.04 |
| 3 | find materials to prepare the necessary vocabulary for the task | 3.60 | 1.04 |
| 4 | find materials to prepare necessary ideas for the tasks | 3.80 | 1.10 |
| 5 | use strategies to overcome linguistics-related English speaking difficulties | 3.60 | 1.31 |
| 6 | use strategies to overcome psychology-related English speaking difficulties | 3.55 | 1.28 |
| 7 | modify ideas to ensure a logical organization while speaking | 3.50 | 1.19 |
| | Average | 3.67 | 1.15 |

With regard to self-assessment, the collected information from the interview highlighted the learners' positive attitudes about learner autonomy by using e-portfolios. The learners believed they could identify their strengths and weaknesses in their English speaking based on the teachers' and peer feedback.

[..] I agree that when I post my homework on an e-portfolio, I receive feedback from my

classmates and teacher. The feedback helped me to complete my work well. Based on this feedback, I realize what I have to improve in my own learning. (L1)

I am really interested in doing my homework because my teacher gives me comments and suggestions when I post my works in Google Drive. (L3)

Furthermore, the learners could evaluate their English speaking skills in terms of ideas, vocabulary, grammar, and organization.

> [….] moreover, my teacher shows me how I adjust my work, especially in grammar while speaking. Accordingly, I will correct my homework as well. (L2)

> I know how to have a good organization for my speech based on the findings of ideas and vocabulary, and the teacher's feedback in e-portfolios. (L3)

A similarity in the quantitative findings was found. It can be observed in Table 3 that the learners believed they could identify their strong and weak points while speaking (M=3.80, SD=1.00), evaluate their English speaking skills in terms of ideas, vocabulary, grammar, or organization (M=3.70, SD=.98; M=3.65, SD=.98; M=3.50, SD=.89; M=3.35, SD=.87 respectively). It indicates that a big number of the learners at the center admitted the contribution of e-portfolios towards their self-assessment of weaknesses and strengths as well as English speaking skills.

**Table 3**

*Learners' Perceptions of Self-Assessment*

| No. | I think e-portfolios in the course helped me … | n = 20 | |
| --- | --- | --- | --- |
| | | M | SD |
| 8 | identify my strengths and weaknesses while speaking | 3.80 | 1.00 |
| 9 | assess my English speaking competence in terms of ideas | 3.70 | .98 |
| 10 | assess my English speaking competence in terms of vocabulary | 3.65 | .98 |
| 11 | assess my English speaking competence in terms of grammar | 3.50 | .89 |
| 12 | assess my English speaking competence in terms of organization | 3.35 | .87 |
| | Average | 3.60 | .94 |

*Accountability*

In relation to accountability, the learners expressed they were aware of their responsibility, and they were autonomous in their own learning process without teachers' intervention. For example:

> I learn a lot from my classmates when they present their task or comment on my task in Google Drive. It makes me feel proud of myself. I always finish my task before the teacher's deadline […] (L2)

> I feel more confident and interested to talk with foreigners in extra-curricular lessons. Based on the knowledge that I get from e-portfolio assignments, I really enjoy talking with foreigners. (L4)

> [...] Furthermore, I always try to finish my assignment on time. (L5)

According to the aforementioned findings, it can be seen that the learners possessed positive attitudes about the contribution of e-portfolios which helped enhance the learners' accountability, self-regulation, and self-assessment in the speaking course.

The quantitative finding confirmed the qualitative one. The mean scores of the learners' perceptions of accountability (Table 4) were high. Particularly, the

learners recognized the benefits of an e-portfolio as a learning tool such as setting the timetable during the learning process (M=4.15; SD=1.09), choosing an appropriate learning method outside the classroom (M=3.80, SD=1.00), completing assignments without the teachers' intervention through e-portfolios (M=3.75, SD=1.11), and opting for a suitable practice method (M=3.25, SD=.97).

**Table 5**

*Learners' Perceptions of Accountability*

| No. | I think e-portfolios in the course helped me … | n = 20 | |
|---|---|---|---|
| | | M | SD |
| 13 | set a timetable during the learning process | 4.15 | 1.09 |
| 14 | choose an appropriate learning method outside the classroom (e.g., discussing, peer reviewing, reflecting, questioning, etc.) | 3.80 | 1.00 |
| 15 | choose a practice method properly (e.g., talking with foreigners, recording my talk, making a video with peers, etc.) | 3.25 | .97 |
| 16 | try to finish speaking assignments on time | 3.75 | 1.11 |
| | Average | 3.73 | 1.04 |

***Discussion***

The above-mentioned findings indicate the learners' positive perceptions of autonomous learning skills through the use of e-portfolios in an EFL speaking course. In particular, the findings showed that most of the learners advocated that there has been a significant shift in their perceptions of self-regulation during the course. For example, they believed that they were able to look for materials for necessary vocabulary and initiate ideas, choose suitable strategies to overcome the speaking difficulties in their assignments. This is consistent with Dickinson (1995, p. 127) who affirmed that the students are active and independent in the learning process, i.e., they can identify goals, formulate their own goals, and change goals to suit their learning needs and interests. This result is also in line with Aydin's (2010) claim about an e-portfolio that enables students to improve vocabulary and organize ideas to overcome task obstacles. The students need to equip themselves with the necessary vocabulary and ideas to complete their assignments. This might be related to teachers' facilitation of each assignment. In this sense, teachers play a role as a facilitator.

Furthermore, it was found that self-assessment was positively perceived by most of the learners during the course. They recognized the ability to identify their strengths and weaknesses in the learning process. Additionally, they showed their positive feedback on evaluating their English speaking tasks. This result might be explained by the fact that the learners take responsibility for organizing their portfolios in which they proactively organize learning activities. Mesfin (2008) concluded that the students believed using e-portfolios created a good environment in which they were able to interact with their teacher and friends, so they received feedback and counseling from the teacher and the classmates to improve their assignments. This finding is dissimilar to those explored in a few previous studies (Duong, 2021; Tran & Duong, 2018) which claimed that the EFL students were reluctant to self-assess their learning performance.

In line with self-regulation and self-assessment, the learners' perceptions of accountability were also positive in this research. In other words, the learners held a strong belief in autonomous learning competencies in terms of accountability during the e-portfolio-based speaking course. The learners were aware of their learning and ready to set the schedule during the learning process, tried to finish the task

on time, and choose suitable learning and practice methods to learn and practice English speaking out of class. In a similar vein, Castañeda and Rodríguez-González (2011) asserted that the students were responsible for learning English without the teacher's intervention.

## 5. Conclusion and Recommendations

The current study aims to determine the learners' perspectives on autonomous learning skills when an e-portfolio was used as an assessment and learning tool in language learning. Through the semi-structured interviews and the questionnaire, the findings indicated that the learners at the language center positively perceived their autonomous learning competencies in terms of accountability (e.g., readiness for setting a study plan, responsibility for task outcomes, and choice of learning and practice methods), self-regulation (e.g., setting learning goals, searching for information, opting for learning strategies, and adapting ideas), and self-assessment (e.g., identifying strengths and weaknesses, evaluating their English speaking competence concerning vocabulary, grammar, organization, and ideas) during the course. It can be inferred that the participants were aware of the significance of such autonomous learning competencies in their own learning.

On the basis of the results, pedagogical implications for teachers, learners, and school administrators are drawn as follows. In order to apply an e-portfolio in an EFL speaking course effectively, EFL teachers should provide a pressure-free learning environment in which EFL learners feel free to interact with their teacher. They should also react positively to learners' mistakes or misunderstandings. Moreover, they need to take advantage of technology to create an effective and interactive English lesson. Meanwhile, EFL

learners should take responsibility for their own learning. They need to be proactively involved in seeking and categorizing the artifacts in an e-portfolio. Moreover, learners should interact with their peers and teachers to create autonomous environments in language learning. Besides, learners should equip themselves with ICT literacy to take part in the digital learning process. In terms of administration, the leadership team of language centers should set a plan to cultivate teachers' and learners' awareness of the role of learner autonomy and autonomous learning competencies in the 21st century. Moreover, there should be training sessions about the application of technology with a focus on e-portfolios in English language teaching and learning offered to teachers and learners. More importantly, it is suggested that the managers revise the program that is in alignment with the shifting landscape of English language education in the digital era.

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# TẬP HỒ SƠ ĐIỆN TỬ: MỘT CÔNG CỤ TIỀM NĂNG ĐỂ TĂNG NĂNG LỰC HỌC TẬP TỰ CHỦ CHO NGƯỜI HỌC TRONG LỚP HỌC NÓI TIẾNG ANH

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**Tóm tắt**: Nghiên cứu này nhằm tìm hiểu nhận thức của 20 học viên tại một trung tâm ngoại ngữ ở Thành phố Hồ Chí Minh về năng lực học tập tự chủ. Những học viên này đã sử dụng tập hồ sơ điện tử như một công cụ học tập trong khoá học nói tiếng Anh. Nghiên cứu hỗn hợp với thiết kế khám phá sử dụng phỏng vấn bán cấu trúc và bảng câu hỏi kín để thu thập dữ liệu. Trước tiên, các cuộc phỏng vấn được thực hiện và được xử lý. Sau đó, dữ liệu định lượng thông qua bảng câu hỏi được thu thập để hỗ trợ giải thích cho kết quả định tính. Kết quả chỉ ra rằng học viên nhận định tích cực về năng lực học tập tự chủ của họ, bao gồm khả năng chịu trách nhiệm, khả năng tự điều chỉnh, khả năng tự đánh giá. Ngoài ra, bài báo còn đưa ra một số khuyến nghị nhằm nâng cao việc dạy và học tiếng Anh khi sử dụng tập hồ sơ điện tử.

*Từ khóa:* năng lực học tập tự chủ, tập hồ sơ điện tử, kỹ năng nói tiếng Anh

# CURRICULUM DESIGN IN TRANSLATOR
# AND INTERPRETER EDUCATION:
# A REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE<sup>*</sup>

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**Abstract**: The increasingly vital role of professional translators and interpreters in facilitating transnational and cross-cultural communication in various aspects of life has necessitated the need for constant improvement of translator and interpreter education, which has a long-standing history. Training programmes differ across countries and continents, but nonetheless, there are some shared components that make up a good training programme, and one of which is curriculum. Given the critical role of curriculum in all this, recently, great importance has been attached to curriculum design. This paper reviews the most important aspects of curriculum design, including important definitions, fundamental foundations (consisting of philosophy, history, psychology, and sociology) and typical curriculum models as well as curriculum components. Secondary research is employed as the research method. The paper is pertinent to those who work as administrators, curriculum designers, educators, and teachers with the aim of providing a deep and relevant background knowledge and improving the quality of curriculum design.

*Keywords*: translator and interpreter education, curriculum, curriculum design, curriculum foundations, curriculum models, competence

## 1. Introduction

As the 21<sup>st</sup> century unfolds, it becomes ever more transparent that the need for transnational and cross-cultural communication in various contexts is increasingly on the rise. In that context, the service of professional language mediators is of vital importance. Given the ever more demanding requirements from service users, growing attention has been directed to formal translator and interpreter education. Gile (2009, p. 1) states that "it is increasingly recognised that formal training in Translation schools is the most practical way

to teach and test abilities to provide the market with reliable professionals, and the number of translator and interpreter training programmes has been increasing sharply over the past two or three decades in many parts of the world". Kelly and Martin (2009) shared a similar viewpoint that "the growing need for professional translators and interpreters has now led to the founding and expansion of programmes". The Intercultural Studies Group (ISG) has been keeping track of a list of existing translator training institutions under the support of the Training and Qualification Committee of the Fédération Internationale des Traducteurs

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(FIT). The number of programmes has increased from 250 in 1998 to 380 in 2006. This data was collected from 63 countries, however, countries that are not members of FIT are not represented in the list. Therefore, the actual number of programmes might be greater. As pointed out by Sawyer (2004), when it comes to formal education, "curriculum is the core element". However, Sawyer also claimed that the topic of curriculum is "under-researched" and "under-studied", which mainly results from "the lack of reliable sources" (Pym, 1998).

Accordingly, to contribute to the body of knowledge in this field, this paper focuses on the cornerstone of curriculum design in translator and interpreter education. Specifically, it investigates literature that addresses fundamental foundations, curriculum models, and curriculum components in translator and interpreter education. It is expected that the paper is pertinent to those who work as administrators, curriculum designers, teachers as well as students of translation and interpretation, with the aim of providing deep and relevant background knowledge and improving the quality of curriculum design.

## 2. Methodology

This paper employs secondary research, which is a research method using information that has already been compiled and formatted. Secondary research was chosen because it is both time-efficient and cost-efficient. Secondary research is used to review previous research into an area of interest, and its results can be used to verify and confirm research goals, as well as establishing whether it is worth continuing research into a prospective area. Document review is the data collection procedure used in this paper. Qualitative data is used and presented in words and visual forms.

## 3. An Overview of Translator and Interpreter Education

"Translation is one of the oldest occupations in the world… It dates back anywhere between 6000 and 10000 years, to the dawn of civilization" (Sofer, 2013, p. 7). However, formal education in translation and interpretation appeared much later. The first extensive translator training programmes can be traced back to elaborate Chinese institutions for the translation of Buddhist texts, from the fourth to the ninth centuries (Pym, 2011), whereas the history of interpreter education is said to begin in the mid sixteenth century with the purpose of training diplomatic interpreters from a young age (Sawyer & Roy, 2015). Since then, translator and interpreter education has developed across Europe and other parts of the world because of European colonialism. Then the Second World War (WWII), especially with the Nuremberg trials, paved the way for the institutionalisation of training as the role of translators and interpreters became unshakable. Higher-education institutions have offered various kinds of training programmes at bachelor and master levels since the late 1980s and early 1990s (Pym, 2011). Translator and interpreter education is traditionally contrasted with translator and interpreter training, which refers to skills-based training grounded in deliberate and reflective practice whereas "the term 'education' implies comprehensive learning through academic and professional studies in pursuit of higher-order curriculum aims and goals" (Sawyer & Roy, 2015, p. 124).

## 4. Definition of Curriculum

Defining curriculum is never an easy task since there are plethora of definitions and approaches. Ornstein and Hunkins (2018) claim that "the field of curriculum is intended not to provide precise answers, but

to increase our understanding of its complexities" (p. 19). Thus, this paper only presents some of the most popular and accessible definitions of curriculum.

Cambridge dictionary defines curriculum as "the subjects studied in a school, college, etc. and what each subject includes. This definition is simple yet clear enough as it explains what curriculum entails. Greeno, Collins and Resnick (1996) propose a more academic definition that curriculum is considered "a set of educational goals and a sequence of learning activities that are intended to promote development toward those goals" (1996, p. 33). This definition indicates that learners follow a progression to achieve established goals. Sawyer (2004) studied a wide variety of definitions and decided to view curriculum in two aspects. Firstly, curriculum is a plan of action with clear learning objectives and sequence of learning activities. Secondly, curriculum deals with the interaction between students and instructors (pp. 42-43). Clearly, Sawyer's way of defining curriculum is comprehensive and extensive, and it covers various viewpoints.

All in all, curriculum can be understood as the formal statement of educational goals and objectives as well as activities and interaction involved in the process of working towards the achievement of the goals.

## 5. Curriculum Design

According to Ornstein and Hunkins (1998), curriculum design refers to the way we conceptualize the curriculum and arrange its major components, including content, instructional methods, materials, activities, etc. The way curriculum is designed is highly dependent on how curriculum

designers or specialists view curriculum; in other words, what theories they want to follow and what approaches they want to take when they design curriculum. Consequently, identifying what aspects influencing the process of curriculum design is of the utmost importance.

### 5.1. Foundations of Curriculum

For years, debates on various aspects of curriculum have captured the attention of many researchers. Nevertheless, the first aspects need to be discussed are curriculum foundations as "the foundations of curriculum set the external boundaries of the knowledge of curriculum and define what constitutes valid sources from which to derive the field's theories, principles, and ideas" (Ornstein & Hunkins, 2018, p. 29). Following are the four foundations of curriculum proposed by Ornstein and Hunkins (2018).

#### 5.1.1. Philosophy

The first foundation of curriculum is philosophy. In Ornstein and Hunkins' viewpoint, "almost all elements of curriculum are based on philosophy" (p. 47) as philosophy provides educators and curriculum designers with essential information concerning educational goals, content, teaching and learning processes, assessment, etc. This idea is also reflected in Goodlad et al. (1979)'s work as they point out that philosophy is the starting point in curriculum design and the basis for all subsequent decisions. Philosophy determines the aims, means, and ends of curriculum. In short, philosophy lays the foundation for the design of curriculum.

One of the most influential educational philosophers known to date is John Dewey. His works have made

significant contribution to the prominent educational philosophy of constructivism. This philosophy was also adopted by the curriculum designers of the Fast-track BA programme in English Language Teacher Education and Fast-track BA programme in English Language - Translation and Interpreting and proved to be remarkably fruitful. The two programmes were accredited and received good reviews by ASEAN University Network in 2012 and 2018 respectively. The fundamental idea of constructivist theory is that learners actively construct or make their own knowledge, in

which previous knowledge is used as a foundation to learn new things. Thus, in the learning process, the emphasis should be the learners, not the educators.

Besides, there are four other major educational philosophies that have become influential throughout the history of curriculum development, namely: perennialism, essentialism, progressivism, and reconstructionism. The following Figure 1 is Ornstein and Hunkins' summary of the core ideas of each philosophy of education.

**Figure 1**

*Overview of Educational Philosophies (Ornstein & Hunkins, 2018, p. 68)*

| Educational philosophy | Education goals | Knowledge | Curriculum focus |
|---|---|---|---|
| *Perennialism* | To educate the rational person, to cultivate the intellect | Focus on past and permanent studies, mastery of facts and timeless knowledge | Classical subjects; literary analysis; constant curriculum |
| *Essentialism* | To promote the intellectual growth of the individual; to educate the competent person | Essential skills and academic subjects; mastery of concepts and principles of subject matter | Essential skills (three *R*'s) and essential subjects (English, science, history, math, and foreign language) |
| *Progressi-vism* | To promote democratic, social living | Knowledge leading to growth and development; a living-learning process; focus on active and relevant learning | Based on students' interests; addresses human problems and affairs; interdisciplinary subject matter; activities and projects |
| *Reconstruc-tionism* | To improve and reconstruct society; to educate for change and social reform | Skills and subjects needed to identify and ameliorate society's problems; active learning concerned with contemporary and future society | Emphasis on social sciences and social research methods; examination of social, economic, and political problems; focus on present and future trends as well as on national and international issues |

### 5.1.2. History

Orsntein and Hunkins (1998, p. 81) stresses the essence of the need for historical

perspective in curriculum design, stating that "history illuminates current pedagogical practices". The historical foundation of curriculum focuses on the understanding of

the historical development of educational programs as well as changes in educational philosophies.

As pointed out by Sawyer (2004, p. 43), like other fields and disciplines, curricula in translator and interpreter education have the tendency to become dated and fossilised over time. Thus, an understanding of historical foundations enables educators to be aware of constant changes in knowledge, values, and technology, as well as social and political life to "avoid making the mistakes of the past and also to better prepare for the future" (Orsntein & Hunkins, 1998, p. 43).

### 5.1.3. Psychology

The third curriculum foundation is psychology, which in general provides answer to the question of how people learn. Accordingly, the understanding of psychology is essential to the comprehension of the teaching and learning processes, which form the basis for curriculum design and implementation (Ornstein & Hunkins, 2018, p. 112).

In general, learning can be examined in terms of three major theories: behaviorism, cognitive development, and phenomenology. Behaviorism, which started in the 1900s, has the longest history and centers on the idea that all behaviours are learned through interaction with the environment, and inherited factors have little influence on behaviour. The second theory of learning is cognitive development, which explains the role of cognitive abilities reflected in cognitive processes such as observing, classifying, categorising, reasoning, etc. in understanding new and complex concepts. Phenomenology, or

humanistic psychology is the third and most recent theory, which emphasises attitudes and feelings, self-actualisation, motivation, and freedom to learn (Ornstein & Hunkins, 2018).

### 5.1.4. Sociology

Since any curriculum must be implemented in a particular social setting, consideration of societal factors, including the relationship between schools and society should be taken into consideration by curriculum designers or specialists. According to Sawyer and Roy (2015, p. 49), in translator and interpreter education, societal factors affect the role that cultural studies, literature, and history play in the curriculum as well as the amount of industry practices, ethics and professional conduct incorporated in the training programme. These are aspects that need to be carefully considered when deciding on the content of the curriculum.

### 5.2. Curriculum Models

After identifying the critical foundations, curriculum designers are faced with the task of putting theories into practice. Specifically, they have to answer questions like: what are the content, methods, activities, and resources of each course? how many courses are there? how are courses sequenced? Various models of curriculum have been studied over the years with the hope of figuring out the best models and offering suggestion to curriculum designers. Among them, Arjona's models are considered to be influential though they have been published quite a long time ago. Following is the figure showing five models proposed by Arjona (1984).

**Figure 2**

*Curriculum Models According to Arjona (1984, p. 10)*
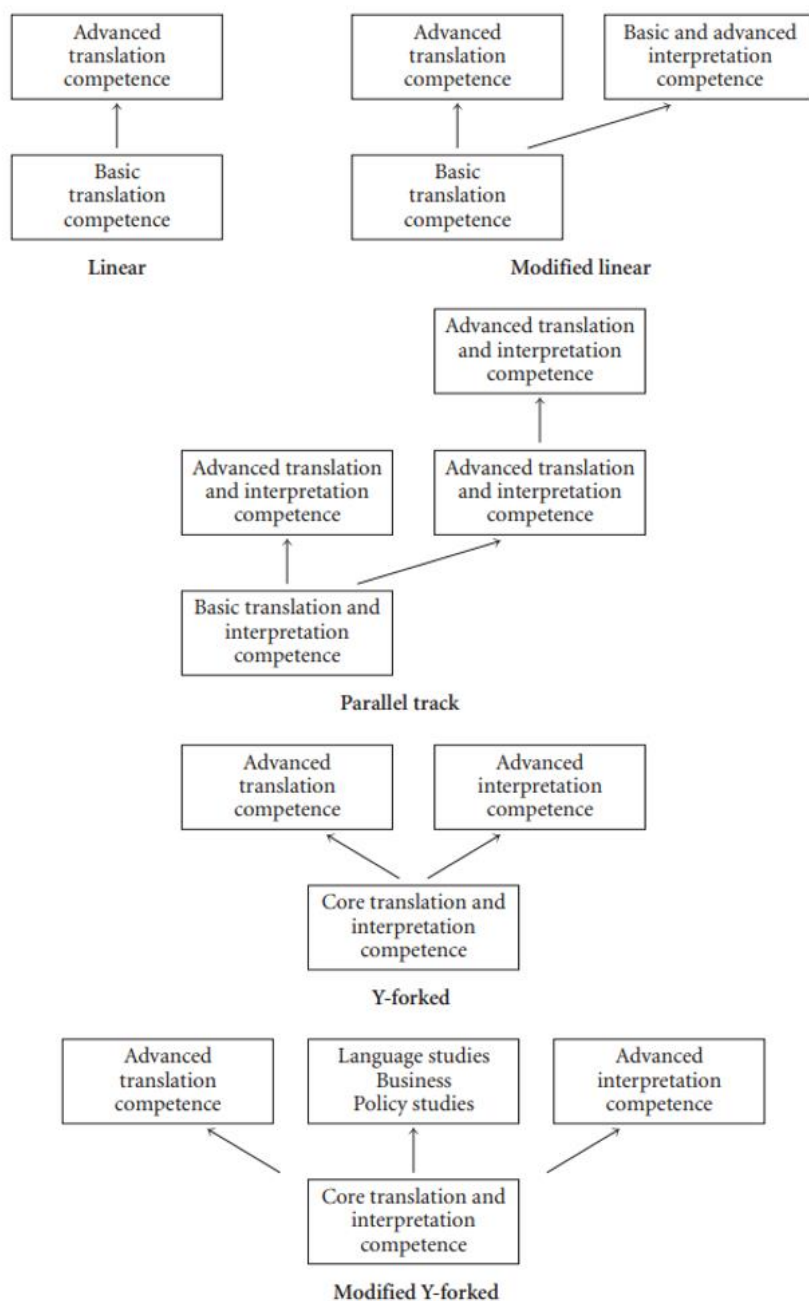


These five models are said to cover the vast majority of training programmes in translation and interpreting (Sawyer, 2004). First, for *the linear model,* translation courses precede interpretation courses, i.e. learners are required to achieve a high level of translation competence before they start studying interpretation. *The modified linear model* starts with a core translation curriculum, then learners can choose either to continue with advanced translation track or move to basic and advanced interpretation track. The linear and modified linear models are sequential, meaning learners must hone

their translation skills to a certain level before they are introduced to interpreting. These two models are based on the belief that knowledge and experience in translation skills form the solid background for subsequent interpreter training (Arjona, 1984). In *the parallel track model*, learners can choose to specialise in either translation or interpretation at any level. This model offers a wide range of courses at different levels. *The Y-forked model* consists of a core translation and interpretation curriculum for all learners, then learners choose to specialise in either translation or interpretation. *The modified Y-forked model* is similar to the Y-forked model in that it also includes a core translation and interpretation curriculum for all, and the difference lies in the choices of learners after they complete the core curriculum.

Renfer (1991) proposed four basic training models as follows:

- Two-tier system where translation and interpreting courses are offered in consecutive stages.
- Translator and interpreter courses run in parallel, followed by two separate final examinations.
- The "Y-model" where the curriculum for translators and interpreters separates after a common curricular trunk for all students.
- Postgraduate interpreter training or intensive on-the-job training in international organizations.

Renfer's models seem to be more comprehensive and also can cover more models in reality. Among those models, he concluded that the two-tier system is the ideal model in training professionals based on the same belief mentioned by Arjona above.

Clearly, the choice of models differs substantially from one another due to differences in socio-economic conditions, culture, policy-makers, education institutions, teachers, students, etc. However, the above mentioned models can serve as good examples of how a curriculum should be, and act as a reliable source of reference for curriculum designers.

## 5.3. Curriculum Components

Curriculum models provide essential guidelines to an appropriate and scientific system of components that are fundamental to a training programme. Components here refer primarily to modules that make up the content of the curriculum. The module content usually varies greatly across institutions and countries; however, an indispensable part of it is the competence that learners are expected to acquire after completing a module. Even though translation competence is often defined and viewed differently by translation researchers, most agree that it comprises sets of skills including linguistic, technological, cultural, etc., skills. Translation competence has become a hotly debated topic over the last few decades, with a plethora of competences discussed by researchers and educators. Accordingly, curriculum designers may be confused when making decision on which skills should be included in the curriculum and how they should be sequenced to help learners achieve the desired outcomes. That is when curriculum models come to play. Based on the adopted models, curriculum designers, administrators or teachers can develop an appropriate set of structured competences.

Following is an example of competences in a Y-track model proposed by Honig (1995).

**Figure 3**

*Competence Area in a Y-track Curriculum Model (Honig, 1995, pp. 160-165)*
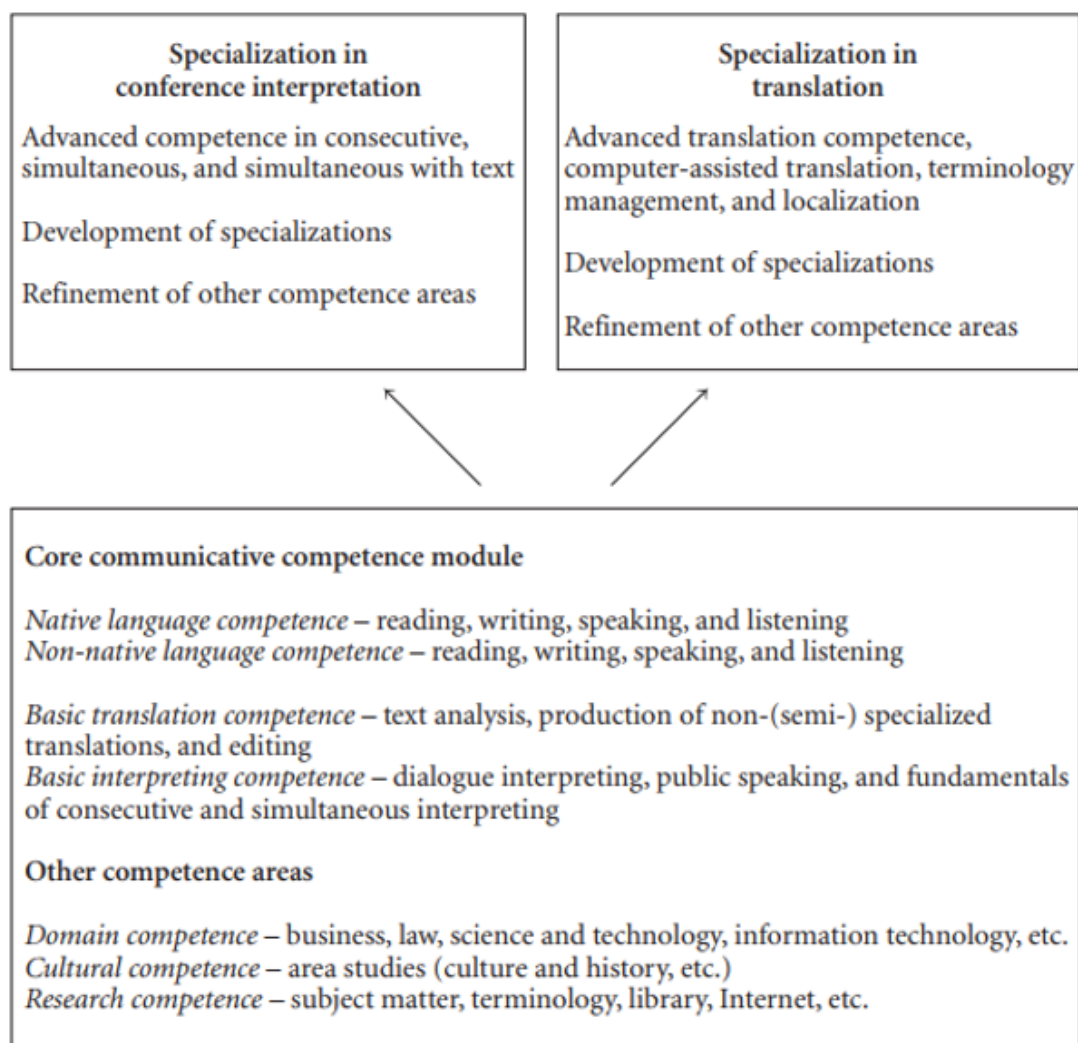


It can be seen from the above figure that when a decision is made on which model to follow, the program administrators or curriculum designers have a clearer idea of which competence should be included in which stage. This way of structuring competence is also very tentative, being able to cater for various levels of learners' needs or educational goals.

**6. Conclusion**

The reviewed literature suggests that curriculum design is quite a controversial and complex matter that continues to promote intense debate. Nonetheless, the role of curriculum in translator and interpreter education is undoubtedly vital. During the process of designing curriculum, there are various aspects that need to be considered, particularly curriculum foundations, which consists of philosophy, history, psychology, and sociology. Any decision made on endorsing any approach when designing curriculum would certainly exert profound impact on all stakeholders of the training programmes. Similarly, any decision on which model to be implemented also wields influence on the quality of

education. Thus, curriculum designers need to take these issues into serious consideration before designing and implementing any curriculum in translator and interpreter education. Early and clear decisions on curriculum model also provide guidance on which competences should be included and how they should be sequenced.

The paper is expected to contribute to the understanding of issues concerning curriculum design in translator and interpreter education, especially in the context of higher education.

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# XÂY DỰNG CHƯƠNG TRÌNH ĐÀO TẠO TRONG GIÁO DỤC BIÊN – PHIÊN DỊCH: TỔNG QUAN NGHIÊN CỨU

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**Tóm tắt**: Biên dịch viên và phiên dịch viên chuyên nghiệp đang đóng vai trò ngày càng thiết yếu trong quá trình giao tiếp xuyên quốc gia và liên văn hóa trong nhiều khía cạnh khác nhau của cuộc sống. Việc này đã đặt ra nhu cầu không ngừng cải tiến chất lượng chương trình giáo dục biên phiên dịch để có thể đào tạo được biên dịch viên, phiên dịch viên có chất lượng tốt. Mặc dù các chương trình đào tạo của các quốc gia có nhiều khác biệt, tuy nhiên đều bao gồm một số yếu tố giống nhau, và một trong số đó là chương trình giảng dạy. Do tầm quan trọng của chương trình giảng dạy nên việc xây dựng chương trình đào tạo đã được quan tâm đáng kể trong thời gian gần đây. Nghiên cứu này trình bày tổng quan lý thuyết về các khía cạnh quan trọng nhất của việc xây dựng chương trình đào tạo, bao gồm các khái niệm cơ bản, các nền tảng quan trọng (trong đó có triết học, lịch sử, tâm lý học và xã hội học) và các mô hình của chương trình đào tạo. Nghiên cứu này phù hợp với những người làm quản lý, người xây dựng chương trình đào tạo, nhà giáo dục và giáo viên với mục đích cung cấp kiến thức nền tảng sâu và phù hợp và nâng cao chất lượng chương trình đào tạo.

*Từ khóa*: giáo dục biên phiên dịch, chương trình đào tạo, xây dựng chương trình đào tạo, nền tảng chương trình đào tạo, mô hình chương trình đào tạo, năng lực

# EFL LEARNERS' DEPLOYMENT OF DISCOURSE MARKERS IN IELTS ESSAYS: FROM BELIEFS TO PRACTICES

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**Abstract:** This paper aims at presenting the findings of a study examining the deployment of discourse markers (DMs) in IELTS essays by EFL learners in terms of beliefs and practices. The study involved a group of 60 EFL learners who were taking IELTS preparation courses at an English language center in Ho Chi Minh City, Vietnam. The research data were gained from questionnaires and 120 IELTS essays (Task 2) written by EFL learners. The questionnaire data were processed using the SPSS software, while the essay data were scrutinized by AntConc software. The findings showed that EFL learners strongly believed in the importance of DMs in writing, and they deployed DMs in their writing at a moderate frequency. Additionally, among six categories of DMs, EFL learners utilized elaborative markers more than other categories of DMs. This paper also presents some pedagogical implications in an attempt to improve the quality of English language teaching and learning in general and English writing teaching and learning in specific at the research context and other similar EFL ones.

*Keywords*: discourse marker, essay, IELTS, learner, writing

## 1. Introduction

In the era of globalization, studying abroad has gained much popularity among young people, and it is not exceptional for Vietnamese people. Before applying to any educational institutions, applicants are required to show their language proficiency such as the International English Language Testing System (IELTS), Test of English for International Communication (TOEIC), Test of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL), or First Certificate in English (FCE) (Le, 2017). According to Moore and Morton (2005), many educational institutions require overseas students to have IELTS scores as a requirement for enrollment. However, many students still

have to struggle to meet the English proficiency requirement as they are not proficient in language skills, especially English writing skills. Part of their writing problem is their inappropriate use of discourse markers (DMs) which render their essays both incoherent and incohesive.

Researchers (e.g., Fraser, 1999; Jalilifar, 2014; Tran & Chau, 2021; Tran & Phan, 2021; Yunis & Haris, 2014) have proved that DMs have played a pivotal role in attributing to the coherence and cohesion as DMs are deemed as phrases or words to connect two adjacent sentences, thereby generating mutual relations in a text (Jalilifar, 2014). Fraser (1999) remarks that the characteristics of DMs in speaking and writing are not identical. DMs in writing are

much more formal than the ones in speaking. Only by acquiring knowledge of DMs and spotting the register of speech or composition can writers select the appropriate DMs. Modhish (2012) emphasizes that the coherence and cohesion of an essay can be formed by relating DMs properly. Nevertheless, it is noticed that many EFL learners still fail to produce pieces of good writing. According to Makeh and Sinwongsuwat (2014), in comparison with speaking skills, writing is more taxing since the writers cannot show their ideas via facial expressions, gestures, or tones, the meaning of a written piece must be conveyed through constructing structural properties as well as forming a cohesive text. Similarly, Yunis and Haris (2014) underscore that the lack of insights into DMs exerts a profound impact on students' products, resulting in the fact that they tend to misuse, underuse, or overuse DMs in their writing.

Within the research context of an English language center, EFL learners were attending academic IELTS preparation courses at different levels. Of the four language skills, they found the writing skill the most difficult as they usually gained unsatisfactory marks for writing tasks, stemming from a lack of understanding about the critical role of DMs in coherence and cohesion in writing. This means that they sometimes did not know how to use them accurately and often neglected the functions of DMs. With all the above-mentioned rationale, this study sets to examine EFL learners' deployment of DMs in academic IELTS essays (Task 2) in terms of their beliefs and practices at the context of an English language center in Ho Chi Minh City, Vietnam, and it attempts to answer the following research questions:

- What are EFL learners' beliefs about the deployment of DMs in IELTS essays?
- To what extent do EFL learners deploy DMs in IELTS essays?

Within the aforementioned research purposes, it is hoped that the findings will firstly serve as a reliable source of references for teachers to have a better understanding of EFL learners' beliefs about DMs and their use of DMs in their writing, resulting in improving the quality of English language teaching in general and English writing in specific. Secondly, the findings will provide EFL learners with a better understanding of their practices of deploying DMs in academic writing in general and IELTS essays in specific so that they can adjust their beliefs about and practices of deploying DMs in their writing.

## 2. Literature Review

DMs have been described in many distinctive ways by a multitude of researchers as a consequence of the different subject areas that they studied, resulting in the fact that the terminology of DMs turns significantly varied. Knott and Dale (1994) define that DMs are cue phrases that postulate communication at the discourse level. Meanwhile, Fraser (1999) highlights that DMs, which are called conjunctions, prepositional phrases, or adverbs, are employed to connect two single sentences or coordinate words in the same clause. Likewise, as indicated by Swan (2005), DMs are words and expressions, which can be used in order to depict the arrangement of communication, inventing a relation of a text.

Scholars (e.g., Liu, 2017; Louwerse & Mitchell, 2003; Schwartz, 1992; Tran & Nguyen, 2017) have indicated that the use of DMs has different values. Within the scope of this study, *pragmatic value, indispensable value of DMs*, and *learning value of DMs* are adapted (Aijmer, 2002; Schwartz, 1992; Swan, 2007; Trillo, 2002) as they fit the objectives of the research. With respect to *pragmatic value of DMs,* Swan (2007) asserts that pragmatics interprets the

investigation of meaning in the correlational background. Without the presence of pragmatics, a composition or an utterance is in dearth of communicative function because it can explain further not only the literal meaning but also non-literal one. When writers are conscious about the way they describe their opinion or emotions through linguistic expressions, pragmatic value of target words can be enhanced entirely. As for *indispensable value of DMs,* Aijmer (2002) points out that DMs occupy indispensable value in linguistic analysis. Trillo (2002) emphasizes that readers might have difficulty understanding writers' thoughts if they lack the proper use of DMs in a composition. Regarding *learning value of DMs,* Schwartz (1992) states that one of the most sophisticated processes for humans is learning development, which forces learners to put their incentives and restraints to better themselves. The significance of learning perception is of utmost importance in determining learners' amelioration.

DMs are classified from a variety of perspectives. According to Fraser (1999, 2009), DMs are classified into five chief categories, which are *Temporal, Contrastive, Elaborative, Inferential,* and *Topic change markers.* In addition, Fung (2011) points out that *Interpersonal Markers* are beneficial to show writers' evaluation and feelings in academic writing. Taken together, six main categories of DMs including *Temporal, Contrastive, Elaborative, Inferential, Topic change,* and *Interpersonal markers* were applied for this research purpose. *Temporal markers* (e.g., firstly, secondly, thirdly, etc.) signal the time in which the action takes place. *Contrastive markers* (e.g., however, but, although, though, etc.) signal the contrast of ideas. *Elaborative markers* (e.g., and, also, for example, etc.) signal an elaboration or continuation of ideas. *Inferential markers* (e.g., therefore, hence, thus, etc.) signal implications of ideas. *Topic change markers*

(e.g., regarding, when it comes to, with regard to, etc.) signal the change of topics. *Interpersonal markers* (e.g., indeed, in fact, it is clear that, etc.) signal the attitudes toward the conveyed ideas.

Prior studies on different aspects of DMs in academic writing have been conducted. Concerning perception perspective, Kalajahi (2012) explored how five Iranian post-graduate students viewed DMs and if there was any distinction between what was expressed in the interview and their writing samples. A qualitative method was employed in the study. All informants were fully aware of applying DMs in their writing, but they did not have sufficient knowledge for the proper use and choosing appropriate ones. Additionally, Modhish (2012) inspected the use of DMs that Yemeni EFL learners used in their composition writings. Fifty essays were analyzed using Fraser's (1999) taxonomy. The findings of the study revealed that the most frequently used DMs were the elaborative ones, followed by the inferential, contrastive, causative, and topic relating markers. It also showed that there was no positive correlation between learners' total number of DMs used and the writing quality of the participants. There was, however, a positive correlation between the topic relating markers and the writing quality of the learners. The study about DMs in argumentative and expository writing of Iranian EFL learners conducted by Rahimi (2011) indicated a hierarchy of use of DMs in both essay types with elaborative markers (mainly "and") was the most frequently connectors used in both essay types. The results, moreover, indicated that, on the whole, the mean of DMs' use was significantly higher in argumentative essays than in expository ones. In the context of Vietnam, there have been some researchers studying the useful functions of devices in writing and DMs in conversations. To illustrate, Nguyen (2011) examined the

application of DMs in the conversations of the current English textbook. The findings of her study revealed that the pragmatic functions of DMs in the English dialogues in the present books for high-schoolers in Vietnam greatly contributed to the cultivation of the appropriateness and efficiency of the use of DMs by Vietnamese students, thereby facilitating them to avoid cross-cultural confusion and misinterpretation. In 2018, Vo investigated how DMs were used in short stories in English and Vietnamese. She concluded that DMs, which were natural and vivacious, helped the reader and the listener to follow the thought of the story. Nguyen (2018) applied a corpus-based study to compare the use of meta-discourse devices in academic research articles by Vietnamese and native English-speaking writers, and reported that there was a low distribution of hedges in the former due to the ethnically miscellaneous backgrounds. Another contrastive study carried out by Ho (2011) displayed that Vietnamese learners extremely depended on textual connections in argumentative writing compared with model text written by native professional authors. However, there have been scarce investigations on the beliefs and use of DMs in academic writing, especially in IELTS essays written by EFL learners. To that end, this study aims at exploring EFL learners' beliefs and use of DMs in their IELTS essays – Task 2 at the context of an English language center in Ho Chi Minh City, Vietnam.

## 3. Methodology

### 3.1. Research Setting and Participants

This study adopting the quantitative research was conducted at an English language center in Ho Chi Minh City, Vietnam, which offers a variety of English language courses from general English to standardized test preparation. The IELTS preparation courses consist of different levels (Band: 3.0-5.00; Band: 5.0-6.5; Band: 6.5-7.5). With a three-day-a-week schedule, there is one session for speaking and listening lessons, and the other two for reading and writing sessions. Each session lasts two hours. The total number of learners in a class is 15. For the writing, the teaching materials were adapted from popular textbooks (*Writing* by Collins, *The Key to IELTS Writing* by Pauline Cullen, *Writing for the IELTS* by Barron, *English collocations in Advanced use* by Felicity O'Dell & Michael McCarthy).

A cohort of 60 learners from four classes were recruited by convenience sampling. Amongst the participants, six learners (10%) were under 17 years old, while 23 learners (38.3%) were in the 18-to-22-year-old group. Over-22-year-olds accounted for 51.7% (31 learners). When it comes to previous English learning experience, 53.3% participants spent 5 to 6 years studying English, followed by 43.3% of those who dedicated 7 to 8 years and 3.3% more than 8 years. Additionally, their English language proficiency level was pre-intermediate and intermediate as they were taking the IELTS courses for Band 5.0-6.5.

### 3.2. Research Instruments

Two types of instruments, namely questionnaire and IELTS essay (Task 2), were employed for data collection. The closed-ended questionnaire, which was adapted from Albesher et al.'s (2017) study, includes two main parts: Part A is about respondents' background information; Part B is for respondents' beliefs about the deployment of DMs in IELTS essays. There were 15 items divided into three categories (pragmatic value: 5 items; indispensable value: 5 items; learning value: 5 items), and they were designed with a five-point Likert scale (from strongly disagree to strongly agree). The Cronbach's alpha of the questionnaire was .88, which means that the questionnaire was very reliable.

Regarding the IELTS essay, learners were required to write two essays (Task 2) with at least 250 words each. They were in-class assignments learners had to write as mid-term and final tests.

### 3.3. Procedures for Data Collection and Analysis

In order to collect data from the questionnaire, the Google form was created and sent to learners via social networking and personal email. It took them around four days to finish the questionnaire at their convenience. As for the essays, EFL learners were required to write two essays as part of the mid-term and final tests. The topics for two essays were about tourism and technology, each of which took the learners

40 minutes to write. The total number of essays was 120, which were collected from 60 learners with their permission for data analysis.

With respect to data analysis, the data from the questionnaire were processed by the SPSS software in terms of descriptive analysis (M: Mean; SD: Standard deviation). The interval mean scores were understood as 1.00-1.80: Strongly disagree; 1.81-2.60: Disagree; 2.61-3.40: Neutral; 3.41-4.20: Agree; 4.21-5.00: Strongly agree. Meanwhile, 120 essays were compiled in a corpus which was processed by AntConc to analyse DMs in terms of six categories (Table 1).

**Table 1**

*Framework for DM analysis (Fraser, 1999 & 2009; Fung, 2011)*

| No | DM | Examples |
|---|---|---|
| 1 | Temporal marker | *Firstly, secondly, thirdly, lastly, next, before, after, first and foremost, to begin with,* etc. |
| 2 | Contrastive marker | *However, but, although, though, by contrast, in spite of, yet, still, nonetheless, nevertheless,* etc. |
| 3 | Elaborative marker | *And, also, for example, for instance, besides, moreover, furthermore, for such as, because,* etc. |
| 4 | Inferential marker | *Therefore, hence, thus, as a result, as a consequence, in conclusion, in brief,* etc. |
| 5 | Topic change marker | *Regarding, when it comes to, with regard to, turning to,* etc. |
| 6 | Interpersonal marker | *Indeed, in fact, it is clear that, it is obvious that, it is certain that, obviously, inevitably,* etc. |

## 4. Results and Discussion

### 4.1. Results

#### 4.1.1. EFL Learners' Beliefs About the Deployment of DMs in IELTS Essays

The results in Table 2 reveal that the average mean score of EFL learners' beliefs about the deployment in DMs IELTS essays is 4.33 (SD =.76) out of five. Specifically,

the mean scores of three components, namely pragmatic, indispensable, and learning values of DMs, are 4.32 (SD=.74), 4.36 (SD=.89) and 4.40 (SD=.65), respectively. Such findings imply that EFL learners strongly believed that DMs were very important in IELTS essays as they were fully aware of the pragmatic, indispensable, and learning values of DMs in IELTS essays.

**Table 2**

*EFL Learners' Beliefs About the Deployment of DMs in IELTS Essays*

| | Components | N=60 | |
|---|---|---|---|
| | | **M** | **SD** |
| 1 | Pragmatic value of DMs | 4.23 | .74 |
| 2 | Indispensable value of DMs | 4.36 | .89 |
| 3 | Learning value of DMs | 4.40 | .65 |
| | **Average** | **4.33** | **.76** |

### *EFL Learners' Beliefs About Pragmatic Value of DMs in IELTS Essays*

Regarding the pragmatic value of DMs in IELTS essays in Table 3, EFL learners strongly agreed that "having a better understanding of DMs [could] help process information in writing" (item 4: M=4.50; SD=.62), and "the sequence of the writer's thoughts [could] be shown through DMs" (item 2: M=4.40; SD=.84), and they could "achieve higher scores in IELTS writing if they [used] DMs appropriately" (item 5: M=4.43; SD=.69). Furthermore, they were aware that DMs "should be presented as an important part of writing skills" (item 3: M=4.13; SD=.98) and "[could] indicate the writer's attitude" (item 1: M=3.73; SD=.82).

**Table 3**

*Pragmatic Value of DMs*

| No. | Statements | N=60 | |
|---|---|---|---|
| | | **M** | **SD** |
| 1 | DMs can indicate the writer's attitude. | 3.73 | .82 |
| 2 | The sequence of the writer's thoughts can be shown through DMs. | 4.40 | .84 |
| 3 | DMs should be presented as an important part of writing skills. | 4.13 | .98 |
| 4 | Having a better understanding of DMs can help process information in writing. | 4.50 | .62 |
| 5 | Learners can achieve higher scores in IELTS writing if they use DMs appropriately. | 4.43 | .69 |

### *EFL Learners' Beliefs About Indispensable Value of DMs in IELTS Essays*

As for the indispensable value of DMs in IELTS essays, the results in Table 4 present that EFL learners strongly believed that DMs helped "to signal relationships between two ideas in a text" (item 9: M=4.62; SD=.61) and "to orientate the writers to the overall idea, structure and sequence in writing" (item 8: M=4.30; SD=.88), and they were "important in not only writing but also other language skills (e.g., listening, reading, speaking)" (item 10: M=4.35; SD=.86). Additionally, they agreed that they could create "coherent essays by using DMs" (item 6: M=4.50; SD=.62), and "good essays by including DMs" (item 7: M=4.07; SD=.88).

**Table 4**

*Indispensable Value of DMs*

| No. | Statements | N=60 | |
|---|---|---|---|
| | | **M** | **SD** |
| 6 | Learners can create coherent essays by using DMs. | 4.50 | .62 |
| 7 | Learners can create good essays by including DMs. | 4.07 | .88 |
| 8 | DMs help to orientate the writers to the overall idea, structure and sequence in writing. | 4.30 | .88 |
| 9 | DMs help to signal relationships between two ideas in a text. | 4.62 | .61 |
| 10 | DMs are important in not only writing but also other language skills (e.g., listening, reading, speaking). | 4.35 | .86 |

### *EFL Learners' Beliefs About Learning Value of DMs in IELTS Essays*

With respect to the learning value of DMs in IELTS essays in Table 5, EFL learners were fully aware that they should learn DMs carefully "in terms of types, meaning, and functions" (item 14: M=4.60; SD=.71) and "in not only writing but also other language skills" (item 15: M=4.47; SD=.65), and they should "learn to exploit DMs to improve their writing scores" (item 12: M=4.37; SD=.63) and "pay attention to DMs as an important part of academic essays" (item 13: M=4.25; SD=.79). They also thought that it was necessary for them "to develop awareness of DMs in writing lessons" (item 11: M=4.35; SD=.70).

**Table 5**

*Learning Value of DMs*

| No. | Statements | N=60 | |
| --- | --- | --- | --- |
| | | M | SD |
| 11 | It is necessary for learners to develop awareness of DMs in writing lessons. | 4.35 | .70 |
| 12 | Learners should learn to exploit DMs to improve their writing scores. | 4.37 | .63 |
| 13 | Learners should pay attention to DMs as an important part of academic essays. | 4.25 | .79 |
| 14 | Learners should learn DMs carefully in terms of types, meaning, and functions. | 4.60 | .71 |
| 15 | Learners should learn DMs in not only writing but also other language skills. | 4.47 | .65 |

### 4.1.2. EFL Learners' Deployment of DMs in IELTS Essays

The corpus of 120 IELTS essays consists of 35123 word tokens, and the results in Table 6 show that the total number of DMs used in the IELTS essays is 1,553 (52 types of DMs). Among six categories of DMs, Elaborative markers accounting for 63% were the most frequently used in the IELTS essays, followed by Inferential markers with 16%. Other types of DMs, namely Contrastive markers (9%), Temporal markers (7%), Interpersonal markers (4%), and Topic Change markers (1%) are responsible for small proportions of the total percentages of DMs in IELTS essays. This means that EFL learners deployed Elaborative markers much more than the other types of DMs in their IELTS essays. As for the calculation per 1,000 words, it was found out that the percentages for six categories of DMs are 27.79% for Elaborative markers, 6.86% for Inferential markers, 3.99% for Contrastive markers, 3.07% for Temporal markers, 1.94% for Interpersonal markers and 0.57% for Topic Change markers. The total percentage per 1,000 words is 44.22% for the whole corpus. This means that EFL learners deployed DMs in their writing at a moderate frequency.

**Table 6**

*EFL Learners' Deployment of DMs in IELTS Essays*

| No | Categories of DMs | Frequency (F) | Percentage (%) |
| --- | --- | --- | --- |
| 1 | Temporal markers | 108 | 7% |
| 2 | Contrastive markers | 140 | 9% |
| 3 | Elaborative markers | 976 | 63% |
| 4 | Inferential markers | 241 | 16% |
| 5 | Topic Change markers | 20 | 1% |
| 6 | Interpersonal markers | 68 | 4% |
| | **Total** | **1553** | **100%** |

### *EFL Learners' Deployment of Temporal Markers in IELTS Essays*

The results in Table 7 present that of 120 essays in the corpus, five different kinds of Temporal markers were used. EFL

learners used *to begin with* the most (26%), followed by *secondly* (23%). Other Temporal makers were 17% for *first and foremost,* 18% for *second*, and 18% for *firstly*.

**Table 7**

*EFL Learners' Deployment of Temporal Markers in IELTS Essays*

| Category | DM | Frequency (F) | Percentage (%) |
|---|---|---|---|
| Temporal markers | *Firstly* | 20 | 18% |
| | *Secondly* | 25 | 23% |
| | *First and foremost* | 18 | 17% |
| | *Second* | 19 | 18% |
| | *To begin with* | 26 | 24% |
| **Total** | **5** | **108** | **100%** |

### *EFL Learners' Deployment of Contrastive Markers in IELTS Essays*

As shown in Table 8, there were eight types of Contrastive markers accounting for 140 times in the IELTS corpus. EFL learners overused *on the other*

*hand* (60%). Contrastive markers *although* and *despite* amounted to 13% and 9% correspondingly. Other types of Contrastive markers (e.g., *nonetheless*, *yet*, *but*, *however*, *on the downside*) were rarely used in the IELTS essays.

**Table 8**

*EFL Learners' Deployment of Contrastive Markers in IELTS Essays*

| Category | DM | Frequency (F) | Percentage (%) |
|---|---|---|---|
| Contrastive markers | *However* | 5 | 4% |
| | *But* | 2 | 1% |
| | *Although* | 18 | 13% |
| | *Despite* | 13 | 9% |
| | *On the other hand* | 84 | 60% |
| | *Yet* | 9 | 6% |
| | *Nonetheless* | 7 | 5% |
| | *On the downside* | 2 | 1% |
| **Total** | **8** | **140** | **100%** |

### *EFL Learners' Deployment of Elaborative Markers in IELTS Essays*

Table 9 shows that there were 19

types of Elaborative markers, of which EFL learners paid much attention to *and* (33.6%) and *because* (12.3%). Additionally, they

deployed Elaborative markers such as *moreover* (8.6%), *such as* (7.9%), *for example* (6.8%), *due to* (5.4%) and *what is more* (5.1%) at a certain frequency, but they seldom employed other types of Elaborative markers (e.g., *or*, *on account of*, *in addition, furthermore*, etc.) in their IELTS essays.

**Table 9**

*EFL Learners' Deployment of Elaborative Markers in IELTS Essays*

| Category | DM | Frequency (F) | Percentage (%) |
|---|---|---|---|
| Elaborative markers | *And* | 328 | 33.6% |
| | *Or* | 5 | 0.5% |
| | *For example* | 66 | 6.8% |
| | *Besides* | 13 | 1.3% |
| | *Moreover* | 84 | 8.6% |
| | *Furthermore* | 9 | 0.9% |
| | *What is more* | 50 | 5.1% |
| | *Such as* | 77 | 7.9% |
| | *Because* | 120 | 12.3% |
| | *On account of* | 4 | 0.4% |
| | *In addition* | 30 | 3.1% |
| | *Additionally* | 24 | 2.5% |
| | *Due to* | 53 | 5.4% |
| | *In other words* | 28 | 2.9% |
| | *To put it differently* | 10 | 1% |
| | *Particularly* | 8 | 0.8% |
| | *To be more precise* | 12 | 1.2% |
| | *In line with* | 35 | 3.6% |
| | *To be more detailed* | 20 | 2% |
| **Total** | **19** | **976** | **100%** |

### EFL Learners' Deployment of Inferential Markers in IELTS Essays

It is observed in Table 10 that of 11 types of Inferential markers, EFL learners deployed DM *in conclusion* (48%) most. Two types of Inferential markers *therefore* (11%) and *as a result* (11%) were also prominent in EFL learners' IELTS essays. Other types of Inferential markers (e.g., *In turn*, *thus*, *hence, thereby, in brief, to recapitulate*, etc.) were not frequently used in IELTS essays.

**Table 10**

*EFL Learners' Deployment of Inferential Markers in IELTS Essays*

| Category | DM | Frequency (F) | Percentage (%) |
|---|---|---|---|
| | *Therefore* | 27 | 11% |
| | *Hence* | 15 | 6% |
| | *Thus* | 18 | 7% |
| | *Thereby* | 2 | 1% |
| Inferential markers | *As a result* | 26 | 11% |
| | *As a consequence* | 9 | 4% |
| | *In conclusion* | 116 | 48% |
| | *In brief* | 2 | 1% |
| | *To recapitulate* | 2 | 1% |
| | *In turn* | 22 | 9% |
| | *Henceforth* | 2 | 1% |
| **Total** | **11** | **241** | **100%** |

### ***EFL Learners' Deployment of Interpersonal Markers in IELTS Essays***

It can be seen from Table 11 that seven types of Interpersonal markers were used. EFL learners employed *inevitably* (25%) and *it is obvious that* (19%) much more frequently than other Interpersonal markers such as *undoubtedly* (15%), *perhaps* (15%), *indeed* (7%), *it might be suggested that (13%)* and *it could be the case that* (6%).

**Table 11**

*EFL Learners' Deployment of Interpersonal Markers in IELTS Essays*

| Category | DM | Frequency (F) | Percentage (%) |
|---|---|---|---|
| | *Indeed* | 5 | 7% |
| | *Undoubtedly* | 10 | 15% |
| | *Perhaps* | 10 | 15% |
| Interpersonal markers | *It is obvious that* | 13 | 19% |
| | *Inevitably* | 17 | 25% |
| | *It might be suggested that* | 9 | 13% |
| | *It could be the case that* | 4 | 6% |
| **Total** | **7** | **68** | **100%** |

### *EFL Learners' Deployment of Topic Change Markers in IELTS Essays*

As for Table 12, there were only two types of Topic change markers used by EFL learners. *When it comes to* constituted 75%, threefold as much as that of *regarding* (25%).

**Table 12**

*EFL Learners' Deployment of Topic Change Markers in IELTS Essays*

| Category | DM | Frequency (F) | Percentage (%) |
|---|---|---|---|
| Topic change markers | *Regarding* | 5 | 25% |
| | *When it comes to* | 15 | 75% |
| **Total** | **2** | **20** | **100%** |

### *4.2. Discussion*

This study aimed to find out EFL learners' beliefs about and practices of deployment of DMs in IELTS essays, and it has gained the following findings. Firstly, the study has shown that EFL learners were very cognizant of the significance of DMs in IELTS essays. They believed that using DMs in academic writing could be beneficial in terms of pragmatic, indispensable, and learning values of DMs. This finding may be that EFL learners have learned English for years, and they could have a good understanding of the importance of DMs in writing from their teachers' instruction; consequently, they may realize the important roles and values of DMs in writing. This outcome was in agreement with Kalajahi's (2012) and Ali and Mahadin's (2016) findings which illustrated that learners in their research were fully conscious of DMs in academic writing. It may imply that teaching how to use DMs in writing to learners can be feasible, resulting in raising learners' awareness of the importance of DMs in writing.

Secondly, the analysis of IELTS essays written by EFL learners has indicated that EFL deployed 1,553 DMs in their 120 IELTS essays (35,123 word tokens), which were grouped in 52 types of DMs. Of six categories of DMs, EFL learners tended to deploy Elaborative markers more than other categories of DMs (Inferential, Contrastive, Temporal, Interpersonal, and Topic Change markers). This may be because of the fact that Elaborative markers (e.g., and, or, for example, etc.) are very prevalent in writing and speaking, so learners could use those DMs for elaboration or continuation of ideas in their writing. This result was consistent with that of previous studies conducted by Modhish (2012) and Jalilifar (2008) who have found that their research participants were also in favor of Elaborative markers in writing as they heavily depended on DMs such as *and, because* and *moreover*. This also accorded with Dumlao and Wilang (2019), which depicted that learners had the over-reliance of certain DM types such as Elaborative and Inferential markers. Additionally, the finding presented that there was a limited deployment of contrastive markers (9%), Temporal markers (7%), Interpersonal markers (4%) and Topic Change markers (1%). One of the plausible explanations for this finding may be due to the limit number of words that ELF learners had to write for each IELTS essay (Task 2); therefore, they may tend to use other content words (e.g., verbs, nouns, adjectives, etc.) to express ideas to address the writing task requirements.

### 5. Conclusions

The study has concluded that EFL learners had a strong belief about the importance of DMs in IELTS essays (Task 2), and they deployed DMs in their writing at a moderate frequency. Among six categories of DMs, EFL learners seemed to deploy elaborative markers in their writing more than other categories. This study has some pedagogical implications based on the

gained findings. First of all, as EFL learners in this study were very aware of the importance of DMs in writing, teachers should design more writing exercises in which DMs are deployed so that EFL learners can gradually understand how to use DMs effectively and appropriately. Secondly, it was found out that elaborative markers were the most common DMs employed by EFL learners, so teachers should highlight the values of other categories of DMs in writing. If teachers want their learners to achieve high scores in IELTS writing, they should help their learners to know how to deploy different categories of DMs in their writing appropriately. Thirdly, administrators at the English language center should design extra materials relevant to the glossary of DMs so that both teachers and learners can make use of those materials in English writing teaching and learning.

This study still had some inevitable limitations. Firstly, this study was conducted with a small sample size at one research context. Secondly, only questionnaire and essays were used as the main sources of data. Therefore, future research should include learners from different contexts, and the quasi-experiment may be conducted to examine the effectiveness of DM instruction.

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# NIỀM TIN VÀ THỰC TẾ VIỆC SỬ DỤNG CÁC TỪ NỐI TRONG BÀI LUẬN IELTS CỦA NGƯỜI HỌC TIẾNG ANH NHƯ LÀ NGOẠI NGỮ

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**Tóm tắt:** Bài viết trình bày kết quả nghiên cứu niềm tin và thực tế việc sử dụng từ nối (discourse markers) trong bài luận IELTS của những người học tiếng Anh như là ngoại ngữ. Tham gia nghiên cứu là một nhóm 60 học viên đang tham gia các khóa luyện thi IELTS tại một trung tâm Anh ngữ ở Thành phố Hồ Chí Minh, Việt Nam. Dữ liệu nghiên cứu được thu thập từ bảng câu hỏi và 120 bài luận IELTS (Task 2) do học viên tham gia nghiên cứu viết. Dữ liệu bảng câu hỏi được xử lý bằng phần mềm SPSS, còn dữ liệu các bài luận được xử lý bằng phần mềm AntConc. Kết quả cho thấy học viên tham gia nghiên cứu có niềm tin mạnh mẽ vào tầm quan trọng của các từ nối trong văn viết, và thực tế họ sử dụng các từ nối trong các bài luận IELTS với tần suất vừa phải. Ngoài ra, trong sáu loại từ nối, học viên sử dụng từ nối thêm thông tin nhiều hơn các loại từ nối khác. Bài viết này cũng trình bày một số đề xuất nhằm nâng cao chất lượng dạy và học tiếng Anh nói chung và dạy và học viết tiếng Anh nói riêng tại nơi nghiên cứu và các nơi khác tương tự.

*Từ khóa*: liên từ, bài luận, IELTS, học viên, văn viết

# BOOK REVIEW

## INTRODUCING PRAGMATICS IN USE (2ND EDITION)
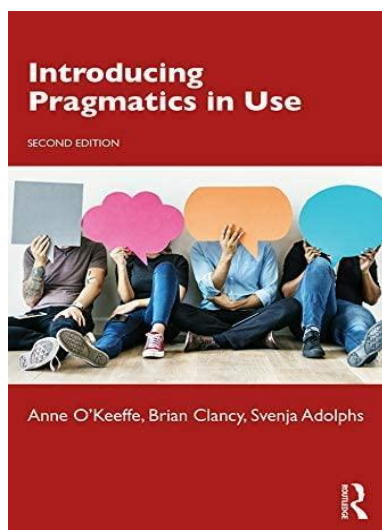### Authors: Anne O'keeffe, Brian Clancy, Svenja Adolphs
### Publisher: Routledge, 2020

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## 1. Introduction

Among the array of textbooks on linguistics in general and of pragmatics in particular, *Introducing Pragmatics in Use (2nd edition)* has emerged as a user-friendly guide to the field of pragmatics as it has been described as "a lively and accessible introduction to pragmatics" (O'Keeffe, Clancy & Adolphs, 2020). As its name suggests, the book is designed with the combination of theoretical and practical aspects of pragmatics by not only introducing theories but also guiding the employment of the theories to examine real or naturally-occurring data in spoken and written forms. *Introducing Pragmatics in Use (2nd edition)* makes systematic use of several language corpora and related software programs. The adoption of the corpus technique to investigate key component areas, namely reference, speech acts, linguistic politeness, language variety, and register is its central focus. By analyzing various language settings offered by spoken and written corpora, the book aims at contextualizing pragmatics in linguistic study as well as making suggestions concerning applying pragmatics to teaching languages. It seeks to provide an introduction to the key theoretical and methodological issues in the study of Pragmatics; therefore, it is a good choice for senior undergraduate or graduate students enrolled in the courses of TESOL, applied linguistics, discourse analysis, corpus linguistics, or research methods in applied linguistics so that they can enhance their understanding of corpus pragmatics and apply its methodology to serve their researching and teaching purposes.

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## 2. Notable Values of the Book

The textbook *Introducing Pragmatics in Use* (2nd edition) covers a wide range of topics, ranging from researching pragmatics to pragmatics and language teaching. With a total number of 260 pages, the book is comprised of nine chapters, which can be grouped into four sections. In the first section of the book (also Chapter 1 - Introduction), the authors attempt to equip readers with information regarding the history, genesis, and advent of pragmatics. In detail, the chapter works towards tracing the origin of pragmatics in philosophy and indicating its appearance as a sub-field of linguistics. Chapter 1 also makes a brief distinction between two schools of thought, namely the *Anglo-American tradition* and *Continental European tradition*, which results in the discrepancies between the "component view" (micro-pragmatic view) and "perspective view" (macro-pragmatic view) of pragmatics (pp. 1-2). These two traditions are also elaborated by Huang (2017, pp. 2-4), in his book *The Oxford Handbook of Pragmatics*. Trying to be specific and comprehensive as much as possible, Huang (2017) provides definitions of pragmatics as seen from each school of thought; however, a succinct common definition of pragmatics is not suggested for the readers to grasp, especially for those in the initial stages of studying pragmatics. Moreover, the book by Huang (2017) focuses largely on *macro-pragmatics* – "the study of language use in all aspects", with its detailed description being offered (Huang, 2017, pp. 4-17), coupled with the two major parts of the book devoted to discussing macro-pragmatics, Part 4 (Macro-pragmatics and cognition) and Part 5 (Macro-pragmatics and society/culture). Another standpoint of looking at Pragmatics is recommended by Chapman (2011) in the book entitled *Pragmatics*. She considers two types of

Pragmatics, "theoretical pragmatics" and "social pragmatics"; the former concentrates on "the analysis of particular aspects of meaning, and on how these might be explained within more general formal accounts of language use", while the latter concerns "various aspects of the relationship between language use and more general social and cultural factors" (Chapman, 2011, p. 5). Chapman (2011) organizes her book – *Pragmatics* in a manner whose focus is placed on *theoretical pragmatics,* whose starting points can be rooted in the philosophy of the Anglo-American tradition of pragmatics.

Section Two involves methodological approaches to pragmatics, and this part is covered by both Chapter 2 – Researching Pragmatics, and Chapter 3 – Corpus Pragmatics. In general, Chapter 2 explains how pragmatics might be explored, whereas Chapter 3 concentrates on the methodological techniques of corpus pragmatics. Chapter 2 examines in depth the methods for doing pragmatics research and demonstrates the wide range of tools available for collecting information for empirical pragmatics research. By contrasting the opposing perspectives from which pragmatics study and corpus linguistics approach their work, Chapter 3 primarily introduces two different approaches in pragmatics (*form-to-function* versus *function-to-form*). The devotion of a particular section to methodologies in pragmatics is what makes the book stand out from the other textbooks of pragmatics. Furthermore, *Corpus pragmatics*, a novel concept in comparison with the incorporation of corpus linguistics in other fields, is introduced by an entire chapter – Chapter 3 in this book, which helps portrays a vivid picture of this approach and contributes to realizing the potential of applying corpora for the study of pragmatics. Corpus pragmatics is also mentioned but not extensively explained in other textbooks,

including Huang (2017, pp. 13-14), Chapman (2011, pp. 187-189).

*Reference, politeness, speech acts,* and *register* – which are either essential components of pragmatics or pervasive in language use – are the fundamental component areas of pragmatics that Section Three, Chapters 4 through Chapter 8, centers on. The main focus of Chapter 9 is pragmatic instruction in language teaching, which is also Section Four of the book, even though it also involves the use of the corpus pragmatics technique. The area of pragmatics and language learning is also investigated in *Pragmatics: A resource book for students* by Cutting and Fordyce (2021), in units 8A – "Pragmatics and language learning" (pp. 84-99), 8B – "Teaching Pragmatics" (pp. 131-135), 8C – "Pragmatics online and learning" (pp. 166-171), and 8D – "Pragmatic development, ELF, and TBLT" (pp. 248-262). Cutting and Fordyce (2021) structure the book in a way that aims to facilitate readers' cross-reference purpose among the four sections of the book. The four sections are termed Section A – Introduction (Concepts in pragmatics), Section B – Development (Studies in Pragmatics), Section C – Exploration (Data for investigation), and Section C (Readings); each section consists of eight corresponding units, ranging from "context and structure", "speech act theory" to "intercultural pragmatics" and "pragmatics and language learning". However, this type of organization seems to hinder the in-depth analysis of research methodologies in pragmatics, and it cannot equip the readers with the synopsis of clear procedures and steps to follow in conducting research in the areas of pragmatics as presented in its first section.

*Introducing Pragmatics in Use (2nd edition)* is the updated version of its first edition which was published in 2011, and several meaningful changes have been made to this edition. The book draws on corpus linguistics and, as the authors note in the prologue to the second edition, "both covers theory and applies it to real spoken and written data" (p. i). The book is a "lively and accessible introduction to pragmatics" due to the dominance of corpus-based analyses across the chapters (p. i). The most notable modification in this version is that the authors give specific attention to corpus pragmatics (Chapter 3) to make readers aware of the book's primary focus, which was not done in the original edition. The vertical (quantitative) technique common in corpus linguistics is combined with the horizontal (qualitative) methodology typical of pragmatics to create *corpus pragmatics*, which is a combination of *corpus linguistics* and *pragmatics*. In a *form-to-function* approach (pp. 51-56), corpus pragmatics normally operates from form frequencies to pragmatic function. This is demonstrated through sample analyses. The *frequency lists* and *concordance lines* in this approach eventually lead us toward a conclusion regarding the utilization of a form. The opposing method is to commence with a function, such as a speech act, and attempt to minimize the range of potential forms utilized to perform the act, then use these forms to identify language cases in a corpus. For example, the words and phrases that are commonly connected with a speech act (as a result of experimental studies, such as Illocutionary Force Identifying Devices (IFIDs)) can be used to examine a vast corpus for examples. This method is known as a *function-to-form* method (pp. 56-67). Form-to-function is the standard methodology for corpus linguistics, although pragmatics scholars typically take the opposite approach (function-to-form). Because there appears to be no one-to-one relationship between form and function, the function-to-form approach is employed to limit the likelihood of mismatching research methodologies and pragmatic phenomena. As a result, the

function-to-form approach is dependent on *pragmatic annotation*, which is not generally employed because automatic tag assignment typically lacks precision, whereas human tag implementation is inevitable but requires a significant amount of time and effort (p. 60). The third chapter of this book discusses the procedures of conducting corpus pragmatics research in a way that allows both form-to-function and function-to-form perspectives. It observes that pragmatically-annotated corpus data aid function-to-form techniques by allowing all examples of a given pragmatic phenomenon to be readily retrieved, and that further work on pragmatic annotation is critical. According to Chapter 3, when corpus linguistics and pragmatics are to fully integrate as corpus pragmatics, we should not be afraid of the obstacles of constructing a technique that can embrace both form-to-function and function-to-form approaches. It must be methodologically inclusive for corpus pragmatics to be truly helpful to all pragmatics scholars. Maintaining a focus on pragmatically annotated corpora while improving and creating tools to automate this process is the key difficulty. However, regardless of the methodology, it is critical to have methodological consciousness – adopting proper methods based on the specific study themes and, in certain situations, employing multiple techniques to attain the research objective.

Chapter 4 of the book has been entitled "Reference," and non-deictic expressions are not covered as in its first edition. The authors add a broad definition of *reference* to this chapter to alleviate terminology confusion and to describe the discrepancy between *reference* and *deixis*. The relationship between a linguistic expression and the concrete entity or abstract thought that it describes is referred to as reference (pp. 69-72), whereas deixis is the utilization of a word or phrase whose

meaning relies on context (pp. 72-74). The research on reference largely analyzes the different classes of deixis by scrutinizing extracts in this chapter (pp. 78-91). However, as indicated in the original edition, the deixis can act non-deictically at times, which is known as a non-deictic expression. In contrast to deictic expression, which requires immediate context or immediate setting, non-deictic expression is recognized to be a non-obligatory component and is thus frequently eliminated. This is not to indicate that non-deictic expression has no significance; conversely, it may communicate the speaker's stance or perspective. Non-deictic expression is erased because researchers are focusing less on non-deictic expression and more on non-deictic function and the value of demonstratives throughout languages. Furthermore, the non-deictic expression should be addressed in relation to other dimensions of pragmatics.

The focus movement in Chapter 7 of the second edition, from pragmatic variance across cultures and languages to pragmatic vibration within language variations, is another characteristic worth considering. The concentration of the first version, pragmatic variation across cultures and languages, shifts to pragmatic vibration within language varieties because the unequal development of theories necessitates scholars taking actions, despite the fact that there is too much investigation in applied linguistics, sociolinguistics, second language acquisition, language teaching, and so forth. That the title "Pragmatics and linguistic variation" (Chapter 7 of the second edition) is employed instead of "Pragmatics across languages and cultures," (Chapter 6 of the first edition) renders pertinent studies of pragmatics across cultures and languages left out, and the emphasis placed on pragmatic variation within a specific language. Since every component of

pragmatics can be analyzed across cultures and languages, researching pragmatic diversity across cultures and languages can be highly challenging, or in other words, an infinite process. The writers were already conscious of the challenges in investigating pragmatics across cultures and languages in the first publication of the book, and they provided the following explanations. First, there is a scarcity of literature discussion, despite extensive empirical study. Furthermore, this domain is complex to define in terms of terminology, and even current definitions frustrate scholars and have operational limitations. Additionally, there is disagreement regarding the generality of pragmatic rules. On the one hand, pragmatic norms do benefit pragmatic research. Conversely, research on pragmatics across cultures questions pragmatic norms. It can be said that pragmatics across cultures is a rapidly expanding area, and more theories need to be developed based on actual studies concerning the comparison of important pragmatics concepts including politeness and speech acts. Because some elements are simpler to investigate than the theoretical construction, it makes sense for the writers to commence with the aspects that are significant to pragmatics. Additionally, by concentrating on pragmatic variance within a single language, stereotypes and ethnocentrism can be avoided.

The design of many activities is what characterizes the second version. The text is complemented by related study activities, as each chapter demonstrates. On the one hand, pertinent research tasks can help enhance the knowledge of readers regarding the core tenets and phenomena in pragmatics. On the other hand, related research assignments that follow the authors' discussion of the research process offer readers the chance to hone their application skills, allowing them to integrate what they have gained from the chapter into practice. The authors' intention

for the book to provide examples for both self-study and classroom practice is supported by the incorporation of a variety of exercises. The inclusion of multiple exercises corresponds to the authors' intention that "the book is offering models for both self-study and classroom practice" (p. 226). Besides, the authors employ a substantial amount of language data to illustrate the effectiveness of different approaches because the corpus methodology is the main emphasis of the entire book. Deixis (Chapter 4), politeness (Chapter 5), speech acts (Chapter 6), language variation (Chapter 7), and register (Chapter 8) are just a few examples of the fundamental component areas where a variety of corpora are used in both the theoretical overview and the analysis of the methodological techniques. Another noteworthy aspect of the book is its insights into research areas that merit further investigation. On the one hand, Chapter 4 to Chapter 9 are salient themes in pragmatics and related fields such as reference, politeness, and speech acts. The authors infer that the corpus pragmatics technique is relevant and effective in the aforementioned disciplines, which gives an excellent example for readers who are intrigued by these domains. On the other hand, based on the research situation, the book highlights various subjects in pragmatics that are either understudied or from an emerging discipline, such as discourse and empathetic deixis in Chapter 4. Meanwhile, obstacles in the subject of pragmatics are clearly recognized, which may eventually constitute research topics. In comparison with the first edition, the second edition presents the updates of relevant studies in light of recent developments in the pragmatics sector. Latest findings have been introduced into the field of pragmatics due to ongoing investigations that improve comprehension of some themes or raise doubts about earlier studies. Each chapter also includes a list of related, annotated

references that serve as a springboard for future investigation.

A few suggestions, nevertheless, would enhance the chapters and make the book more thorough and helpful. First, written forms of language are presented infrequently and briefly, with an excessive emphasis on spoken language. This could give inexperienced readers the impression that pragmatics is solely concerned with speech, which is misleading. Although they only briefly discuss written registers in this book, the authors make the case in Chapter 8 that employing corpus linguistics is essential to studying pragmatics in both spoken and written registers. For instance, Chapter 6 is titled "Speech Acts," while "Pragmatic Acts" may be a more inclusive title. Culpeper and Haugh (2014) argue that "the term 'speech act' is something of a misnomer … [because] we can do communicative acts in writing or even non-verbally (p. 182)". Second, unlike the other chapters, Chapter 7 does not have a conclusion. Despite these problems, the book is nevertheless a great resource for students, teachers, and pragmatics researchers.

## 3. Conclusion

In conclusion, it should be highlighted that corpus pragmatics forms the basis of this book. The book combines an overview of significant theories and models with corpus methodological applications to study interesting concepts and phenomena in pragmatics, including reference, politeness, and speech acts. The authors also directly identify several difficulties and suggest several areas for additional research.

For individuals who are interested in corpus pragmatics, this book is a wonderful addition. It can be viewed as a manual for both self-study and classroom instruction because it not only offers a solid theoretical foundation but also thoroughly explains this novel methodology. Readers can learn the methodology and increase their methodological awareness for using appropriate methodologies and carefully planning the research process by studying essential concepts, large amounts of corpus data, and pertinent assignments in every chapter.

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O'Keeffe, A., Clancy, B., & Adolphs, S. (2020). *Introducing pragmatics in use* (2nd ed.). Routledge.

# 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*
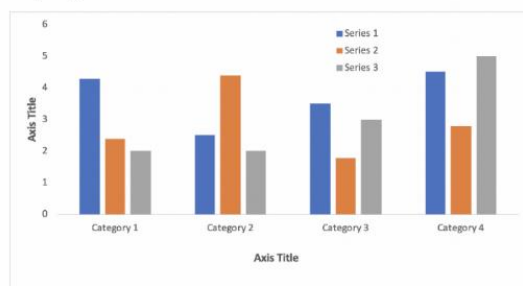
*Note.* A note describing content in the figure would appear here.

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)**

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[*] ĐT.: (Sđt của tác giả liên hệ)
Email: (Email của tác giả liên hệ)