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RESEARCH

THE TRANSLATION OF THEMES FROM ENGLISH INTO VIETNAMESE: THE CASE OF THE AMERICAN NOVEL “TO KILL A MOCKINGBIRD” AND THE VIETNAMESE TRANSLATION “GIẾT CON CHIM NHẠI”

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Abstract: This paper attempts to examine how Themes in English are translated into Vietnamese. The data for the study are taken from the novel ‘To Kill a Mockingbird’ written by the eminent American novelist Harper Lee and the Vietnamese version ‘Giết con chim nhại’ translated by two Vietnamese translators Huỳnh Kim Oanh and Phạm Viêm Phương. The theoretical framework employed in the study is Systemic Functional Linguistics (SFL). The unit of analysis is independent major clause simplexes in the source text (ST) and their corresponding major independent clause simplexes in the target text (TT). The aspects of analysis and comparison are simple and multiple Themes in declarative, imperative and interrogative clause simplexes. The study shows that most Themes in English clause simplexes are closely translated and retained as Themes in corresponding Vietnamese clause simplexes. The study also indicates that there are a number of translation shifts which are partly due to the differences in clause structure of English and Vietnamese, partly due to the semantic complexity (ambiguity) of some ST question words, and partly due to the translators’ negligence of the role of Theme and its delicate choices in constructing textual meaning in the clause and developing meaning in the texts. It is clear from the study that SFL is highly relevant to translation theory and translation practice: It can stand to benefit the translator from analysis of the ST, to discussion of translation problems, to explanation for establishment of points of translation equivalence and translation shift between the choices in the TT and those in the ST, and to synthesis of the TT – the final product of the translation process.

Keywords: translation, theme, Systemic Functional Linguistics (SFL), English, Vietnamese, ‘To Kill a Mockingbird’, ‘Giết con chim nhại’

1. Introduction

This current study is motivated by the author’s observation that knowledge about contrastive system of Theme in English and Vietnamese clause has virtually not received attention, and that in practice Theme and its more delicate choices in texts are not always properly rendered from English into Vietnamese and vice versa. These theoretical gaps and translatorial errors or translation shifts (to use Catford’s 1965 terminology) are worthy of attention because of their potential to effect translation quality as regards what has been referred

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to as ‘textual equivalence’ (Catford, 1965, p. 27; Popovič, 1976; Koller, 1979, p. 185, 1989; see also Baker, 2018). Having this motive in mind, in this paper I will attempt to examine how Theme and its delicate choices in English are translated into Vietnamese. The data for the examination are taken from the novel ‘To Kill a Mockingbird’ written by the famous American novelist Harper Lee and the Vietnamese version ‘Giết con chim nhại’ translated by Huỳnh Kim Oanh and Phạm Viêm Phương. The theoretical framework employed for analysis, comparison and discussion of the translation of Themes from the English original into the Vietnamese translated version is Systemic Functional Linguistics (SFL). The study is organized into five main sections. Following Section one which states the rationale of the study, Section two provides an overview of SFL, paying particular attention to the notion of Theme in English and Vietnamese. Section three is concerned with research design and methodology of the study. Section four presents findings, compares findings and discusses the compared findings obtained from the study. Section five summarises the main findings of the study and recommends the relevance of SFL to translation theory and translation practice.

2. Systemic Functional Linguistics and the Notion of Theme

2.1. General Orientation

Systemic Functional Linguistics was first introduced in the early 1960s by the eminent British-born Australian Linguist M. A. K. Halliday. Since its introduction, SFL has provided an important approach in linguistics as well as in translation studies world-wide (Kim and Matthiessen, 2017). In translation, quite a significant number of scholars have been interested in applying SFL to their research. Depending on the focus in their research, however, different scholars have employed different aspects of the theory. Some have used the theory extensively in setting up a theory of translation (e.g. Catford, 1965). Others have attempted to build some aspects of the theory into their translation models (e.g. House, 2015; Baker, 2018). And still others have used the theory for more practical purposes: analyzing the source text or reconstituting the target text (e.g. Taylor, 1998; Bell, 1991). In what follows, we shall be selective, focusing our review on those studies which are relevant to the purpose of our research. Among the various studies that have been concerned with SFL and translation studies, two are the most representative: ‘The environments of translation’ by C. M. I. M. Matthiessen (2001) and ‘The gloomy ganoderma: Systemic functional linguistics and translation’ by M. A. K. Halliday (2017).

In “The environments of translation” and “The gloomy ganoderma: Systemic functional linguistics and translation”, Matthiessen and Halliday take as one cornerstone of their analyses and reciprocal notions of translation equivalence and translation shifts, seeing these terms as two opposite poles on the clines of difference between languages. Taking environments or contexts as a principle for identifying translation equivalence and translation shift, Halliday (2017, p. 106, cited in Matthiessen, 2001, p. 78) states: “The general principle is that the wider the environment of translation, the higher the degree of translation equivalence; and the narrower the environment, the higher the degree of translation shift”. The environments which Matthiessen and Halliday refer to here are the various levels or dimensions as conceptualized in the current SFL model along which language is organized: *stratification*, *instantiation*, *rank*, *metafunction*, *delicacy*, and *axis*. “...these [dimensions] are what give a language its inexhaustible power of making meaning, opening up all the different vectors of abstraction, of combination, of depth in detail, of functional specialization, and so on” (Halliday, 2017, p. 106). Proceeding from this principle of contextualization, Matthiessen and Halliday come to explore

these dimensions in detail, trying to relate them to translation where, they believe, these dimensions define various kinds of translation equivalence. As *stratification* is directly relevant to our study of Theme translation, we will first provide an overview of *instantiation*, *rank*, *metafunction*, *delicacy*, and *axis*, giving *stratification* a separate section.

Instantiation, in Halliday and Matthiessen's formulation, refers to the relation between the semiotic system (the meaning potential) and the observable events (the actual act of meaning) by which the system is constituted (Halliday, 1993; Hasan, 1993; Hoang, 2012). In Halliday's formulation, instantiation "is the scale that links the instance - the text, the usual object of the translation process - to the system of the language that lies behind it" (Halliday 2017, p. 107). Halliday suggests that it is along the scale of instantiation that we can recognize the registers (subsystems) whose social categories of field of discourse, tenor of discourse and mode of discourse are crucial for the translator's effectiveness of translation.

Metafunction is the property of every language system (Halliday, 1978, 1985, 1998, 2017; Matthiessen, 2001; and Halliday and Matthiessen, 2015). It is the basis for the organization of meaning. Halliday and Matthiessen claim that any instance of language or text is a complex of three orders of meaning which are usually analysed out at the semantic stratum as the ideational metafunction, the interpersonal metafunction, and the textual metafunction realized respectively at the lexicogrammatical stratum as the system of transitivity and the systems of inter-clausal expansion and projection, the system of mood, and the system of theme. According to Halliday,

the ideational is the representational aspect of meaning: meaning as the construal of experience, as narrative of things and the qualities and the happenings of the world around us. The interpersonal is the active component of meaning, meaning as our way of interacting with other people, ..., and introducing our own judgments and desires and our own angle on the situation (Halliday, 2017, p. 108).

And the textual is

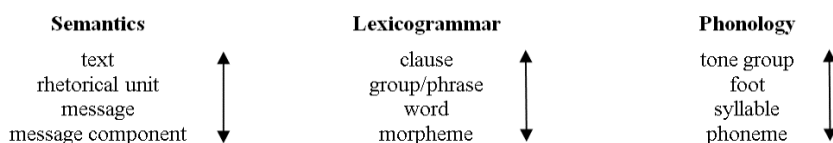
the organization of meaning as a flow of discourse, with its balance between the old, or 'given', and the new, and its ongoing fabric of connection with itself and with the context surrounding it (Halliday, 2017, p. 108).

Halliday (2017) notes that interlacing the ideational and the interpersonal in the text has always been seen a problem for the translator, because it is one place where the demands of 'equivalence' are most likely to conflict; and in actual translation, the translator usually gives priority to the ideational ('denotative') meaning.

As regards *rank*, SFL claims that the overall organization of language in context is based on order of abstraction. The organization of structure within the language-internal strata is said to be rank-based (Halliday, 1961; Halliday in Kress [Ed.], 1981; see also Olo Tomori, 1982; Hoang, 2012). SFL further claims that all language-internal strata have the scale of rank which, in relation to English, can be represented in Figure 1. (Note that the number of strata may be fixed for all languages, but the number of ranks within a given stratum may be not.)

Figure 1

Scales of Rank in English Language-Internal Strata (Hoang, 2012, p. 79, based on Hasan, 1996, 2011)



Halliday (2001) draws attention to the fact that metafunction is the organization of the content strata (lexicogrammar and semantics) in functional components such as ideational, interpersonal and textual. Rank is the organization of the formal strata (phonology and lexicogrammar) in a compositional hierarchy: for example, clause complexes, clause simplexes, phrases/groups, words and morphemes. Halliday and Matthiessen maintain that the recognition of rank is important because translation equivalence is not just established at one rank; rather it is established at all ranks across different language formal strata (see also Catford, 1965).

The scale of rank is set up to account for the different hierarchically ordered units such as clause, group/phrase, word, and morpheme at the stratum of lexicogrammar, the notion of *delicacy* is employed to refer to the degree of differentiation made at a particular rank (Hoang 2012, p. 84). Halliday in Kress (Ed.) (1981, p. 62) explains,

This [delicacy] is depth of detail, and is a cline running from a fixed point at one end (least delicate, or ‘primary’) to that undefined but theoretically crucial point (probably statistically definable) where distinctions are so fine that they cease to be distinctions at all, like a river flowed up from the mouth, each of whose tributaries ends in a moorland bog (Kress [Ed.], 1981, 62).

Delicacy, claims Halliday (2017, p. 108), is the basic concept behind SFL system networks which represent progressively finer distinctions. Figure 2 serves to illustrate his point.

Figure 2

Scale of Delicacy of the Vietnamese Experiential Clause (Hoang, 2012, p. 85)

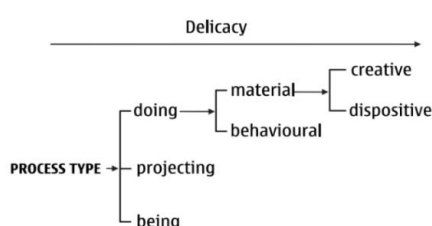


Figure 2 shows that at primary degree of delicacy, one might want to distinguish between [doing], [projecting], and [being]; at a greater degree of delicacy one might then want to distinguish between [material] and [behavioural] clauses; and then in the environment of [material] one might want to distinguish between [creative] and [dispositive], and so on. Halliday (2017, p. 108) emphasizes that translators often face the problem of matching the degree of specificity found in the source language text: in other words, of maintaining equivalence in delicacy. He warns that this problem arises throughout the lexicogrammar of every language.

The fifth dimension discussed in Matthiessen’s and Halliday’s chapters is *axis*. By axis is meant that the two environments of the semiotic space which are occupied by every element

of the text at every stratum: the paradigmatic and the syntagmatic. In Halliday's interpretation, the paradigmatic environment is modelled as system. It is concerned with what could have come instead - what contrasts the element is entering into, what are the other alternatives that might have occurred (but did not). The syntagmatic environment, in contrast, is modelled as structure. It refers to what comes before and after - what combines, or can combine, with the element as parts in some organic whole. Halliday (2017) maintains that the two axes of system and structure define the space in which the text is unfolding - at the lexicogrammatical stratum, the structure and grammatical classes, the collocation and lexical set, which make up the context within which the translator is operating. Halliday (2017, p. 109) claims that

the meaning of any element is the product of relations on both the axes, but the paradigmatic axis is what defines the 'translation potential', since it involves relations with things that are not present in the particular instance, but are as it were lurking behind the text (Halliday, 2017, p. 109).

Complementing to Halliday's idea, Matthiessen (2001) suggests that of the two axes, the paradigmatic is the wider environment and the syntagmatic is the narrower. This explains why there is likely to be less translation difference between the clause systems of two languages than between their clause structures. "It is usually possible to translate an 'interrogative' clause in one language into an 'interrogative' clause in another, regardless of how 'interrogative' is realized; what matters is that the systemic contrast between 'interrogative' and 'declarative' is maintained in the structural realization" (Matthiessen, 2001, p. 76).

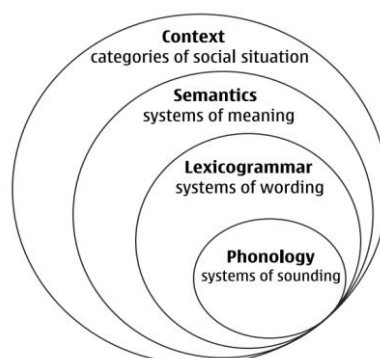
2.2. Stratification

Language is stratified (Halliday, 1961, 2017; Martin, 1992; Matthiessen, 1995, 2001; Hasan and Perret, 1994; Halliday and Matthiessen, 2015). The current SFL postulates that language consists of four strata or levels: **context** (of culture and situation), **semantics**, **lexicogrammar**, and **phonology/graphology** of which context is language-external, and semantics, lexicogrammar, and phonology/graphology are language-internal. These strata of the SFL model are 'interdependent' (Webster, 2015, p. 25), and are related by activation-construal/realization relation: context of situation (which instantiates context of culture) activates and is construed/realised by semantics which activates and is construed/realised by lexicogrammar which is expressed as a phonologically/graphologically patterned acoustic stream (Hasan, 1995, 2011, p. xxxix; Hasan and Perrett, 1994, p. 188; see also Halliday, 1991, p. 8). At the most abstract level, the SFL model can be represented in Figure 3 below.

Figure 3

The Four Strata of the SFL Model

(Source: Hasan and Perret, 1994, p. 189; see also Hoang, 2012, p. 73, 2020, p. 4)



2.2.1. Context

Context is a higher-order semiotic system above the linguistic system (Halliday, 1978; Matthiessen, Terya, and Lam, 2010, p. 77). At this stratum of language, SFL draws attention to three contextual aspects of speech, viewing it as a theoretical construct consisting of three categories of social situation which are referred to respectively as field of discourse, tenor of discourse, and mode of discourse (Halliday, McIntosh and Strevens, 1964; Halliday, 1978; Gregory and Carroll, 1978; Halliday and Hasan, 1989; Matthiessen, 1995; Hasan, 2011; Hoang, 2012).

Field of discourse is concerned with what is going on in the speech situation. It activates the choice of meanings realised in lexicogrammatical patterns to express (taking the material process as representative) *who, does what, to whom, in what circumstance*. Tenor of discourse refers to the role relationships of those involved in the speech situation. It affects the type of relationship between the participants and what the speaker does to achieve that type of relationship. And mode of discourse refers to the channel of communication (written or spoken or some combination of the two). It activates the choices such as point of departure of the clause simplex, rhetoric patterns in the clause complex, and cohesive and coherent features in discourse – with how clauses ‘hang together’ to make discourse a unified whole (Halliday, 1978; Halliday and Hasan, 1976, 1989; Martin and Rose, 2013). Field of discourse, tenor of discourse, and mode of discourse represent what Halliday, McIntosh and Strevens (1964), Halliday (1978), Gregory and Carroll (1978), and Halliday and Hasan (1989) refer to as ‘register’, defined by Halliday (1978, p. 195) as ‘a set of meanings that is appropriate to a particular function of language, together with the words and structures which express these meanings’.

2.2.2. Semantics

Semantics is resource for meaning. It is the gateway to the linguistic system (Matthiessen, 1995, p. 5). At this stratum of language, SFL claims that language is organized around three strands of meaning referred to as ‘metafunctions’ (Halliday, 1970, 1985, 1998; Halliday and Matthiessen, 2015): ideational metafunction, interpersonal metafunction, and textual metafunction. The ideational metafunction, comprised of experiential metafunction and logical metafunction, construes the contextual category of field of discourse of which the experiential metafunction is concerned with ‘the representational aspect of meaning: meaning as the construal of experience, as narrative of things and the qualities and the happenings of the world around us’ (Halliday, 2017, p. 108), and the logical metafunction is concerned with construing our experience ‘serially as chains of phenomena related by logico-relationship’ (Matthiessen, Teruya and Lam, 2010, p. 132). The interpersonal metafunction construes the contextual category of tenor of discourse and is concerned with resources for ‘enacting roles and relations between speaker and addressee as meaning’ (Matthiessen, Teruya and Lam, 2010, p. 126). And the textual metafunction construes the contextual category of mode of discourse and is concerned with creating relevance between the parts of what is being said/written, and between the text and the context (linguistic and situational).

2.2.3. Lexicogrammar

The three semantic systems of experiential, interpersonal, and textual meanings activate three wording systems referred to respectively as transitivity system, mood system, and theme system. The transitivity system of the clause is concerned with the choices that are made between (1) different types of process such as material (the process of doing), behavioural (the

process of physical and psychological behaviour), mental (the process of sensing), verbal (the process of saying), and relational (the process of being, having, and being at), and existential (the process of existing, positing that something or some natural force exists); (2) different types of participants taking part in relevant types of process, and/or (3) different types of incumbent circumstances attendant on those processes such as place, time, manner, cause, etc. (for more detail, see Halliday 1985, 1998, 2012; Matthiessen, 1995; Halliday and Matthiessen, 2015).

The mood system of the clause refers to the role relationships construed in language as interaction including ‘speakers’ subjectivity – their assessment of probability, obligation, and commitment, their attitudes and evaluations’ (Hasan and Perrett, 1994, p. 183) realised in different choices of mood such as declarative, imperative, and interrogative, and different mood functions such as Subject, Predicator, Complement, and Adjunct.

The theme system of the clause refers to the organization of the clause as message realised in Theme + Rheme structure and Given + New structure of the clause (Halliday in Kress [Ed.], 1981, 1985, 1998, 2012 and elsewhere; Halliday and Hasan, 1989; Matthiessen, 1995; Halliday and Matthiessen, 2015). As the focus of this study is on the translation of Themes from English into Vietnamese, we will delve in some more detail into this textual notion in English and Vietnamese. It has been widely recognized that a reliable comparison of any two texts in two languages cannot be carried out until we have a common descriptive framework of these two languages (Halliday, McIntosh, and Strevens, 1964; Matthiessen, 2013; see also Kim and Matthiessen, 2017, p. 18). We are lucky that at present, Theme in both English and Vietnamese has been extensively described in the systemic functional model (e.g. in English: Halliday, 1985, 1998; Martin, 1992; Matthiessen, 1995; Eggins, 2004; Thompson, 2014; Halliday and Matthiessen, 2015, and many others; and in Vietnamese: Thai, 1998, 2004; Diep, 2005; Nguyen, 2015; Hoang, 2007, 2008, 2022, 2023). As a first step to the present study, we will provide a review of the studies of Theme in English and Vietnamese. The review of theme in English is based mainly on Halliday (1985, 1998), Halliday and Matthiessen (2015), and Fries (1981, 1995a, 1995b, 1997, 2002), and the review of Theme in Vietnamese is based mainly on Hoang (2022, 2023). To familiarize readers with the source text (ST) and the target text (TT), illustrative examples, except agnates, are taken from ‘To Kill a Mockingbird’ and ‘Giết con chim nhại’. They are in italics, the Theme portion is recognized in boldface type, and information about the ST and TT and the page number in which they occur is provided between square brackets.

2.2.3.1. Theme in English

1. Theme in English clause simplex can be defined as ‘the point of departure of a message’ and can be recognised by the first constituent having a transitivity function in the clause, everything else that follows this initial constituent will automatically fall into Rheme (Halliday, 1985, 1998; Fries, 1995b; Halliday and Matthiessen, 2015). Theme can be conflated with one or another of the transitivity functions: with, taking material process as representative, Actor (Actor Theme) as *I* in *I crept from Jem’s room and shut the door softly*. [ST, p. 365] (Tôi lủi khỏi phòng Jem và đóng cửa nhẹ nhàng. [TT, p. 359]); Complement (Complement Theme) as *The door* in *The door I shut softly*. (Cửa tôi đóng nhẹ nhàng.); and Circumstance (Circumstance Theme) as *Softly* in *Softly I shut the door*. (Nhẹ nhàng tôi đóng cửa.)

2. In declarative clause simplexes, Theme can be conflated with one or another of the mood function elements: with Subject (Subject Theme) as *He* in *He remembered her clearly*. [ST, p. 12] (Anh ấy nhớ mẹ rất rõ. [TT, p. 14]); Complement (Complement Theme) as *Her* in *Her he remembered clearly*. (Mẹ, anh ấy nhớ rất rõ.); Adjunct (Adjunct Theme) as *Clearly* in

Clearly he remembered her. (Rất rõ, anh ấy nhớ mẹ.)

3. In imperative clause simplexes, Theme is typically conflated with Predicator (Predicator Theme) as *Give* in ***Give me those scissors.*** [ST, p. 61] (Đưa bố cái kéo. [TT, p. 63]), *Get* in ***Get aside from the door, Mr. Finch.*** [ST, p. 224] (Tránh khỏi cái cửa đó đi, ông Finch. [TT, p. 221]).

4. Interrogative clause simplexes fall into two categories: polar interrogative and non-polar interrogative. Polar interrogative clause simplexes are concerned with what the speaker wants to know whether the content of the clause is affirmed (yes) or negated/denied (no). In a polar interrogative clause simplex in English, the finite verb is thematic, but it only functions as an interpersonal Theme, and the Subject that follows it functions as the topical Theme (Halliday in Kress [Ed.], 1981, p. 180; see also Halliday, 1985, p. 47, 1998, p. 45; Halliday and Matthiessen, 2015). Thus, both *Did* and *you* function as Theme in ***Did you pay a bushel of potatoes for him?*** [ST, p. 27] (Mày đã trả thúng khoai tây chưa? [TT, p. 40]), and both *Can't* and *you* function as Theme in ***Can't you remember?*** [ST, p. 249] (Ông không nhớ được à? [TT, p. 246]). In contrast, in non-polar interrogative clause simplexes (also referred to as WH-interrogatives), the WH-element (Who, What, When, Why, or Where) functions solely as Theme of the clause, no matter what other function it has in the mood structure (i.e. whether it is Subject, Adjunct or Complement) (see Halliday, 1985, pp. 47-48; 1998, pp. 45-46; Halliday and Matthiessen, 2015, pp. 101-102). Thus, *Who* is Theme in ***Who are your friends?*** [ST, p. 271] (Bạn cô là ai? [TT, p. 267]), *When* is Theme in ***When did she ask you to chop up the - the chiffarobe?*** [ST, p. 284] (Cô ta yêu cầu anh bừa cái ... cái tủ hời nào? [TT, p. 278]), and *Why* is Theme in ***Why don't you come over, Charles Baker Harris?*** [ST, p. 13] (Sao mày không qua đây, Charles Baker Harris? [TT, p. 15]).

5. Theme can be simple or multiple. A simple Theme is one that is represented by just one constituent: a nominal group as *School* in ***School started.*** [ST, p.88] (Năm học bắt đầu. [TT, p. 89]), a prepositional phrase as *After supper* in ***After supper, Atticus sat down with the paper...*** [ST, p. 44] (Sau bữa tối, bố Atticus cầm tờ báo ngồi xuống... [TT, p. 46]). A simple Theme can also be represented by two or more elements occurring concurrently in initial position in the clause, forming a single complex element and having the same transitivity function as *Jem and I* in ***Jem and I found our father satisfactory.*** [ST, p. 11] (Jem và tôi thấy bố rất dễ chịu. [TT, p. 13]) or *Mr. Gilmer and Atticus* in ***Mr. Gilmer and Atticus exchanged glances.*** [ST, p. 258] (Ông Gilmer và bố Atticus liếc nhìn nhau. [TT, p. 255]).

A multiple Theme is one that has a further internal structure of its own. Here we can distinguish between topical Theme, interpersonal Theme, and textual Theme. A topical Theme is the experiential part or phrase of the Theme. It is element that is conflated with a transitivity element of the clause: it can be, again taking material clause as representative, Actor as *Boo* in ***Boo drove the scissors into his parent's leg*** [ST, p. 18] (Boo đâm kéo vào chân ba mình. [TT, p. 21]), Goal as *The scissors* in ***The scissors Boo drove into his parent's leg.*** (Cái kéo, Boo đâm vào chân ba mình.), or Circumstance as *Into his parent's leg* in ***Into his parent's leg Boo drove the scissors.*** (Vào chân ba mình, Boo đâm cái kéo.). An interpersonal Theme is the interpersonal part or phrase of the Theme. It represents the interpersonal element with which the speaker or writer acts on the listener or reader. An interpersonal Theme may include (i) a modal adjunct as *Maybe* in ***Maybe someday we would see him.*** [ST, p. 359] (Biết đâu một ngày nào đó chúng tôi sẽ thấy ông ta. [TT, p. 352]), (ii) the definite element in the case of *yes/no* interrogative clauses as *Are* in ***Are we poor, Atticus?*** [ST, p. 32] (Nhà mình có nghèo không, bố Atticus? [TT, p. 35]), *Do* in ***Do you smell my mimosa?*** [ST, p. 65] (Cháu có ngửi thấy mùi hoa mimosa

của cô không? [TT, p. 68]), and (iii) a vocative element as *Burris* in *Burris, go home*. [ST, p. 42] (*Burris, về nhà đi*. [TT, p. 45]), *Scout* in *Scout, try not to antagonize Aunty, hear?* [ST, p. 202] (*Scout, cố đừng làm trái ý bác, nghe không?* [TT, p. 201]). A textual Theme is the textual part of the Theme. It represents the meaning that is relevant to the context: both the preceding and the following text (co-text) and the context of situation. It may include any combination of three textual elements: (i) a continuative element as *Yessum*, in *Yessum, he's alive*. [ST, p. 39] (*Vâng, nó còn sống*. [TT, p. 42]), *Well* in *Well, answer it, son* [ST, p. 216] (*Ừ, trả lời điện thoại đi, con*. [TT, p. 214]); (ii) a structural element as *But* in *But last night he wanted to hurt you*. [ST, p. 233] (*Nhưng tối hôm qua ông ta muốn hại bố*. [TT, p. 230]), *And* in *And what did you find?* [ST, p. 247] (*Và ông đã thấy cái gì?* [TT, p. 244]); and (iii) a conjunctive element as *Although* in *Although we heard no more about the Finch family from Aunt Alexandra, we heard plenty from the town*. [ST, p. 199] (*Dù chúng tôi không nghe thêm gì về Dòng họ Finch từ miệng bác Alexandra, nhưng chúng tôi nghe đủ thứ chuyện về họ nhà tôi từ dân thị trấn*. [TT, p. 198])

A multiple Theme may fall into one of these thematic patterns: (1) textual ^ interpersonal ^ topical Theme as *All right* (textual Theme), *Mr. Finch* (interpersonal Theme), and *get* (topical Theme) in *All right, Mr. Finch, get 'em outa here* [ST, p. 226] (*Được rồi, ông Finch, đưa chúng tránh khỏi chỗ này* [TT, p. 223]), (2) textual ^ topical Theme as *and* (textual Theme) and *two years later* (topical Theme) in *and two years later our mother died from a sudden heart attack* [ST, p. 12] (*và hai năm sau mẹ tôi mất vì một cơn đau tim* [TT, p. 14]), and (3) interpersonal ^ topical Theme as *Scout* (interpersonal Theme) and *come on* (topical Theme) in *Scout, come on*. [ST, p. 242] (*Scout, lên đây*. [TT, p. 240]).

6. Theme can be unmarked or marked. An unmarked Theme is a constituent occupying clause-initial position functioning as Subject in declarative clause simplex as *Miss Maudie* in *Miss Maudie had known Uncle Jack Finch, Atticus's brother*. [ST, p. 66] (*Cô Maudie đã biết chú Jack Finch, em trai của bố Atticus*. [TT, p. 68]); *What Mr. Radley did* in *What Mr. Radley did was his own business*. [ST, p. 74] (*Những gì ông Radley làm là việc riêng của ông ta*. [TT, p. 76]). A marked Theme, in contrast, is a constituent occupying clause-initial position having a function other than Subject in declarative clause simplex and Predicator in imperative clause simplex. Examples of marked Theme in declarative are the Complement Theme *This* in *This he did with enthusiasm*. [ST, p. 358] (*Việc này anh làm với sự nhiệt tình*.), and the Adjunct Theme *In the waning moonlight* in *In the waning moonlight I saw Jem swing his feet to the floor*. [ST, p. 84] (*Trong ánh trăng tàn tôi thấy Jem bung chân xuống đất*. [TT, p. 86]).

(For more details about how Theme is defined and recognised in English, see Halliday, 1985, 1998, Chapter 3; Halliday and Matthiessen, 2015, Chapter 3; Fries, 1981, 1995a, 1995b, 1997, 2002).

2.2.3.2. Theme in Vietnamese

1. As with English, Theme in Vietnamese clause simplex can be defined as ‘the point of departure of a message’ and can be recognised by the first constituent having a transitivity function in the clause, everything else that follows this initial constituent will automatically fall into Rheme (Hoang, 2022, 2023; so also Cao, 2004; Diep, 2005; Nguyen, 2015).

2. In declarative and interrogative clause simplexes, Theme can be conflated with one or another of the transitivity functions: with, taking material process as representative, Actor as *Dill* in *Dill chia tay chúng tôi đầu tháng chín* [TT, p. 27] (*Dill left us early in September* [ST, p. 25]), Goal as *Chúng tôi* in *Chúng tôi, Dill chia tay đầu tháng chín* (*Us, Dill left early in*

September), and Circumstance as *Đầu tháng chín* in **Đầu tháng chín** Dill chia tay chúng tôi (Early in September Dill left us); and (interrogative) with Actor as *Dill* in **Dill** chia tay chúng tôi đầu tháng chín có phải không? (Did Dill leave us early in September?), Goal as *Chúng tôi* in **Chúng tôi**, Dill chia tay đầu tháng chín có phải không? (Did Dill leave us early in September?), Circumstance as *Đầu tháng chín* in **Đầu tháng chín** Dill chia ta chúng tôi có phải không? (Early in September did Dill leave us?).

3. Theme can be conflated with one or another of the mood functions: with Subject (Subject Theme) as *Một đứa con gái nhỏ* in **Một đứa con gái nhỏ** bước ra cửa chòi [TT, p. 348] (A little girl came to the cabin door [ST, p. 355], Complement (Complement Theme) as *Chuyện này* in **Chuyện này** anh làm với sự nhiệt tình (TT, p. 351) (This he did with enthusiasm [ST, p. 358]), Adjunct (Adjunct Theme) as *Hai ngày sau* in **Hai ngày sau** Dill đến trong vinh quang rực rỡ. [TT, p. 56] (Two days later Dill arrived in a blaze of glory. [ST, p. 54]).

4. In imperative clause simplex, Theme is typically conflated with Predicator (Predicator Theme) as *Đưa* in **Đưa** bỏ cái kéo [TT, p. 63] (*Give* me those scissors [ST, p. 61]) or *Về* in **Về** nhà đi, Jem [TT, p. 223] (Go home, Jem [ST, p. 225]).

5. Theme can be simple or multiple. A simple Theme is one that is represented by just one constituent: a nominal group as *Hội trường* in **Hội trường** đang dần ken chặt người [TT, p. 374] (The auditorium was filling with people [ST, p. 380]), a prepositional phrase as *Trong một nhóm hàng xóm* in **Trong một nhóm hàng xóm**, bố Articus đang đứng hai tay thọc vào túi áo khoác. [TT, p. 106] (In a group of neighbors, Atticus was standing with his hands in his overcoat pockets. [ST, p. 107]) or a rank-shifted clause as *Săn bắn* in **Săn bắn** vào ngày Chủ nhật bị cấm [TT, p. 217] (Shooting on Sundays was prohibited [ST, p. 219]). A simple Theme can also be represented by two or more elements occurring concurrently in initial position in the clause, forming a single complex element and having the same transitivity function as *Ông Gilmer và bố Articus* in **Ông Gilmer và bố Articus** liếc nhìn nhau. [TT, p. 255] (Mr. Gilmer and Atticus exchanged glances. [ST, p. 258])

A multiple Theme is one that has a further internal structure of its own. Like English, here we can distinguish between topical Theme, interpersonal Theme, and textual Theme. A topical Theme is one that is conflated with a transitivity element of the clause: it can be, again taking material clause as representative, Actor as *Ba đứa chúng tôi* in **Ba đứa chúng tôi** thận trọng đi về phía ngôi nhà cổ. [TT, p. 74] (The three of us walked cautiously toward the old house. [ST, p. 72]), Goal as *Cửa* in **Cửa** được mở ra [TT, p. 180] (The door was opened [ST, p. 182]), Circumstance as *Vào mùa mưa* in **Vào mùa mưa** đường phố trở nên lầy lội đỏ quạch [TT, p. 12] (In rainy weather the streets turned to red slop [ST, p. 11]). An interpersonal Theme is one that ‘sets up the speaker’s angle on the clause as part of its local context’ (Matthiessen, Terya, and Lam, 2010, p. 128). It may be a modal element as *Có lẽ* in **Có lẽ** bố Articus đúng. [TT, p. 353] (Perhaps Atticus was right. [ST, p. 360]), the definite polar element in the case of *có/không* (yes/no) as *Có* in **Có**, thưa ngài, tôi phải đi ngang qua nhà cô ấy mỗi ngày để đi ra đồng hay về nhà [TT, p. 278] (Yes suh, I had to pass her place goin’ to and from the field every day. [ST, p. 284]) and *Không đâu* in **Không đâu**, Scout, đó là chuyện mà không hiểu được [TT, p. 147] (Naw, Scout, it’s something you wouldn’t understand [ST, p.150]), and a vocative as *Link* in **Link**, chàng trai đó có thể lên ghế điện. [TT, p. 214] (Link, that boy might go to the chair. [ST, p. 216]). A textual Theme represents the meaning that is relevant to context, both co-text (of text) and context (of situation); it may have any combination of three textual elements: a continuative element (e.g., *đúng/vâng* [yes]), a structural element as *Nhưng* in **Nhưng** tôi thích đàn ông. [TT, p. 340] (But I liked them [ST, p. 347]), and a conjunctive element

as *Vì vậy* in *Vì vậy tôi đến nhà Robinson* [TT, p. 244] (So I went down to Robinson's house [ST, p. 247]).

A multiple Theme may fall into one of these thematic patterns: (1) textual ^ interpersonal ^ topical Theme as *Được rồi* (textual Theme), *ông Finch* (interpersonal Theme), *đưa* (topical Theme) in *Được rồi, ông Finch, đưa chúng tránh khỏi chỗ này*. [TT, p. 223] (All right, Mr. Finch, get 'em outa here. [ST, p. 226], (2) textual ^ topical Theme as *nhưng* (textual Theme) *trong một số cách* (topical Theme) in *nhưng trong một số cách ông cố chấp như những người nhà Cunningham* [TT, p. 397] (but in some ways he was as set as the Cunninghams. [ST, p. 405]), and (3) interpersonal ^ topical Theme as *Có lẽ* (interpersonal Theme) *Jem* (topical Theme) in *Có lẽ Jem có câu trả lời*. [TT, p. 357] (Perhaps Jem could provide the answer. [ST, p. 364]).

6. Theme in Vietnamese can be unmarked or marked. An unmarked Theme is a constituent occupying initial position functioning as Subject in declarative and interrogative clause simplexes as (declarative) *Vật này* in *Vật này chắc đã cứu mạng cô bé*. [TT, p. 391] (This thing probably saved her life. [ST, p. 398]) and as (interrogative) *Con* in *Con có biết thỏa hiệp là gì không?* [TT, p. 49] (Do you know what a compromise is? [ST, p. 47]), and Predicator in an imperative clause simplex as *Nhắm* and *mở* in *Nhắm mắt lại, mở mắt ra* [TT, p. 46] (Shut your eyes and open your mouth [ST, p. 43]).

A marked Theme is a constituent occupying initial position having a function other than Subject in declarative and interrogative clause simplexes and Predicator in imperative clause simplex. Examples of marked Theme in declarative and interrogative clause simplexes are the Complement Theme *Chuyện này* in *Chuyện này anh làm với sự nhiệt tình*.¹ (This he did with enthusiasm [ST, p. 358]) and *chuyện này* in *Có phải chuyện này anh làm với sự nhiệt tình không?* (Did he do this with enthusiasm?), and the Adjunct Theme *bốn năm sau* in *bốn năm sau tôi ra đời* [TT, p. 14] (four years later I was born [ST, p. 12]. An example of marked Theme in imperative clause simplex is the Subject *Tụi con* in *Tụi con ngưng ngay trò nhảm nhí này lại*. [TT, p. 76] (You stop this nonsense right now. [ST, p. 75]).

(For more details about how Theme is defined and recognised in Vietnamese, see Hoang, 2022, 2023; see also Diep, 2005; Nguyen, 2015).

3. Research Design and Methodology

3.1. Research Question

This study is intended to address the following research question:

To what extent are Themes in ‘To Kill a Mockingbird’ translated into ‘Giết con chim nhại’, and how are they translated?

3.2. Data Collection and Data Analysis

The data for this study are from ‘To Kill a Mockingbird’ written by the famous American novelist Harper Lee and published by McIntosh and Otis, Inc. in 1988, and ‘Giết con chim nhại’ translated by Huỳnh Kim Oanh and Phạm Viêm Phương and published by Nhà xuất bản văn học (Literature Publishing House) in 2008. There are two main reasons for choosing

¹ In the TT, the ST clause ‘This he did with enthusiasm’ [p. 358] is translated as ‘Anh làm chuyện này hết sức nhiệt tình’ [p. 351]. For purposes of illustration of marked Complement Theme in Vietnamese, I provide a more appropriate version of translation as ‘Chuyện này anh làm với sự nhiệt tình’.

these texts. First, ‘To Kill a Mockingbird’ is ‘One of the best-loved stories of all time, has earned many distinctions since its original publication in 1960. It won the Pulitzer Prize, has been translated into more than forty languages, sold more than thirty million copies worldwide, and has been made into an enormously popular movie’ (see back cover of Harper Lee’s 2002 edition of ‘To Kill a Mockingbird’). And second, since it was translated and published in Vietnamese, ‘Giết con chim nhại’ has enjoyed popularity among Vietnamese readers, particularly Vietnamese children.

Halliday in Kress (Ed.) (1981, p. 180) and Halliday (1985, p. 44, 1998, p. 42) suggest that the meaning of the choices of theme is best understood by reference to the mood system. Following Halliday’s suggestion, in this study we will focus on collecting:

- declarative clause simplexes in the ST and their corresponding clause simplexes in the TT;
- imperative clause simplexes in the ST and their corresponding imperative clause simplexes in the TT; and
- interrogative clause simplexes in the ST and their corresponding interrogative clause simplexes in the TT.

The collected clause simplexes in the ST and in the TT are numbered and placed in two columns: the collected clause simplexes in the ST are placed in the left column followed by the page number put between square brackets, and the corresponding clause simplexes in the TT are placed in the right column also followed by the page number put between square brackets. Then the ST clause simplexes are analysed for simple and multiple Themes, and the corresponding simple and multiple Themes are identified in the TT clause simplexes. They are then quantified and recorded, and findings are displayed in tables. To facilitate discussion, the Theme portions in the ST clause simplexes and their corresponding elements in the TT clause simplexes appear in italics and boldface type, and each element of a multiple Theme in the ST and (where possible) the corresponding element of a multiple Theme in the TT are notated and put between round brackets. For example, (txt) = textual Theme, (int) = interpersonal Theme, and (top) = topical Theme. For reasons of space, the information which is not in point is omitted from both ST and TT data. Details of these are provided in Appendices. Below are some illustrative examples of data analysis taken from Appendix 1:

Appendix 1

Subject Theme in Declarative Clause Simplex

ST	TT
84. <i>Doors</i> opened one by one [147]	84. <i>Từng cánh cửa</i> mở ra [144]
85. <i>Miss Maudie</i> grinned wickedly. [149]	85. <i>Cô Maudie</i> cười ranh mãnh [145]
86. <i>Maybe</i> (int) <i>I</i> (top) can tell you, [149]	86. <i>Có lẽ</i> (int) <i>cô</i> (top) có thể cho cháu biết [146]
87. <i>Naw</i> (txt), <i>Scout</i> (int), <i>it</i> (top) 's ... [150]	87. <i>Không đâu</i> (txt), <i>Scout</i> (int), <i>đó</i> (top) là ... [147]
88. <i>A lovelier lady than our mother</i> never ... [152]	88. <i>Một quý bà để thương hơn người mẹ</i> ... [149]

The analysed Themes in the ST are then matched with those corresponding elements in the TT to establish points of translation equivalence and points of translation shift between them. The discussion of translation equivalence and translation shifts is based mainly on the comparative features of Themes in the ST and those in the TT and on my own judgement as a competent English-Vietnamese translator (cf. Catford, 1965, p. 27). In some cases, when there is a need to affirm my decision, I consult the translators of the TT, and whenever possible, my

translation colleagues.

4. Findings and Discussion

4.1. Base-line Information

To get base-line information for further analysis and discussion, the total number of the collected clause simplexes, and the number of each mood type clause simplexes in the ST and TT are provided in Table 1.

Table 1

Base-line Information

Clause type	ST	TT
Number of declarative clause simplexes:	349	349
Number of imperative clause simplexes:	123	123
Number of interrogative clause simplexes:	230	230
Total:	702	702

Table 1 shows that the total number of collected ST and TT clause simplexes are 702, of which the number of declarative clause simplexes in both texts are 349, the number of imperative clause simplexes are 123, and the number of interrogative clause simplexes are 230. This base-line information suggests that the data size is reasonably big enough for us to talk meaningfully about the extent to which Themes in the ST are translated into the TT and how they are translated.

4.2. Translation of Theme in Declarative Clause Simplex

Halliday (1985, p. 54, 1998) and Halliday and Matthiessen (2015) observe that among the elements in the English mood clause: Predicator, Subject, Complement and Adjunct, Predicator is rarely thematic. Their observation aligns to our finding in ‘To Kill a Mockingbird’ where no Predicator Theme is found. In what follows, we will focus on examining how Subject Theme, Complement Theme, and Adjunct Theme in ‘To Kill a Mockingbird’ are translated into ‘Giết con chim nhại’.

4.2.1. Translation of Subject Theme in Declarative Clause Simplex

Details of analysis of Subject Theme in ST and TT declarative clause simplex are provided in Appendix 1. The main findings are summarised in Table 2 below.

Table 2

Subject Theme in English and Vietnamese Declarative Clause Simplex

Details of Theme types	ST	TT
Number of clauses:	201	201
Number of Subject Theme clauses:	201	195
Number of simple Theme clauses:	125	118
Number of multiple Theme clauses:	76	77
+ Number of interpersonal + topical Themes:	11	12

+ Number of textual + topical Theme:	61	61
+ Number of textual + interpersonal + topical Themes:	4	4
Number of Subject Theme shifts:		6

Findings in Table 2 invites at least three observations. First, most Subject Themes in English declarative clause simplexes are closely translated and retained as Subject Themes in corresponding Vietnamese clause simplexes: 201/195. Second, most textual themes and interpersonal Themes in ST clause simplexes are also closely and consistently rendered into TT clause simplexes: in the data we find that one ST textual or interpersonal Theme item is rendered into one TT correspondence: *so = vì vậy; but = nhưng; then = rồi; and = và; probably = có lẽ; of course = dĩ nhiên*. We also find that all the proper names and place names functioning as interpersonal Theme and topical Theme in the ST clause simplexes are calqued or rendered verbatim in the corresponding TT clause simplexes: *Atticus = Atticus* [at 176], *Underwood = Underwood* [at 179], *Tom Robinson = Tom Robinson* [at 169]; *Maycomb = Maycomb* [at 8 and 186], and many others. Third, most Themes in the ST clause simplexes are rendered into TT clause simplexes on the basis of what Halliday (2017) refers to as ‘ideational (‘denotative’) meaning’; and, for this reason, the translation can be said to have reached a high level of equivalence or congruence: *Their attention = Sự chú ý của họ* [at 128], *Maycomb = Maycomb* [at 186], *Perhaps (int) Calpurnia (top) = Có lẽ (int) Calpurnia (top)* [at 33], *Then (txt) Christmas (top) = Rồi (txt) Giáng sinh (top)* [at 74], *Yes (txt) suh (int), I (top) = Có (txt), thưa ngài, tôi (top)* [at 152], and many others.

A closer inspection of multiple Themes shows that most of the elements in the multiple Themes in the ST clause simplexes can be transferred into the TT clause simplexes on a ‘one-to-one correspondence’ basis. Two examples at 87 and 152 will suffice. At 87, the ST multiple Theme *Naw Scout it* in *Naw, Scout, it's something you wouldn't understand* [ST, p. 150] has the sequence of continuative textual Theme (Naw) ^ interpersonal Theme (Scout) ^ topical Theme (it), the corresponding TT multiple Theme *Không đâu, Scout, đó* in *Không đâu, Scout, đó là chuyện mà không hiểu được* [TT, p. 147] has the same sequence of continuative textual theme (Không đâu) ^ interpersonal Theme (Scout) ^ topical Theme (đó). Similarly at 152, the ST multiple Theme *Yes suh, I* in *Yes suh, I had to pass her place goin' to and from the field every day* [ST, p. 284] has the sequence of continuative textual Theme (Yes) ^ interpersonal Theme (suh) ^ topical Theme (I), the corresponding TT multiple Theme *Có, thưa ngài, tôi* in *Có, thưa ngài, tôi phải đi ngang nhà cô ấy mỗi ngày để ra đồng hay về nhà* [TT, p. 278]) also has the sequence of continuative textual Theme (Có) ^ interpersonal Theme (thưa ngài) ^ topical Theme (tôi).

There are, however, a number of translation shifts observed in the TT data. The first translation shift concerns the alteration of Theme in the TT clause simplexes. Six instances in point can be found at 34, 69, 112, 124, 129, and 167. At 34, the ST nominal group *None of them* in *None of them had done an honest day's work in his recollection* [ST, p. 46] is Subject Theme; but it is replaced by the prepositional phrase *Theo như trí nhớ của ông* in *Theo như trí nhớ của ông, không một ai trong số họ từng lao động một ngày lương thiện* [TT, p. 48] where *Theo như trí nhớ của ông* is Adjunct Theme, placing in the Rheme portion the nominal group *không một ai trong số họ* which corresponds to the ST Subject Theme *None of them*. At 69, the ST nominal group *The snow* in *The snow stopped in the afternoon* [ST, p. 103] is Subject Theme; but it is replaced by the prepositional phrase *Đến chiều* in *Đến chiều tuyết ngừng rơi* [TT, p. 103], placing *tuyết* which corresponds to the ST Subject Theme *The snow* in the Rheme portion. At 129, the ST nominal group *Everybody's appetite* in *Everybody's appetite was delicate this*

morning [ST, p. 231] is Subject Theme; but like 34 and 69, it is replaced by the nominal group functioning as Adjunct Theme *Sáng nay* in *Sáng nay mọi người ăn không thấy ngon* [TT, p. 228], and instead of placing the element corresponding to *Everybody's appetite* in the Rheme portion, the translators have exercised a kind of semantic translation restructuring the ST relational clause of Carrier (Everybody's appetite) ^ Process: relational (was) ^ Attribute (delicate) into the TT behavioral clause of Behaver (mọi người) ^ Process: behavioral (ăn) ^ Circumstance (không thấy ngon). At 112, the ST nominal group *His circulation* is Subject Theme in the clause *His circulation restored* [ST, p. 206] (which can be closely translated into Vietnamese as *Lưu thông khí huyết của anh đã phục hồi* without affecting the meaning of the ST clause simplex), but it is rendered into Vietnamese as the dependent clause *Sau khi máu huyết lưu thông đều đặn lại* [TT, p. 204], making this translation ungrammatical. 124 and 167 present other cases of Subject Theme translation shift which deserve mentioning here. At 124, the ST nominal group *His office* in the clause simplex *His office was reached by a long hallway* [ST, p. 222] is Subject Theme, but not only the ST clause Theme but also the whole ST clause simplex is rendered into the TT as the hypotactic clause complex *Muốn đến văn phòng của ông phải đi qua một hành lang dài* [TT, p. 219] where the dependent clause *Muốn đến văn phòng của ông* (If [you] want to reach his office) functions as Theme. And at 167, we find that although both Themes in the ST and TT clause are Subject Themes, what makes them strikingly different is that the Theme *His face* in the ST clause simplex *His face was streaked with angry tears* [ST, p. 316] and the Theme *Những dòng nước mắt giận dữ* in the TT clause simplex *Những dòng nước mắt giận dữ lăn trên mặt anh* [TT, p. 309] represent quite different experiential meanings realized in quite different structures; ST: Deictic (His) ^ Thing (face), and TT: Thing (Những dòng) ^ Classifier (nước mắt) ^ Epithet (giận dữ).

The second translation shift has to do with the alteration of ST topical Theme in the TT at 130: *But* (txt) *she* (top) *was frowning at Atticus* [ST, p. 232] : : *Nhưng* (txt) *đó* (top) *là bác đang cau mày với bố Articus* [TT, p. 229]). A cursory glance shows that the pattern of the multiple Theme in the ST and TT clause simplex is the same: textual ^ topical Theme; but a closer examination shows that in the ST clause simplex, the personal pronoun *she* (which, from the context of the ST, can be appropriately translated into Vietnamese as *bác*) is topical Theme; but it is replaced in the TT clause simplex by the demonstrative pronoun *đó* (that/it), placing *bác* - the element corresponding to the ST topical Theme *she* in the Rheme portion. The third translation shift concerns the addition of Theme in the TT clause simplex at 31: *No one had noticed him* [ST, p. 41] : : *Chắc chắn* (int) *không ai* (top) *để ý đến nó* [TT, p. 43]. Here we find that *No one* is simple Theme in the ST clause simplex; but in the TT clause simplex, the interpersonal Theme *Chắc chắn* is added, making *Chắc chắn không ai* in the TT clause simplex a multiple Theme. Another translation addition is found at 132: *Aw* (txt), *Aunty* (int), *that* (top)'s just *Dill's way* [ST, p. 234] : : *Ồ* (txt), *bác* (int), *Dill* (top) *chỉ nói vậy thôi* [TT, p. 232] where the multiple Theme pattern of the ST clause simplex is retained in the TT clause simplex: textual ^ interpersonal ^ topical Theme. But a closer inspection reveals that the topical Themes in the two clause simplexes are quite different: the topical Theme in the ST clause simplex is the demonstrative pronoun *that* (which can be translated into Vietnamese without changing the meaning of the ST clause simplex as *đó*), whereas the topical Theme of the TT clause simplex is the proper name *Dill*. This casts doubt on whether the ST and TT clause simplexes are equivalent as seen from the point of view of ideational meaning.

The third translation shift is translation omission at 172. Here *Well I* in *Well I'm glad he could* [ST, p. 337] is multiple Theme. But in the corresponding TT clause simplex, the continuative Theme *Well* is omitted. What can be seen in the TT clause simplex is only the

simple Subject Theme *Em* in *Em mừng là cụ tổ biết đọc biết viết* [TT, p. 331].

The biggest translation shift is perhaps at 57: *Dill's hand* sought the back of his head [ST, p. 83] : : *Dill sờ gáy, rồi đưa tay ngang trán* [TT, p. 84]. A cursory glance will show that there is not much to say about this translation, because both Themes in the ST clause simplex and TT clause simplex are simple Themes. But a more detailed analysis shows that there is a substantial alteration in the translation of not only the ST simple Theme but also the ST clause structure. Here instead of retaining the nominal group consisting of the proper noun with the possessive case *Dill's* and the noun *hand* (which can still be properly rendered as *Bàn tay Dill*) in the TT clause simplex, it is replaced by the proper noun *Dill*. And instead of rendering the ST declarative clause simplex: Subject (*Dill's hand*) ^ Predicator (*sought*) ^ Complement (the back of his head) into a corresponding TT declarative clause simplex (such as *Bàn tay Dill sờ gáy mình*), it is restructured into two independent clause simplexes whose mood structures are Subject (*Dill*) ^ Predicator (*sờ*) ^ Goal (*gáy*) and Adjunct (*rồi*) ^ Predicator (*đưa*) ^ Goal (*tay*) ^ Adjunct (*ngang trán*).

4.2.2. Translation of Complement Theme in Declarative Clause Simplex

Details of analysis of Complement Theme in ST and TT declarative clause simplexes are given in Appendix 2. Findings are provided in Table 3.

Table 3

Complement Theme in Declarative Clause Simplex

Details of Theme types	ST	TT
Number of clauses:	3	3
Number of Subject Theme clauses:	0	3
Number of translation shifts:		3

Table 3 shows that all three instances of the ST Complement Theme clause simplex are translated into the TT, but it is the place of Theme in the TT clause simplexes that merits some careful consideration. Three points are of notice here. First, all three Complement Themes in the ST clause simplexes are simple and marked. Second, all of the Themes the ST clause simplexes are realized by the demonstrative anaphoric pronoun *this* which in its particular context, is used to refer to the activity that has just been mentioned in the previous texts: *This* in *This she did* [ST, p. 320] at 1 refers to 'Miss Maudie's activity of settling her bridgework'; *This* in *This he did with enthusiasm* [ST, p. 358] at 2, refers to 'Jem's activity of carrying the team water buckets'; and *This* in *This she covered with brown cloth* [ST, p. 374] at 3 refers to the 'chicken wire'. And third, in all three ST clause simplexes the Complement *this* is thematised or foregrounded for emphatic purposes. But in the TT, they are not placed as marked Complement Themes, which, seen from the point of Theme, can be complete matches to *This* in ST clause simplexes. Instead, all the three Themes in the TT clause simplexes are unmarked Subject Themes. Hence, *This she did* is rendered as *Cô ấy đã làm thế* which can be back-translated into English as *She did like that*; *This he did with enthusiasm*, as *Anh làm chuyện này hết sức nhiệt tình* which can be back-translated into English as *He did this with great enthusiasm*; and *This she covered with brown cloth*, as *Bà phủ lên một lớp vải nâu* which is back-translated into English as *She covered [it] with a layer of brown cloth*. It may be argued that Subject Theme in these translated clause simplexes may read more natural in Vietnamese, but is not true. In these contexts, ST and TT can be equivalent when the Complement Themes

in the ST clause simplexes are retained in the corresponding TT clause simplexes. It sounds quite natural to say in Vietnamese: **Việc này** (việc cô sửa lại hàm răng giả) *cô đã làm* at 1, **Việc này** (việc Jem mang các xô nước cho đội bóng) *anh làm với sự nhiệt tình* at 2, and **Cái này** (lớp thép mỏng) *bà đã phủ lên bằng tấm vải màu nâu* at 3.

4.2.3. Translation of Adjunct Theme in Declarative Clause Simplex

Details of analysis of Adjunct Theme in ST and TT declarative clause simplexes are given in Appendix 3. Findings are provided in Table 4.

Table 4

Adjunct Theme in Declarative Clause Simplex

Details of Theme types	ST	TT
Number of clauses:	145	145
Number of Adjunct Themes:	145	138
Number of Subject Themes:	0	6
Number of clause Themes:	0	1
Number of simple Theme clauses:	139	131
Number of multiple clauses:	6	7
+ Number of int + top Themes:	1	1
+ Number of text + top Themes:	5	6

Findings in Table 4 show that Adjunct Themes in English declarative clause simplexes are closely translated into Vietnamese, and the number of Adjunct Themes in the ST and TT are fairly equal: of 145 ST Adjunct Themes, 138 are translated and retained as Adjunct Themes in the corresponding TT clause simplexes; of 139 ST simple Themes, 131 are rendered as simple Themes in the corresponding TT clause simplexes. Findings in Table 4 also indicate that there is a slight difference in the number of multiple Themes found in the ST and TT: 6 in the ST v. 7 in the TT, and the order of the elements in ST multiple Themes is kept almost the same in the TT.

A closer examination shows that there are five noticeable translation shifts. The first translation shift concerns the alteration to Adjunct Theme type at 91 where the ST location Adjunct Theme *In a dream* in ***In a dream***, *I went to the kitchen* [ST, p. 206] is rendered into the TT as comparison/manner Adjunct Theme *Như trong cơn mơ* in ***Như trong cơn mơ***, *tôi xuống nhà bếp* [TT, p. 204]. The second translation shift has to do with the alteration of rank of grammatical unit at 96 where the ST accompaniment Adjunct Theme *With that* in ***With that***, *he put his hat on* [ST, p. 220] is restructured into the TT as the independent clause *Nói xong* in ***Nói xong***, *ông đội mũ* [TT, p. 217]. The third translation shift concerns the alteration of the type of Theme at 125, 141, and 144. At 125, the clause simplex ***Again***, *she turned to me* [ST, p. 344] where *Again* is Adjunct Theme; but this clause is rendered into Vietnamese as ***Bà lại quay sang*** *tôi* [TT, p. 337] where *Bà* is Subject Theme, and the Adjunct *lại* corresponding to the ST Adjunct Theme *Again* is placed in the Rheme portion. At 141, *Sooner* in the ST clause simplex ***Sooner*** *we get this over with the better* [ST, p. 404] is Adjunct Theme; but this clause is translated into the TT clause as ***Chúng ta*** *giải quyết chuyện này càng sớm càng tốt* [TT, p. 397] where *Chúng ta* is Subject Theme, placing the Adjunct *càng sớm càng tốt* corresponding to the ST Adjunct Theme *Sooner* in the Rheme portion. And at 144, *Once more* in the ST clause simplex ***Once more***, *he got to his feet* [ST, p. 410] is Adjunct Theme; but this clause simplex

is rendered into the TT clause simplex as *Ông lại đứng lên* [TT, p. 403] where *Ông* is Subject Theme, and the Adjunct *lại* corresponding to the ST Adjunct Theme *Once more* is placed in the Rheme portion. The fourth translation shift has to do with translation addition at 57. Here, the Adjunct *With these attributes* in *With these attributes, however, he would not remain as inconspicuous as we wished him to* [ST, p. 136] is simple Theme; but in the corresponding TT clause simplex *Tuy nhiên, với những đặc điểm này bố tôi không được chìm khuất như chúng tôi mong ước* [TT, p. 135], we find the Adjunct *Tuy nhiên* is added, making *Tuy nhiên, với những đặc điểm này* a multiple Theme. And the fifth translation shift of notice concerns translation omission at 67. Here, the Adjunct *By that time* in the ST clause simplex *By that time I was shrieking* [ST, p. 156] is Theme; but this clause simplex is translated into Vietnamese as *Tôi bèn la hét inh ỏi* [TT, p. 153] where the Subject *Tôi* is Theme, and the ST Adjunct Theme *By that time* is not translated.

4.3. Translation of Predicator Theme in Imperative Clause Simplex

Details of analysis of Predicator Theme in ST and TT imperative clause simplexes are given in Appendix 4. Findings are provided in Table 5.

Table 5

Predicator Theme in Imperative Clause Simplex

Details of Theme types	ST	TT
Number of imperative clauses:	123	123
Number of Predicator Theme clauses:	120	120
Number of Adjunct Theme clauses:	3	3
Number of simple clauses:	81	88
Number of multiple clauses:	39	29
+ Number of text + int + top Themes:	1	2
+ Number of int + top Themes:	23	17
+ Number of text + top Theme:	15	10
Number of translation shifts:		3

Imperative clauses can be employed to issue command, urging, request, exhortation addressed to the interlocutor(s). Imperative clauses in English are typically indicated by the absence of a Finite and a Subject function. In somewhat similar manner, imperative clauses in Vietnamese are typically indicated by the absence of a Subject function. To put it in a simpler way, in both English and Vietnamese, an imperative clause simplex is typically realized by the main verb functioning as Predicator in mood which seen from the point of view of the textual metafiction is an unmarked Theme.

Findings from Table 5 show a number of equivalent points between the ST and TT. First, all Predicator Themes in the ST clause simplexes are translated and retained as Predicator Themes in the corresponding TT clause simplexes: 123/123. Second, all three ST marked Adjunct Themes at 33, 35, and 90 are consistently translated and retained in TT as marked Adjunct Themes. At 33, *Now* is Adjunct Theme in *Now get the basket* [ST, p. 101], and it is translated as *Bây giờ* which is also Adjunct Theme in *Bây giờ cầm cái giỏ* [TT, p. 101]); at 35, *Now* is Adjunct Theme in *Now listen, both of you* [ST, p. 105]), and it is translated as *Giờ* which is also Adjunct Theme in *Giờ thì nghe đây, hai đứa* [TT, p. 105]; and at 90, *Now* is Adjunct Theme in *Now let's consider this calmly* [ST, p. 276], and it is rendered as *Bây giờ* which is

also Adjunct Theme in *Bây giờ chúng ta hãy xem xét chuyện này một cách bình tĩnh ...* [TT, p. 271]). Third, most of ST multiple Themes are appropriately rendered, and their order in corresponding TT multiple Themes are retained as in ST multiple Themes. 91 and 76 are examples in point. At 91, the multiple Theme *Oh sit down* in the ST clause simplex *Oh sit down, Horace* [ST, p. 271] has the sequence: interpersonal Theme (Oh) ^ topical Theme (sit down). This multiple Theme is translated as *Ồ, ngồi xuống* in *Ồ, ngồi xuống đi Horace* [TT, p. 271] whose sequence is also interpersonal Theme (Ồ) ^ topical Theme (ngồi xuống). And at 76 the multiple Theme *All right, Mr. Finch, get* in the ST clause simplex *All right, Mr. Finch, get 'em outa here* [ST, p. 226] has the order: textual Theme (All right) ^ interpersonal Theme (Mr. Finch) ^ topical Theme (get). This multiple Theme is translated as *Được rồi, ông Finch, đưa* in *Được rồi, ông Finch, đưa chúng tránh khỏi chỗ này* [TT, p. 223]) whose order is also textual Theme (Được rồi) ^ interpersonal Theme (Ông Finch) ^ topical Theme (đưa). And fourth, all inclusive Subject Themes in ST clause simplexes are appropriately translated and retained as inclusive Subject Themes in corresponding TT clause simplexes. 15 and 79 are the examples in point. At 15, the inclusive Subject *Let's* in the ST clause simplex *Let's roll in the tire* [ST, p. 56] is marked Theme, and it is rendered as *Tụi mình* which is also marked inclusive Subject Theme in the TT clause simplex *Tụi mình lăn trong lốp xe đi* [TT, p. 58]. And at 79, the inclusive Subject *Let's* in the ST clause simplex *Let's go in* [ST, p. 240] is marked Theme, and it is rendered as *Tụi mình* which is also marked inclusive Subject Theme in the TT clause simplex *Tụi mình vô đi* [TT, p. 237].

Findings in Table 5 also reveal a number of translation shifts. The most obvious can be seen at 4, 9 and 47. At 4, the unmarked Predicator Theme *Go and eat* in the ST clause simplex *Go and eat downtown today* [ST, p. 30] is translated as *Hôm nay xuống phố ăn đi* [TT, p. 33] where the temporal Adjunct *Hôm nay* is a marked Theme, and the expression *xuống phố ăn đi* which corresponds to the ST Predicator Theme *Go and eat* is placed in the Rheme portion. A somewhat similar translation shift can be observed at 9. Here, the ST multiple Theme *please bathe* in *please bathe yourself before you come back tomorrow* [ST, p. 41] is replaced by the nominal group *ngày mai* in *ngày mai làm ơn tắm trước khi đi học lại* [TT, p. 43] where the ST multiple unmarked Predicator Theme *please bathe* is not retained as the same function in the TT clause simplex. Instead, the expression *làm ơn tắm* corresponding to the ST multiple Predicator Theme *please bathe* is found in the Rheme portion of the ST clause simplex. 47 is a slightly different case of translation shift. Here, the ST unmarked Predicator Theme *Go on* in *Go on, please sir* [ST, p. 129] is replaced by the noun *Chú* in *Chú cứ nói đi* [TT, p. 128] where the noun *Chú* functioning as marked Subject Theme is added.

Apart from the translation shifts discussed above, there are a number of textual, interpersonal and topical elements in ST multiple Themes which are either not translated (translation omission) or not properly rendered (mistranslation). 2, 50, 82, and 113 are the cases in point. At 2, the continuative textual Theme *Well* which is part of the multiple Theme *Well go on* in the ST imperative clause simplex *Well go on* [ST, p. 24] is not translated. Instead only the simple topical Predicator Theme *Tới* which is somewhat equivalent to *go on* is found in the TT clause simplex *Tới luôn đi* [TT, p. 26]). At 50, the two interpersonal Themes *Please* and *ma'am* which are parts of the multiple Theme *Please ma'am hurry* in the ST imperative clause simplex *Please ma'am hurry!* [ST, p. 142] are not translated. Instead only the simple Predicator Theme *Lẹ lên* which corresponds to the ST topical Theme *hurry* is found in the TT clause *Lẹ lên cô* [TT, p. 140]. At 82, the interpersonal Theme *Just* which is part of the multiple Theme *Just describe* in *Just describe her injuries, Heck* [ST, p. 249] is not translated either. Only the simple Predicator Theme *Tả lại* which is equivalent of *describe* is found in the TT clause

simplex *Tả lại những vết thương của cô ta đi*, Heck [TT, p. 245]. And at 113, the multiple Theme *Well let's* in the ST imperative clause simplex *Well let's go get 'em* [ST, p. 383] is not translated. What is found in the TT clause simplex is only the topical Theme *Trở lại* which is in some way equivalent to the ST clause element *go*: *Trở lại lấy đi* [TT, p. 377].

4.4. Translation of Theme in Interrogative Clause Simplex

Halliday (1998, p. 47, 1998, p. 45 in relation to English) states: “The typical function of an interrogative clause is to ask a question; and from the speaker’s point of view asking a question is an indication that he wants to be told something. The fact that, in real life, people ask questions for all kinds of reasons does not call into dispute the observation that the basic meaning of a question is a request for an answer. The natural Theme of a question [in English], therefore, is ‘what I want to know’”. Halliday distinguishes two basic types of interrogative clause which can also be applicable to Vietnamese: polar interrogative v. non-polar interrogative, illustrated by the following examples:

Polar interrogative:

Ain't you scared of haints? [ST, p. 376]

Em không sợ ma hả? [TT, p. 370]

Did you swap with somebody at school? [ST, p. 92]

Con có đổi chác với ai trong trường không? [TT, p. 93]

Non-polar interrogative:

Why didn't you bring it? [ST, p. 57]

Sao mà không lấy nó theo? [TT, p. 59]

Who are your friends? [ST, p. 271]

Bạn cô là ai? [TT, p. 267]

What does who want, Alexandra? [ST, p. 350]

Ai muốn gì, Alexandre? [TT, p. 343]

4.4.1. Translation of Theme in Polar Interrogative Clause Simplex

Details of analysis of ST and TT Theme in polar interrogative clause simplexes are provided in Appendix 5. The main findings are summarised in Table 6.

Table 6

Theme in Polar Interrogative Clause Simplex

Details of Theme types	ST	TT
Number of interrogative clauses:	178	178
Number of Subject Themes:	178	172
Number of Adjunct Themes:	0	6
Number of simple Theme clauses:	0	128
Number of multiple clauses:	178	50
+ Number of int + top Themes:	174	28
+ Number of text + top Themes:	0	18
+ Number of text + int + top Themes:	4	4

Analysis in Appendix 5 and Findings in Table 6 show that due to differences in the structure of polar interrogative clause simplexes in English and Vietnamese², quite a number of translation shifts can be found in the TT data, of which four stand out. First, all 178 Themes in the ST interrogative clause simplexes are multiple Themes, while only 50 multiple Themes are found in the TT, the remaining 128 TT clause simplexes have simple Themes. Second, all 178 ST clause simplexes have Subject Themes, while 172 TT clause simplexes have Subject Themes, and 6 others have Adjunct Themes. Third, the number of interpersonal ^ topical Themes in the ST is 174, while the number of interpersonal ^ textual Themes in the TT is 28. Fourth, no textual ^ topical Theme is found in the ST, whereas 18 are found in the TT.

At a more local level, some other translation shifts can also be observed. The first translation shift concerns translation addition at 110. Here, we find *Was Tom Robinson* in *Was Tom Robinson well known to you?* [ST, p. 273] is a multiple Theme consisting of the positive polar interrogative *Was* functioning as interpersonal Theme and the Subject *Tom Robinson* functioning as topical Theme; but in the corresponding TT clause simplex *Và cô biết rõ Tom Robinson?* [TT, p. 268], we find the quite different multiple Theme *Và cô* consisting of the conjunction *Và* functioning as textual Theme and the Subject *cô* functioning as topical Theme. Two other translation shifts can be seen at 5 and 112. At 5, *Did you* in *Did you forget your lunch this morning?* [ST, p. 30] is multiple Theme consisting of the positive polar interrogative particle *Did* functioning as interpersonal Theme and the Subject *you* functioning as topical Theme, but in the corresponding TT clause simplex we find the simple Adjunct Theme *Sáng nay* in *Sáng nay em quên mang bữa trưa à?* [TT, p. 33], and *em* which corresponds to the ST topical Subject Theme *you* is placed in the Rheme portion of the TT clause simplex. Similarly, *Didn't you* in *Didn't you ever ask him to come inside the fence before?* [ST, p. 273] at 112 is a multiple Theme consisting of the negative polar interrogative particle *Didn't* functioning as interpersonal Theme and the Subject *you* functioning as topical Theme; but in the corresponding TT clause simplex *Trước đó cô chưa bao giờ yêu cầu anh ta vào bên trong hàng rào à?* [TT, p. 269], we find *Trước đó* is simple Adjunct Theme, and *cô* which corresponds to the ST topical Subject Theme *you* is placed in the Rheme portion of the TT clause.

A closer inspection, however, reveals quite number of translation equivalents. First, most vocative interpersonal Themes, such as *Tom* at 130; *Jem* at 161 and 162, *Jean Louise* at 175 and at many others, are calqued and retained as interpersonal Themes in the TT clause multiple Themes. Second, most modal Adjuncts functioning as interpersonal Theme, such as *can* at 113 and *Can't* at 145, are appropriately rendered and placed in the Rheme portion – their unmarked order in the Vietnamese polar interrogative clause simplex. Third, most topical Themes in the ST clause simplexes are translated and retained as topical Themes in the TT clause simplexes. And fourth, based on the contexts in which the dialogic portions occur in the ST, all personal pronouns and proper names in ST clause simplexes are culture-appropriately translated and retained as interpersonal Themes in the TT clause simplexes. 144 and 159 will serve the point well. At 144, the personal pronoun *you* in *Ain't you heard yet?* [ST, p. 323] is

² In English a polar interrogative clause simplex is realised by only one pattern: Finite ^ Subject ^ Predicate ^ ±Complement ^ ±Adjunct (e.g. *Did you call a doctor, Sheriff?* [ST, p. 248]). In contrast, in Vietnamese, a polar interrogative clause simplex is realized by a variety of patterns, among which four are the most common: (1) Subject ^ *có* ^ Predicate ^ ±Complement ^ ±Adjunct ^ *không* (e.g. *Ông có gọi bác sĩ không?* [TT, p. 245]); (2) Subject ^ Predicate ^ ±Complement ^ ±Adjunct ^ *không* (e.g. *Ông gọi bác sĩ không?*); (3) *có phải* ^ Subject ^ Predicate ^ ±Complement ^ ±Adjunct ^ *không* (e.g. *Có phải ông gọi bác sĩ không?*); and (4) Subject ^ Predicate ^ ±Complement ^ ±Adjunct ^ *có phải không* (e.g. *Ông gọi bác sĩ, có phải không?*).

culture-appropriately rendered as *Tụi cháu* in *Tụi cháu chưa nghe hả?* [TT, p. 315]), because *Ain't you heard yet?* was the question by Miss Rachel to Dill and Scout, and the relation between them is that of adult to children. Similarly, at 159 the personal pronoun *you* in *Ain't you scared of haints?* [ST, p. 376] is culture-appropriately translated as *Em* in *Em không sợ ma hả?* [TT, p. 370], because *Ain't you scared of haints?* is the question by Jem to Scout and the relation between them is that of elder brother and younger sister.

4.4.2. Translation of Theme in Non-polar Interrogative Clause Simplex

Non-polar interrogative clause simplexes cover a very rich but fairly complex textual domain. This is due to the fact that in daily communication, people ask their interlocutors not only to confirm or deny a proposition but also to provide any piece of missing information they want: they might want to know the missing piece about **who** a person is, **what** a thing is; **what**, **when** and **where** a person or a thing does; and **how** and **why** an action or an event happens, and so on and so forth (see Halliday, 1998, pp. 45-6; Halliday & Matthiessen, 2015, pp. 101-2; see also Hoang, 2022, p. 26).

Non-polar interrogatives in English are often referred to as 'WH-interrogatives'. They consist of interrogative pronouns such as 'who' and 'what' and interrogative adverbs such as 'when', 'where', 'why', etc. Seven types of non-polar interrogative clause simplexes are found in the ST: (i) 'who' as Subject Theme, (ii) 'who' as Complement Theme, (iii) 'what' as Subject Theme, (iv) 'what' as Complement Theme, (v) 'how' as Adjunct Theme, (vi) 'where' as Adjunct Theme, and (vii) 'why' as Adjunct Theme. The translation of Theme in these non-polar interrogative clause simplexes from 'To Kill a Mockingbird' into 'Giết con chim nhại' will be addressed in turn in the sections that follow.

4.4.2.1. Translation of 'Who' as Interrogative Subject Theme

Details of analysis of the translation of 'who' as Subject Theme in non-polar interrogative clause simplex are provided in Appendix 6. The main findings are summarised in Table 7.

Table 7

'Who' as Interrogative Subject Theme

Details of Theme types	ST	TT
Number of clauses:	15	15
Number of Subject Themes:	15	15
Number of simple Subject Themes:	14	15
Number of multiple Themes:	1	0
+ Number of text + int + top Themes:	0	0
+ Number of int + top Themes:	0	0
+ Number of text + top Themes:	1	0

As presented in Table 6, 'who' as Subject Theme in English declarative clause simplex is closely translated into Vietnamese, and mismatches between the ST and TT are reduced to the minimum. This is evidenced in the following aspects. First, of 15 Subject Themes in the ST clause simplexes, 14 are translated and retained as Subject Themes in the corresponding TT clause simplexes. Second, in almost all instances, the typical Vietnamese form employed to render the ST interrogative Subject Theme 'who' is consistently *Ai/ai*.

There are, however, two noticeable translation shifts at 2 and 4. At 2, *And who* in ***And who's runnin', Miss Priss?*** [ST, p. 36] is multiple Theme consisting of the conjunction *And* functioning as textual Theme and the interrogative pronoun *who* functioning as topic Theme; but in the corresponding TT clause simplex *Ai chạy vậy, cô Priss* [TT, p. 39], the element corresponding to *And* is not translated, making the interrogative pronoun *Ai* simple Theme. And at 4, the interrogative pronoun *Who* in ***Who did 'em, you reckon?*** [ST, p. 91] is Subject Theme; but in the TT clause simplex, *Theo anh* is added functioning as Adjunct Theme in ***Theo anh ai làm chúng?*** [TT, p. 92], placing the interrogative pronoun *ai* which corresponds to the Complement Theme *Who* in the ST clause simplex in the Rheme portion.

4.4.2.2. Translation of ‘Who’ as Interrogative Complement Theme

Details of analysis of the translation of ‘who’ as interrogative Complement Theme in non-polar interrogative clause simplex are provided in Appendix 7. The main findings are summarised in Table 8.

Table 8

‘Who’ as Interrogative Complement Theme

Details of Theme types	ST	TT
Number of clauses:	6	6
Number of ‘who’ Complement Themes:	6	0
Number of ‘who’ Subject Themes:	0	6
Number of simple Theme Themes:	6	6
Number of multiple Themes:	0	0

Findings in Table 8 show that the number of clause simplexes containing ‘who’ as interrogative Complement Theme in the ST is quite small: 6. But four points should be noted here concerning both translation equivalence and translation shift. First, the number of ‘who’ as interrogative Complement Themes in the ST is 6, while the number of interrogative Complement Themes in the TT corresponding clause simplexes is 0; conversely, the number of Subject Themes in the ST clause simplexes is 0, while the number of Subject Themes in the corresponding TT clause simplexes is 6. Second, the number of simple Themes in the ST is equal to the number of simple Themes in the TT: 6/6. Third, the typical Vietnamese form/word employed to render the ST interrogative Complement Theme ‘who’ is *ai*: 6/6. And fourth, all ST Themes are closely translated into Vietnamese, but due to the structure of the Vietnamese clause of this type they are not Themes in the TT clause simplexes: they are put in the Rheme portion, or more precisely, in the place where the missing information is required to be supplied, giving them Subject the status of Theme (see Hoang, 2022, p. 28).

4.4.2.3. Translation of ‘What’ as Interrogative Subject Theme

Details of analysis of the translation of ‘what’ as interrogative Subject Theme in non-polar interrogative clause simplex are provided in Appendix 8. The main findings are provided in Table 9.

Table 9*'What' as Interrogative Subject Theme*

Details of Theme types	ST	TT
Number of Subject Theme clauses:	17	17
Number of simple Theme clauses:	11	8
Number of multiple Themes:	6	9
+ Number of text + int + top Themes:	0	0
+ Number of int + top Themes:	2	5
+ Number of text + top Themes:	4	4
Number of translation shifts:		5

Analysis in Appendix 8 shows that three common forms employed to render the ST Subject Theme 'what' into Vietnamese are *chuyện gì* (11/17), *cái gì* (3/17) and *gì* (2/17), and in their contexts of use they can be the exact matches of 'what'. Findings in Table 9 indicate that a high degree of translation equivalence has been achieved: of 17 ST clause simplexes which have 'what' as Subject Theme, 15 are translated and retained as Subject Themes in the TT clause simplexes.

There are, however, some translation shifts observed. First, of 17 ST clause simplexes, 11 have simple Themes, while of 17 corresponding TT clause simplexes, 8 have simple Themes. Second, the number of ST multiple Themes is 6, of which the number of interpersonal ^ topical Themes is 2, and that of textual ^ topical Themes is 4; whereas the number of TT multiple Themes is 9, of which the number of interpersonal ^ topical Themes is 5, and that of textual ^ topical Themes is 4. Third, among the 5 translation shifts noted in Table 8, three (at 1, 2, and 12) are related to translation addition, and two (at 16 and 17) have to do with alteration of Subject Theme. At 1, 2 and 12, we find *What* in *What happened?* [ST, p. 82], *What* in *What's in those packages?* [ST, p. 119], and *What* in *What has happened?* [ST, p. 325] are simple Themes; but in the corresponding TT clause simplexes, the particle *có* functioning as interpersonal Theme is added to the three topical Subject Themes: *chuyện gì* at 1, *chuyện gì* at 2, and *cái gì* at 12, making the Themes in these clause simplexes multiple: *Có chuyện gì vậy?* [TT, p. 83], *Có cái gì trong mấy cái túi đó vậy?* [TT, p. 119], and *Có chuyện gì à?* [TT, p. 318]. At 16, the interrogative pronoun *What* in *What's wrong with that?* [ST, p. 365] is Subject Theme; but in the corresponding TT clause simplex *Chuyện đó có gì sai đâu?* [TT, p. 358], we find *Chuyện đó* which is in some way corresponds to *that* in the ST clause simplex functions as Theme; and the interrogative pronoun *gì* which corresponds to the ST Subject Theme *What* is put in the Rheme portion or, more precisely, in the place where the missing information is required to be supplied, giving the Complement *Chuyện đó* the status of Theme (see Hoang, 2022, p. 28). And 17 is perhaps a kind of semantic translation where the interrogative pronoun *What* in *What's eatin' you?* [ST, p. 365], which can be literally rendered into Vietnamese as *Cái gì đang ăn mày thế?*, is replaced by the noun *Em* in *Em đang ưu tư gì vậy?* [TT, p. 358], making it Theme of the TT clause simplex.

4.4.2.4. Translation of 'What' as Interrogative Complement Theme

Details of analysis of the translation of 'what' as interrogative Complement Theme in non-polar interrogative clause simplex are provided in Appendix 9. The main findings are provided in Table 10.

Table 10*'What' as Interrogative Complement Theme*

Details of Theme types	ST	TT
Number of clauses:	70	70
Number 'what' interrogative Complement Themes:	70	0
Number of Subject Themes:	0	62
Number of non-Subject/non-Complement Themes:	70	8
Number of simple Themes:	60	56
Number of multiple Themes:	10	14
+ Number of text ^ int ^ top Themes:	0	0
+ Number of int ^ top Themes:	5	7
+ Number of text ^ top Themes:	5	7

Findings in Table 10 allow at least three observations. First, all 70 ST clause simplexes have 'what' Complement Themes, while of 70 corresponding TT clause simplexes, 62 have Subject Themes, and 8 have non-Subject Themes (including 6 Adjunct Themes and 2 Predicator Themes). Second, the most Vietnamese common form employed to render the ST interrogative Complement Theme 'what' is *gì* (52/70), and it can be the exact match of 'what'. And third, almost all ST 'what' Complement Themes are closely translated into Vietnamese, but due to thematisation preference of this clause type in Vietnamese, *gì* is not Theme in the TT clause simplexes: it is put in the Rheme portion – in the place where the interrogative Complement is normally located, giving the Subject the status of Theme (see Hoang, 2022, p. 28).

Apart from the points mentioned above, three other translation shifts are observed in the data. The first translation shift concerns translation addition at 12, 27, and 63 where we find *What* in *What's the matter with you?* [ST, p. 91], *What* in *What's the matter with you, boy, ...?* [ST, p. 148], and *What* in *What's the matter?* [ST, p. 349] are simple Themes; but in the three corresponding TT clause simplexes the particle *Có* functioning as interpersonal Theme is added, making *Có chuyện gì* in *Có chuyện gì với mày vậy?* [TT, p. 92], *Có chuyện gì* in *Có chuyện gì mà cháu không nói được vậy?* [TT, p. 145], and *Có chuyện gì* in *Có chuyện gì vậy?* [TT, p. 342] multiple Themes. The second translation shift has to do with translation omission at 38. Here, *Well what* in *Well what do you all do?* [ST, p. 189] is a multiple Theme consisting of the continuative textual Theme *Well* and the topical Theme *what*; but in the corresponding TT clause simplex *Bọn cháu làm gì?* [ST, p. 187], only the Subject Theme *Bọn cháu* is present. The third translation shift of notice concerns what can be referred to as Theme alteration at 61. Here, the interrogative pronoun *What* in *What did you all study this afternoon?* [ST, p. 342] is Complement Theme; but in the corresponding TT clause simplex *Chiều nay nghiên cứu của các bà là gì?* [TT, p. 335], *Chiều nay* is temporal Adjunct Theme, placing the interrogative pronoun *gì* which corresponds to the Complement Theme *What* in the ST clause simplex in the Rheme portion.

4.4.2.5. Translation of 'How' as Interrogative Adjunct Theme

Details of analysis of the translation of 'how' as Adjunct Theme in non-polar interrogative clause simplex are provided in Appendix 10. The main findings are represented in Table 11.

Table 11*'How' as Interrogative Adjunct Theme*

Details of Theme types	ST	TT
Number of clauses:	38	38
Number of clauses with 'how' Themes:	38	24
Number of 'non-how' Themes:	0	14
Number of simple Themes:	34	35
Number of multiple clauses:	4	3
+ Number of text + int + top clauses:	0	0
+ Number of int + top Themes:	1	1
+ Number of text + top Themes:	3	2

Findings in Table 11 reveal three noticeable points. First, all 38 ST clause simplexes have 'how' interrogative Adjunct Themes, while of 38 corresponding TT clause simplexes, only 24 have interrogative Adjunct Themes, and 14 others contain non-how Themes (including 13 Subject Themes and 1 clause Theme). Second, the ST interrogative Adjunct Theme 'how' is diversely translated into Vietnamese: *how* = *sao* (15/38), *how* = *làm sao* (13/38), *how* = *như thế nào* (4/38), and *how* = *làm thế nào/bằng cách nào* (3/38), but in the relevant contexts of the ST clause simplexes, most of them can be said to be the appropriate matches of 'how'. And third, the place of the TT expressions corresponding to 'how' is not fixed: 25/35 are in clause-initial position and 10/35 are in clause-final position.

A closer analysis reveals that 'how' as interrogative Adjunct Theme in English presents one of the most difficult problems in Theme translation from English into Vietnamese. This may be partly due to the choice preference of the translators, but mostly to the semantic complexity of 'how'. Depending on its context of use, 'how' can function as an Adjunct of manner, of means, of reason, or of cause/reason. Further, what seems to compound the problem of translation is that no matter what meaning 'how' refers to in an English clause simplex, it always occupies clause-initial position and functions as Theme. In Vietnamese, the picture seems to be quite different: the elements corresponding to 'how' can float around in the clause. When, for example, 'how' is interpreted as interrogative Adjunct of manner, the Vietnamese translation correspondence can be put either in clause-initial position (and thus functioning as Adjunct Theme) as *Làm thế nào* in *Làm thế nào để dừng đi xuyên qua một thứ như vậy?* [TT, p. 58], or in clause-final position (and thus functioning as part of Rheme) as *như thế nào* in *Ông nghĩ tôi ký các hóa đơn cứu trợ của tôi như thế nào?* [TT, p. 258]. Similarly, when 'how' is interpreted as interrogative Adjunct of means, the Vietnamese translation correspondence can be put either in clause-initial position (and thus functioning as Theme) as *Bằng cách nào* in *Bằng cách nào mà đến đây?* or in clause-final position (and thus functioning as part of Rheme) as *bằng cách nào* in *Mày đến đây bằng cách nào?* [TT, p. 205].

The semantic complexity of 'how' in English explains why there are a number of translation shifts found in the TT data. But for reasons of space, they are not pursued further here.

4.4.2.6. Translation of 'Where' as Interrogative Adjunct Theme

Details of analysis of the translation of 'how' as Adjunct Theme in non-polar interrogative clause simplex are provided in Appendix 11. The main findings are summarised

in Table 12.

Table 12

'Where' as Interrogative Adjunct Theme

Details of Theme types	ST	TT
Number of clauses:	22	22
Number of 'where' Themes:	22	1
Number of Subject Themes:	0	20
Number of simple Themes:	20	21
Number of multiple Themes:	2	1
+ Number of text + int + top clauses:	0	0
+ Number of int + top Themes:	0	0
+ Number of text + top Themes:	2	1
Number of Adjunct Theme other than 'how':	0	1

Analysis of the data in Appendix 11 shows that the most common forms employed to render the English interrogative Adjunct Theme 'where' into Vietnamese are *đâu* (13/22) and *ở đâu* (8/22), and they can be seen as the exact matches of 'where'. Findings in Table 12 indicate that due to the difference in thematisation preference between English and Vietnamese in this type of non-polar interrogative clause simplex, striking number of translation shifts are found in the data, of which two are salient. First, all 22 ST clause simplexes have 'where' as interrogative Adjunct Theme, while almost all TT clause simplexes (20/22) have Subject Theme. And second, except one instance at 22 where *Ở đâu* in *Ở đâu ông có nó vậy?* [TT, p. 400] equivalent to *Where* in *Where'd you get it?* [ST, p. 407] is Theme, all the remaining forms *đâu* and *ở đâu* corresponding to the ST interrogative Adjunct Theme 'where' are placed in the Rheme portion or, more precisely, in the place where the missing Adjunct is normally located, giving the Subject the status of Theme.

Two other minor translation shifts are observed at 13 and 17. 13 is the case of translation omission where *And where* in *And where are you going, Stephanie?* [ST, p. 237] is a multiple Theme consisting of the interpersonal Theme *And* and the topical Theme *where*; but in the corresponding TT clause simplex *Chị tính đi đâu, Stephanie?* [TT, p. 234], the textual Theme element equivalent to *And* is omitted, making *Chị* simple Subject Theme. And 17 is the case of alteration of Theme type. Here, *Where* in *Where are your britches today?* [ST, p. 341] is location interrogative Adjunct Theme; but in the corresponding TT clause simplex *Bữa nay quần cháu đâu?* [TT, p. 334], *Bữa nay* which corresponds to *today* functioning as part of Rheme in the ST clause simplex is temporal Adjunct Theme.

4.4.2.7. Translation of 'Why' as Interrogative Adjunct Theme

Details of analysis of the translation of 'why' as Adjunct Theme in non-polar interrogative clause simplexes are provided in Appendix 12. The main findings are summarised in Table 13.

Table 13*'Why' as Interrogative Adjunct Theme*

Details of Theme types	ST	TT
Number of clauses:	62	62
Number of 'why' Themes:	62	60
Number of Subject Themes:	0	0
Number of simple Theme clauses:	48	47
Number of multiple clauses:	14	15
+ Number of text + int + top Themes:	0	0
+ Number of int + top Themes:	1	1
+ Number of text + top Themes:	13	12
Number of Adjunct Theme other than 'why':	0	2

Analysis in Appendix 12 shows that the English interrogative Adjunct Theme 'why' is diversely translated into Vietnamese. The most common translation forms found in the TT data are *sao* (37/62) and *tại sao* (25/62), and in this context of translation they can be the exact matches of 'why'. Findings in Table 13 indicate that due to the similarity in thematisation between English and Vietnamese in this type of non-polar interrogative clause simplex, there is a high degree of equivalence between the ST and TT. Of 62 ST clause simplexes with 'why' as interrogative Adjunct Theme, 60 are translated and retained as interrogative Adjunct Theme in the TT. Findings in Table 13 also reveal some slight differences with regard to the number of simple and multiple Themes in the ST and TT: 48 ST simple Themes v. 47 TT simple Themes, and 13 ST textual Themes ^ topical Themes v. 12 TT textual Themes ^ topical Themes.

Apart from the equivalent points discussed above, there remain a number of translation shifts found in the TT data: three (at 2, 4 and 60) concern translation addition and one (at 22) is related to translation omission. At 2, the interrogative Adjunct *Why* in ***Why do you think Miss Rachel locks up so tight at night?*** [ST, p. 21] is simple Theme; but in the corresponding TT ***Mày nghĩ vì sao cô Rachel khoá cửa kỹ thế ban đêm?*** [TT, p. 23], *Mày nghĩ* is a clause Theme, and the interrogative Adjunct *vì sao* which corresponds to the ST Adjunct Theme *Why* is put in the Rheme portion. At 4, ***Miss Caroline, why don't you read us a story?*** [ST, p. 43] is a clause simplex in which *Miss Caroline, why* is multiple Theme consisting of the interpersonal Theme *Miss Caroline* and the topical Theme *why*; but in the TT, we find the clause complex ***Cô Caroline, cô đừng buồn nữa, sao cô không đọc cho tui em nghe một truyện nào đó?*** [TT, p. 45], in which the first clause simplex has the multiple Theme *Cô Caroline, cô* consisting of the interpersonal Theme *Cô Caroline* equivalent to the ST interpersonal Theme *Miss Caroline* and the topical Theme *cô* (including the rest of the Rheme portion of this clause simplex – *đừng buồn nữa*) which is a translation addition, and the second clause has the simple Theme *sao* equivalent to the ST clause Theme *Why*. And at 60, *Why* in ***Why don't they like the Jews, you reckon, Miss Gates?*** [ST, p. 363] is simple Theme; but in the corresponding TT ***Theo cô tại sao họ không thích người Do Thái?*** [TT, p. 356], we find *Theo cô* functioning as Adjunct Theme, and the interrogative Adjunct *vì sao* which corresponds to the ST Adjunct Theme *Why* is put in the Rheme portion. And in regard to the translation omission at 22, *And why* in ***And why do I not understand children, Miss Jean Louise?*** [ST, p. 130] is multiple Theme consisting of the textual Theme *And* and the topical Theme *why*; but in the corresponding TT clause simplex *And* is not translated, making *Tại sao* in ***Tại sao chú không hiểu trẻ con, cô Jean Louise?***

[TT, p. 128] a simple Theme.

5. Conclusion

In this article, I have made a modest attempt to explore in some detail how Themes in English are translated into Vietnamese. The theoretical framework employed in this study is Systemic Functional Linguistics. The data for this study are from the famous American novel 'To Kill a Mockingbird' and the Vietnamese version of translation 'Giết con chim nhại'. The unit of analysis is independent major clause simplexes in the source text and their corresponding major independent clause simplexes in the target text; and the aspects of analysis and comparison are simple and multiple Themes in declarative, imperative and interrogative clause simplexes. The study has brought to light a number of findings, but the following are salient:

- Most Subject and Adjunct Themes in the ST declarative clause simplexes are closely translated and retained as Subject and Adjunct Themes in the corresponding TT clause simplexes: 201/195 and 145/138 respectively.
- All 3 Complement Themes in the ST declarative clause simplexes are translated but are not retained as Complement Themes in the corresponding TT declarative clause simplexes.
- All Predicator Themes in the ST clause simplexes are translated and retained as Predicator Themes in the corresponding TT clause simplexes: 123/123.
- Most Subject Themes in the ST polar interrogative clause simplexes are closely rendered and retained as Subject Themes in the corresponding TT polar interrogative clause simplexes: 178/172.
- All 'whos' and 'whats' as interrogative Subject Themes in the ST clause simplexes are appropriately rendered and retained as interrogative Subject Themes in the corresponding TT clause simplexes: 15/15 and 17/17 respectively.
- All 6 'whos' as interrogative Complement Theme in the ST clause simplexes are translated, but are not retained as interrogative Complement Theme in the corresponding TT clause simplexes.
- All 70 ST clause simplexes contain 'what' as interrogative Complement Theme, whereas 62 corresponding TT clause simplexes contain Subject Theme, and 8 others contain non-Subject/non-Complement Theme.
- Over 2/3 of 'hows' as interrogative Adjunct Theme in ST clause simplexes are translated and retained as interrogative Adjunct Themes in the corresponding TT clause simplexes: 38/24.
- All 22 'wheres' as interrogative Adjunct Theme in the ST clause simplexes are translated, but only 1 is retained as interrogative Adjunct Theme in the TT; 20 other TT clause simplexes contain Subject Themes, and one contains temporal Adjunct Theme.
- Most 'whys' as interrogative Adjunct Theme in ST clause simplexes are closely translated and retained as interrogative Adjunct Theme in the corresponding TT clause simplexes: 62/60.

Apart from the main findings summarised above, there are a number of other translation shifts concerning translation addition, translation omission, alteration of Theme type, reordering of textual and interpersonal elements in multiple Themes. These translation shifts are partly due to the differences in clause structures of English and Vietnamese (see Halliday, 1985, 1998; Halliday and Matthiessen, 2015 and elsewhere in relation to English; and Hoang, 2022, 2023 in relation to Vietnamese), partly due to the semantic complexity (ambiguity) of

some ST question words, and partly due to the translators' negligence of the role of Theme and its delicate choices in constructing textual meaning in the clause and developing meaning in the texts.

In exploring how Theme and its delicate choices in 'To Kill a Mockingbird' are translated into 'Giết con chim nhại', I have placed the problem within the framework of Systemic Functional Linguistics, particularly the SF theory of Theme. It is clear from my study that Systemic Functional Linguistics is highly relevant to translation theory and translation practice: It can stand to benefit the translator from analysis of the source text, to discussion of translation problems, to explanation for establishment of points of translation equivalence between the choices in the target text and those in the source text, and to synthesis of the target text. It may be argued that other models of language can also be relevant to translation, because 'all roads lead to Rome'. But of all the roads that lead to Rome, the better possibility would be the Systemic Functional Linguistics road. However, for translators, particularly translation students, to travel along this road smoothly and confidently, it is highly recommended that they explore the road (i.e. the SFL theory) thoroughly before starting their 'translation journey' – a daunting journey whose destination seems to be always far ahead (see Hoang, 2021, pp. 89-90).

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Appendices

Key:

- ST** = source text
TT = target text
top = topical Theme
int = interpersonal Theme
txt = textual Theme
Italics and boldface type: indicate the Theme portion of the ST and TT clause

Appendix 1 Subject Theme in declarative clause simplex

ST	TT
1. He couldn't have cared less [8]	1. Anh hoàn toàn không quan tâm [9]
2. We were far too old to settle an argument with ... [8]	2. Chúng tôi đã quá lớn không thể dàn xếp ... [10]
3. Our father said we were both right [8]	3. Bố tôi nói cả hai đứa tôi đều đúng [10]
4. So (txt) Simon (top), [...], bought three slaves [9]	4. Vì thế (txt) Simon (top), [...] đã mua ba nô lệ [10]
5. The place was self-sufficient [9]	5. Trang trại này hoàn toàn tự túc [11]
6. Atticus's office in the courthouse contained little ... [10]	6. Văn phòng của bố Articus tại toà án chẳng có ... [11]
7. John Hale Finch was ten years younger than ... [10]	7. John Hale Finch nhỏ hơn bố mười tuổi [12]
8. Maycomb was an old town [11]	8. Maycomb là một thị trấn cổ [12]
9. A day was twenty-four hours long but seemed longer [11]	9. Một ngày dài hai mươi bốn giờ nhưng có vẻ như ... [13]
10. But (txt) it (top) was a time of vague optimism ... [11]	10. Nhưng (txt) đó (top) là thời kì lạc quan mơ hồ ... [14]
11. Our mother died when I was two [12]	11. Mẹ chúng tôi mất khi tôi lên hai [14]
12. so (txt) I (top) never felt her absence [12]	12. vì vậy (txt) tôi (top) không hề cảm thấy thiếu ... [14]
13. Dill was from Meridian, Mississippi [13]	13. Dill quê ở Meridian [15]
14. The shutters and doors of the Radley house [16]	14. Cửa sổ và cửa chính nhà Radley đóng kín vào ... [19]
15. So (txt) Jem (top) received most of his ... [18]	15. Vì vậy (txt) Jem (top) nhận hầu hết thông tin từ ... [20]
16. My memory came alive to see Mrs. Radley ... [19]	16. Kí ức của tôi trở nên sống động khi thấy bà ... [21]
17. Then (txt) he (top) jumped [22]	17. Rồi (txt) anh (top) nhảy [25]
18. Dill left us early in September [25]	18. Dill chia tay chúng tôi đầu tháng chín [27]
19. but (txt) Atticus (top) had said Jem would [25]	19. Nhưng (txt) bố Articus (top) nói Jem sẽ thích [27]
20. The cats had long conversations with one another [26]	20. Lũ mèo có những cuộc chuyện trò dài với nhau [29]
21. Then (txt) she (top) went to the blackboard [27]	21. Sau đó (txt) cô (top) lên bảng [29]
22. Your father does not know how to teach [28]	22. Ba em không biết cách dạy [30]
23. but (txt) I (top) had stared at them all the ... [28]	23. nhưng (txt) tôi (top) đã chăm chú nhìn ... [30]

24. <i>Everybody who goes home to lunch</i> hold up your ... [29]	24. <i>Em nào về nhà ăn trưa</i> giờ tay lên [32]
25. <i>The town children</i> did so [30]	25. <i>Những đứa trẻ thị trấn</i> giờ tay lên [32]
26. <i>Walter's face</i> brightened [35]	26. <i>Mặt Walter</i> bừng sáng [35]
27. <i>Indeed</i> (int), <i>Jem</i> (top) grew boastful [36]	27. <i>Thực sự là</i> (int) <i>Jem</i> (top) đả ra hênh hoang [39]
28. <i>Then</i> (txt) <i>he</i> (top) ducked his head. [37]	28. <i>Sau đó</i> (txt) <i>nó</i> (top) cúi đầu xuống [40]
29. <i>But</i> (txt) <i>he</i> '(top) s gone and drowned his dinner ... [37]	29. <i>Nhưng</i> (txt) <i>nó</i> (top) tằm bữa ăn của nó [40]
30. <i>Jem and Walter</i> returned to school ahead of me [38]	30. <i>Jem và Walter</i> trở lại trường trước tôi [42]
31. <i>No one</i> had noticed him [41]	31. <i>Chắc chắn</i> (int) <i>không ai</i> (top) để ý đến nó [43]
32. <i>But</i> (txt) <i>Miss Caroline</i> (top) seemed willing ... [41]	32. <i>Nhưng</i> (txt) <i>cô Caroline</i> (top) có vẻ sẵn sàng ... [44]
33. <i>Perhaps</i> (int) <i>Calpurnia</i> (top) sensed that my day ... [43]	33. <i>Có lẽ</i> (int) <i>Calpurnia</i> (top) cảm thấy rằng ... [46]
34. <i>None of them</i> had done an [...] in his recollection [46]	34. <i>Theo như trí nhớ của ông</i> , không một ai ... [48]
35. <i>No</i> (txt), <i>an agreement</i> (top) reached by mutual [47]	35. <i>Không</i> (txt), <i>một thoả thuận</i> (top) đạt được [50]
36. <i>Furthermore</i> (txt), <i>I</i> (top) couldn't help noticing ... [49]	36. <i>Hơn nữa</i> (txt), <i>tôi</i> (top) không thể không nhận ... [52]
37. <i>Two live oaks</i> stood at the edge of the Radley lot [50]	37. <i>Hai cây sồi</i> tươi tốt đứng ngay rìa khu đất ... [53]
38. <i>Summer</i> was on the way [51]	38. <i>Mùa hè</i> sắp đến [54]
39. <i>Grown folks</i> don't have hidin' places [52]	39. <i>Người lớn</i> không làm chỗ giấu đó. [55]
40. <i>Dill's father</i> was taller than ours [54]	40. <i>Cha Dill</i> cao hơn bố tôi [57]
41. <i>The tire</i> bumped on gravel [56]	41. <i>Lốp xe</i> này tung lên sỏi [59]
42. <i>but</i> (txt) <i>I</i> (top) couldn't prove it [58]	42. <i>nhưng</i> (txt) <i>tôi</i> (top) không thể chứng minh [61]
43. <i>The three of us</i> were the boys who got ... [59]	43. <i>Bộ ba chúng tôi</i> là những đứa trẻ vướng vào ... [62]
44. <i>The sun</i> said twelve noon. [60]	44. <i>Mặt trời</i> cho biết đã mười hai giờ [63]
45. <i>The first reason</i> happened the day I rolled into [61]	45. <i>Lí do thứ nhất</i> xảy ra vào ngày tôi lăn vào ... [64]
46. <i>My nagging</i> got the better of Jem eventually [63]	46. <i>Trò càm ràm của tôi</i> cuối cùng đã đánh bại Jem [65]
47. <i>but</i> (txt) <i>Jem and Dill</i> (top) drove me closer ... [64]	47. <i>nhưng</i> (txt) <i>lối cư xử của Dill và Jem</i> (top) đã ... [66]
48. <i>Our promptness</i> was always rewarded. [65]	48. <i>Sự mau mắn của bọn tôi</i> luôn được ... [67]
49. <i>Dr. Buford's profession</i> was medicine [66]	49. <i>Nghề của bác sĩ Buford</i> là nghề y [68]
50. <i>Dill and Jem</i> emerged from a brief huddle [70]	50. <i>Dill và Jem</i> bàn bạc riêng một lát [71]
51. <i>The three of us</i> walked cautiously toward the ... [72]	51. <i>Ba đứa chúng tôi</i> thận trọng đi về phía ... [74]
52. <i>What Mr. Radley did</i> was his own business [74]	52. <i>Những gì ông Radley làm</i> là việc riêng ... [76]
53. <i>A gigantic moon</i> was rising behind Miss [76]	53. <i>Mặt trăng khổng lồ</i> nhô lên phía sau [...] của ... [78]
54. <i>The sill</i> was several inches taller than Jem. [79]	54. <i>Bệ cửa</i> cao hơn Jem đến mấy tấc [81]
55. <i>The step</i> was silent. [80]	55. <i>Bậc cấp</i> im lặng [82]
56. <i>We</i> ran across the schoolyard [81]	56. <i>Chúng tôi</i> chạy ngang qua sân trường [83]
57. <i>Dill's hand</i> sought the back of his head. [83]	57. <i>Dill</i> sờ gáy, rồi đưa tay ngang trán. [84]
58. <i>the chinaberry trees</i> were malignant [84]	58. <i>những cây xoan</i> hiểm ác [86]
59. <i>Then</i> (txt) <i>I</i> (top) 'm goin' with you- [86]	59. <i>Vậy</i> (txt) <i>em</i> (top) sẽ đi với anh- [87]
60. <i>The second grade</i> was as bad as the first [88]	60. <i>Lớp hai</i> cũng tồi tệ như lớp một [89]
61. <i>however</i> (txt), <i>the usual crew</i> (top) had flunked ... [88]	61. <i>tuy nhiên</i> (txt), <i>cái nhóm như thường lệ</i> (top) ... [89]
62. <i>Jem's question</i> was an appeal. [89]	62. <i>Câu hỏi của Jem</i> là một lời khẩn dụ. [90]
63. <i>summer</i> drifts into autumn, [90]	63. <i>mùa hè</i> lan sang mùa thu [91]
64. <i>and</i> (txt) <i>autumn</i> (top) is sometimes never ... [90]	64. <i>và</i> (txt) <i>mùa thu</i> (top) đôi khi không có mùa ... [91]
65. <i>his face</i> was dirty in the right places [96]	65. <i>mặt anh</i> bẩn ở những chỗ có thể có nước mắt [96]
66. <i>The telephone</i> rang [98]	66. <i>Điện thoại</i> reo [98]
67. <i>Miss Maudie's old sunhat</i> glistened with [100]	67. <i>Chiếc mũ cũ kĩ của cô Maudie</i> lấp lánh ... [100]
68. <i>Jem's ears</i> reddened from Atticus's compliment [102]	68. <i>Tại Jem</i> đỏ lựng trước lời khen của bố Articus [102]
69. <i>The snow</i> stopped in the afternoon [103]	69. <i>Đến chiều</i> tuyết ngừng rơi [103]
70. <i>Miss Maudie</i> looked around [111]	70. <i>Cô Maudie</i> nhìn quanh [110]
71. <i>and</i> (txt) <i>the shadow of her old grin</i> crossed [111]	71. <i>và</i> (txt) <i>bóng nụ cười quen thuộc</i> (top) phớt ... [110]
72. <i>Cecil Jacobs</i> made me forget. [114]	72. <i>Cecil Jacobs</i> đã làm tôi quên [113]
73. <i>But</i> (txt) <i>I</i> (top) was worrying another bone. [115]	73. <i>Nhưng</i> (txt) <i>tôi</i> (top) ưu tư về một cục ... [114]
74. <i>Then</i> (txt) <i>Christmas</i> (top) came and [117]	74. <i>Rồi</i> (txt) <i>Giáng sinh</i> (top) đến và tai họa ... [116]
75. <i>Rose Aylmer</i> was Uncle Jack's cat. [119]	75. <i>Rose Aylmer</i> là con mèo của chú Jack [119]
76. <i>but</i> (txt) <i>the daughters' rooms</i> (top) could be ... [122]	76. <i>nhưng</i> (txt) <i>phòng của đám con gái</i> (top) ... [121]
77. <i>Jem and Francis</i> sat with the adults at the ... [124]	77. <i>Jem và Francis</i> ngồi với người lớn tại bàn ... [123]
78. <i>Of course</i> (int) <i>I</i> (top) will, baby. [131]	78. <i>Đĩ nhiên</i> (int) <i>chú</i> (top) sẽ băng cho, bé con [130]
79. <i>Bad language</i> is a stage all children go through [133]	79. <i>Ngôn ngữ bậy bạ</i> là một chặng đường ... [131-2]
80. <i>Mockingbirds</i> don't do one thing but [137]	80. <i>Những con chim nhại</i> chẳng làm gì khác ... [135]
81. <i>Tim Johnson</i> was the property of Mr. Harry ... [140]	81. <i>Tim Johnson</i> là tài sản của ông Harry Johnson [138]
82. <i>Miss Maudie</i> appeared and stood beside her. [144]	82. <i>Cô Maudie</i> xuất hiện, đứng cạnh cô. [142]
83. <i>The rifle</i> cracked. [146]	83. <i>Khẩu súng</i> nổ vang [144]
84. <i>Doors</i> opened one by one [147]	84. <i>Từng cánh cửa</i> mở ra [144]
85. <i>Miss Maudie</i> grinned wickedly. [149]	85. <i>Cô Maudie</i> cười ranh mãnh [145]
86. <i>Maybe</i> (int) <i>I</i> (top) can tell you, [149]	86. <i>Có lẽ</i> (int) <i>cô</i> (top) có thể cho cháu biết [146]

87. <i>Naw</i> (txt), <i>Scout</i> (int), <i>it</i> (top) 's something you [150]	87. <i>Không đâu</i> (txt), <i>Scout</i> (int), <i>đó</i> (top) là [147]
88. <i>A lovelier lady than our mother</i> never lived [152]	88. <i>Một quý bà dễ thương hơn người mẹ quá cố</i> ... [149]
89. <i>The O.K. Cafe</i> was a dim organization.... [154]	89. <i>Quán cà phê OK</i> là một cơ sở âm u [151]
90. <i>and</i> (txt) <i>I</i> (top) made a secret reconnaissance [159]	90. <i>và</i> (txt) <i>tôi</i> (top) bí mật dò xét Jem [156]
91. <i>but</i> (txt) <i>he</i> (top) had a queer look on his face. [159]	91. <i>nhưng</i> (txt) <i>mặt anh</i> (top) có nét kì cục [156]
92. <i>Perhaps</i> (int) <i>she</i> (top) had given him a dose [159]	92. <i>Có lẽ</i> (int) <i>bà</i> (top) đã cho anh một liều thuốc xổ [159]
93. <i>An oppressive odor</i> met us when ... [160]	93. <i>Một mùi ngọt ngọt</i> phả vào chúng tôi khi ... [157]
94. <i>Atticus's face</i> was grave. [164]	94. <i>Mặt bố Articus</i> nghiêm lại [160]
95. <i>Jem's eyes</i> nearly popped out of his head. [169]	95. <i>Jem</i> trợn tròn mắt [165]
96. <i>This change in Jem</i> had come about [171]	96. <i>Sự thay đổi này ở Jem</i> xảy ra [169]
97. <i>The beginning of that summer</i> boded well [172]	97. <i>Bước khởi đầu của mùa hè đó</i> là điềm tốt lành [170]
98. <i>But</i> (txt) <i>summer</i> (top) came and Dill was not ... [172]	98. <i>Nhưng</i> (txt) <i>mùa hè</i> (top) tới mà Dill không đến [170]
99. <i>The churchyard</i> was brick-hard clay [175]	99. <i>Sàn nhà thờ bằng đất sét</i> cứng như gạch nung [174]
100. <i>A murmur</i> ran through the crowd. [176]	100. <i>Tiếng xì xầm</i> lan khắp đám đông [175]
101. <i>the last note</i> lingered [180]	101. <i>nốt cuối cùng</i> ngân dài [178]
102. <i>The door</i> was opened [182]	102. <i>Cửa</i> mở ra [180]
103. <i>No</i> (txt), <i>I</i> (top) made him get a page [185]	103. <i>Không</i> (txt), <i>tôi</i> (top) bắt nó học mỗi ngày ... [183]
104. <i>Calpurnia</i> tilted her hat [186]	104. <i>Calpurnia</i> nghiêng mũ [184]
105. <i>Probably</i> (int) <i>he</i> (top) forgot. [188]	105. <i>Có lẽ</i> (int) <i>ông ấy</i> (top) quên [186]
106. <i>Well</i> (txt), <i>your father and I</i> (top) decided [188]	106. <i>À</i> (txt), <i>bố cháu với ta</i> (top) đã quyết định [186]
107. <i>Today</i> was Sunday [189]	107. <i>Hôm nay</i> là Chủ nhật [187]
108. <i>Things</i> were more or less the same [193]	108. <i>Mọi chuyện</i> ít nhiều vẫn y như vậy [192]
109. <i>No</i> (txt), <i>I</i> (top) just want to explain to you that [196]	109. <i>Không</i> (txt), <i>bố</i> (top) chỉ muốn giải thích [195]
110. <i>My father</i> never thought these thoughts. [197]	110. <i>Bố tôi</i> không bao giờ có những ý nghĩ này [196]
111. <i>His eyebrows</i> were raised [198]	111. <i>Lông mày bố</i> nhướng lên [197]
112. <i>His circulation</i> restored [206]	112. Sau khi máu huyết lưu thông đều đặn lại [204]
113. <i>Dill's eyes</i> flickered at Jem [207]	113. <i>Đôi mắt Dill</i> nhìn Jem nhấp nháy [206]
114. <i>Dill's voice</i> went on steadily in the darkness [211]	114. <i>Giọng của Dill</i> tiếp tục đều đều trong bóng tối [210]
116. <i>Beautiful things</i> floated around in his [212]	116. <i>Những điều tốt đẹp</i> đang trôi nổi trong cái ... [210]
116. <i>Maybe</i> (int) <i>he</i> (top) doesn't have anywhere.... [213]	116. <i>Có lẽ</i> (int) <i>ông ta</i> (top) không có chỗ nào ... [211]
117. <i>Aunt Alexandra</i> was in her chair in the corner [214]	117. <i>Bác Alexandra</i> ngồi trên ghế trong một góc [121]
118. <i>Link</i> (int), <i>that boy</i> (top) might go to the chair [216]	118. <i>Link</i> (int), <i>chàng trai đó</i> (top) có thể lên ... [214]
119. <i>Laughter</i> broke them up. [216]	119. <i>Họ</i> bật cười ồ [214]
120. <i>The Levy family</i> met all criteria for being ... [218]	120. <i>Dòng họ Levy</i> đã hội đủ mọi tiêu chuẩn ... [215]
121. <i>Shooting on Sundays</i> was prohibited [219]	121. <i>Săn bắn vào ngày Chủ nhật</i> bị cấm [217]
122. <i>Our father</i> had a few peculiarities [220]	122. <i>Bố chúng tôi</i> có vài thói quen lập dị [218]
123. <i>The south side of the square</i> was deserted. [221]	123. <i>Cạnh nam của quảng trường</i> vắng hoe [219]
124. <i>His office</i> was reached by a long hallway. [222]	124. <i>Muốn đến văn phòng của ông</i> [...] hành ... [219]
125. <i>but</i> (txt) <i>his face</i> killed my joy. [225]	125. <i>nhưng</i> (txt) <i>khuôn mặt của ông</i> (top) giết ... [222]
126. <i>My friendly overture</i> had fallen flat. [227]	126. <i>Khúc dạo đầu thân thiện của tôi</i> đã thất bại [224]
127. <i>Maybe</i> (int) <i>he</i> told you about me [227]	127. <i>Có lẽ</i> (int) <i>bạn ấy</i> (top) có nói với ông về cháu [225]
128. <i>Their attention</i> amounted to fascination. [228]	128. <i>Sự chú ý của họ</i> đã lên tới mức ngây cả người [225]
129. <i>Everybody's appetite</i> was delicate this morning [231]	129. <i>Sáng nay</i> mọi người ăn không thấy ngon [228]
130. <i>But</i> (txt) <i>she</i> was frowning at Atticus. [232]	130. <i>Nhưng</i> (txt) <i>đó là</i> bác đang cau mày với ... [229]
131. <i>Well</i> (txt), <i>I</i> (top) 'm sure Cal knows it. [232]	131. <i>Phải</i> (txt), <i>em</i> (top) chắc chắn Calpurnia [229]
132. <i>Aw</i> (txt), <i>Aunty</i> (int), <i>that</i> (top) 's just Dill's way, [234]	132. <i>Ồ</i> (txt), <i>bác, Dill</i> (top) chỉ nói vậy thôi [232]
133. <i>A wagonload of ladies</i> rattled past us. [235]	133. <i>Một chiếc xe chở toàn các bà</i> đi ngang qua ... [232]
134. <i>The inhabitants of these offices</i> were ... [241]	134. <i>Người trong các văn phòng này</i> là những ... [238]
135. <i>Judge Taylor</i> had one interesting habit. [245]	135. <i>Quan tòa Taylor</i> có một thói quen thú vị [242]
136. <i>The solicitor, a Mr. Gilmer</i> , was not well ... [246]	136. <i>Luật sư này, ông Gilmer</i> , chúng tôi [243]
137. <i>So</i> (txt) <i>I</i> (top) went down to Robinson's house [247]	137. <i>Vì vậy</i> (txt) <i>tôi</i> (top) đến nhà Robinson [244]
138. <i>The Negroes behind us</i> whispered softly ... [251]	138. <i>Những người da đen đằng sau chúng tôi</i> xì ... [247]
139. <i>Some people</i> said six [253]	139. <i>Một số người</i> nói sáu [250]
140. <i>Mr. Gilmer's back</i> stiffened a little [254]	140. <i>Lưng ông Gilmer</i> cứng lại một chút [251]
141. <i>Mr. Gilmer and Atticus</i> exchanged glances. [258]	141. <i>Ông Gilmer và bố Articus</i> liếc nhìn nhau [255]
142. <i>but</i> (txt) <i>the defendant</i> (top) said something. [258]	142. <i>nhưng</i> (txt) <i>bị cáo</i> (top) nói điều gì đó. [255]
143. <i>The witness</i> said he never thought of it [260]	143. <i>Nhân chứng</i> nói ông ta không thể nghĩ đến ... [256]
144. <i>Judge Taylor</i> was about to speak [261]	144. <i>Quan tòa Taylor</i> định nói [258]
145. <i>The reporter</i> can't put down gestures very well. [267]	145. <i>Người viết biên bản</i> không thể ghi lại các ... [263]
146. <i>but</i> (txt) <i>you</i> (top) stay there [268]	146. <i>nhưng</i> (txt) <i>cô</i> (top) cứ ở đó [264]
147. <i>The jury</i> learned the following things [271]	147. <i>Bồi thẩm đoàn</i> biết được những điều sau [266]
148. <i>Atticus's glasses</i> had slipped a little [273]	148. <i>Kính của bố Articus</i> hơi tụt xuống [268]
149. <i>Atticus's voice</i> had lost its comfortableness [275]	149. <i>Giọng bố Articus</i> đã mất vẻ dễ chịu [270]

150. <i>but</i> (txt) <i>Mayella's face</i> (top) was a mixture ... [279]	150. <i>nhưng</i> (txt) <i>khuôn mặt của Mayella</i> (top) ... [273]
151. <i>Then</i> (txt) <i>she</i> burst into real tears. [280]	151. <i>Sau đó</i> (txt) <i>cô</i> (top) òa khóc [274]
152. <i>Yes</i> (txt) <i>suh</i> (int), <i>I</i> (top) had to pass her place.... [284]	152. <i>Có</i> (txt), <i>thưa ngài</i> (int), <i>tôi</i> (top) phải đi ... [278]
153. <i>Then</i> (txt) <i>I</i> (top) went home. [284]	153. <i>Sau đó</i> (txt) <i>tôi</i> (top) về nhà [278]
154. <i>and</i> (txt) <i>he</i> ran his hand over his face. [287]	154. <i>và</i> (txt) <i>anh</i> (top) đưa tay lên vuốt mặt [281]
155. <i>The witness</i> swallowed hard [289]	155. <i>Nhân chứng</i> nuốt nước miếng khó khan [283]
156. <i>Well</i> (txt), <i>I</i> s(top) ay it looked like they never ... [294]	156. <i>Ồ</i> (txt), <i>tôi</i> (top) nói có vẻ họ không giúp đỡ ... [287]
157. <i>but</i> (txt) <i>Tom Robinson</i> (top) didn't need him. [295]	157. <i>Nhưng</i> (txt) <i>Tom Robinson</i> (top) không cần ... [287]
158. <i>Well</i> (txt), <i>Dill</i> (int), <i>after all</i> (txt) <i>he</i> (top)'s ... [297]	158. <i>Dill</i> (int), <i>xét cho cùng</i> (txt) <i>anh ta</i> (top) chỉ ... [289]
159. <i>Things</i> haven't caught up with that one's [301]	159. <i>Mọi chuyện</i> chưa bắt nhịp với bản năng [293]
160. <i>The courtroom</i> was still [302]	160. <i>Phòng xử án</i> vẫn im lặng [294]
161. <i>and then</i> (txt) <i>Atticus</i> (top) did something ... [303]	161. <i>và sau đó</i> (txt) <i>ông</i> (top) làm một điều gì đó ... [295]
162. <i>The defendant</i> is not guilty, [304]	162. <i>Bị cáo</i> không có tội [295]
163. <i>but</i> (txt) <i>somebody</i> (top) in this courtroom is. [304]	163. <i>nhưng</i> (txt) <i>ai đó</i> (top) trong phòng xử án ... [295]
164. <i>Thomas Jefferson</i> once said that all men ... [306]	164. <i>Thomas Jefferson</i> từng nói rằng tất cả mọi ... [298]
165. <i>But</i> (txt) <i>I</i> (top) must have been reasonably awake [313]	165. <i>Nhưng</i> (txt) <i>tôi</i> (top) phải giữ cho mình đủ ... [306]
166. <i>Then</i> (txt) <i>he</i> (top) left the courtroom [315]	166. <i>Sau đó</i> (txt) <i>ông</i> rời khỏi phòng xử án [308]
167. <i>His face</i> was streaked with angry tears [316]	167. <i>Những dòng nước mắt giận dữ</i> lăn trên ... [309]
168. <i>But</i> (txt) <i>things</i> (top) are always better in [317]	168. <i>Nhưng</i> (txt) <i>mọi việc</i> (top) luôn khá hơn ... [310]
169. <i>And</i> (txt) <i>I</i> (top) thought to myself [321]	169. <i>Và</i> (txt) <i>tôi</i> (top) thầm nghĩ [314]
170. <i>Tom Robinson's</i> a colored man, Jem. [327]	170. <i>Tom Robinson</i> là người da màu, Jem à. [320]
171. <i>So</i> (txt) <i>Judge Taylor</i> (top) excuses him [330]	171. <i>Vì vậy</i> (txt) <i>quan tòa</i> (top) miễn cho ông ta [323]
172. <i>Well</i> (txt) <i>I</i> (top) 'm glad he could, [337]	172. <i>Em</i> mừng là cụ tỏ biết đọc biết viết [331]
173. <i>August</i> was on the brink of September. [339]	173. <i>Tháng tám</i> sắp bước sang tháng chín [332]
174. <i>Miss Stephanie</i> eyed me suspiciously [342]	174. <i>Cô Stephanie</i> nhìn tôi đầy ngờ vực [335]
175. <i>But</i> (txt) <i>I</i> (top) liked them. [347]	175. <i>Nhưng</i> (txt) <i>tôi</i> thích đàn ông [340]
176. <i>The front door</i> slammed [348]	176. <i>Cửa trước</i> đóng mạnh [342]
177. <i>Atticus</i> leaned against the refrigerator, [350]	177. <i>Bố Atticus</i> dựa vào tủ lạnh [343]
178. <i>And so</i> (txt) <i>they</i> (top) went, ... [352]	178. <i>Và thế là</i> (txt) <i>họ</i> (top) đi [345]
179. <i>A little girl</i> came to the cabin door.... [355]	179. <i>Một đứa con gái nhỏ</i> bước ra cửa chòi [348]
180. <i>Then</i> (txt) <i>Mr. Underwood's meaning</i> (top) ... [357]	180. <i>Bây giờ hàm ý của ông Underwood</i> đã ... [350]
181. <i>The Radley Place</i> had ceased to terrify me, [358]	181. <i>Nhà Radley</i> không còn làm tôi khiếp sợ nữa [351]
182. <i>And yet</i> (txt) <i>I</i> (top) remembered. [358]	182. <i>Và</i> (txt) <i>tôi</i> (top) vẫn nhớ [351]
183. <i>Perhaps</i> (int) <i>Atticus</i> (top) was right [360]	183. <i>Có lẽ</i> (int) <i>bố Atticus</i> đúng [353]
184. <i>so</i> (txt) <i>the burden of Current Events</i> (top) ... [360]	184. <i>Vì vậy</i> (txt) <i>gánh nặng của tiết học</i> (top)... [354]
185. <i>Perhaps</i> (int) <i>Jem</i> could provide the answer. [364]	185. <i>Có lẽ</i> (int) <i>Jem</i> (top) có câu trả lời. [357]
186. <i>Thereafter</i> (txt), <i>he</i> (top) resumed his, [367]	186. <i>Sau đó</i> (txt) <i>ông ta</i> (top) lại tiếp tục, [360]
187. <i>Maycomb</i> was itself again [371]	187. <i>Maycomb</i> lại trở về như cũ [365]
188. <i>Then</i> (txt) <i>the assembled company</i> (top) ... [373]	188. <i>Sau đó</i> (txt) <i>nhóm của chúng tôi</i> (top) sẽ hát [368]
189. <i>but</i> (txt) <i>I</i> (top) was disappointed. [374]	189. <i>nhưng</i> (txt) <i>tôi</i> (top) thất vọng [368]
190. <i>The wind</i> was growing stronger [376]	190. <i>Gió</i> thổi mạnh hơn [370]
191. <i>The auditorium</i> was filling with people [380]	191. <i>Hội trường</i> đang dần ken chặt người [374]
192. <i>Our company</i> shuffled and dragged his feet [386]	192. <i>Người đồng hành với chúng tôi</i> kéo lê ... [380]
193. <i>Then</i> (txt) <i>they</i> (top) stopped. [387]	193. <i>Rồi</i> (txt) <i>chúng tôi</i> (top) dừng lại [380]
194. <i>A car</i> stopped in front of the house. [391]	194. <i>Một chiếc xe hơi</i> dừng ngay trước cửa nhà tôi. [383]
195. <i>Atticus</i> was standing by Jem's bed. [393]	195. <i>Bố Atticus</i> đứng cạnh giường của Jem. [385]
196. <i>Somehow</i> (txt), <i>I</i> (top) could think of nothing [395]	196. <i>Chẳng biết sao</i> (txt) <i>tôi</i> (top) chẳng nghĩ ... [388]
197. <i>This thing</i> probably saved her life [398]	197. <i>Vật này</i> chắc đã cứu mạng cô bé [391]
198. <i>Anyway</i> (txt), <i>Jem</i> (top) hollered and ... [399]	198. <i>Dù sao thì</i> (txt) <i>Jem</i> (top) hét lên và ... [392]
199. <i>His cheeks</i> were thin to hollowness [400]	199. <i>Đôi gò má ông</i> gầy đến mức hóp vào [393]
200. <i>Every move</i> he made was uncertain [410]	200. <i>Mọi cử chỉ của ông</i> đều không khắc chấn [403]
201. <i>He</i> turned out the light and went into [416]	201. <i>Ông</i> tắt đèn rồi đi vào phòng Jem. [408]

Appendix 2

Complement Theme in declarative clause simplex

ST	TT
1. <i>This</i> she did, [320]	1. <i>Cô</i> đã làm như thế [313]
2. <i>This</i> he did with enthusiasm [358]	2. <i>Anh</i> làm chuyện này hết sức nhiệt tình [351]
3. <i>This</i> she covered with brown cloth [374]	3. <i>Bà</i> phủ lên một lớp vải nâu [368]

Appendix 3
Adjunct Theme in declarative clause simplex

ST	TT
1. <i>In England</i> , Simon was irritated by ... [8]	1. <i>Ở Anh</i> , Simon tức tối trước việc bách hại ... [10]
2. <i>During his first five years in Maycomb</i> , ... [10]	2. <i>Trong những năm đầu ở Maycomb</i> , bố Articus... [12]
3. <i>In rainy weather</i> the streets turned to red slop [11]	3. <i>Vào mùa mưa</i> đường phố trở nên lầy lội đỏ quạch [12]
4. <i>four years later</i> I was born [12]	4. <i>bốn năm sau</i> tôi ra đời [14]
5. <i>and</i> (txt) <i>two years later</i> (top) our mother died ... [12]	5. <i>và</i> (txt) <i>hai năm sau</i> mẹ tôi mất vì một cơn đau tim [14]
6. <i>Early one morning</i> [...], Jem and I heard ... [12]	6. <i>Một sáng sớm</i> [...], Jem và tôi nghe ... [14]
7. <i>Thereafter</i> the summer passed in routine ... [14]	7. <i>Sau đó</i> mùa hè trôi qua trong sự thỏa mãn ... [16]
8. <i>But</i> (txt) <i>by the end of August</i> (top) our r ... [15]	8. <i>Nhưng</i> (txt) <i>vào cuối tháng Tám</i> (top) kho ... [17]
9. <i>Inside the house</i> lived a malevolent phantom [15]	9. <i>Bên trong ngôi nhà</i> có một bóng ma quỷ quái [17]
10. <i>According to neighborhood legend</i> , [...] tribe [17]	10. <i>Theo hàng xóm đồn đại</i> , [...] dòng họ... [19]
11. <i>One night</i> , [...], the boys backed around ... [17]	11. <i>Một đêm</i> , [...], bọn chúng [...] quanh ... [19]
12. <i>The next day</i> Dill said [21]	12. <i>Ngày hôm sau</i> Dill nói [24]
13. <i>One morning</i> Jem and I found a load of ... [32]	13. <i>Một sáng nọ</i> Jem và tôi một đống củi ở sân sau [33]
14. <i>Later</i> , a sack of hickory nuts appeared [32]	14. <i>Sau đó</i> một bao hạt hồ đào nằm ở bậc thềm ... [35]
15. <i>With Christmas</i> came a crate of smilax [32]	15. <i>Giáng sinh</i> thì có một thùng dây leo và cây ô rô ... [35]
16. <i>By the time we reached our front steps</i> ... [36]	16. <i>Lúc chúng tôi tới bậc thềm trước nhà</i> , Walter ... [39]
17. <i>Finally</i> she found her voice [40]	17. <i>Cuối cùng</i> giọng cô bình tĩnh lại [43]
18. <i>Soon</i> we were clustered around her desk [43]	18. <i>Ngay sau đó</i> chúng tôi vây quanh bàn cô [45]
19. <i>By late afternoon</i> most of my traveling ... [43]	19. <i>Cho đến chiều tối</i> phần lớn những kế hoạch ... [45]
20. <i>Bit by bit</i> , I told him the day's misfortunes. [45]	20. <i>Từ từ</i> tôi kể cho bố tôi những chuyện xui xẻo ... [47]
21. <i>Sometimes</i> it's better to bend the law a little [46]	21. <i>Đôi khi</i> tốt hơn là nên bẻ cong luật một chút [48]
22. <i>In your case</i> , the law remains rigid. [46]	22. <i>Trong trường hợp của con</i> luật pháp vẫn rất ... [48]
23. <i>As for me</i> , I knew nothing except ... [49]	23. <i>Về phần tôi</i> , tôi chẳng biết gì trừ ... [52-3]
24. <i>One afternoon</i> [...], something caught my eye [50]	24. <i>Một buổi chiều</i> , [...], một cái gì đó đập vào mắt tôi [52]
25. <i>On my part</i> , I went to much trouble, ... [51]	25. <i>Về phần tôi</i> , đôi khi tôi phải tốn nhiều nỗ lực, ... [54]
26. <i>Two days later</i> Dill arrived in a blaze of glory [54]	26. <i>Hai ngày sau</i> Dill đến trong vinh quang rực rỡ [56]
27. <i>Sometimes</i> they stretch all the way across ... [55]	27. <i>Có khi</i> nó nằm dang ngang trên đường [58]
28. <i>Safely in the yard</i> , Dill asked Jem if ... [61]	28. <i>Ra tới chỗ an toàn ngoài sân</i> , Dill hỏi Jem liệu.... [63]
29. <i>In summertime</i> , twilights are long and peaceful [65]	29. <i>Trong mùa hè</i> , những buổi hoàng hôn ... [67]
30. <i>Next morning</i> [...] I found Jem and Dill [70]	30. <i>Sáng hôm sau</i> [...] tôi thấy Dill và Jem đang [72]
31. <i>Occasionally</i> I looked back at Jem [73]	31. <i>Thỉnh thoảng</i> tôi nhìn về phía Jem [75]
32. <i>Lastly</i> , we were to stay away from that house [74]	32. <i>Cuối cùng</i> , chúng tôi phải tránh xa ngôi nhà đó [76]
33. <i>Occasionally</i> we heard Miss Stephanie laugh. [77]	33. <i>Thỉnh thoảng</i> chúng tôi nghe cô Stephanie [79]
34. <i>With this thought in mind</i> , I made [79]	34. <i>Ghi nhớ điều đó</i> nên tôi có lẽ phải mất ... [80-1]
35. <i>In the glare from the streetlight</i> , I could ... [82]	35. <i>Trong ánh sáng chói của ngọn đèn đường</i> , tôi ... [84]
36. <i>Sometimes</i> I did not understand him [85]	36. <i>Đôi khi</i> tôi không hiểu anh ấy [87]
37. <i>Next morning</i> the twine was where we had left it. [90]	37. <i>Sáng hôm sau</i> cuộc dây vẫn còn ở nơi chúng tôi [91]
38. <i>From then on</i> , we considered everything... [90]	38. <i>Từ đó trở đi</i> chúng tôi xem mọi thứ... [91]
39. <i>Less than two weeks later</i> we found... [92]	39. <i>Chưa đầy hai tuần sau</i> chúng tôi nhận được ... [93]
40. <i>The following week</i> the knot-hole yielded.... [92]	40. <i>Tuần kế tiếp</i> lỗ bọng đó chứa một huy ... [93]
41. <i>Next day</i> Jem repeated his vigil [94]	41. <i>Ngày hôm sau</i> Jem lặp lại việc trông chừng ... [95]
42. <i>Next morning</i> I awoke [98]	42. <i>Sáng hôm sau</i> thói thức dậy [98]
43. <i>Suddenly</i> she grinned. [103]	43. <i>Bất ngờ</i> cô cười nhăn răng [103]
44. <i>By then</i> he did not have to tell me. [104]	44. <i>Đến lúc đó</i> ông không cần phải nói gì nữa [104]
45. <i>At the front door</i> , we saw fire spewing [105]	45. <i>Nơi cửa trước</i> chúng tôi thấy lửa phun ra ... [104]
46. <i>Sometimes</i> we heard shouts. [106]	46. <i>Thỉnh thoảng</i> chúng tôi nghe tiếng la. [105]
47. <i>In a group of neighbors</i> , Atticus was [107]	47. <i>Trong một nhóm hàng xóm</i> , bố Articus [106]
48. <i>By dancing a little</i> , I could feel my feet. [108]	48. <i>Nhảy nhót một chút</i> , tôi có lại cảm giác ... [107]
49. <i>From now on</i> it'll be everybody less one... [114]	49. <i>Từ giờ trở đi</i> mọi người cứ làm vậy trừ ... [113]
50. <i>One Christmas</i> I lurked in corners [119]	50. <i>Một Giáng sinh nọ</i> , tôi trốn vào góc [118]
51. <i>and</i> (txt) <i>that night</i> (top) I dreamed of.... [121]	51. <i>và</i> (txt) <i>đêm đó</i> (top) tôi mơ về hai gói dài cho ... [120]
52. <i>In his old age</i> , our ancestor Simon Finch [121]	52. <i>Lúc về già</i> , cụ tổ Simon Finch của chúng tôi [121]
53. <i>At Christmas dinner</i> , I sat at the little table [124]	53. <i>Lúc ăn bữa Giáng sinh</i> , tôi ngồi tại [123]
54. <i>Afterwards</i> , the adults made for the ... [124]	54. <i>Sau đó</i> người lớn sang phòng khách [224]
55. <i>This time</i> , I split my knuckle [128]	55. <i>Lần này</i> tôi đâm vào tay của nó [127]
56. <i>From the look on Uncle Jack's face</i> , I [131]	56. <i>Qua vẻ mặt chú Jack</i> , tôi nghĩ [129]
57. <i>With these attributes</i> , however, he [136]	57. <i>Tuy nhiên, với những đặc điểm này</i> (top) bố [135]
58. <i>One Saturday</i> Jem and I decided to go ... [140]	58. <i>Một thứ bảy</i> tôi và Jem quyết định ... [138]
59. <i>In a fog</i> , Jem and I watched our father [146]	59. <i>Với cảm giác bối rối</i> , tôi với Jem nhìn bố tôi [143]
60. <i>In the silence</i> , I heard them crack. [146]	60. <i>Trong im lặng</i> , tôi nghe thấy cặp kính bể [143]

61. <i>In front of the Radley gate</i> , Tim Johnson [146]	61. <i>Trước cổng nhà Radley</i> , Tim Johnson [143]
62. <i>With movements so swift</i> they seemed [146]	62. <i>Với những động tác quá nhanh</i> có vẻ như [144]
63. <i>Once</i> she heard Jem refer to our father as ... [152]	63. <i>Có lần</i> bà nghe Jem gọi bố chúng tôi là “Articus” [149]
64. <i>The day after Jem's twelfth birthday</i> his [153]	64. <i>Ngày sau sinh nhật thứ mười hai của Jem</i> , [150]
65. <i>On the way home</i> I nearly hit Mr. Link Deas [155]	65. <i>Trên đường về nhà</i> tôi suýt va phải ông Link ... [152]
66. <i>In later years</i> , I sometimes wondered [155]	66. <i>Nhiều năm sau</i> tôi tự hỏi [152]
67. <i>By that time</i> I was shrieking. [156]	67. <i>Tôi</i> bèn la hét inh ỏi [153]
68. <i>By some voo-doo system</i> Calpurnia seemed [156]	68. <i>Bằng những phép thuật nào đó</i> mà Calpurnia [153]
69. <i>Two geological ages later</i> , we heard [157]	69. <i>Hai kỉ địa chất sau</i> chúng tôi mới nghe tiếng [154]
70. <i>For the life of me</i> , I did not understand [158]	70. <i>Dù cố gắng đến mấy</i> , tôi cũng không thể hiểu [155]
71. <i>The following Monday afternoon</i> Jem and I.... [160]	71. <i>Chiều thứ Hai sau đó</i> Jem và tôi trèo lên [157]
72. <i>From time to time</i> she would open her ... [162]	72. <i>Thỉnh thoảng</i> bà há to miệng [159]
73. <i>A minute later</i> , [...], Jem and I were [163]	73. <i>Một phút sau</i> , [...], Jem và tôi đã trở ra via hè.... [159]
74. <i>One afternoon a month later</i> Jem was [165]	74. <i>Một tháng sau vào một chiều</i> khi Jem đang [161]
75. <i>Today</i> she had antagonized Jem for nearly ... [165]	75. <i>Hôm nay</i> bà làm Jem tức tối gần hai tiếng ... [162]
76. <i>On the way home</i> , Jem said he had to do it [166]	76. <i>Trên đường về nhà</i> , Jem nói anh phải làm [162]
77. <i>At last</i> the day came. [167]	77. <i>Cuối cùng</i> ngày đó đã đến [163]
78. <i>Every night</i> Atticus would read us [167]	78. <i>Mỗi đêm</i> bố Articus sẽ đọc cho chúng tôi [163]
79. <i>In a flash</i> Atticus was up [169]	79. <i>Trong chớp mắt</i> , bố Articus đứng dậy đến ... [165]
80. <i>In addition to Jem's newly [...] characteristics</i> , [173]	80. <i>Ngoài những đặc điểm mới phát triển của Jem</i> , ... [171]
81. <i>Next morning</i> she began earlier than usual [174]	81. <i>Sáng hôm sau</i> bà bắt đầu sớm hơn thường lệ [172]
82. <i>One by one</i> , the congregation came forward [181]	82. <i>Từng người một</i> , giáo đoàn tiến về phía trước [179]
83. <i>To our amazement</i> , Reverend Sykes emptied [181]	83. <i>Trước sự ngạc nhiên của bọn tôi</i> , mục sư ... [179]
84. <i>Slowly, painfully</i> , the ten dollars was collected. [182]	84. <i>Từ từ, một cách đau khổ</i> , mười đô được gom đủ. [180]
85. <i>In the beginning</i> its buildings were solid [193]	85. <i>Hồi buổi đầu</i> , những tòa nhà ở đó chắc chắn [191]
86. <i>As a result</i> the town remained the same [193]	86. <i>Do đó</i> thị trấn vẫn giữ nguyên kích thước ... [192]
87. <i>Before bedtime</i> I was in Jem's room trying ... [195]	87. <i>Trước giờ ngủ</i> tôi ở trong phòng Jem định ... [194]
88. <i>Presently</i> I picked up a comb from Jem's dresser [197]	88. <i>Tôi</i> cầm cái lược trên bàn của Jem [196]
89. <i>Through the door</i> I could see Jem on ... [201]	89. <i>Qua cánh cửa</i> tôi có thể thấy Jem ngồi ... [200]
90. <i>With that</i> , I was gone. [203]	90. <i>Điều đó</i> làm tôi điên [202]
91. <i>In a dream</i> , I went to the kitchen. [206]	91. <i>Như trong cơn mơ</i> , tôi xuống nhà bếp [204]
92. <i>Beneath its sweat-streaked dirt</i> Dill's face.... [207]	92. <i>Bên dưới lớp bụi bẩn nhễ nhại mồ hôi</i> , khuôn [206]
93. <i>After that</i> , little, it seemed. [214]	93. <i>Sau đó</i> , một chút, có vẻ vậy [212]
94. <i>In Maycomb</i> , grown men stood outside [214]	94. <i>Ở Maycomb</i> , người lớn đang đứng ngoài sân [212]
95. <i>Suddenly</i> Jem screamed, [216]	95. <i>Bất chợt</i> Jem hét toáng lên [214]
96. <i>With that</i> , he put his hat on [220]	96. <i>Nói xong</i> , ông đội mũ [217]
97. <i>Later on</i> , I bade my aunt and brother good night. [220]	97. <i>Sau đó</i> , tôi chúc bác và anh trai tôi ngủ ngon [218]
98. <i>In the light from its bare bulb</i> , Atticus was [223]	98. <i>Trong ánh sáng từ bóng đèn trần trụi ở đầu dây</i> , ... [220]
99. <i>In the midst of this strange assembly</i> , [226]	99. <i>Giữa nhóm người lạ này</i> , bố Articus [224]
100. <i>Finally</i> Atticus returned [229]	100. <i>Cuối cùng</i> bố Articus quay lại [227]
101. <i>But</i> (txt) <i>last night</i> he wanted to hurt you. [233]	101. <i>Nhưng</i> (txt) <i>tối hôm qua</i> (top) ông ta muốn ... [230]
102. <i>In a far corner of the square</i> , the [237]	102. Ở góc xa quảng trường, những người Da đen ... [235]
103. <i>Sometimes</i> he would skip happily [239]	103. <i>Thỉnh thoảng</i> nó nhảy chân sáo thật phần khởi [236]
104. <i>In a few moments</i> he was back. [243]	104. <i>Vài phút sau</i> ông quay lại [240]
105. <i>Happily</i> , we sped ahead of Reverend [243]	105. <i>Mừng rỡ</i> , bọn tôi chạy trước mục sư Sykes [240]
106. <i>From that moment</i> he ceased to terrify me. [246]	106. <i>Từ phút đó</i> ông không còn làm tôi khiếp sợ [243]
107. <i>As if by instinct</i> , Tom Robinson [250]	107. <i>Như thể theo bản năng</i> , Tom Robinson ngẩng ... [246]
108. <i>Below us</i> , heads turned [251]	108. <i>Bên dưới chúng tôi</i> , những chiếc đầu quay qua ... [247]
109. <i>At the witness's affirmative nod</i> he continued, [255]	109. <i>Trước cái gật đầu khẳng định của nhân chứng</i> ... [252]
110. <i>In possession of his court once more</i> , Judge [257]	110. <i>Khi kiểm soát được căn phòng</i> , quan tòa [254]
111. <i>In Maycomb County</i> , it was easy to tell [265]	111. <i>Ở hạt Maycomb</i> , thật dễ xác định [261]
112. <i>Slowly but surely</i> I began to see the [271]	112. <i>Từ từ, nhưng chắc chắn</i> tôi bắt đầu nhận ra [266]
113. <i>Presently</i> Judge Taylor returned [281]	113. <i>Hiện thời</i> quan tòa Taylor đã trở lại [275]
114. <i>As a rule</i> , a recess meant a general exodus [281]	114. <i>Như một nguyên tắc</i> , giờ giải lao có nghĩa là.... [276]
115. <i>Between two fires</i> , I could not decide ... [301]	115. <i>Kẹt giữa hai làn đạn</i> , tôi không quyết [393]
116. <i>Sometimes</i> a baby would cry out fretfully [312]	116. <i>Thỉnh thoảng</i> một đứa bé khóc quấy [305]
117. <i>In the balcony</i> , the Negroes sat and stood ... [312]	117. <i>Nơi ban công</i> , những người Da đen đứng ngồi ... [306]
118. <i>At that moment</i> Aunt Alexandra came ... [323]	118. <i>Ngay lúc đó</i> bác Alexandra bước ra cửa gọi ... [315]
119. <i>In our courts</i> , when it's a white man's [328]	119. <i>Trong tòa án của chúng ta</i> , khi lời khai của [321]
120. <i>For some reason</i> he looked pleased [329]	120. <i>Vì lí do nào đó</i> ông có vẻ hài lòng với jem [322]
121. <i>Now</i> I was glad I'd done it. [332]	121. <i>Bây giờ</i> tôi vui vì mình đã làm chuyện đó [326]
121. <i>This time</i> the tactics were different [334]	122. <i>Lần này</i> chiến thuật khác hẳn [327]
123. <i>Today</i> Aunt Alexandra and her missionary [339]	123. <i>Bữa nay</i> bác Alexandra và nhóm truyền [332]

124. <i>From the kitchen</i> , I heard Mrs. [339]	124. <i>Từ nhà bếp</i> tôi nghe bà Crace Meriweather [332]
125. <i>Again</i> , she turned to me. [344]	125. <i>Bà</i> lại quay sang tôi [337]
126. <i>At least</i> we don't have the deceit to say to 'em [347]	126. <i>Ít nhất</i> chúng ta không có thói lừa đảo để ... [340]
127. <i>Automatically</i> I wondered what time it was. [348]	127. <i>Bất giác</i> tôi tự hỏi không biết bây giờ là mấy giờ [342]
128. <i>According to Dill</i> , he and Jem had just ... [354]	128. <i>Theo Dill kể</i> , nó với Jem vừa ra đến xa lộ [347]
129. <i>On the way to Tom Robinson's</i> , Atticus [355]	129. <i>Trên đường đến nhà Tom Robinson</i> , [348]
130. <i>Maybe</i> (int) <i>someday</i> (top) we would [359]	130. <i>Biết đâu</i> (int) <i>một ngày nào đó</i> (top) chúng tôi ... [352]
131. <i>Once a week</i> , we had a Current [360]	131. <i>Mỗi tuần một lần</i> chúng tôi có học tiết học ... [353]
132. <i>In the first place</i> , few rural children had... [360]	132. <i>Thứ nhất</i> , ít có trẻ nông thôn đến tiếp cận ... [354]
133. <i>By the middle of October</i> , only two small [367]	133. <i>Vào giữa tháng Mười</i> chỉ có hai việc nhỏ [360]
134. <i>All the way to the house</i> , Helen said, she [369]	134. <i>Suốt đường đi</i> , Helen nói chị nghe [362]
135. <i>By the end of October</i> , our lives [370]	135. <i>Cho đến tháng Mười</i> , cuộc sống của [364]
136. <i>Firstly</i> , people had removed from their store ... [371]	136. <i>Trước tiên</i> , người ta đã gỡ khỏi các tủ ... [365]
137. <i>After that</i> , it didn't matter whether [375]	137. <i>Rối cuộc</i> , họ đi hay không cũng chẳng ... [369]
138. <i>Occasionally</i> there was a sudden breeze [384]	138. <i>Thỉnh thoảng</i> có một cơn gió nhẹ bắt đầu [378]
139. <i>From somewhere near by</i> came scuffling, [387]	139. <i>Từ đâu đó gần bên tôi</i> vang lên những âm t ... [380]
140. <i>By the time I reached the corner</i> the [389]	140. <i>Đến khi tôi tới góc đường</i> thì người đó đang [382]
141. <i>Sooner</i> we get this over with the better [404]	141. <i>Chúng ta</i> giải quyết chuyện này càng ... [397]
142. <i>but</i> (txt) <i>in some ways</i> (top) he was [405]	142. <i>nhưng</i> (txt) <i>trong một số cách</i> (top) ông ... [397]
143. <i>Finally</i> he raised his head. [409]	143. <i>Cuối cùng</i> ông ngẩng đầu lên. [402]
144. <i>Once more</i> , he got to his feet [410]	144. <i>Ông</i> lại đứng lên [403]
145. <i>Daylight... in my mind</i> , the night faded. [412]	145. <i>Ban ngày... trong đầu tôi</i> , đêm đã tàn [405]

Appendix 4

Predicator Theme in imperative clause simplex

ST	TT
1. <i>Don't blame</i> me when he gouges your eyes out. [22]	1. <i>Đừng trách</i> tao khi hắn móc mắt mày ghen [24]
2. <i>Well</i> (txt) <i>go on</i> (top) [24]	2. <i>Tới luôn đi</i> [26]
3. <i>Don't worry</i> , Scout [28]	3. <i>Đừng lo</i> , Scout [31]
4. <i>Go and eat</i> downtown today [30]	4. <i>Hôm nay</i> xuống phố ăn đi [33]
5. <i>Walter</i> (int), <i>come get</i> (top) <i>it</i> it [31]	5. <i>Đấy Walter</i> (int), <i>cầm lấy</i> (top) [33]
6. <i>Let that be</i> the least of your worries, Walter [32]	6. <i>Đừng lo</i> chuyện đó, Walter [35]
7. <i>Let him go</i> , Scout [35]	7. <i>Buông nó ra</i> , Scout. [38]
8. <i>Hush</i> your fussin' [38]	8. <i>Đẹp</i> cái trò nhặc xỉ của cô đi. [41]
9. <i>please</i> (int) <i>bathe</i> (top) yourself before [41]	9. <i>ngày mai</i> làm ơn tắm trước khi đi học lại. [43]
10. <i>Burriss</i> (int), <i>go</i> (top) home. [42]	10. <i>Burriss</i> (int), <i>về</i> (top) nhà đi [45]
11. <i>Shut</i> your eyes and open your mouth [43]	11. <i>Nhắm</i> mắt lại, mở mắt ra [46]
12. <i>Don't eat</i> things you find, Scout. [50]	12. <i>Đừng ăn</i> những thứ lượm được, Scout [53]
13. <i>Spit</i> it out right now! [50]	13. <i>Nhổ</i> ra ngay! [54]
14. <i>Make us up</i> one, Jem [54]	14. <i>Chế</i> một vở cho tụi mình đi [56]
15. <i>Let's roll</i> in the tire [56]	15. <i>Tụi mình lăn</i> trong lốp xe đi [58]
16. <i>Come on</i> , Scout [57]	16. <i>Ráng lên</i> , Scout [59]
17. <i>Bring</i> it with you! [57]	17. <i>Mang</i> nó theo [59]
18. <i>Give</i> me those scissors [61]	18. <i>Đưa</i> bó cái kéo [63]
19. <i>Pull</i> it up, child [64]	19. <i>Nhổ</i> nó lên, bé con [67]
20. <i>Stop</i> ringing that bell. [73]	20. <i>Thôi</i> lắc cái chuông đi [75]
21. <i>Tell</i> him so long for me [76]	21. <i>Tạm biệt</i> cậu ta giùm bố [78]
22. <i>Don't make</i> a sound [78]	22. <i>Đừng gây</i> tiếng động [80]
23. <i>Sh-h</i> (int). <i>Spit</i> (top) on it, Scout. [79]	23. <i>Suyt</i> (int), <i>nhổ</i> (top) bọt vào nó đi, Scout [81]
24. <i>Wait</i> , though. [80]	24. <i>Đợi</i> đã [81]
25. <i>Let's try</i> the back window. [80]	25. <i>Thử</i> dòm qua cửa sổ phía sau [82]
26. <i>Don't worry</i> , Dill [83]	26. <i>Đừng lo</i> , Dill [85]
27. <i>Look</i> , it ain't worth it, Jem [85]	27. <i>Nghe nè</i> , không đáng đâu Jem à [86]
28. <i>Don't take</i> it, Jem [89]	28. <i>Đừng lấy</i> , Jem [90]
29. <i>Scout</i> (int)... <i>don't cry</i> (top) now [94]	29. <i>Đừng khóc</i> , Scout lúc này [95]
30. <i>Come on in</i> , Jem [96]	30. <i>Vào nhà đi</i> , Jem [96]
31. <i>Please</i> (int) <i>do</i> something! [98]	31. <i>Làm ơn</i> (int) <i>làm</i> (top) cái gì đi! [98]
32. <i>and</i> (txt) <i>haul</i> (top) all the snow [101]	32. <i>và</i> (txt) <i>hốt</i> (top) hết tuyết [101]
33. <i>Now get</i> the basket [101]	33. <i>Bây giờ</i> cầm cái giỏ [101]
34. <i>Baby</i> (int), <i>get up</i> (top). [104]	34. <i>Bé con</i> (int), <i>dậy</i> (top) đi. [104]
35. <i>Now</i> listen, both of you. [105]	35. <i>Giờ thì</i> nghe đây, hai đứa [105]
36. <i>Go</i> down and stand in front of the Radley Place. [105]	36. <i>Đi</i> xuống kia đứng trước nhà Radley [105]

37. <i>Come down</i> from there, Dick! [106]	37. <i>Xuống đi</i> , Dick [106]
38. <i>Let's don't pester</i> him [107]	38. <i>Đừng quay rầy</i> (bố) [107]
40. <i>Do not let</i> this inspire you to further glory, Jeremy. [110]	40. <i>Đừng lấy</i> chuyện này làm vinh quang, Jeremy. [110]
41. <i>Don't say</i> nigger, Scout. [114]	41. <i>Đừng gọi</i> là mọi đen, Scout [113]
42. <i>Come</i> here, Scout [117]	42. <i>Lại</i> đây, Scout [116]
43. <i>But</i> (txt) <i>remember</i> (top) this, [117]	43. <i>Nhưng</i> (txt) <i>hãy</i> (int) <i>nhớ</i> (top) điều này [116]
44. <i>Don't point</i> them in the house [121]	44. <i>Đừng chia</i> súng trong nhà [120]
45. <i>Francis</i> (int), <i>come</i> (top) out of there! [127]	45. <i>Francis</i> (int), <i>ra</i> khỏi đó! [126]
46. <i>Stay</i> there. [128]	46. <i>Đứng</i> đó [127]
47. <i>Go on</i> , please sir. [129]	47. <i>Chú</i> cứ nói đi [128]
48. <i>Please</i> (int) <i>sir</i> (int), <i>just</i> (int) <i>let it go</i> (top). [131]	48. <i>Thôi đi</i> (int), <i>chú</i> (int), <i>bỏ qua</i> (top) chuyện này [130]
49. <i>Go</i> to bed. [135]	49. <i>Đi</i> ngủ. [233]
50. <i>Please</i> (int) <i>ma'am</i> (int) <i>hurry</i> (top)! [142]	50. <i>Lẹ lên</i> cô [140]
51. <i>Stay</i> inside, son [143]	51. <i>Ở</i> trong nhà đi, con trai [141]
52. <i>Don't waste</i> time, Heck [145]	52. <i>Đừng phí</i> thời gian, Heck [143]
53. <i>Don't just stand</i> there [146]	53. <i>Đừng cứ đứng</i> ngầy ra đó, Heck [243]
54. <i>let's go</i> back to town. [148]	54. <i>mình quay</i> lại thị trấn đi. [145]
55. <i>Don't say</i> anything about it, Scout, [150]	55. <i>Đừng nói</i> gì về chuyện này, Scout [147]
56. <i>just</i> (int) <i>hold</i> (top) your head high [154]	56. <i>cứ</i> (int) <i>ngẩng</i> (top) cao đầu [151]
57. <i>and</i> (txt) <i>be</i> (top) a gentleman. [154]	57. <i>và</i> (txt) <i>làm</i> (top) một quý ông coi [151]
58. <i>Look</i> out now, Scout! [155]	58. <i>Cẩn thận</i> , Scout [252]
59. <i>Come</i> back here [157]	59. <i>Quay</i> lại đây [155]
60. <i>Let 'em</i> both in, Jessie [160]	60. <i>Cho cả hai đứa vô đi</i> , Jessie [157]
61. <i>Come</i> to the side of the bed. [161]	61. <i>Tới</i> cạnh giường nè [158]
62. <i>Oh</i> (txt), <i>go on and leave</i> (top) me alone. [173]	62. <i>Ồ</i> (txt), <i>đi chơi đi</i> , để anh yên [171]
63. <i>Stop</i> right there, nigger. [177]	63. <i>Đứng lại</i> đó, con mọi đen [175]
64. <i>Speak</i> to your Cousin Lily [194]	64. <i>Nói chuyện</i> với cô Lily của cháu đi [193]
65. <i>Let's get</i> this clear [201]	65. <i>Chúng ta làm rõ</i> điều này [200]
66. <i>And</i> (txt) <i>don't try to get</i> (top) around it. [201]	66. <i>Và</i> (txt) <i>đừng cố lẩn tránh</i> (top) [200]
67. <i>Scout</i> (int), <i>try not</i> to antagonize Aunty [202]	67. <i>Scout</i> (int), <i>cố đừng làm</i> (top) trái ý bác [201]
68. <i>Move</i> over, Scout. [210]	68. <i>Dịch</i> sang một bên, Scout [208]
69. <i>Go</i> back in the house. [214]	69. <i>Quay</i> vào trong nhà [212]
70. <i>Don't be</i> foolish, Heck [215]	70. <i>Đừng</i> ngốc thế Heck [213]
71. <i>Well</i> (txt), <i>answer</i> (top) it, son [216]	71. <i>Ừ</i> (txt), <i>trả lời</i> (top) điện thoại đi, con [214]
72. <i>Let's go</i> up the street. [222]	72. <i>Mình đi tiếp</i> [219]
73. <i>Don't go</i> to him [223]	73. <i>Đừng đến</i> chỗ bố [221]
74. <i>Get</i> aside from the door, Mr. Finch. [224]	74. <i>Tránh</i> khỏi cái cửa đó đi, ông Finch. [221]
75. <i>Go</i> home, Jem [225]	75. <i>Về</i> nhà đi, Jem [223]
76. <i>All right</i> (txt), <i>Mr. Finch</i> (int), <i>get</i> (top) 'em ... [226]	76. <i>Được rồi</i> (txt), <i>ông Finch</i> (int), <i>đưa</i> (top) ... [223]
77. <i>Get</i> some sleep, Tom. [229]	77. <i>Ráng</i> ngủ chút đi, Tom [226]
78. <i>Try</i> to go to sleep [231]	78. <i>Ráng</i> ngủ đi [228]
79. <i>Let's go</i> in [240]	79. <i>Tụi mình</i> vô đi [237]
80. <i>Just</i> (int) <i>don't start up</i> (top) them there [242]	80. <i>Khoan hãy cho họ</i> lên lâu một lát. [240]
81. <i>Scout</i> (int), <i>come on</i> (top) [242]	81. <i>Scout</i> (int), <i>lên</i> đây [240]
82. <i>Just</i> (int) <i>describe</i> (top) her injuries, Heck. [249]	82. <i>Tả lại</i> những vết thương của cô ta đi, Heck [245]
83. <i>Just</i> (int) <i>answer</i> (top) the question yes or no, ... [251]	83. <i>Làm ơn chỉ trả lời</i> câu hỏi có hoặc không [247]
84. <i>so help</i> me God. [252]	84. <i>xin chúa cứu giúp</i> [248]
85. <i>Well</i> (txt), <i>let's get</i> (top) something straight. [255]	85. <i>Tốt</i> (txt), <i>chúng ta hãy hiểu</i> (top) đúng mấy điều [252]
86. <i>Don't be</i> 'fraid of anybody here, [266]	86. <i>Đừng</i> sợ bất cứ ai ở đây [262]
87. <i>Atticus</i> (int), <i>let's get on</i> (top) with ... [270]	87. <i>Articus</i> (int), <i>hãy tiếp tục</i> với vụ kiện này [266]
88. <i>Let her cry</i> . [275]	88. <i>Cứ để cô ta khóc</i> . [270]
89. <i>Tom</i> (int), <i>stand up</i> (top). [276]	89. <i>Tom</i> (int), <i>đứng lên</i> (top). [270]
90. <i>Now</i> let's consider this calmly [276]	90. <i>Bây giờ</i> chúng ta hãy xem xét [...] bình tĩnh [271]
91. <i>Oh</i> (txt) <i>sit down</i> (top), Horace [276]	91. <i>Ồ</i> (txt), <i>ngồi xuống</i> (top) đi Horace [271]
92. <i>Give</i> the witness a chance to answer. [278]	92. <i>Hãy để</i> nhân chứng còn kịp trả lời [273]
93. <i>Tom</i> (int), <i>go</i> back once more to Mr. Ewell [290]	93. <i>Tom</i> (int), <i>trở</i> lại (top) với ông Ewell [284]
94. <i>Come on</i> out under the trees [296]	94. <i>Ra</i> ngoài dưới gốc cây đi [289]
95. <i>Come on</i> round here, son [299]	95. <i>Đi</i> vòng qua đây, con trai [291]
96. <i>Go</i> home with Calpurnia [308]	96. <i>Về</i> nhà với cô Calpurnia [302]
97. <i>Please</i> (int) <i>let us hear</i> (top) the verdict [309]	97. <i>Làm ơn</i> (int) <i>cho tụi con nghe</i> (top) tuyên án đi [302]
98. <i>Miss Jean Louise</i> (int), <i>stand up</i> (top) [316]	98. <i>Jean Louise</i> (int), <i>đứng lên đi</i> (top) [308]
99. <i>Tell</i> them I'm very grateful [318]	99. <i>Nói</i> với họ tôi rất cảm kích [311]
100. <i>Don't talk</i> like that, Dill [319]	100. <i>Không được nói</i> như vậy, Dill [312]

101. <i>Don't fret</i> , Jem [320]	101. <i>Đừng lo</i> , Jem [213]
102. <i>Don't fool</i> yourselves [329]	102. <i>Đừng đánh lừa</i> mình [322]
103. <i>Have</i> a chew, Scout. [335]	103. <i>Nhai</i> kẹo cao su đi, Scout. [328]
104. <i>Stay</i> with us, Jean Louise [341]	104. <i>Ở đây</i> với bọn ta nào, Jean Louise [334]
105. <i>Go</i> right ahead with your meeting [348]	105. <i>Cứ tự nhiên</i> với cuộc họp của các quý vị [342]
106. <i>Be</i> quiet, they'll hear you [351]	106. <i>Nói</i> nhỏ thôi, họ nghe thấy chị nói đấy [344]
107. <i>Then</i> (txt) <i>let's join</i> (top) the ladies [352]	107. <i>Vậy</i> (txt) <i>ta</i> ra với các bà thôi [345]
108. <i>Don't do</i> that, Scout. [353]	108. <i>Đừng làm</i> vậy, Scout [346]
109. <i>Go on</i> with your game, boys [355]	109. <i>Chơi tiếp</i> đi mấy đứa [348]
110. <i>Now</i> go on! [365]	110. <i>Giờ thì</i> xéo đi [359]
111. <i>Cut</i> it out, now [376]	111. <i>Thôi đi</i> [370]
112. <i>Don't look</i> ahead, Scout [377]	112. <i>Đừng nhìn</i> đằng trước, Scout [371]
113. <i>Well</i> (txt) <i>let's go</i> (top) get 'em. [383]	113. <i>Trở lại</i> lấy đi [377]
114. <i>Hush</i> a minute, Scout [384]	114. <i>Im</i> một chút coi, Scout [378]
115. <i>Jem, Jem</i> (int), <i>help</i> (top) me, Jem! [387]	115. <i>Jem, Jem</i> (int), <i>cứu</i> (top) em, Jem [380]
116. <i>Run</i> out there for me, please, [390]	116. <i>Làm ơn chạy</i> ra đó giúp tôi [383]
117. <i>Go have</i> a look at him [392]	117. <i>Vào</i> thăm cháu đi [385]
118. <i>Let's all sit down</i> . [393]	118. <i>Mình ngồi cả đi</i> . [386]
119. <i>Go ahead</i> , Scout [397]	119. <i>Nói tiếp đi</i> , Scout [390]
120. <i>Heck</i> (int), <i>let's go</i> (top) out on the front porch. [402]	120. <i>Heck này</i> (int), <i>mình ra</i> (top) ngoài sân trước đi [395]
121. <i>so</i> (txt) <i>don't worry</i> [406]	121. <i>cho nên</i> (txt) <i>đừng lo</i> (top) [399]
122. <i>Go</i> to bed, Scout. [414]	122. <i>Đi</i> ngủ đi, Scout [407]
123. <i>Read</i> it out loud, please, Atticus [414]	123. <i>Đọc</i> lớn lên đi, bố Atticus [407]

Appendix 5

Theme in polar interrogative clause simplex

ST	TT
1. <i>Is</i> (int) <i>he</i> (top) dead? [14]	1. <i>Ông</i> chết rồi hả? [16]
2. <i>Ain't</i> (int) <i>you</i> (top) ever waked up at night [...], Dill? [21]	2. <i>Mày</i> có bao giờ thức giấc nửa đêm [...], Dill? [23]
3. <i>Were</i> (int) <i>you</i> (top) ever a turtle, huh? [23]	3. <i>Bộ</i> (txt) <i>mày</i> (top) từng là rùa hả? [25]
4. <i>Does</i> (int) <i>anybody</i> (top) know what these are? [27]	4. <i>Có</i> (int) <i>ai</i> (top) biết những chữ này không? [29]
5. <i>Did</i> (int) <i>you</i> (top) forget your lunch this morning? [30]	5. <i>Sáng nay</i> em quên mang bữa trưa à? [33]
6. <i>Are</i> (int) <i>we</i> (top) poor, Atticus? [32]	6. <i>Nhà mình</i> có nghèo không, bố Atticus? [35]
7. <i>Are</i> (int) <i>we</i> (top) as poor as the Cunninghams? [33]	7. <i>Mình</i> có nghèo như nhà Cunningham không? [35]
8. <i>Don't</i> (int) <i>you</i> (top) like butterbeans? [36]	8. <i>Mày</i> không thích đậu bơ sao? [39]
9. <i>Did</i> (int) <i>you</i> (top) pay a bushel of potatoes ...? [37]	9. <i>Mày</i> đã trả thúng khoai tây chưa? [40]
10. <i>Have</i> (int) <i>you</i> (top) ever considered that Jem ...? [38]	10. <i>Con</i> có bao giờ nghĩ rằng Jem ...? [41]
11. <i>Did</i> (int) <i>he</i> (top) scare you some way? [39]	11. <i>Nó</i> làm gì khiến cô sợ vậy? [42]
12. <i>Ain't</i> (int) <i>you</i> (top) ever seen one? [39]	12. <i>Cô</i> chưa từng thấy con chí nào sao? [42]
13. <i>Do</i> (int) <i>you</i> (top) know what a compromise is? [47]	13. <i>Con</i> có biết thoả hiệp là gì không? [49]
14. <i>Haven't</i> (int) <i>you</i> (top) ever walked ...? [55]	14. <i>Bộ</i> (txt) <i>mày</i> (top) chưa hề đi [...] hả? [58]
15. <i>Well</i> , (txt) <i>are</i> (int) <i>we</i> (top) gonna play ...? [56]	15. <i>Được rồi</i> , (txt) <i>tụi mình</i> (top) có tính [...] không? [58]
16. <i>Ain't</i> (int) <i>you</i> (top) got any sense at all? [57]	16. <i>Bộ</i> (txt) <i>mày</i> (top) không hiểu chuyện gì ...? [59]
17. <i>Do</i> (int) <i>you</i> (top) smell my mimosa? [65]	17. <i>Cháu</i> có ngửi thấy mùi hoa [...] không? [68]
18. <i>Did</i> (int) <i>you</i> (top) know some of 'em came ...? [67]	18. <i>Cháu</i> có biết [...] một số họ ra khỏi...? [69]
19. <i>Do</i> (int) <i>you</i> (top) think they're true, ...? [68]	19. <i>Cô</i> có nghĩ chúng có thật, [...] không? [71]
20. <i>didn't</i> (int) <i>you</i> (top) hear the commotion? [82]	20. <i>bộ</i> [No Sub] không nghe thấy vụ lộn xộn ...? [83]
21. <i>Did</i> (int) <i>he</i> (top) hit him? [82]	21. <i>Có</i> (int) <i>bản</i> (top) trúng không? [84]
22. <i>Were</i> (int) <i>you</i> (top) all playing cards? [83]	22. <i>Cả bọn</i> chơi bài là hả? [85]
23. <i>Are</i> (int) <i>you</i> (top) crazy? [84]	23. <i>Anh</i> khùng hả? [86]
24. <i>Can't</i> (int) <i>anybody</i> (top) tell [...] can they, Scout [89]	24. <i>Không ai</i> có thể biết [...], đúng không Scout? [90]
25. <i>Did</i> (int) <i>you</i> (top) swap with somebody at school? [92]	25. <i>Con</i> có đổi chác với ai trong trường không? [93]
26. <i>Is</i> (int) <i>that tree</i> (top) dyin'? [95]	26. <i>Cây đó</i> sắp chết hả? [96]
27. <i>Do</i> (int) <i>you</i> (top) itch, Jem? [96]	27. <i>Anh</i> ngứa hả, Jem? [96]
28. <i>did</i> (int) <i>you</i> (top) see Mr. Arthur? [97]	28. <i>bố</i> có gặp ông Arthur không a? [98]
29. <i>Could</i> (int) <i>Scout and me</i> (top) borrow some ...? [100]	29. <i>Scout với cháu</i> có thể vay ít tuyết [...] không? [100]
30. <i>Are</i> (int) <i>we</i> (top) gonna have a snow baby, Jem? [101]	30. <i>Mình</i> sẽ có một em bé tuyết hả, Jem? [101]
31. <i>Is</i> (int) <i>it</i> (top) morning already? [104]	31. <i>Trời</i> sáng rồi à? [104]
32. <i>Do</i> (int) <i>you</i> (top) defend niggers, Atticus? [114]	32. <i>Bộ</i> (txt) <i>bố</i> (top) biện hộ cho mọi đen há bố ...? [114]
33. <i>Do</i> (int) <i>all lawyers</i> (top) defend ...? [115]	33. <i>Bộ</i> (txt) <i>luật sư nào</i> (top) cũng biện hộ ...? [114]
34. <i>Atticus</i> , (int) <i>are</i> (int) <i>we</i> (top) going to win it? [116]	34. <i>Bố Atticus</i> (int), <i>mình</i> (top) sẽ thắng chứ? [115]
35. <i>Well</i> , (txt) <i>can't</i> (int) <i>you</i> (top) just see ...? [123]	35. <i>Mày</i> không hình dung được vẻ mặt của nó ...? [122]

36. <i>Did</i> (int) <i>I</i> (top) hear you say hell a while ago? [127]	36. <i>Hồi nãy</i> bác nghe cháu nói [...] phải không? [126]
37. <i>do</i> (int) <i>you</i> (top) still hate me? [129]	37. <i>cháu</i> vẫn ghét chú sao? [128]
38. <i>Will</i> (int) <i>you</i> (top) come this way? [131]	38. <i>Cháu</i> vào trong kia nghe? [130]
39. <i>Did</i> (int) <i>you</i> (top) tell her? [133]	39. <i>Rồi</i> ((txt) <i>chú</i> (top) nói cho nó biết hả? [131]
40. <i>are</i> (int) <i>you</i> (top) acquainted with the Ewells? [134]	40. <i>chú</i> có quen biết nhà Ewells không? [132]
41. <i>Well</i> , (txt) <i>did</i> (int) <i>you</i> (top) know he's ...? [138]	41. <i>Ồ</i> , (txt) <i>cháu</i> (top) có biết ba cháu là người ...? [136]
42. <i>Cal</i> , (int) [...] <i>can</i> (int) <i>you</i> (top) come ...? [141]	42. <i>Cal</i> , (int) [...] <i>bà</i> (top) bước ra via hè ...? [139]
43. <i>Was</i> (int) <i>he</i> (top) runnin'? [141]	43. <i>Nó</i> có chạy không? [139]
44. <i>Should</i> (int) <i>we</i> (top) go after him, Heck? [144]	44. <i>Mình</i> phải săn tìm nó hả, Heck? [141]
45. <i>Don't</i> (int) <i>you</i> (top) go near that dog, ...? [148]	45. <i>Con</i> đừng đến gần con chó đó, hiểu không? [145]
46. <i>'d</i> (int) <i>you</i> (top) see him just standin' there? [148]	46. <i>Mày</i> có thấy bô đứng ngay sau đó không? [145]
47. <i>Jem</i> , (int) [...] <i>are</i> (int) <i>you</i> (top) responsible ...? [157]	47. <i>Jem</i> , (int) [...] <i>con</i> (top) là thủ phạm [...] không? [154]
48. <i>Atticus</i> (int), <i>do</i> (int) <i>I</i> (top) have to? [160]	48. <i>Bố Atticus</i> , (int) <i>con</i> (top) nên làm không? [157]
49. <i>Mrs. Dubose</i> (int), <i>are</i> (int) <i>you</i> (top) all right? [162]	49. <i>Bà Bose</i> , (int) <i>bà</i> (top) ổn không? [159]
50. <i>Did</i> (int) <i>she</i> (top) frighten you? [163]	50. <i>Bà ấy</i> có làm tụi con sợ không? [160]
51. <i>Has</i> (int) <i>somebody</i> (top) been calling you that? [164]	51. <i>Bộ</i> (txt) <i>có</i> (top) người gọi con vậy hả? [160]
52. <i>Do</i> (int) <i>you</i> (top) know what time it is, Atticus? [165]	52. <i>Anh</i> biết mấy giờ rồi đây, Atticus? [162]
53. <i>Did</i> (int) <i>she</i> (top) die free? [169]	53. <i>Vậy là</i> (txt) <i>bà</i> (top) đã hết thanh thân? [165]
54. <i>Can't</i> (int) <i>anybody</i> (top) take a bath in this ...? [174]	54. <i>Trong nhà này</i> bộ người ta không thể tắm... [172]
55. <i>Can't</i> (int) <i>you</i> (top) tell? [175]	55. <i>Cậu</i> không biết hả? [173]
56. <i>Didn't</i> (int) <i>you</i> (top) hear why? [182]	56. <i>Cô</i> không biết lý do à? [180]
57. <i>Does</i> (int) <i>he</i> (top) have anything to do with ...? [183]	57. <i>Anh</i> có quan hệ gì với mấy thằng [...] không? [181]
58. <i>Are</i> (int) <i>you</i> (top) that old?" [184]	58. <i>Bà</i> già tới vậy sao? [182]
59. <i>Cal</i> , (int) <i>did</i> (int) <i>you</i> (top) teach Zeebo? [185]	59. <i>Cal</i> (int), <i>bộ</i> (txt) <i>bà</i> (top) dạy Zeebo đọc hả [183]
60. <i>Were</i> (int) <i>you</i> (top) from the Landing? [185]	60. <i>Bà</i> từng ở Landing hả? [183]
61. <i>Cal</i> , (int) <i>can</i> (int) <i>I</i> (top) come to see ...? [187]	61. <i>Cal</i> , (int) <i>thỉnh thoảng</i> (top) con [...] không? [185]
62. <i>Didn't</i> (int) <i>your father</i> (top) tell you? [188]	62. <i>Bố cháu</i> không nói với cháu hả? [186]
63. <i>Won't</i> (int) <i>you</i> (top) miss him? [189]	63. <i>Bác</i> không nhớ bác ấy sao? [187]
64. <i>Don't</i> (int) <i>you</i> (top) do anything? [189]	64. <i>Cháu</i> không làm gì cả à? [187]
65. <i>'d</i> (int) <i>you</i> (top) know Aunty's here? [190]	65. <i>Bố</i> có biết bác ấy ở đây không? [189]
66. <i>Would</i> (int) <i>you</i> (top) say the Finches have ...? [191]	66. <i>Chắc</i> (int) <i>chị</i> (top) sẽ nói họ nhà Finch ...? [190]
67. <i>Is</i> (int) <i>this</i> (top) the Cousin Joshua who ...? [195]	67. <i>Đây là</i> người họ hàng Joshua [...] ả? [194]
68. <i>Have</i> (int) <i>we</i> (top) done something? [196]	68. <i>Tụi con</i> đã làm chuyện gì bậy sao? [195]
69. <i>Do</i> (int) <i>you</i> (top) think I'll end up costing ...? [198]	69. <i>Bố</i> thực sự muốn tụi con làm [...] hả? [197]
70. <i>Can</i> (int) <i>you</i> (top) come look? [205]	70. <i>Anh</i> vô xem thử được không? [203]
71. <i>Do</i> (int) <i>snakes</i> (top) grunt? [205]	71. <i>Bộ</i> (txt) <i>rắn</i> (top) biết kêu hả? [204]
72. <i>can</i> (int) <i>you</i> (top) come here a minute, sir? [207]	72. <i>Bố</i> vào đây một lát được không? [206]
73. <i>Are</i> (int) <i>you</i> (top) waked up? [210]	73. <i>Mày</i> thức rồi hả? [208]
74. <i>Didn't</i> (int) <i>you</i> (top) all build that boat like ...? [210]	74. <i>Bố</i> con mày không đóng thuyền như ...? [208]
75. <i>Do</i> (int) <i>you</i> (top) really think so? [216]	75. <i>Ông</i> nghĩ thế thật à? [214]
76. <i>Have</i> (int) <i>they</i> (top) been at it? [218]	76. <i>Họ</i> lại cãi nhau hả? [216]
77. <i>Don't</i> (int) <i>you</i> (top) remember me, Mr. ...? [227]	77. <i>Ông</i> không nhớ cháu hả, ông Cunningham? [225]
78. <i>Can</i> (int) <i>we</i> (top) go home now? [229]	78. <i>Mình</i> về nhà bây giờ được chưa? [226]
79. <i>Can</i> (int) <i>I</i> (top) carry it for you, Mr. Finch? [229]	79. <i>Để</i> (txt) <i>cháu</i> (top) mang cho, ông Finch? [227]
80. <i>Aren't</i> (int) <i>you</i> (top) goin' down to watch? [236]	80. <i>Cô</i> không xuống đó để theo dõi sao? [234]
81. <i>Did</i> (int) <i>they</i> (top) ever know why? [238]	81. <i>Họ</i> có biết lý do không? [236]
82. <i>But</i> (txt) <i>did</i> (int) <i>that</i> (top) explain the ...? [242]	82. <i>Nhưng</i> (txt) <i>điều đó</i> (top) có [...] không? [239]
83. <i>Can't</i> (int) <i>you</i> (top) all get in? [243]	83. <i>Tụi cháu</i> không vô được hả? [240]
84. <i>Jem</i> , (int) [...] <i>are</i> (int) <i>those</i> (top) the ...? [246]	84. <i>Jem</i> , (txt) <i>có phải</i> (int) <i>người nhà Ewell</i> (top)...? [243]
85. <i>Could</i> (int) <i>you</i> (top) say it to the jury, ...? [246]	85. <i>Ông</i> có thể nói điều đó với [...], ông Tate? [244]
86. <i>Did</i> (int) <i>you</i> (top) go? [247]	86. <i>Ông</i> có đi không? [244]
87. <i>Did</i> (int) <i>you</i> (top) call a doctor, Sheriff? [248]	87. <i>Ông</i> có gọi bác sĩ không, cảnh sát trưởng? [245]
88. <i>Did</i> (int) <i>anybody</i> (top) call a doctor? [248]	88. <i>Có</i> (int) <i>bất cứ ai</i> (top) gọi bác sĩ không? [245]
89. <i>Can't</i> (int) <i>you</i> (top) remember? [249]	89. <i>Ông</i> không nhớ được à? [246]
90. <i>Was</i> (int) <i>it</i> (top) her left facing you or her ...? [249]	90. <i>Bên trái của cô ta</i> đối diện với với ông hay...? [246]
91. <i>Are</i> (int) <i>you</i> (top) the father of Mayella Ewell? [254]	91. <i>Ông</i> là cha của Mayella Ewell? [251]
92. <i>Do</i> (int) <i>you</i> (top) understand? [255]	92. <i>Ông</i> có hiểu không? [252]
93. <i>Mr. Ewell</i> , (int) <i>did</i> (int) <i>you</i> (top) see the ...? [258]	93. <i>Ông Ewell</i> , (int) <i>ông</i> (top) có thấy [...] không? [255]
94. <i>Could</i> (int) <i>I</i> (top) ask you a question or two? [259]	94. <i>Tôi</i> có thể hỏi ông một hai câu được không? [256]
95. <i>Weren't</i> (int) <i>you</i> (top) concerned with ...? [259]	95. <i>Ông</i> không quan tâm đến ...? [256]
96. <i>Didn't</i> (int) <i>you</i> (top) think she should have ...? [260]	96. <i>Ông</i> không nghĩ cô ấy cần phải có...? [256]
97. <i>Do</i> (int) <i>you</i> (top) have anything to add to it? [261]	97. <i>Ông</i> có thêm gì nữa không? [257]
98. <i>Do</i> (int) <i>you</i> (top) agree with the sheriff? [261]	98. <i>Ông</i> có đồng ý với ông cảnh sát trưởng không? [257]

99. <i>Mr. Ewell</i> , (int) <i>can</i> (int) <i>you</i> (top) read ...? [261]	99. <i>Ông Ewell</i> , (int) <i>ông</i> (top) biết [...] không? [258]
100. <i>Can</i> (int) <i>you</i> (top) read and write? [262]	100. <i>Ông</i> biết đọc biết viết không? [258]
101. <i>Will</i> (int) <i>you</i> (top) write your name and ...? [262]	101. <i>Ông</i> làm ơn viết tên ông và cho chúng tôi ...? [258]
102. <i>Would</i> (int) <i>you</i> (top) write your name for us? [262]	102. <i>Ông</i> sẽ viết tên ông cho chúng tôi được chứ? [259]
103. <i>are</i> (int) <i>you</i> (top) ambidextrous, Mr. Ewell? [263]	103. <i>ông</i> thuận cả hai tay hả ông Ewell? [260]
104. <i>Has</i> (int) <i>she</i> (top) got good sense? [267]	104. <i>Cô</i> ta khôn đó chứ? [262]
105. <i>Did</i> (int) <i>you</i> (top) scream? [268]	105. <i>Cô</i> có la lên? [263]
106. <i>Did</i> (int) <i>you</i> (top) scream and fight back? [268]	106. <i>Cô</i> có la lên và chống lại không? [263]
107. <i>Did</i> (int) <i>you</i> (top) ever go to school? [270]	107. <i>Cô</i> có bao giờ đi học không? [266]
108. <i>Do</i> (int) <i>you</i> (top) love your father, ...? [272]	108. <i>Cô</i> có yêu thương cha cô không, cô Mayella? [267]
109. <i>Does</i> (int) <i>he</i> (top) ever go after you? [272]	109. <i>Ông ta</i> có bao giờ lùng cô không? [268]
110. <i>Was</i> (int) <i>Tom Robinson</i> (top) well known ...? [273]	110. <i>Và</i> (txt) <i>cô</i> (top) biết rõ Tom Robinson? [268]
111. <i>Was</i> (int) <i>this</i> (top) the first time you ...? [273]	111. <i>Đây</i> là lần đầu tiên cô yêu cầu ...? [268]
112. <i>Didn't</i> (int) <i>you</i> (top) ever ask him ...? [273]	112. <i>Trước đó</i> cô chưa bao giờ yêu cầu anh ta? [269]
113. <i>Can</i> (int) <i>you</i> (top) remember any other ...? [274]	113. <i>Cô</i> có thể nhớ bất kỳ lần nào không? [269]
114. <i>Do</i> (int) <i>you</i> (top) remember him [...] the face? [274]	114. <i>Cô</i> nhớ hán đánh vào mặt cô hả? [269]
115. <i>Was</i> (int) <i>your last sentence</i> (top) your answer? [275]	115. <i>Câu sau</i> mới là câu trả lời của cô phải không? [270]
116. <i>Will</i> (int) <i>you</i> (top) identify the man who...? [275]	116. <i>Cô</i> nhận dạng được người đàn ông...? [270]
117. <i>Is</i> (int) <i>this</i> (top) the man, Miss Mayella? [276]	117. <i>Phải</i> (int) <i>người đàn ông này</i> (top) không, có? [270]
118. <i>Is</i> (int) <i>this</i> (top) the man who raped you? [276]	118. <i>Đây</i> có phải là người đã cưỡng hiếp cô không? [271]
119. <i>do</i> (int) <i>you</i> (top) wish to reconsider ...? [277]	119. <i>cô</i> có muốn xem lại lời khai của cô không? [272]
120. <i>Did</i> (int) <i>you</i> (top) scream first at your ...? [279]	120. <i>Cô</i> phải ban đầu cô gào vào mặt cha cô ...? [273]
121. <i>Do</i> (int) <i>you</i> (top) want to tell us what ...? [279]	121. <i>Cô</i> muốn nói với chúng tôi những gì đã xảy ra? [274]
122. <i>Shall</i> (int) <i>we</i> (top) try to wind up this ...? [282]	122. <i>Chúng ta</i> kết thúc trong chiều nay được không? [276]
123. <i>Did</i> (int) <i>he</i> (top) succeed? [283]	123. <i>Hắn</i> có làm được không? [277]
124. <i>Were</i> (int) <i>you</i> (top) picking cotton in ...? [284]	124. <i>Anh</i> hái bông vào tháng Mười một à? [278]
125. <i>Is</i> (int) <i>there</i> (top) any other way to go? [284]	125. <i>Có còn</i> con đường nào khác để đi nữa không? [278]
126. <i>Tom</i> , (int) <i>did</i> (top) she ever speak to you? [284]	126. <i>Tom</i> , (int) <i>cô ta</i> (top) [...] nói chuyện với ...? [278]
127. <i>Would</i> (int) <i>Miss Mayella</i> (top) talk to you? [285]	127. <i>Cô Mayella</i> có nói chuyện với anh không? [279]
128. <i>did</i> (int) <i>you</i> (top) ever set foot on the ...? [286]	128. <i>Anh</i> có bao giờ đặt chân lên đất nhà Ewell...? [280]
129. <i>Will</i> (int) <i>you</i> (top) tell it? [288]	129. <i>Anh</i> sẽ nói điều đó chứ? [282]
130. <i>Tom</i> , (int) <i>did</i> (int) <i>you</i> (top) rape Mayella ...? [290]	130. <i>Tom</i> , (int) <i>anh</i> (top) có cưỡng hiếp ... không? [283]
131. <i>Did</i> (int) <i>you</i> (top) resist her advances? [290]	131. <i>Anh</i> có cự tuyệt đòi hỏi của cô ta không? [283]
132. <i>Did</i> (int) <i>he</i> (top) say anything to you? [290]	132. <i>Ông ta</i> có nói gì với anh không? [284]
133. <i>Had</i> (int) <i>your eye</i> (top) on her a long time, ...? [293]	133. <i>Anh</i> đã để mắt đến cô ta từ lâu, [...], chàng trai? [286]
134. <i>Do</i> (int) <i>you</i> (top) deny that you went by ...? [294]	134. <i>Anh</i> phủ nhận rằng anh đi [...] ngôi nhà đó? [287]
135. <i>Were</i> (int) <i>you</i> (top) so scared that ...? [295]	135. <i>Anh</i> đã sợ rằng cô ấy làm anh đau đến thế, ...? [288]
136. <i>Ain't</i> (int) <i>you</i> (top) feeling good? [296]	136. <i>Mày</i> thấy khoẻ không hả? [289]
137. <i>Could</i> (int) <i>I</i> (top) just pass this note to ...? [308]	137. <i>Tôi</i> có thể đưa lá thư này cho ông Finch ...? [301]
138. <i>Mister Jem</i> , (int) <i>don't</i> (int) <i>you</i> (top) know ...? [309]	138. <i>Cậu Jem</i> , (int) <i>bộ</i> (txt) <i>cậu</i> (top) ... sao? [302]
139. <i>Don't</i> (int) <i>you</i> (top) want to hear about it, Cal? [310]	139. <i>Bộ</i> (txt) <i>bà</i> (top) không muốn [...] sao, Cal? [303]
140. <i>Is</i> (int) <i>he</i> (top) all right? [316]	140. <i>Nó</i> ổn không? [307]
141. <i>Did</i> (int) <i>Atticus</i> (top) put us up there as a ...? [319]	141. <i>Có phải</i> (int) <i>bộ Atticus</i> (top) đã bảo ...? [312]
142. <i>Did</i> (int) <i>Scout</i> (top) understand all the-? [319]	142. <i>Scout</i> có hiểu tất cả chuyện đó...? [312]
143. <i>Did</i> (int) <i>it</i> (top) ever strike you that Judge ...? [321]	143. <i>Bộ</i> (txt) <i>cháu</i> (top) không thấy rằng việc ...? [314]
144. <i>Ain't</i> (int) <i>you</i> (top) heard yet? [323]	144. <i>Tụi cháu</i> chưa nghe hả? [315]
145. <i>Can't</i> (int) <i>you</i> (top) take up sewin' or somethin'? [336]	145. <i>Bộ</i> (txt) <i>em</i> (txt) không thể tập may vá [...] sao? [329]
146. <i>Can</i> (int) <i>I</i> (top) help you, Cal? [340]	146. <i>Con</i> giúp được gì cho bà không, Cal? [333]
147. <i>Don't</i> (int) <i>you</i> (top) want to grow up to be a ...? [342]	147. <i>Cháu</i> không muốn lớn lên thành luật sư sao? [335]
148. <i>Was</i> (int) <i>he</i> (top) there, ma'am? [343]	148. <i>Ông ấy</i> ở đó hả, bà? [336]
149. <i>are</i> (int) <i>you</i> (top) all talking about Mayella ...? [344]	149. <i>bà</i> đang nói về Mayella Ewell hả? [337]
150. <i>Alexandra</i> , (int) <i>could</i> (int) <i>you</i> (top) ...? [348-9]	150. <i>Alexandra</i> , (int) <i>chị</i> (top) có thể xuống bếp ...? [342]
151. <i>Didn't</i> (int) <i>they</i> (top) give him any warning? [349]	151. <i>Họ</i> không có hành động cảnh báo nào sao? [349]
152. <i>Have</i> (int) <i>you</i> (top) ever thought of it this ...? [351]	152. <i>Chị</i> từng nghĩ về nó theo cách này chưa, ...? [344]
153. <i>Are</i> (int) <i>you</i> (top) together again, Jean Louise? [351]	153. <i>Cháu</i> ra cùng bọn ta không, Jean Louise? [344]
154. <i>'d</i> (int) <i>you</i> (top) hear what that cousin of mine? [352]	154. <i>Chị</i> có nghe những gì đứa em họ của tôi ...? [345]
155. <i>Jem</i> , (int) <i>are</i> (int) <i>you</i> (top) crazy? [353]	155. <i>Jem</i> , (int) <i>anh</i> (top) khùng hả?... [246]
156. <i>Mr. Finch</i> , (int) <i>won't</i> (int) <i>you</i> (top) have ...? [355]	156. <i>Ông Finch</i> , (int) <i>sao</i> (top) ông không ngồi chơi? [348]
157. <i>Did</i> (int) <i>you</i> (top) hear about? [356]	157. <i>Anh</i> có nghe về? [349]
158. <i>Does</i> (int) <i>anybody</i> (top) have a definition? [362]	158. <i>Ai</i> có thể định nghĩa được? [356]
159. <i>Ain't</i> (int) <i>you</i> (top) scared of haints? [376]	159. <i>Em</i> không sợ ma hả? [370]
160. <i>ain't</i> (int) <i>you</i> (top) a cow tonight? [378]	160. <i>tối nay</i> mày không làm bò hả? [372]
161. <i>Jem</i> , (int) <i>are</i> (int) <i>you</i> (top) tryin' to scare me? [384]	161. <i>Jem</i> , (int) <i>bộ</i> (txt) <i>anh</i> (top) tính nhát em đó hả? [378]

162. <i>Jem</i> , (int) <i>are</i> (int) <i>you</i> (top) afraid? [386]	162. <i>Jem</i> , (int) <i>anh</i> (top) sợ hả? [379]
163. <i>Agnes</i> , (int) <i>is</i> (int) <i>your father</i> (top) home? [389]	163. <i>Agnes</i> , (int) <i>ba cháu</i> (top) có nhà không? [382]
164. <i>Are</i> (int) <i>you</i> (top) all right, darling? [390]	164. <i>Cháu</i> có sao không, cục cưng? [383]
165. <i>Aunty</i> , (int) <i>is</i> (int) <i>Jem</i> (top) dead? [390]	165. <i>Bác này</i> , (int) <i>Jem</i> (top) chết rồi hả? [383]
166. <i>Is</i> (int) <i>Jem</i> (top) dead? [391]	166. <i>Jem</i> chết rồi hả? [384]
167. <i>Did</i> (int) <i>you</i> (top) find anything? [393]	166. <i>Anh</i> có tìm thấy gì không? [386]
168. <i>Are</i> (int) <i>you</i> sure? [395]	168. <i>Anh</i> chắc chứ? [388]
169. <i>Mr. Finch</i> , (int) <i>did</i> (int) <i>you</i> (top) hear them? [396]	169. <i>Ông Finch</i> , (int) <i>ông</i> (top) có nghe thấy ...? [390]
170. <i>Won't</i> (int) <i>you</i> (top) have a seat, Mr. Arthur? [402]	170. <i>Sao</i> ông không ngồi, ông Arthur? [395]
171. <i>Mr. Finch</i> , (int) <i>do you</i> think <i>Jem</i> killed ...? [403]	171. <i>Ông Finch</i> (int), <i>ông</i> (top) nghĩ <i>Jem</i> đã ... hả? [396]
172. <i>Do</i> (int) <i>you</i> (top) think that? [403]	172. <i>Ông</i> nghĩ vậy hả? [396]
173. <i>Heck</i> , (int) <i>can't</i> (int) <i>you</i> even try to see it ...? [405]	173. <i>Heck này</i> , (int) <i>ông</i> (top) thậm chí [...] sao? [398]
174. <i>Can</i> (int) <i>you</i> (top) possibly understand? [409]	174. <i>Chắc</i> (int) <i>con</i> (top) hiểu chứ? [402]
175. <i>Jean Louise</i> , (int) <i>is</i> (int) <i>your</i> (top) father in ...? [410]	175. <i>Jean Louise</i> , (int) <i>bố cháu</i> (top) trong [...] hả? [403]
176. <i>Will</i> (int) <i>you</i> (top) take me home? [411]	176. <i>Cô</i> sẽ đưa tôi về nhà chứ? [404]
177. <i>Is</i> (int) <i>Jem</i> (top) awake yet? [414]	177. <i>Jem</i> thức chưa? [407]
178. <i>Are</i> (int) <i>you</i> (top) sittin' up with him? [414]	178. <i>Bố</i> ngồi suốt với anh ấy hả? [407]

Appendix 6

'Who' as interrogative Subject Theme

ST	TT
1. <i>who</i> did? [27]	1. <i>ai</i> dạy?" [29]
2. <i>And</i> (txt) <i>who</i> (to)'s runnin', Miss Priss? [36]	2. <i>Ai</i> chạy vậy, cô Priss? [39]
3. <i>who</i> 's so high and mighty all of a sudden? [70]	3. <i>ai</i> mà bắt ngờ cao cấp và quyền hành dữ vậy ta? [72]
4. <i>Who</i> did 'em, you reckon? [91]	4. <i>Theo anh</i> ai làm chúng? [92]
5. <i>Who</i> do we know around here who whittles? [91]	5. <i>Ai</i> quanh đây biết đẽo gọt mà tụi mình biết? [92]
6. <i>Who</i> started this? [128]	6. <i>Đứa nào</i> gây sự trước? [127]
7. <i>who</i> taught me my letters? [184]	7. <i>ai</i> dạy chữ cho tôi hả? [182]
8. <i>Who</i> started it? [204]	8. <i>Ai</i> gây chuyện trước? [203]
9. <i>Who</i> called you? [246]	9. <i>Ai</i> đã gọi ông? [244]
10. <i>who</i> done it? [268]	10. <i>ai</i> đã làm chuyện này? [264]
11. <i>Who</i> beat you up? [279]	11. <i>Ai</i> đánh đập cô? [273]
12. <i>Who</i> in this town did one thing ...? [321]	12. <i>Ai</i> trong thị trấn này đã làm một việc ...? [314]
13. <i>who</i> 'd've thought of little dewberry tarts...? [340]	13. <i>ai</i> đã nghĩ tới loại bánh nướng nhân quả ...? [333]
14. <i>Who</i> do what? [362]	14. <i>Ai</i> làm cái gì? [355]
15. <i>Who</i> 's scared to go around the corner? [378]	15. <i>Ai</i> mà sợ đi đi vòng cua này? [372]

Appendix 7

'Who' as interrogative Complement Theme

ST	TT
1. <i>Who</i> 'd we give 'em back to? [52]	1. <i>Mình</i> trả chúng lại cho ai đây? [55]
2. <i>Who</i> do you think you are? [203]	2. <i>Anh</i> tưởng anh là ai chứ? [202]
3. <i>Who</i> is 'he'? [267]	3. <i>Hắn</i> ta là ai? [263]
4. <i>Who</i> are your friends? [271]	4. <i>Bạn</i> cô là ai? [267]
5. <i>who</i> was he talking to? [290]	5. <i>anh ta</i> đang nói với ai? [284]
6. <i>Who</i> was it? [399]	6. <i>Đó</i> là ai? [392]

Appendix 8

'What' as interrogative Subject Theme

ST	TT
1. <i>What</i> happened? [82]	1. <i>Có</i> (int) <i>chuyện gì</i> (top) vậy? [83]
2. <i>What</i> 's in those packages? [119]	2. <i>Có</i> (int) <i>cái gì</i> (top) trong mấy cái túi đó vậy? [119]
3. <i>What</i> 's so interestin'? [263]	3. <i>Cái gì</i> thú vị thế? [259]
4. <i>Then</i> (txt) <i>what</i> (top) happened? [267]	4. <i>Sau đó</i> (txt) <i>chuyện gì</i> (top) đã xảy ra?? [263]
5. <i>Then</i> (txt) <i>what</i> (top) happened? [268]	5. <i>Sau đó</i> (txt) <i>chuyện gì</i> (top) xảy ra? [264]
6. <i>Then</i> (txt) <i>what</i> (top) happened? [268]	6. <i>Sau đó</i> (txt) <i>chuyện gì</i> (top) xảy ra? [264]
7. <i>what</i> was it? [273]	7. <i>cái gì</i> nhi? [268]
8. <i>Tom</i> , (int) <i>what</i> (top) happened to you on ...? [286]	8. <i>Tom</i> , (int) <i>chuyện gì</i> (top) đã xảy ra với anh vào? [280]
9. <i>What</i> happened after you turned the chair over? [288]	9. <i>Chuyện gì</i> xảy ra sau khi anh làm đổ ghế? [282]
10. <i>What</i> happened after that? [288]	10. <i>Chuyện gì</i> xảy ra sau đó? [282]
11. <i>Then</i> (txt) <i>what</i> (top) happened? [290]	11. <i>Sau đó</i> (txt) <i>chuyện gì</i> (top) xảy ra? [283]

12. <i>What</i> has happened? [325]	12. <i>Có</i> (int) <i>chuyện gì</i> (top) à? [318]
13. <i>what</i> 'll happen to him? [326]	13. <i>chuyện gì</i> sẽ đến với anh ta? [319]
14. <i>What</i> 'd make him think either one of 'em'd ...? [330]	14. <i>Điều gì</i> khiến ông ta nghĩ một trong hai cô ...? [323]
15. <i>what</i> 'll blow over? [344]	15. <i>gió</i> sẽ cuốn đi cái gì? [337]
16. <i>What</i> 's wrong with that? [365]	16. <i>Chuyện đó</i> có gì sai đâu? [358]
17. <i>What</i> 's eatin' you? [365]	17. <i>Em</i> đang ưu tư gì vậy? [358]
18. <i>Jean Louise</i> , (int) <i>what</i> (top) happened? [390]	18. <i>Jean Louise</i> , (int) <i>chuyện gì</i> (top) xảy ra vậy? [383]

Appendix 9

'What' as interrogative Complement Theme

ST	TT
1. <i>What</i> is it, Jean Louise? [31]	1. <i>Là sao</i> , Jean Louise [34]
2. <i>What</i> is your name, son? [40]	2. <i>Em</i> tên gì, cậu bé [43]
3. <i>What</i> do you mean by that? [41]	3. <i>Con</i> nói vậy là sao? [44]
4. <i>What</i> you reckon we oughta do, Jem? [53]	4. <i>Vậy</i> (txt) <i>theo anh</i> (top) mình nên làm gì, Jem? [56]
5. <i>What</i> 'll we play today? [54]	5. <i>Bữa nay</i> mình chơi vai gì? [57]
6. <i>What</i> 's a Hot Steam? [55]	6. <i>Hồn nóng</i> là cái gì vậy? [58]
7. <i>What</i> are you all playing? [60]	7. <i>Tụi con</i> đang diễn cái trò gì vậy? [63]
8. <i>What</i> 'd you write him? [71]	8. <i>Anh</i> viết gì cho hắn vậy? [73]
9. <i>What</i> were you trying to give him? [73]	9. <i>Tụi con</i> cô đưa cho ông ta cái gì? [75]
10. <i>What</i> 'd you see? [80]	10. <i>Mày</i> thấy cái gì? [82]
11. <i>But</i> (txt) <i>what</i> (top) was strip poker? [83]	11. <i>Nhưng</i> (txt) <i>đánh phé cời đồ</i> (top) là gì? [84]
12. <i>What</i> 's the matter with you? [91]	12. <i>Có</i> (int) <i>chuyện gì</i> (top) với mày vậy? [92]
13. <i>Jem Finch</i> , (int) <i>what</i> (top) are you ...? [100]	13. <i>Jem Finch</i> , <i>cháu</i> (top) sẽ làm gì với tuyết của cô? [100]
14. <i>What</i> 's the matter? [104]	14. <i>Chuyện gì</i> vậy? [104]
15. <i>What</i> 'd he mean sayin' that? [114]	15. <i>Nó nói vậy</i> là có ý gì? [113]
16. <i>What</i> 'd you get for Christmas? [122]	16. <i>Giáng sinh</i> mày được cho cái gì? [122]
17. <i>What</i> do you mean? [125] (<i>Ý mày là gì?</i>)	17. <i>Ý mày</i> là sao? [125]
18. <i>Francis</i> , (int) <i>what</i> (top) the hell do you mean? [126]	18. <i>Francis</i> , (int) <i>mày</i> (top) muốn nói cái quái ...? [125]
19. <i>What</i> is all this, Jean Louise? [127]	19. <i>Chuyện gì</i> vậy, Louise [126]
20. <i>What</i> did Francis call him? [130]	20. <i>Francis</i> gọi ba con là gì? [129]
21. <i>What</i> 's a whore-lady? [132]	21. <i>Con điếm</i> là gì vậy? [130]
22. <i>What</i> are you going to do, then? [134]	22. <i>Vậy</i> (txt) <i>anh</i> (top) sẽ làm gì? [233]
23. <i>What</i> can he do? [138]	23. <i>Bố cháu</i> có thể làm gì? [136]
24. <i>What</i> are you shooting at? [139]	24. <i>Con</i> bắn cái gì vậy? [137]
25. <i>Whatcha</i> looking at? [140]	25. <i>Con</i> đang nhìn gì vậy? [238]
26. <i>What</i> 's he doin', ...? [141]	26. <i>Nó</i> đang làm gì? [139]
27. <i>What</i> 's the matter with you, boy, ...? [148]	27. <i>Có</i> (int) <i>chuyện gì</i> (top) mà cháu không nói ...? [145]
28. <i>what</i> are you doing in those overalls? [154]	28. <i>cháu</i> làm gì trong bộ áo liền quần đó? [151]
29. <i>what</i> exactly is a nigge-rllover? [164]	29. <i>chính xác</i> thì kẻ yêu mọi đen là gì? [160]
30. <i>What</i> 'd she want? [167]	30. <i>Bà</i> ấy muốn gì vậy? [164]
31. <i>What</i> was that? [168]	31. <i>Đó</i> là chuyện gì? [164]
32. <i>What</i> am I gonna do about you [...] this Sunday? [173]	32. <i>Chủ nhật này</i> tôi làm gì với vụ đi nhà thờ của ...? [171]
33. <i>What</i> 's all this for, Cal? [175]	33. <i>Tất cả chuyện này</i> để làm chi vậy, Cal? [173]
34. <i>What</i> you want, Lula? [176]	34. <i>Cô</i> muốn gì Lula? [174]
35. <i>Just</i> (int) <i>what</i> (top) did he do, Cal? [183]	35. <i>Thế</i> (txt) <i>anh</i> (top) ta đã làm gì, Cal? [181]
36. <i>What</i> 's your birthday, Cal? [184]	36. <i>Sinh nhật của bà</i> là ngày nào, Cal?
37. <i>What</i> was the book, Cal? [185]	37. <i>Cuốn sách đó</i> là cuốn gì vậy, Cal? [183]
38. <i>Well</i> (txt) <i>what</i> (top) do you all do? [189]	38. <i>Bọn cháu</i> làm gì? [187]
39. <i>Atticus</i> (int), <i>what</i> (top) 's the matter? [196]	39. <i>Bố Atticus</i> , (int) <i>có chuyện gì</i> (top) vậy? [195]
40. <i>What</i> 's rape? [199]	40. <i>Cưỡng hiếp</i> là gì? [199]
41. <i>What</i> 'd they do in there? [211]	41. <i>Họ</i> làm gì trong đó? [209]
42. <i>What</i> have you been reading? [217]	42. <i>Con</i> đang đọc cái gì vậy? [215]
43. <i>what</i> 's a mixed child? [239]	43. <i>trẻ lai</i> là gì? [236]
44. <i>And</i> (txt) <i>what</i> (top) did you find? [247]	44. <i>Và</i> (txt) <i>ông</i> (top) đã thấy cái gì? [244]
45. <i>What</i> is it? [248] (<i>Cái đó là gì?</i>)	45. <i>Vậy</i> là sao? [245]
46. <i>What</i> did you do when you saw the defendant? [258]	46. <i>Ông</i> đã làm gì khi thấy bị cáo? [255]
47. <i>Then</i> (txt) <i>what</i> (top) did you do? [259]	47. <i>Rồi</i> (txt) <i>ông</i> (top) làm gì? [355]
48. <i>What</i> were you doing on the porch? [266]	48. <i>Cô</i> làm gì ở hiên nhà? [262]
49. <i>What</i> are you scared of? [266]	49. <i>Cô</i> sợ cái gì? [266]
50. <i>What</i> 's the matter with you? [269]	50. <i>Cô</i> sao vậy? [265]
51. <i>whatcha</i> mean? [272]	51. <i>ông</i> muốn nói sao? [268]

52. <i>What</i> did it consist of? [283]	52. <i>Gồm</i> chuyện gì? [277]
53. <i>What</i> did you say then, Tom? [288]	53. <i>Sau đó</i> (txt) <i>anh</i> (to) nói gì, Tom? [281]
54. <i>Then</i> (txt) <i>what</i> (top) did she do? [289]	54. <i>Sau đó</i> (txt) <i>cô ta</i> (top) làm gì? [283]
55. <i>What</i> did he say, Tom? [289]	55. <i>Ông ta</i> nói gì? [283]
56. <i>What</i> was the evidence of her offense? [304]	56. <i>Chứng cứ cho sự vi phạm luật lệ của cô ta</i> là gì? [296]
57. <i>What</i> did she do? [304]	57. <i>Cô ta</i> đã làm những gì? [296]
58. <i>What'd</i> he say? [307]	58. <i>Bố</i> nói gì vậy? [300]
59. <i>Cal</i> (int), <i>what</i> (top) 's all this? [317]	59. <i>Cal</i> , (int) <i>tất cả những thứ này</i> (top) là gì vậy? [310]
60. <i>What</i> on earth could Ewell do to me, sister? [326]	60. <i>Ewell</i> có thể làm trò gì với em há, bà chị? [319]
61. <i>What</i> did you all study this afternoon? [342]	61. <i>Chiều nay</i> nghiên cứu của các bà là gì? [335]
62. <i>what</i> was that, Gertrude? [344]	62. <i>đó</i> là gì vậy, Gertrude? [337]
63. <i>What's</i> the matter? [349]	63. <i>Có</i> (int) <i>chuyện gì</i> (top) vậy? [342]
64. <i>what</i> else do they want from him, ...? [350]	64. <i>họ</i> còn muốn gì ở cậu ấy nữa, muốn gì nữa? [343]
65. <i>What</i> does who want, Alexandra? [350]	65. <i>Ai</i> muốn gì, Alexandre? [343]
66. <i>What</i> was that old thing, Jem said. [376]	66. <i>Câu hỏi xưa đó</i> là gì nhỉ? [370]
67. <i>What</i> are you doin' way out here by yourself, boy? [378]	67. <i>Mày</i> làm gì ở ngoài này vậy, nhóc? [372]
68. <i>Whatcha</i> thinkin' about? [384]	68. <i>Anh</i> nghĩ gì vậy? [378]
60. <i>What</i> do you mean? [309]	69. <i>Ý con</i> là sao? [402]
70. <i>Whatcha</i> readin'? [314]	70. <i>Bố</i> đọc gì vậy? [407]

Appendix 10
'How' as interrogative Adjunct Theme

ST	TT
1. <i>How</i> do you know a match don't hurt him? [23]	1. <i>Sao</i> mà biết đốt diêm không làm nó đau? [25]
2. <i>How's</i> that, Jem...? [53]	2. <i>Quan trọng</i> làm sao, Jem? [56]
3. <i>How</i> can you keep from passing through one? [55]	3. <i>Làm thế nào</i> để đừng đi xuyên qua một thứ như vậy? [58]
4. <i>Scout</i> (int), <i>how</i> (top) 's he gonna know what ...? [58]	4. <i>Scout</i> (int), <i>làm sao</i> (top) hẳn [...] làm cái gì? [60]
5. <i>How</i> do you know? [65]	5. <i>Làm sao</i> cô biết? [68]
6. <i>How'd</i> you like some fresh poundcake to take home? [69]	6. <i>Cháu</i> có muốn mang ít bánh nướng về nhà không? [72]
7. <i>How</i> do you know he don't feel good? [71]	7. <i>Sao</i> mà biết hẳn không cảm thấy dễ chịu? [73]
8. <i>How</i> do you know it's a man? [93]	8. <i>Sao</i> mà biết đó là đàn ông? [94]
9. <i>How</i> do you make a snowman? [98]	9. <i>Đáp người tuyết</i> như thế nào há bố? [98]
10. <i>How</i> can flowers keep warm? [100]	10. <i>Làm sao</i> giữ hoa ấm được? [100]
11. <i>How'd</i> it catch, Miss Maudie? [111]	11. <i>Làm sao</i> bắt lửa vậy, cô Maudie [110]
12. <i>How'd</i> you know? [111]	12. <i>Sao</i> cô biết? [111]
13. <i>How's</i> that? [159]	13. <i>Sai</i> thế nào? [156]
14. <i>How</i> do you know? [173]	14. <i>Sao</i> anh biết? [171]
15. <i>How'd</i> you and Mister Jem like to come ...? [174]	15. <i>Cô với cậu Jem</i> có thích đi nhà thờ [...] không? [172]
16. <i>How're</i> we gonna sing it if there ain't any ...? [179]	16. <i>Làm sao</i> mà hát được nếu không có cuốn ...? [178]
17. <i>How'd</i> you like for her to come live with us? [190]	17. <i>Tụi con</i> chắc thích lắm khi bác đến sống ...? [188]
18. <i>How</i> did you know that? [195]	18. <i>Sao</i> bác biết chuyện đó? [194]
19. <i>How</i> does a snake feel? [205]	19. <i>Con rắn</i> rờ thấy làm sao? [203]
20. <i>How'd</i> you get here? [206] (means)	20. <i>Mày</i> đến đây bằng cách nào? [205]
21. <i>How'd</i> you get here? [207] (means)	21. <i>Sao</i> cậu đến đây được? [205] (reason)
22. <i>How's</i> your entailment gettin' along? [227]	22. <i>Vụ tài sản kế thừa của ông</i> đến đâu rồi? [224]
23. <i>How</i> c'n you stand to get drunk 'fore eight in ...? [235]	23. <i>Làm sao</i> em có thể say xỉn khi chưa tới ...? [232]
24. <i>How</i> does he keep what's in it in it? [238]	24. <i>Làm thế nào</i> ông ta đựng cái gì trong đó ...? [235]
25. <i>How</i> can you tell? [239]	25. <i>Sao</i> cậu dám chắc? [237]
26. <i>But</i> (txt) <i>how</i> (top) can you tell? [239]	26. <i>Nhưng</i> (txt) <i>làm sao</i> (top) anh dám chắc? [237]
27. <i>Well</i> (txt) <i>how</i> (top) do you know we ...? [240]	27. <i>Làm sao</i> anh biết chúng ta không phải là người ...? [237]
28. <i>How</i> do you know? [249]	28. <i>Làm sao</i> ông biết? [245]
29. <i>How's</i> that? [260]	29. <i>Rồi</i> sao? [257]
30. <i>How</i> do you think I sign my relief checks? [262]	30. <i>Ông</i> nghĩ tôi kí các hóa đơn [...] như thế nào? [258]
31. <i>How</i> you mean? [272]	31. <i>Ý ông</i> là sao? [268]
32. <i>How</i> could they do it, ...? [317]	32. <i>Sao</i> họ có thể làm vậy, ...? [310]
33. <i>How</i> could you take such a risk, Atticus, ...? [331]	33. <i>Sao</i> bỏ lại liều thế, bố Articus, ...? [325]
34. <i>How</i> can that be? [332]	34. <i>Tức là</i> sao? [325]
35. <i>Well then</i> , (txt) <i>how</i> (top) do you explain why ...? [338]	35. <i>Nếu vậy</i> (txt) <i>làm sao</i> (top) em giải thích ...? [331]
36. <i>How</i> can he do that? [362]	36. <i>Sao</i> ông ta có thể làm điều đó? [355]
37. <i>How</i> do you know where we're at, Jem? [377]	37. <i>Làm sao</i> anh biết mình đang ở đâu, Jem? [371]
38. <i>How's</i> that? [397]	38. <i>Cái đó</i> là sao? [390]

Appendix 11
‘Where’ as interrogative Adjunct Theme

ST	TT
1. <i>and</i> (txt) <i>where</i> (top) would we be if he hadn't? [8]	1. <i>và liệu</i> (txt) <i>chúng tôi</i> (top) ở đâu nếu ông không ...? [8]
2. <i>Where'd</i> you come from? [13]	2. <i>Mày</i> ở đâu tới vậy? [15]
3. <i>Where's</i> yours? [30]	3. <i>Bữa trưa của em</i> ở đâu? [32]
4. <i>where'd</i> he go? [39]	4. <i>nó</i> chạy đâu rồi? [42]
5. <i>Where</i> did you get such a notion? [65]	5. <i>Cháu</i> lấy đâu ra cái ý tưởng đó vậy? [68]
6. <i>Where</i> were you all, ...? [82]	6. <i>Mấy</i> đứa ở đâu vậy, ...? [83]
7. <i>Where're</i> your pants, son? [82]	7. <i>Quần dài của con</i> đâu hả con? [84]
8. <i>Where's</i> Francis? [127]	8. <i>Francis</i> đâu rồi [126]
9. <i>Where</i> is he, Cal? [143]	9. <i>Nó</i> đâu, Cal? [141]
10. <i>Where</i> are you two going at this time of day? [153]	10. <i>Hai đứa</i> đi đâu vào giờ này hả? [150]
11. <i>where</i> are the hymn-books? [178]	11. <i>Sách</i> thánh ca đâu? [177]
12. <i>Where'd</i> you go to school, Cal? [184]	12. <i>Bà</i> học trường nào vậy, Cal? [182]
13. <i>And</i> (txt) <i>where</i> (top) are you going, Stephanie? [237]	13. <i>Chị</i> tính đi đâu, Stephanie? [234]
14. <i>Where</i> were you at dusk on that evening? [265]	14. <i>Cô</i> đã ở đâu lúc chạng vạng tối? [261]
15. <i>Where</i> were they? [278]	15. <i>Chúng</i> ở đâu? [273]
16. <i>Where</i> were the other children? [285]	16. <i>Mấy đứa nhỏ kia</i> ở đâu? [279]
17. <i>Where</i> are your britches today? [341]	17. <i>Bữa nay</i> quần cháu đâu? [334]
18. <i>Where's</i> your mother, Sam? [355]	18. <i>Mẹ cháu</i> đâu, Sam? [348]
19. <i>Where's</i> your costume? [378]	19. <i>Trang phục của mày</i> đâu? [372]
20. <i>Where's</i> Scout? [389]	20. <i>Scout</i> đâu? [382]
21. <i>Where</i> were you when you thought it was Cecil? [396]	21. <i>Cháu</i> ở đâu khi cháu nghĩ đó là Cecil? [389]
22. <i>Where'd</i> you get it? [407]	22. <i>Ở đâu</i> ông có nó vậy? [400]

Appendix 12
‘Why’ as Adjunct Theme

ST	TT
1. <i>Why</i> don't you come over, Charles Baker Harris? [13]	1. <i>Sao</i> mày không qua đây, Charles Baker Harris? [15]
2. <i>Why</i> do you think Miss Rachel locks up ...? [21]	2. <i>Mày nghĩ</i> vì sao cô Rachel khoá cửa...? [23]
3. <i>Why</i> does he pay you like that? [32]	3. <i>Sao</i> ông lại trả bố như vậy? [35]
4. <i>Miss Caroline</i> , (int) <i>why</i> (top) don't you read ...? [43]	4. <i>Cô Caroline, cô đừng buồn nữa, sao</i> cô ...? [45]
5. <i>Why</i> not? [48]	5. <i>Sao</i> vậy? [50]
6. <i>Yeah, but</i> (txt) <i>why</i> (top) should somebody want...? [53]	6. <i>Phải, nhưng</i> (txt) <i>tại sao</i> (top) ai đó muốn ...? [56]
7. <i>Why</i> didn't you bring it? [57]	7. <i>Sao</i> mày không lấy nó theo? [59]
8. <i>Why</i> don't you get it? [57]	8. <i>Sao</i> anh không vào mà lấy? [57]
9. <i>Why</i> are you tearing up that newspaper? [60]	9. <i>Sao</i> lại xé nát tờ báo kia vậy? [63]
10. <i>Why</i> can't you just pull it up? [64]	10. <i>Sao</i> cô không đơn giản là nhô nó lên? [66]
11. <i>Why</i> doesn't he? [66]	11. <i>Sao</i> ông ta không muốn nhỉ? [69]
12. <i>Why</i> don't you just knock the front door down? [72]	12. <i>Sao</i> anh không đến gõ ngay cửa trước? [74]
13. <i>Why</i> do you want Mr. Radley to come out? [73]	13. <i>Sao</i> tụi con lại muốn ông Radley ra ngoài? [75]
14. <i>Why</i> don't you go on home, Scout? [78]	14. <i>Sao</i> mày không về nhà đi, Scout? [80]
15. <i>Why'd</i> you do it, sir? [95]	15. <i>Sao</i> ông làm vậy? [95]
16. <i>Why</i> don't they hurry, why don't they hurry... [105]	16. <i>Sao</i> họ không nhanh lên, sao họ không nhanh... [105]
17. <i>Why</i> ain't he on top of one of the houses? [107]	17. <i>Sao</i> bố không leo lên nóc nhà? [106]
18. <i>Why</i> don't you get a colored man? [112]	18. <i>Sao</i> cô không thuê một người da màu? [112]
19. <i>why</i> do you send me to school?" [114]	19. <i>sao</i> bố cho con đi học? [114]
20. <i>Then</i> (txt) <i>why</i> (top) did Cecil say you ...? [115]	20. <i>Vậy</i> (txt) <i>sao</i> (top) Cecil nói bố bảo vệ ...? [114]
21. <i>then</i> (txt) <i>why</i> (top) are you doin' it? [115]	21. <i>vậy</i> (txt) <i>sao</i> (top) bố lại làm? [114]
22. <i>And</i> (txt) <i>why</i> (top) do I not understand ...? [130]	22. <i>Tại sao</i> chú không hiểu trẻ con, cô Jean Luise? [128]
23. <i>Why'd</i> you do it? [157]	23. <i>Sao</i> con làm vậy? [154]
24. <i>Then</i> (txt) <i>why</i> (top) are you asking me what ...? [164]	24. <i>Vậy</i> (txt) <i>tại sao</i> (top) con hỏi bố nó nghĩa là gì? [161]
25. <i>Why</i> can't she leave me alone? [169]	25. <i>Sao</i> bà không để con yên? [165]
26. <i>Why</i> were you all takin' up collection for ...? [182]	26. <i>Tại sao</i> mọi người đều tham gia quyên góp...? [180]
27. <i>Why</i> can't she take 'em with her, Reverend? [182]	27. <i>Sao</i> cô ấy không mang chúng theo, mục sư? [181]
28. <i>Why</i> not, Reverend? [183]	28. <i>Sao</i> không, mục sư? [181]
29. <i>but</i> (txt) <i>why</i> (top) won't folks hire Helen? [183]	29. <i>nhưng</i> (txt) <i>sao</i> (top) người ta không thuê ...? [181]
30. <i>but</i> (txt) <i>why</i> (top) do you all sing hymns that way? [184]	30. <i>nhưng</i> (txt) <i>sao</i> (top) mọi người ở đây hát ...? [182]
31. <i>Why'd</i> you do it? [210]	31. <i>Sao</i> mày làm vậy? [208]
32. <i>Why</i> do you reckon Boo Radley's never run off? [212]	32. <i>Tại sao</i> mày nghĩ Boo Radley không bao giờ ...? [211]
33. <i>Why</i> on earth are you all sitting in the dark? [217]	33. <i>Sao</i> tụi con ngồi trong bóng tối vậy? [214]

34. <i>Why</i> ain't you going to bed? [220]	34. <i>Sao</i> anh chưa đi ngủ? [218]
35. <i>Why</i> so? [224]	35. <i>Sao</i> lại thế? [222]
36. <i>Why</i> don't you drink your coffee, Scout? [233]	36. <i>Sao</i> con không uống cà phê của con đi, Scout? [230]
37. <i>Why's</i> he sittin' with the colored folks? [238]	37. <i>Sao</i> ông ta ngồi với những người da màu vậy? [235]
38. <i>Then</i> (txt) <i>why</i> (top) does he do like that? [238]	38. <i>Vậy</i> (txt) <i>sao</i> (top) ông ta lại làm thế? [235]
39. <i>Why</i> not? [248]	39. <i>Tại sao</i> không? [245]
40. <i>Why</i> didn't you run? [278]	40. <i>tại sao</i> không chạy? [273]
41. <i>Then</i> (txt) <i>why</i> (top) didn't the other children ...? [278]	41. <i>Vậy</i> (txt) <i>sao</i> (top) những đứa em kia không ...? [273]
42. <i>Why</i> didn't your screams make them come ...? [278]	42. <i>Tại sao</i> tiếng kêu gào của cô không làm ...? [273]
43. <i>Why</i> did you run? [291]	43. <i>Tại sao</i> anh bỏ chạy?" [284]
44. <i>Why</i> were you scared? [292]	44. <i>Tại sao</i> anh sợ? [284]
45. <i>Why</i> didn't you do them instead of Miss Ewell's? [293]	45. <i>Tại sao</i> anh không làm những việc đó mà lại ...? [286]
46. <i>Why</i> what, suh? [293]	46. <i>Tại sao</i> cái gì, thưa ngài? [286]
47. <i>Why</i> were you so anxious to do that ...? [293]	47. <i>Tại sao</i> anh sẵn lòng làm những việc lật vật ...? [286]
48. <i>why</i> did you run so fast? [295]	48. <i>tại sao</i> anh chạy nhanh như thế? [288]
49. <i>why</i> were you scared? [295]	49. <i>tại sao</i> anh sợ? [288]
50. <i>Why</i> do you do like you do? [300]	50. <i>Tại sao</i> ông cứ làm vậy hoài? [292]
51. <i>But</i> (txt) <i>why</i> (top) had he entrusted us with ...? [300]	51. <i>Nhưng</i> (txt) <i>tại sao</i> (top) ông ta lại tiết lộ ...? [292]
52. <i>why</i> don't people like us and [...] sit on juries? [329]	52. <i>tại sao</i> không có những người như chúng ta ...? [322]
53. <i>Why</i> not, Auntie? [333]	53. <i>Sao</i> không được bác? [326]
54. <i>then why</i> can't I be nice to Walter? [334]	54. <i>thì</i> (txt) <i>tại sao</i> (top) cháu không thể cư xử tốt ...? [327]
55. <i>why</i> can't I? [334]	55. <i>sao</i> lại không được? [328]
56. <i>then</i> (txt) <i>why</i> (top) didn't Tom's jury, ...? [337]	56. <i>vậy thì</i> (txt) <i>tại sao</i> (top) bồi thẩm đoàn của ...? [330]
57. <i>why</i> can't they get along with each other? [338]	57. <i>tại sao</i> mọi người không thân thiện được ...? [331]
58. <i>why</i> do they go out of their way to despise ...? [338]	58. <i>tại sao</i> họ lại mất công coi thường nhau? [331]
59. <i>Why</i> couldn't I mash him? [354]	59. <i>Tại sao</i> em không đập được nó? [347]
60. <i>Why</i> don't they like the Jews, [...], Miss Gates? [363]	60. <i>Theo cô tại sao</i> họ không thích người Do ...? [356]
61. <i>But</i> (txt) <i>why</i> (top) should he try to burgle? [370]	61. <i>Nhưng</i> (txt) <i>tại sao</i> (top) hẳn phải đột nhập ...? [364]
62. <i>Why'd</i> you get that one? [414]	62. <i>Sao</i> bỏ lấy cuốn đó? [407]

**DỊCH ĐỀ NGỮ TỪ TIẾNG ANH SANG TIẾNG VIỆT:
TRƯỜNG HỢP CỦA CUỐN TIỂU THUYẾT MỸ
“TO KILL A MOCKINGBIRD” VÀ BẢN DỊCH TIẾNG VIỆT
“GIẾT CON CHIM NHẠI”**

Hoàng Văn Vân

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Tóm tắt: Bài viết này cố gắng tìm hiểu cách dịch Đề ngữ từ tiếng Anh sang tiếng Việt. Dữ liệu phục vụ nghiên cứu được lấy từ cuốn tiểu thuyết ‘To Kill a Mockingbird’ của tiểu thuyết gia nổi tiếng người Mỹ, Harper Lee và bản dịch tiếng Việt “Giết con chim nhại” do hai dịch giả người Việt, Huỳnh Kim Oanh và Phạm Viêm Phương dịch. Khung lí thuyết sử dụng trong nghiên cứu này là Ngôn ngữ học chức năng hệ thống. Đơn vị phân tích là các cú chính độc lập trong văn bản ngữ nguồn và các cú chính độc lập tương ứng trong văn bản ngữ đích. Các khía cạnh phân tích và so sánh là Đề ngữ đơn và Đề ngữ phức trong các cú tuyên bố, cú mệnh lệnh và cú nghi vấn. Nghiên cứu cho thấy hầu hết các Đề ngữ trong các cú đơn tiếng Anh đều được dịch sát và giữ lại làm Đề ngữ trong các cú đơn tiếng Việt tương ứng. Nghiên cứu cũng chỉ ra rằng còn tồn tại một số điểm dịch chuyển trong bản dịch, một phần là do sự khác biệt về cấu trúc cú trong tiếng Anh và tiếng Việt, một phần là do sự phức tạp ngữ nghĩa (sự tối nghĩa) của một số từ dùng để hỏi, một phần do người dịch chưa quan tâm đến vai trò của Đề ngữ và những sự lựa chọn tinh tế của nó trong việc kiến tạo nghĩa văn bản trong cú và phát triển ý nghĩa trong văn bản. Nghiên cứu cho thấy rõ ràng rằng Ngôn ngữ học chức năng hệ thống rất phù hợp với lí luận và thực hành dịch thuật: Ngôn ngữ học chức năng hệ thống có thể mang lại lợi ích cho người dịch từ việc phân tích văn bản ngữ nguồn, đến thảo luận về các vấn đề dịch thuật, đến giải thích việc xác lập các điểm tương đương và các điểm dịch chuyển giữa những lựa chọn trong văn bản ngữ đích và những lựa chọn trong văn bản ngữ nguồn, đến tổng hợp văn bản ngữ đích - sản phẩm cuối cùng của quá trình dịch.

Từ khoá: dịch thuật, Đề ngữ, Ngôn ngữ học chức năng hệ thống, tiếng Anh, tiếng Việt, ‘To Kill a Mockingbird’, ‘Giết con chim nhại’

REPRESENTATIONS OF VIETNAMESE ETHNIC MINORITIES IN NEW HIGH SCHOOL ENGLISH TEXTBOOKS

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Abstract: In Vietnamese boarding schools for ethnic minority students, learners use national textbooks, primarily designed to serve the major group - Kinh students. Therefore, representations of Vietnamese people and culture in these textbooks may mainly focus on this group, and consequently lead to unfamiliarity and loss of interest among students (Cunningsworth, 1995). In international contexts, representations of ethnic groups in English textbooks have been found problematic (Bassani, 2015; Kim & Ma, 2018; Yamada, 2006, 2010). In Vietnam, this issue has not received sufficient interest except for only one study into this type of representations by Dinh (2014), who reveals that the Vietnamese culture in old high school English textbooks was mainly of Kinh people. To address this research gap, this study was conducted to investigate the representations in new high school English textbooks and the accompanying teachers' books. Employing qualitative approach and quantitative approach, with the underlying procedures adapted from the study by Weninger and Kiss (2013), the researchers identified certain problems. Some noteworthy findings are the underrepresentation compared to Vietnamese people and culture, the absence of some groups, and the limited range of contextual topics. From the results, it is recommended that teachers make modifications to classroom procedures and materials, and textbooks designers incorporate ethnic minorities with more diverse topics.

Keywords: representations, ethnic minorities, English textbooks, high school, Vietnam

1. Introduction

Vietnam is a multicultural country with 54 ethnicities officially recognized by the government (General Statistic Office, n.d), including the major Kinh group and 53 minor groups. To improve their living conditions, the government issued 136 specialized policies in multiple areas such as “sustainable economy”, “medicine” and “culture, sport and tourism” (Hoài, 2023). In terms of education, multiple boarding schools for ethnic students have been established (Ministry of Education and Training, 2018). In 2018, there were 259 boarding high schools with 109,245 students managed by provinces and the ministry. These students used the same textbooks as Kinh students in the specialized programs delivered by their schools.

Multiple international authors have identified problems with representations of ethnic minorities in textbooks designed for students from major groups. These include stereotypical depictions (Chu, 2015; Liew, 2007), underrepresentation (Bassani, 2015) and marginalization (Chu, 2018; Yamada, 2006, 2010). Therefore, we conducted this study to investigate whether

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these issues exist in the new high school English textbooks of Vietnam, with versions being published from 2014 to 2016 and are currently in use in Grade 12.

The aim of this study is to examine the representations of Vietnamese ethnic minorities in the textbooks. It employs the fundamental analytical procedure proposed by Weninger and Kiss (2013), in which texts, tasks, and images of a pedagogical activity are treated as a unit. Additional theoretical frameworks proposed by Cunningsworth (1995), Baldwin et al. (2014) and Dinh (2014) are also employed in different parts of data analysis. The research questions in this study are:

1. How are Vietnamese ethnic minorities represented in the textbooks?
 - 1a. How many activities featuring Vietnamese people and culture represent the ethnic minorities?
 - 1b. Who are the minorities represented in the textbooks?
 - 1c. In what topics do ethnic minorities appear and what purpose is served by their subject content?
 - 1d. How are the minorities represented culturally?
2. To what the extent does the representations help students to learn about ethnic culture?

With this study, we make academic and practical contributions to the related fields. First, it is a source of review for English textbook authors to make suitable modifications, which can raise ethnic students' interest in the subject, hence enhancing their academic performance. Second, textbook designers of other subjects can refer to the execution and findings of this study to discover whether there exist problems with representation of ethnic groups as well as other minor groups. Practically, teachers may consider the results of this study to adjust lesson procedures so that knowledge can be delivered more accurately and engagingly. Finally, this study contributes to thickening the literature in the field of textbook evaluation and partly narrowing the research gap of this issue in the context of Vietnam. Especially, this study included the teachers' books in the evaluation, which is absent in the majority of the literature in the field.

The article consists of four sections: Introduction, Literature review, Methodology, Results & discussion and Conclusion.

2. Literature Review

2.1. Representation

Representation is defined by multiple authors adopting multiple views (Hall, 1997). According to this author, there are three approaches to representation, namely "reflective" view, which sees representation as a mirror reflecting true meanings, "intentional approach", which attributes meaning to the intention of the message carrier, and "constructivism" (pp. 24-25), which believes meaning is constructed by people through a system of signs. From "constructivism", two academic approaches studying representation have been derived: the first one, discursive, views representation as produced by knowledge and through discourse rather than through language (Foucault, 1972). The second, constructionist, is semiotics, generally associated with Ferdinand de Saussure (Culler, 1976). In this approach, representation includes a "form" which "signifies" an "idea" (p. 96). Hence, this approach is primarily adopted in this study since the elements of textbooks, including texts, tasks and images, can be considered

carriers of message to the students.

2.2. Ethnic Group and Ethnic Minority

Ethnicity is defined as a group with shared ancestry, history and place of origin (Bell, 2014) and constructed by language (Mooney & Evans, 2015). In a community where multiple groups exist, a group may claim their status based on the discussed elements (Gould & Kolb, 1964).

In practical situations, as Mooney & Evans suggest, the terms “ethnic” or “ethnic groups” are usually employed to refer to ethnic minorities. While the major groups are “unmarked”, being the norm in a country, the minor groups are “marked”. According to Battistella (1990), these two concepts were originally proposed by Roman Jakobson and Nikolai Trubetzkoy, in the field of linguistics, as the situation where two terms are at two sides of a “pole of an opposition”, with one term being simpler: “singular - plural” (pp. 1-2). As for ethnicity, according to Mooney & Evans, it is the “unmarkedness”, not the population, that defines the major group. This definition is not necessarily based on numbers but rather depends on the political and social situations in each country. In Vietnam, the Government of Vietnam (2011) defines an ethnic group as a group having less than 50% of the total population, which makes the Kinh people with about 80% of the population the only major group.

On the relationship between “ethnicity” and “culture”, they have close relations (Miller, 2005). Culture, together with language and religion, identifies an ethnicity (Herbst, 1997) and is usually associated with it as part of one’s heritage (Bell, 2014). Therefore, in this study, it needs to be discussed in relation with ethnicity. In the field of intercultural communication, “culture” is assimilated with a group of people by Winkelman (1993). In the context of education, the US National Standards in Foreign Language Education Project (1996) introduced the concepts of Big C, including Product and Practices, and small c culture, including Perspectives. In 2001, Moran added “Persons” – the actual people – to small c culture. When multiple cultural groups exist together, the major may define the mutual culture as their behavior and perspective (Moon, 2002) and may represent the minor groups inappropriately (Mooney & Evans, 2015). Hence, in Vietnam, where the English textbooks are designed by Kinh authors and are taught to ethnic students, they may focus on this ethnic group and ignore appropriate representations of minor groups. This is a research gap of ethnic representations in the genre of English language textbooks and needs to be addressed.

2.3. Representation of Groups in English Textbook Evaluation

Textbooks have essential roles in a language program: major language input, suggestion of in-class activities (Richards, 2001) and a source of motivation (Tsipkilades, 2011). In a material package of a language program, they are accompanied with teachers’ books, which provide guidelines on the stages of a lesson (Cunningsworth, 1995). According to Richards, because of this significance, textbook evaluation is vital in a language program. Cunningsworth suggests a set of textbook evaluation criteria which includes representation of culture and minor groups such as races, women and ethnic minorities in the categories of topic, subject content and cultural values (see Appendix A). As he points out, such representations may consist of problems such as stereotypes and underrepresentation.

Representation of groups is categorized into the elements of textbook content and cultural values by multiple authors. Presenting ideas around curriculum content in America, Sleeter and Grant (1991) explain this content is the effort to define the representation of the world and society through symbols. Proving a more specific explanation, Gray (2010), in his

analysis of publishers' guidelines for textbook writers, realizes two main areas covered in terms of content: "inclusivity" - the non-sexist approach towards representations of men and women and "inappropriacy" - the avoidance of potentially offensive language to buyers as cultural groups. In a survey with 20 language teachers in Barcelona, he reported concern with "stereotypical representations" of countries in textbook content (p. 18). He also proposes a descriptive framework of textbook language systems, which raises the question "Who are the characters? (real/fictional, sex, age, ethnicity, job, etc.)" in the "Skills content" aspect of textbooks (p. 51). Agreeing with Gray, Richards (2015) argues that the decision on content needs to focus on the presentation, especially equal presentation of sexes and avoidance of ethnocentrism.

In his thoroughly clarified analytical framework, Cunningsworth categorizes representations of groups into "Topic and Subject content" and "Social and cultural values". The former assesses the inclusion of authentic topics, which can lead to loss of interest if unfamiliar. If the topics are unfamiliar to students, loss of interest may occur. Meanwhile, the latter includes the question of whether social and cultural values in the textbooks are recognizable to students.

Among the methods to study representation of groups in textbook evaluation is semiotic approach, which considers representation as a form that signifies an idea (Hall, 1997). In textbook evaluation, as Weninger and Kiss (2013) suggest, the forms are the activities consisting of the task, text and images. Each activity can be qualitatively treated as a unit analysis of how culture is represented. There is no fixed procedure as analysis needs to be based on the specific relationship between these three elements. As previously discussed in section 2.2, representations of ethnic minorities can be analyzed with this approach.

2.4. Previous Studies of Representations of Ethnic Minorities in Textbooks

2.4.1. Representations in Textbooks of Other Subjects

In the past, multiple international authors have conducted research into this issue. Representation of ethnic minorities has been discovered to be problematic in both non- and English language textbooks. Subjects other than English language where the problems are identified are mostly social sciences and languages. Related to Chinese culture, the culture of Han people represents national culture in elementary textbooks (Chu, 2015, 2018) and Chinese history textbooks in Canada (Bing, 2006). Another problem is marginalization of ethnic minorities in Sri Lanka (Gaul, 2014) and normalization of the majority in Norwegian music textbooks (Ronningen, 2015). Among textbooks of non-English languages, Malay textbooks portray ethnic minorities stereotypically and inaccurate ethnic make-up (Liew, 2007) and Chinese and Korean textbooks for immigrant children describe culture as "monolingual" and "static" (Sun & Kwon, 2018). To sum up, ethnic minorities were marginalized, portrayed stereotypically and inaccurately, and they are absent in certain sets of textbooks.

2.4.2. Representations in English Textbooks and Research Gap

Although accurate portrayal of learners' local context can serve teaching English as a communication tool (Kirkpatrick, 2014), some English language textbooks have also been discovered to fail this role regarding ethnically minor students. In Japan, the minor Ainu group was absent from English textbooks from 1987 to 2002 and is portrayed to have no interaction with other groups (Yamada, 2006, 2010). In South Korean society, some minor communities were also not recognized in English textbooks despite their existence (Kim & Ma, 2018). As for the case of Indonesian textbooks, although respect for other cultures is a message presented

in, only four major ethnic groups are realized (Parlindungan et al., 2018). Previously, in Viet Nam, Kinh people's culture represents national culture in the old high school textbooks (Dinh, 2014), which is partly different from the agreement that Vietnamese national culture is agreed to include the culture of all ethnic groups (Hò, 2008). Inaccurate portrayal of local ethnic make-up is another problem identified by Bassani (2015) in Canada. From these findings, it can be concluded that the issue of misrepresentations of ethnic minorities does exist among English textbooks.

However, the reviewed studies cover textbooks in the teaching and learning contexts of other countries. Vietnamese textbooks were studied by Dinh but the textbook set has been out of use for a long time. This research gap leads to the necessity for the analysis of Vietnamese new high school English textbooks, which have been used recently and still partly in use.

3. Methodology

From this section onwards, data collection and representations in the form of textbook activities are explained and analyzed. To conveniently indicate the textbook, unit and section, the authors use a system of abbreviation (see Appendix B). In some parts of the article, this system can be used to indicate the grades and units of the textbooks.

3.1. Data Collection

The data were collected from new high school English textbooks, including the two volumes of students' books in each grade and the teachers' books in which representations of ethnic minorities appear. These include students' books of G10 (V. Hoàng, T.X.H. Hoàng, G. Đặng, et al., 2014a, b), G11 (V. Hoàng, H. Phan, et al., 2014a, b) and G12 (V. Hoàng, T.X.H. Hoàng, H. Phan, et al., 2014a, b). Each grade consists of ten units and two reviewing lessons. In each unit, there are activities to help students learn the linguistics aspects (pronunciation, vocabulary and grammar), practice four skills (reading, speaking, listening and writing) and familiarize themselves with the culture of ASEAN and English-speaking countries. Accompanying the textbooks and based on the content of the textbooks, the teachers' books provide the keys to the exercises and further information. The selected teachers' books are G10 volume 2 (V. Hoàng, T.X.H. Hoàng, G. Đặng, et al., 2016), G11 volume 1 and 2 (V. Hoàng, et al., 2015a, b) and G12 volume 1 (V. Hoàng, T.X.H. Hoàng, H. Phan, et al., 2016). In the instructions for teachers in this article, the abbreviation "Ss" indicates "students".

The data collection process started with identifying activities directly featuring Vietnamese ethnic minorities. As for activities featuring photos of groups and cultural artifacts without any direct specifications, those with ethnic minorities were recognized based on additional information provided in the teachers' books and the original sources retrieved by Google Image. These activities were then combined with teachers' instructions to comprise the research data.

3.2. Data Analysis


This study adopted the framework proposed by Weninger and Kiss (2013), which treats texts, tasks and images of an activity as a unit. As the authors suggest, because the relationship between these three elements is "highly contextual" (p. 704) there is no fixed procedure, rather, analysis needs to be based on this relationship. Since a teachers' book is an essential part of the material package of a language course (Cunningsworth, 1995), teachers' guidelines are also included in this analysis process. An example can be Task G10-U10-S-2 (see Figure 1). It was selected because it mentioned the ethnic minorities in the Northwest and Highlands regions of

Vietnam.


Figure 1

Task G10-U10-S-2

2 Below are three destinations for ecotourists. Work in pairs. Choose one destination and make a similar conversation as in **1**.



Where to go: Sa Pa (Lao Cai Province)
What to do and see: go hiking in the forest, visit Cat Cat village, enjoy the traditional life of the Black H' Mong, watch the waterfalls, go camping in the forest
What else to do: buy handicrafts at a village market
Where else to visit: Sa Pa love market held every weekend



Where to go: Central Highlands
What to do and see: go biking in the forests, watch wildlife, go kayaking, visit Don Village, enjoy cooking and staying overnight with local ethnic families
What else to do: attend Gong culture festival in Dak Lak Province
Where else to visit: coffee plantations to enjoy fresh coffee

2 Have Ss identify the main ideas in the dialogue. Ask them to complete the table with the information from the conversation.

Where Peter will go	Bach Ma National Park
What he will do and see	explore the forests, watch the birds, look at the plants, spend a night at an old villa
What else he will do if he has more time	visit Hue, enjoy the local food
Where else he may visit	Lang Co Beach

- Explain to Ss that when making their own conversations about the three tourist destinations, they should use the four questions in the table.

Notes

- Cát Cát Village is a village of the H' Mong people. It is famous for its beautiful terraced rice fields (*ruộng bậc thang*) and festivals featuring unique community cultures.
- Đồn Village in Dak Lak Province is home to the M'Nong, Ede and Thai ethnic minority groups. It is famous for its stilt houses, elephant rides for tourists and interesting festivals.
- The Gong Culture (or The Space of the Gong Culture, *Không gian Văn hoá Cổng chiêng*) in Central Highlands is home to cultures that value gongs. It is included in the UNESCO list of Intangible Cultural Heritage of Humanity (*Di sản Văn hoá Phi vật thể của nhân loại*).

3.2.1 Quantitative Approach: Descriptive Analysis

The quantitative approach was used to demonstrate the number of different categories concerning qualitative data, a step implemented based on the quantifiability of this type of data as suggested by Baldwin et al. (2014). Primarily, this approach was aimed at answering sub-question 1a (previously presented in the Introduction section): “How many activities featuring Vietnamese people and culture represent ethnic minorities?”. The total number of these activities was recorded and compared with those featuring ethnic minorities. Although no direct reference to ethnic minorities can be assumed to mean reference to Kinh, the “unmarked” group, this categorization was not feasible as ethnic residents may live with Kinh people (Open Development Vietnam, 2019).

3.2.2 Qualitative Method: Semiotic Analysis of Pedagogical Activities

Qualitative approach was mainly employed to answer the remaining questions and sub-questions.

Cunningsworth’s evaluative checklists (presented in section 2) were mainly utilized in this method with modifications. First, sub-question 1b is aligned to the criterion “reference to ethnic origin” in the general checklist for the topic. For example, Task G10-U10-S-2 (see Figure 1) is an activity which mentions specific ethnic groups. As for sub-question 1c and 1d, we referred to the criteria in the checklists of “topic and content”, “social and cultural values” and the quick reference checklist (see Appendix A). An example is a group of activities in G12-U5. The activities contribute to the topic of the unit with the theme of “cultural identity”, depicting

the values of ethnic communities in a reading passage. Question 1d was answered by looking at cultural representations among the activities analyzed. The first step of the process involved comparison between the numbers of activities featuring cultural elements and those that do not. Following this, the types of culture represented were analyzed based on the framework of “big C and small c culture” previously employed by Dinh (2014). Deeper analysis of cultural elements was conducted based on Cunningsworth’s checklist on “Cultural and Social Values”. Another suggested analytical criterion related to culture, peculiar to assessment of teachers’ books, is how cultural information and explanation are delivered to the teachers so that they can interpret and exploit the content of the textbook properly. In this analysis, we also refer to the ideas of “denotation” and “connotation” in the systems of linguistic meaning, suggested by Baldwin et al. Analysis of Exercise G12-U5-V-2 (see section 4.1.4) can be an example of this procedure. Item 1 of the exercise describes ethnic “cultural practices” - a big C culture element. The word used in this description is “strange”, a “connotational” word which can create the feeling of otherness among students.

Question number 2 on the opportunity for students to learn about ethnic culture was answered by the examination of the criteria suggested by Weninger and Kiss (2013), which treats an activity with texts, tasks and images as a unit. First, we examined whether an activity focuses on denotation or connotation. “Denotational” activities are those focusing on the correct answers and “connotational” activities focus on students’ feelings and opinions. Then, the relationship among those elements was analyzed in addition with teachers’ guidelines to realize the degree to which students can learn about ethnic culture. In this stage, Cunningsworth’s (1995) questions of the ability to expand students’ cultural awareness and enrich their experience were also discussed. According to Weninger and Kiss, analysis in this stage is highly contextual and there is no fixed procedure. As for the previous example of exercise G12-U5-V-2, the focus of the activity is denotational as it only requires the correct answer. However, it can provide a chance of learning about ethnic culture if the teacher organizes discussion on whether ethnic “cultural practices” are “strange” or not.

4. Results and Discussion

4.1. Representation of Vietnamese Ethnic Minorities in New High School English Textbooks

4.1.1. The Number of Representations

In total, there are 21 activities that represent Vietnamese ethnic minorities (see Table 1). This accounts for 7% of total representation of Vietnamese people and culture. Across the three textbook sets, five out of 30 units and two out of six reviewing lessons feature these activities.

Table 1

Frequency of Representations of Vietnamese Ethnic Minorities in New High School English Textbooks

	Number of activities featuring Vietnamese people and culture (1)	Number of activities featuring ethnic minorities (2)	Percentage of (2) out of (1)
G10	90	3	3%
G11	119	8	7%
G12	88	10	11%

Total	297	21	7%
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As can be seen from Table 1, G10 has the smallest number with three representations out of 90 activities portraying Vietnamese people and culture. G12 has the most frequent representations with ten out of 88 activities featuring Vietnamese people and culture, accounting for 11%. G11 representations were the second most frequent. From the findings, we can see that the minorities are underrepresented compared to overall representations of Vietnamese people and culture. This is similar to Chu's (2018) and Bassani's (2015) findings that some minorities are underrepresented in China and British Columbia of Canada. This lack of representations may be a result of the fact that the ethnic minorities are not able to hold social power (Mooney & Evans, 2015). According to Bassani, in the specific context of textbook designing, this problem stems from the fact that the "stakeholders" of education are the "publishers, teachers and schools, parents and the public" (p. 63), the majority of whom in Vietnam are Kinh people, leading to the problem being overlooked. Those who experience inequality, however, have limited voice in the assessment of textbooks. Especially as for parents, generally, the contribution to this, even from Kinh people, was only recorded in Ho Chi Minh city (Nguyễn, 2021) and no other record of parents' participation in the designing process, including parents of minor communities, has been reported.

4.1.2. The Minorities Represented

Among the activities analyzed, specific minorities appear in nine activities and 14 activities mention the minorities in general. In these activities, ethnic groups are referred to as "ethnic groups" and "ethnic". The results are not mutually exclusive as an activity can have both direct and indirect references. Task G10-U10-S-2 is an activity that mentions a specific group (Black H'Mông) and minorities in general in two different sections (see Figure 1). In this task, "Black H'Mông village" is a destination and in the suggestions for Central Highlands, "staying with ethnic families" appears as a tourism activity. Beside representation of ethnic groups as a whole, the textbooks depict eight specific minorities.

As for the represented groups, only the origin of H'Mông is directly mentioned in the students' book. All direct mentions of other groups' origin are found in teachers' books. Dao, Nùng and Khmer are the groups whose names are not recognized directly and their origins can only be traced by Google Image. The frequency of minor groups' appearances is another analyzed aspect. Cham group has the biggest number of appearance (five), followed by Ê đê (four). Other groups, as seen from Table 2, make one to two appearances. It can be seen that minorities from all regions of Vietnam are represented according to information about their living regions (Open Development Vietnam, 2019).

Table 2

Ethnic Minorities Represented and Number of Direct and Indirect Specifications of Their Origins

Minority	Directly specified	Indirectly specified	Total number of representations
H'Mông	1	0	1
Thái	1	1	2
Chăm	3	2	5
Ê đê	3	1	4

M'Nông	2	0	2
Dao	0	1	1
Nùng	0	1	1
Khmer	0	1	1
Tày	1	0	1

4.1.3. Topics and Subject Contents in Which Ethnic Minorities Appear

Ethnic minorities are mostly featured in topics related to cultural artifacts and introduction of Vietnamese culture. These topics can be divided into sub-topics with some frequent ones being eco-tourism, Vietnamese heritage sites and definition of ethnic cultural identity (see Table 3).

Table 3

Topic and Sub-Topic Where Activities Representing Ethnic Minorities Appear

Unit and topic	Sub-topic	Number of activities
G10-U10: Eco-tourism	Eco-tourism destinations	2
G10- Rv4		1
G11-U5: Being Part of ASEAN	Dances of ASEAN countries	1
G11-Rv2	Culture of Vietnam	2
		1
G11-U8: Our World Heritage Sites	Vietnamese heritage sites	3
G11-Rv3	Tourism	1
G12-U5: Cultural Identity (CI)	Ethnic festivals	3
	Definition of ethnic CI	4
	Definition of Vietnamese/national CI	1
	Preservation of CI	2
Total number of activities		21

20 activities carry a specific content assisting students' learning and one activity only includes a prompt without any content. From these 20 activities, we recognized two purposes with informing being the major one, appearing 13 times. Exercise G11-U5-W-1 (see Figure 2) can be an example of an "informing" activity, including the information about the number of ethnic groups in Vietnam in item d. "Triggering curiosity" is the other purpose. Exercise G11-U8-Pr (see Appendix C) is an example. In this exercise, there are many photos of My Son sanctuary with the prompts guiding students to make a presentation about one of Vietnamese heritage sites. Students may choose to present about My Son sanctuary and do further research.

Figure 2

Exercise G11-U5-W-1

1 Read the following information about Viet Nam. Fill the gaps with the correct words or phrases in the box.

family values Heritage Sites **Vovinam**
 land area income

The Socialist Republic of Viet Nam

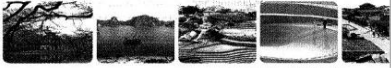
a. shape of elongated S, (1) _____ : 331,212 km²;
 population: about 93,000,000, most speak Vietnamese;
 capital: Ha Noi

b. economy: develops rapidly; leading agricultural
 exporter; main export products _____, crude oil,
 marine products, rice and coffee, lower-middle
 (2) _____ country.

c. sports: football, _____, cycling, _____, swimming,
 badminton, tennis, aerobics, (3) _____;
 athletes compete regionally, internationally, hold
 high ranks in many sports

d. one of the oldest cultures, known for ancestor
 worship; appreciate (4) _____ and
 education; home to 54 ethnic groups with their
 own languages, lifestyles, customs

e. visitors from around the world; attractions: World
 (5) _____ (Ha Long Bay, Hoi An); beautiful
 sights: Sa Pa, Mui Ne, Ha Noi, contribute to country's
 magic charm



1 The focus of this activity is to learn useful language for describing a country.

- Give Ss some time to do the gap-filling. Have Ss compare their answers with a partner first. Then ask some pairs to read different paragraphs out loud to check answers as a class.

Key 1. land area 2. income 3. **Vovinam**
 4. family values 5. Heritage Sites

Notes
Vovinam (Việt Võ Đạo / Martial Arts of Viet Nam) is a Vietnamese martial art.


The content of these activities mostly manages to serve the designated purpose. Only two activities fail their purposes. Task G11-U5-S-3 (see Figure 3) requires students to talk about a traditional folk dance of an ASEAN country. There is one photo of Vietnamese Thai people's Bamboo dance (highlighted in the red square) with no further information, albeit "Trong com", a traditional dance of Kinh people, is thoroughly described. In this activity, students need to have further information to perform the task but the photo seems to play the only role of illustration. If the teacher follows this exact procedure, students may miss a chance to understand more about ethnic culture.

Figure 3

Task G11-U5-S-3

3 Talk with a partner about one of the popular folk dances of Viet Nam or any other ASEAN country. Use the following questions.

How popular is the dance? How do people practise the dance? What makes the dance special?



3 This is a post-reading activity. Have Ss work in groups of four or five, and talk about one popular folk dance. Invite representatives of different groups to show their dance to the class.

Suggested answers
Trong Com, which literally means *Rice Drum*, is a Vietnamese traditional dance. It is very popular in Viet Nam, especially in the north of the country. It symbolises people's wishes for a peaceful, enjoyable and comfortable life. **Trong Com** has a boisterous, joyful and lively rhythm. It is also a charming dance especially when accompanied by the folk song **Trong Com**. The beautiful lyrics and melody of the song greatly contribute to the popularity of the dance.

To summarize the issue of ethnicities represented, the topic & content in which they appear, new high school language textbooks include nine out of 53 Vietnamese ethnic minorities, which is similar to Yamada's (2006) finding that English textbooks in Japan left out certain minorities. The represented ones mostly appear in contexts related to culture and tourism, which reflects a tourist's perspective. The tourists can be interpreted as the majority of students, or, Kinh students. Treatment of ethnic culture as objects of tourism industry is a general problem within the society, which has been pointed out by Wood (1997). According to Bing (2006), who also identified this perspective with Chinese history textbooks in Canada, it can prevent students from fully learning about a community. In the learning context of ethnic students, the textbooks fail to fully portray their lives from their viewpoints. This can demotivate and make them become less interested in the subject (Cunningsworth, 1995; Tsipkilades, 2011). Meanwhile, general Vietnamese people, who can be assumed to be of Kinh ethnicity, appear in more various contexts such as "Further education" and "Music". Also, their culture is mainly not represented to be "explored" or "researched" by students but rather to be introduced as part of national culture to foreigners. In addition, Vietnamese minor ethnicities may experience "tokenism", another problem suggested by Cunningsworth. The evidence is that ethnic characters appear in photos portraying their communities and no ethnic characters interact with people from other groups. The author may attempt to include ethnic culture to show the cultural diversity of Vietnam but this is still limited, similar to Japan, where the ethnic Ainu group only appears in historical accounts and not in daily contexts (Yamada, 2010).

4.1.4. Cultural Representation of Ethnic Minorities

Of the 21 analyzed activities, 15 represent culture. Cultural representations include 13 representations of big C culture and seven of small c culture (see Table 4). Similar to the aspect of specific minorities discussed in section 4.1.2, these two types of culture are not mutually exclusive as an activity can feature both. Festivals are the most frequently described cultural artifact, followed by topics of architectural site and community. A task that includes a variety of ethnic festivals is G12-U5-Cu-1 (see Figure 4), which includes Elephant Racing, Forrest Worshipping and Boat Racing festivals.

Table 4

Types of Ethnic Culture Represented

Level of culture	Type of culture	Number	Total
Big C culture	Festival	7	13
	Dance	1	
	Architectural site	4	
	Musical instrument	1	
Small C culture	Community	5	7

Figure 4

G12-U5-Cu-1

Culture
Festivals

1 Read the text about celebrations of some ethnic groups in Viet Nam. Write the names of the festivals under the pictures.



a.



b.

Festivals are celebrated to highlight the cultural heritage of nations. At national level, festivals help to strengthen the spirit of solidarity and unity of the whole nation. Regional festivals or festivals of an ethnic group, on the other hand, help to maintain the cultural identity of a community. Taking part in different activities of the festival, group members get together, have fun, and promote their cultural image. Examples can be found in well-known festivals of some ethnic groups in Viet Nam.

In March, the Elephant Racing Festival is held at Don Village, in Dak Lak Province, to promote the martial spirit of the M'Nong and Ede people, who are famous for their bravery in wild elephant hunting. Every year, more and more participants in colourful costumes flock to the area to watch the race and take part in other fun activities such as eating traditional food, drinking rice wine, dancing, and watching elephants play soccer.

Forest Worshipping is an important festival of the Nung and Dao people in Ha Giang and Lao Cai Provinces, which takes place in the first lunar month. People worship the god of trees and villagers who sacrificed their lives to protect the village. They also pray for good health, fruitful trees and favourable climate. The ceremony is held under an old tree in the forest, with a lot of agricultural products used as offerings. After the ceremony, local people sign a statement to protect forests and plant more trees around their houses. Finally, they take part in folk games with strong ethnic identity, such as blind man's buff, swinging, shuttlecock throwing, and tug of war.

Cultural values of the activities can be analyzed by looking at how language of feelings is used, as suggested by Cunningsworth (1995). This kind of language appears in four activities and aims at informing students. Three activities convey positive feeling and one conveys negative feeling. For example, in activity G10-U10-S-2, students are suggested to “enjoy” the traditional life of Black H'Mông people. The only activity with negative language is G12-U5-V-2, which features the sentence “*Some ethnic groups have strange cultural practices such as walking on fire to prevent natural disaster*”. This description of their custom can bring a sense of otherization towards ethnic community students.

To conclude the cultural representations, big C culture accounts for the majority of ethnic representations. This result is similar to Dinh's (2014) findings with the subjects of Vietnamese old English textbooks of grade 10 and 11. The reason for this may also be attributed to the tourist's point of view as discussed above. With the main intention of informing students, the authors may only want to focus on the cultural products rather than values and beliefs. Beside the culture represented, the researchers also took the language of feeling into consideration. Language of feelings is used in a few activities and mainly conveys positive feeling, which is opposite to Chu (2015), Gaul (2014) and Liew (2007) that the minor groups often experience negative description in textbooks.

4.2. Opportunities for Students to Learn About Ethnic Culture Through the Analyzed Activities

To find the opportunity for cultural learning, first, the focus on denotation or connotation is analyzed. According to Weninger and Kiss (2013), “denotational” activities concentrate on the correct answers and “connotational” activities concentrate on students' thoughts and feelings. Cultural learning can happen if there is more room for connotation. Analysis on these two aspects is drawn from instructions for students and teachers. In the sets

of textbooks studied, the focus on denotation and connotation is rather even: twelve and nine, respectively.

To gather further insights into this aspect, we analyzed the activities into three aspects: without potential, with limited potential and with full potential. There are nine activities that are “without potential, all of which are “denotational”. In these activities, cultural elements act as illustrations and students are required to provide the correct answers. Teachers are instructed to check the answers and not to organize any further activities.

There are two “limited” activities which do not limit students’ tasks to producing the correct answers. Rather, they can trigger students’ thinking but it may only happen if the teacher organizes further procedures. Activity G12-U5-V-2, as previously discussed in section 4.1.4, can lead to negative thinking among students. This can be prevented if the teacher asks students about their view on ethnic culture. Further discussion of culture from viewpoints other than textbooks is also a classroom procedure proposed by Do and Dao (2020) to enhance the critical nature of cultural teaching in university lectures, which can be modified to suit the high school classroom. Another activity with limited opportunity is G12-U5-S-3 (Figure 5), which asks students to discuss the preservation of cultural identity in the modern era and feature a photo of Êê people’s Naming ceremony as illustration without further explanation. The teacher can incorporate the photo into the task by preparing further information and questions about the situation of Ede people as input for students to answer the questions.

Figure 5

Task G12-U5-S-3

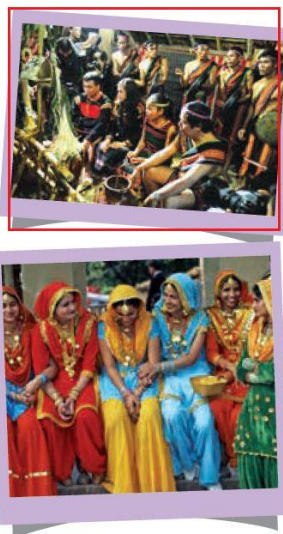
3 Have a similar conversation discussing what you should do to maintain cultural identity in the age of globalisation.

2 Use ideas in **1** to fill each of the numbered spaces in the following conversation. Then practise it in groups of three.

A: What do you think people should do to maintain cultural identity in the age of globalisation?
 B: I believe they should (1) _____.
 C: That’s true. Language is a vital part of culture and critical to a person’s (2) _____.
 A: Yes. It enables people to communicate, establish links with family and community members, and acquire and value their native culture.
 B: I can’t agree more. It is said that peoples’ first language helps them (3) _____ and (4) _____.
 C: That’s absolutely correct. Do you have anything else to add?

3 This activity is for Ss to practise exchanging their ideas and opinions about how to maintain cultural identity, using the format of the conversation in **2**.

- Have Ss work in groups of three asking and answering questions about what people should do to preserve their cultural identity and the reasons for doing those.
- Ask one or two groups to act out their conversation in front of the class.
- Take notes or encourage the rest of the class to take notes of Ss’ good ideas and any mistakes.
- Give feedback as a class.



Comparable to nine “no potential” activities, ten activities possess full potential for cultural learning. They are the ones that require and thoroughly instruct students to do research on a topic and provide answers on their own with step-by-step instructions for students and additional information in the teachers’ book, like Task G11-U8-Pr (see Appendix C).

Among the activities representing ethnic minorities, the focus on denotation and connotation is fairly equal (twelve to nine). The number of activities in which opportunity for

cultural learning is identified also constitutes a great part. Within these activities, these findings are contrary to the overconcentration on linguistics aspects in English textbooks found by Weninger and Kiss (2013). Students have plenty of room to learn about ethnic culture, although the contexts are limited to culture and tourism and they would learn from the point of view of a tourist as discussed in section 4.1. However, this can be considered an attempt of the authors to comply with the MOET's (2014) 6-level foreign language competences, which mentions cultural knowledge as a part of language proficiency.

5. Conclusion

5.1. Major Findings

Our study realized that Vietnamese ethnic minorities are underrepresented among representations of Vietnamese people and culture (7%). These representations are not distributed equally among all units but can only be found in five out of 30 units and three out of 12 reviewing lessons. Eight out of 53 minorities appear in contexts related to culture and tourism. The main purpose of these representations is “informing”.

15 out of 21 activities represent cultural artifacts, mainly big C culture. Cultural values are described with language of feeling in four activities, three of which carry positive feeling and one delivers negative feeling.

Cultural learning of ethnic minorities can take place in twelve out of 21 activities with proper guidance from the teacher. There is a nearly equal focus on denotational and connotational activities.

5.2. Suggestions for Educators

From this study, several suggestions can be put forward to educators. The ministry of education should conduct more thorough assessment of textbooks to detect problems with representations of ethnic minorities. Some changes can also take place with the actions of textbook authors. They may include ethnic minorities in more various contexts and address their actual lives and problems. The minorities represented may need to be more diverse and have more detailed specifications. In order for students to understand more about the values and beliefs of ethnic minorities, small c cultures should be featured more frequently.

While the changes from the policy makers and authors may take time, teachers can make immediate changes with regards to the in-class lessons. They can make adaptations to the materials to address the existing drawbacks so that the negative messages can be corrected and students can discover more about ethnic lives and culture. The teachers may also prepare further information to fill in the gap of cultural artifacts' origins.

5.3. Limitations

Despite the exhaustive efforts given, certain limitations still persist within this study. The scope is limited to new high school English textbooks used before 2022, which is a small part within the large range of textbooks in terms of subjects and level currently used in the Vietnamese education system. Since 2022, various new sets of English textbooks have been introduced to schools, starting from grade 10. The research problem in this study may exist in a larger range of English textbooks.

In some subjects, especially social sciences, problems with representations of ethnic minorities have been identified (Chu, 2018; Bing, 2006; Gaul, 2014). Also, the problem of under- and misrepresentation of ethnic minorities is a part of problems with representations of

groups (Cunningsworth, 1995). Examples of groups undergoing such problems can be women, the elderly and the disabled.

5.4. Suggestions for Future Studies

From those limitations, we would like to suggest ideas for prospect researchers. First, the scope should be extended to different sets of textbooks, different minor groups and different subjects. In the context of education in Vietnam, textbooks are widely used in both schools and private education centers, with the origin varying from nationally to internationally published ones, which can be a potential academic area for future researchers. Concerning the visual analysis, other aspects of visual images may be considered to gain further insights into visual representations.

The data should also be considered from students' and teachers' viewpoints. They can be invited to take part in surveys and interviews. Opinions from both major and minor ethnic groups should be gathered to present the textbook authors and policy makers with an overview of the situation.

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APPENDIX A

Extracts of Cunningsworth (1995)'s quick and detailed checklists on topic, subject content, social values and teachers for students' and teachers' books (pp. 4, 90, 92, 115). Only the points relevant to this study are presented.

Quick reference checklist for evaluation and selection (p. 4)

Topic

- Is there sufficient material of genuine interest to learners?
- Is there enough variety and range of topics?
- Will the topics help expand students' awareness and enrich their experience?
- Are topics sophisticated enough in content, yet within the learners' language level?
- Will your students be able to relate to the social and cultural contexts presented in the coursebook?
- Are other groups represented, with reference to ethnic origin, occupation, disability, etc?

Teachers' books

- Do they adequately cover teaching techniques, language items such as grammar rules and culture-specific information?

Checklist for topic and subject content (p. 90)

- Are real topics included in the coursebook? If so, how varied are they?
- Will the coursebook contribute to expanding learners' awareness and enriching their experience?
- Does it relate to and engage the learners' knowledge system, ie. the knowledge of the world that they bring with them?
- Are the topics sophisticated enough for the learners, but at the right level linguistically?

- Do they actually do what they set out to do? If informative, do they inform, if humorous, do they amuse, if controversial, do they challenge, etc?

- At school level, do they link in with other subjects (eg. history, geography, science)?

Checklist for social and cultural values (p. 92)

- Are the social and cultural contexts in the coursebook comprehensible to the learners?

- Can learners interpret the relationships, behaviour, intentions, etc of the characters portrayed in the book?

- What do we learn about the inner lives of the characters?

- To what extent is the language of feeling depicted

- Do the coursebook characters exist in some kind of social setting, within a social network

- Are social relationships portrayed realistically?

Checklist for teachers' books (p. 115)

- Is there enough cultural explanation to enable teachers unfamiliar with, for example, British lifestyles to interpret and exploit appropriately the situations portrayed in the coursebook?

- Are teachers encouraged to note down their own ideas in the teacher's book?

APPENDIX B

List of abbreviations

To encode the data, we used a system of abbreviation to signify the grade of the textbook and the unit, section and number of the activity. For example, writing task 1 of Unit 5, Grade 11 textbook is noted as G11-U5-W-1. The detailed abbreviations are presented as follows:

U: Unit

Rv: Review

G: Grade

V: Vocabulary

P: Pronunciation

Gr: Grammar

R: Reading

L: Listening

S: Speaking

W: Writing

Co: Communication

Cu: Culture

Pr: Project

LB: Looking back

APPENDIX C

Task G11-U8-Pr

Work in groups. Choose a heritage site in Viet Nam and find information about it. Then discuss and make a proposal for its preservation and protection. Present your ideas to the class.

Here are some guiding questions:

- What's the name of the heritage site?
- Where is it located?
- In what condition is it now? Is it well-preserved, damaged or in ruins?
- Who is responsible for its current condition?
- What do you think should be done to improve it?
- How can it be preserved for future generations?
- How can it be protected from damages, theft or irresponsible behaviour?



This activity provides further opportunities for Ss to use the language, skills and information they have learnt in the unit through collaborative work on a project and group presentations.

- Ask Ss to form groups.
- Have groups discuss the guiding questions and brainstorm their ideas. Encourage them to take notes and share their ideas with the teacher or the other groups.
- Encourage groups to prepare an outline for their presentation. This should include an introduction (briefly introducing their proposal and their reasons for choosing this site, and providing an overview of the talk), main body (several main points such as the current condition of the site, what should be done, who should be responsible, etc.) and conclusion (summary of the main points and how their proposal will contribute to the preservation of heritage and culture in Viet Nam in general).
- Have Ss practise their presentations in groups. Make sure each member has been assigned a part to present.
- Have Ss make a list of useful tips for effective delivery of their presentations:
 - talk naturally and avoid reading from your notes or outline
 - speak clearly and confidently
 - use appropriate intonation and vary the tone, pitch and volume of your voice
 - make eye contact with your audience and involve your listeners by asking and encouraging questions
 - make sure you finish in time.
- Have groups present their proposals to the class. Encourage the rest of the class to ask questions and give feedback about the content, clarity of expression and delivery.
- Have the class vote for the best proposal.

ĐẠI DIỆN CÁC DÂN TỘC THIỂU SỐ VIỆT NAM TRONG SÁCH GIÁO KHOA THÍ ĐIỂM MÔN TIẾNG ANH TRUNG HỌC PHỔ THÔNG

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Tóm tắt: Tại các trường trung học phổ thông dân tộc nội trú, học sinh sử dụng các bộ sách giáo khoa tiếng Anh quốc gia. Các bộ sách này được thiết kế hướng tới đối tượng người học chủ yếu là học sinh dân tộc Kinh. Do đó, đại diện người và văn hóa Việt Nam tập trung ở nhóm học sinh này. Điều này có thể dẫn tới sự không thân thuộc và làm giảm sự hứng thú của học sinh (Cunningsworth, 1995). Ở nhiều nước trên thế giới, một số vấn đề với đại diện các nhóm dân tộc thiểu số trong sách giáo khoa tiếng Anh đã được phát hiện (Bassani, 2015; Kim & Ma, 2018; Yamada, 2006, 2010). Tại Việt Nam, vấn đề này chưa nhận được sự quan tâm đầy đủ. Phát hiện duy nhất liên quan tới đại diện các dân tộc thiểu số là của Dinh (2014). Tác giả này nhận thấy trong sách giáo khoa tiếng Anh trung học phổ thông cũ, văn hóa quốc gia của Việt Nam được thể hiện thông qua văn hóa của nhóm người Kinh. Để khắc phục khoảng trống nghiên cứu này, chúng tôi đã thực hiện nghiên cứu này để phân tích đại diện các dân tộc thiểu số trong sách giáo khoa thí điểm môn tiếng Anh trung học phổ thông và các bộ sách giáo viên đi kèm. Sử dụng cả phương pháp định lượng và định tính, cùng với quy trình phân tích được đề xuất bởi Weninger và Kiss (2013), chúng tôi đã phát hiện ra một số vấn đề đáng chú ý, bao gồm: sự thiếu vắng đại diện dân tộc thiểu số trong tổng hòa con người và văn hóa Việt Nam, và hạn chế về đề tài liên quan tới ngữ cảnh. Từ kết quả trên, nghiên cứu đề xuất giáo viên cần thực hiện thay đổi với quy trình lớp học và học liệu. Ngoài ra, các nhà thiết kế sách giáo khoa nên tạo điều kiện để các dân tộc thiểu số xuất hiện ở các chủ đề đa dạng hơn.

Từ khóa: đại diện, dân tộc thiểu số, sách giáo khoa tiếng Anh, trung học phổ thông, Việt Nam

THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN CREATIVITY AND GRAMMATICAL ACQUISITION OF NEW FORMS OF VIETNAMESE EFL SECONDARY STUDENTS

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Abstract: Creativity is a concept that has attracted researchers in applied linguistics recently (Dörnyei & Ryan, 2015). It has been proved to be associated with a number of variables in language learning such as the use of coordination (McDonough et al., 2015), communication strategies (Pipes, 2019), speaking performance (Suzuki et al., 2022). There seems, however, to be little research examining the relationship between creativity and other linguistic variables such as grammar or vocabulary. To fill in the gap, this study examined the association between creativity and grammatical acquisition of new forms. Eighty-nine secondary schools' students at elementary level were invited to complete two tasks: an alternative use task to measure creativity and a grammaticality judgment task to measure their grammatical acquisition of new forms. A Pearson-product moment correlation was used to analyze the data and the study reveals no relationship between creativity and grammatical acquisition of new forms. There is also no relationship between sub-measures of creativity and the grammatical acquisition. This study also argues that students who are not naturally creative can learn language effectively, which could be considered beneficial from pedagogical perspectives. The findings also show that creativity might not emerge in monologic tasks, suggesting the use of task-based teaching should be promoted in language classrooms to foster students' creativity and language ability. Some pedagogical implications were also offered.

Keywords: creativity, grammatical acquisition, English as a Foreign Language

1. Introduction

Creativity is a concept considered as most important in cognitive thinking and the highest level in Bloom's taxonomy. Creativity can be seen in a variety of aspects in our life. For example, a creative piece of art can be valued in museum or a novelty poem that have had an impact on our life. Creativity, according to Tin (2022), has emerged in a wide range of disciplines such psychology, business and not just only in forms academic texts but also in social genres such as YouTube. Creativity, therefore, has played an important role in our society.

In the field of language teaching, creativity has attracted more attention recently (Dörnyei & Ryan, 2015) when researchers consider it as one of the characteristics of learners that might have an impact on language learning. Dörnyei and Ryan (2015) also calls for further research to gain better insights into the dynamics between creativity and language use. More studies are, therefore, needed to address the issue of understanding creativity in language

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acquisition.

Previous studies begin to figure out its relationship and variables in language learning and teaching (e.g. Ottó, 1998; Pipes, 2019). The importance of creativity has been highlighted in previous studies. Ottó (1998) indicated a link between creativity and second language (L2) course grades, while Pipes (2019) showed a different finding, revealing no relationship between creativity and L2 course grades. She showed that there is a relationship between creativity and narrative and interactive tasks. Previous studies seemed to focus on creativity and communication strategies in language learning, but less attention has been given to the connection between creativity and other linguistic variables. According to Pipes (2022), no research has been published on the relationship between a person's creativity and their ability to learn grammar in a second language. Additionally, in the Vietnamese context, language teaching tends to focus on reading and grammar (Nunan, 2003) which English as a Foreign Language (EFL) teachers still mainly teach grammar by focusing on forms, helping students prepare for exams. Van (2023) adds that the language teaching and learning context in Vietnam is not realistic for adopting communicative approach as the needs for emphasizing the development of language accuracy to pass grammar-based exams are greater. This can be seen that grammar still plays a vital role in language teaching, which inspires the birth of this research to explore the correlation between creativity and grammar acquisition.

This study aims to bridge the gap in literature by exploring the relationship between creativity and grammatical acquisition of new forms. Only one research question was sought to answer: *Is there a relationship between students' creativity and their acquisition of new grammatical forms?*

2. Literature Review

2.1. Definition of Creativity

Creativity is a difficult term to define due to its complexity. While previous studies might either ignore or indirectly define creativity due its complexity (Plucker et al., 2004), some studies tried to shed light on the definition. Wallas (1926) outlined a four-stage process to understand creativity: preparation, incubation, illumination, and verification. Ellis (2015) showed that creativity involves novelty, imagination, adaptability, experimentation, and open-mindedness but acknowledged that it is difficult to stick to the fixed definition. Tin (2022) argues that creativity is a multi-faceted concept and has been viewed in different dimensions such as creativity as an “ability”, “a production”, “the quality”. There seems not to be an agreed definition on creativity due to the dynamics of the concept, but it seems that creativity is often related to something new and divergent from ordinary thinking. In this study, I focus on one aspect of creativity defined by Tin (2022), considering it as an innate ability.

2.2. Creativity in Language Teaching/Learning

Regarding creativity in language teaching/learning, we often think of a creative artifact that a teacher brings to the class or students create on their own when learning or in literature (Boden, 2004). However, creativity is more than that. Rhodes (1961) lists four main characteristics of creativity: *person, process, press and product*. The term person refers to personal traits, regarding creativity as an asset of creative people (Tin, 2022). The term process stresses the process of producing the creative products that a person goes through while press refers to as the relationship between creative person and the environment. The last term product focuses on creative products.

Tin (2022) draws a summary of views on creativity in language teaching/learning by using prepositions: creativity *through* language, creativity *of* language, creativity *with* language, creativity *and* language. Creativity *through* language implies language can be used to communicate four ideas: open knowledge, blind knowledge, secret knowledge, hidden knowledge. This view, according to Tin (2022), is extremely useful in language teaching when teachers could base on four views to design jig-saw activities. Creativity *of* language means the use of known language to create the original use of language for communication. Creativity *with* language refers to skillfully employing language, such as inventing new language based existing language rules. While the previous three views see creativity as an outcome, the view of creativity *and* language sees creativity as a predictor variable. This view considers creativity (as an innate trait) and language are separate variable. The view of creativity as a general ability of people would be the main focus throughout my study.

In person creativity, Sawyer (2006) identified the characteristics of creative people lie in their ability in the combination of convergent and divergent thinking. Guilford (1959) defines that while convergent thinking refers to the ability to find the right answer to the problem, divergent thinking compliments it, and is the most important factor in creativity. Cropley (2016) further draws a difference between convergent and divergent thinking characteristics in the table below:

Table 1

Characteristics of Divergent Thinking and Convergent Thinking (Adapted From Cropley, 2016)

Characteristics of divergent thinking	
Typical processes	Typical results
Thinking unconventionally	Alternative or multiple solutions
Seeing the known in a new light	Deviation from the usual
Combining the disparate	A surprising answer
Producing multiple answers	New lines of attack or ways of doing things
Shifting perspective	
Transforming the known	Opening up exciting or risky possibilities
Seeing new possibilities	
Characteristics of convergent thinking	
Typical processes	Typical results
Thinking logically	Generating familiarity with what already exists
Recognizing the familiar	Better grasp of the facts.
Combining what 'belongs together'	A quick, correct answer
Homing in on the single best answer	Improvement of existing skills
Reapplying set techniques	
Preserving the already known	Closure on an issue
Seeing accuracy and correctness	

Divergent thinking, which was classified as a part of Structure of the Intellect (SOI)

model by Guilford (1959), consists of four main groups: 1) Fluency: the ability to produce several ideas; 2) Flexibility: the ability to produce a wide range of ideas; 3) Originality the ability to produce unusual ideas; 4) Elaboration: the ability to extend and support ideas. Davis, Rimm, and Siegle (2011) describe the four main components of creativity in a more detailed way in the following:

Fluency: The ability to produce many ideas in response to an open-ended problem or question, either verbal or nonverbal ones. Fluency is considered as the foundation for designing activities to enhance divergent thinking as the more ideas you have, the more likely it is that at least one of them is a good idea (Starko, 2014). Fluency can be a count of the number of ideas that were generated within the specified time (Pipes, 2022). For example, if the student lists 25 uses of an object like a helmet, he will be awarded 25 points for fluency.

Flexibility: The ability to make different approaches to a problem, think of ideas in different categories, or view a situation from several perspectives. Pipes (2022) illustrates by giving an example that if the object is a cup, and the participants lists “pen holder”, “pencil holder” ..., they all fall into only one category “container”.

Originality: statistical rarity or uniqueness and nonconformity. Originality is determined based on statistical infrequency (Starko, 2014). For example, if only one student thinks of an idea that rarely or never appears in other students’ answers, he will be awarded for that idea.

Elaboration: The ability to add details, develop, and implement a given idea. For instance, “A lantern to carry in the Mid-Autumn festival” is more detailed than “a lantern”

In language learning, Ellis (2015) posed a question whether there is a positive relationship between personal creativity and language learning success. To fill in the gap, this timely study focuses on divergent thinking as a feature of creativity and used the scores of divergent thinking test as a tool to measure students’ creativity.

2.3. Grammar Acquisition in Language Learning

Grammar is a complex concept. Richards et al., (1992) narrowed down the definition of grammar as a structure of language. Ur (2003) referred to grammar as a collection of rules that define how words or parts of words are combined or changed to create acceptable units which can be used to communicate ideas. Larsen-Freeman and DeCarrico (2019) list that there are two types of grammar: prescriptive and descriptive. While descriptive grammar is more static and no value judgment is made, prescriptive grammar focuses on the accuracy and there is a clear boundary between correct and incorrect forms. This approach is judgmental to see whether the forms are acceptable or not. For example:

He ran quickly. (Correct)

He runned quickly. (Incorrect)

This study only examined the aspect of prescriptive grammar it has always prevailed in language teaching (Hinkel, 2018).

There is a clear distinction between acquisition and learning. Krashen (1982) clearly showed the differences between acquisition and learning. Acquisition implied the building of implicit knowledge, while learning meant the construction of explicit (and less useful) knowledge. Krashen (1982) also illustrates that acquisition is “picking up a language” and likened acquisition to the process children develop their ability in their first language, implying the incidental process of language learning. Additionally, acquirers, according to Krashen (1981), might self-correct their mistakes based on the “feel” for grammaticality. On the other

hand, language learning seems related to error correction, based on presenting rules explicitly, which can be considered as deliberate learning.

This research focused on students' acquisition or in other words, aiming to measure students' implicit knowledge of grammar.

2.4. Previous Studies in Creativity and Language Learning

A number of studies attempt to research the relationship between creativity and language learning. The very first study conducted by Ottó (1998). He used a creativity test which consists of four subgroups: fluency, flexibility, originality and elaboration and students' achievement test, showing that more creative students are expected to be more successful in language learning than less creative ones. One significant finding in his study is that students' fluency has a weak relationship with creativity scores. However, his small sampling size could affect his generalizability of his findings. Albert and Kosmo (2004) investigated the relationship between creativity and narrative task performance. Using a creativity test which measured three aspects of creativity namely: originality, fluency and flexibility and narrative tasks, they found that creativity fluency correlated with the quantity of talk. However, their study only investigated three aspects of creativity while the elaboration aspect seemed missing. McDonough et al., (2015) is another study examining the relationship between creativity and L2 language use during a problem-solving task. Their study found a significant relationship between students' creativity and their production of questions and coordination, but no relationship between creativity and other language features such as pronouns, subordinate reasoning clauses, conditionals, and stance. One limitation of their study is their small sample size (55 students), which might lead to lack of generalizability in findings.

Pipes (2019) examined the relationship between creativity and communication strategies. She invited 78 students to complete the Torrance Test of Creative Thinking, interactive and monologic narrative tasks in L2 speaking. Her study revealed relationships between creativity and use of direct/indirect communication strategies in the interactive and narrative task, but found no relationship between creativity and course grades and monologic narrative task. It was interesting to note that the course grades in her study included grammar component, which motivated this study to answer the question of the relationship between creativity and grammar acquisition. Most recently, Suzuki et al. (2022) also examined the role of creativity in second language speaking performance. Their study found that divergent thinking fluency contributes to the increase of information. Also, creativity was associated with discourse and syntactic complex.

From the literature review, creativity is an important characteristic in language learning success. While the previous studies attempt to figure out the relationship between creativity and language success, particularly speaking performance, little is known about the relationship between students' creativity and their grammar learning. To fill in the gap in literature, this study is conducted to seek the answer to the following question:

Is there a relationship between students' creativity and their acquisition of new grammatical forms?

3. Methodology

3.1. Participants

The participants were 89 secondary students (38 boys and 51 girls) at a public school in a northern province in Vietnam. They were in two intact classes in grade 7th with their English

proficiency ranging from A1 to A2 level. Specifically, sixty-nine of them are at A1 level while the remaining twenty students are at A2 level. They had three English lessons weekly. Prior to secondary schools, all of them had studied English at primary schools. They are all students in the same school since they entered grade 6th.

3.2. Research Design

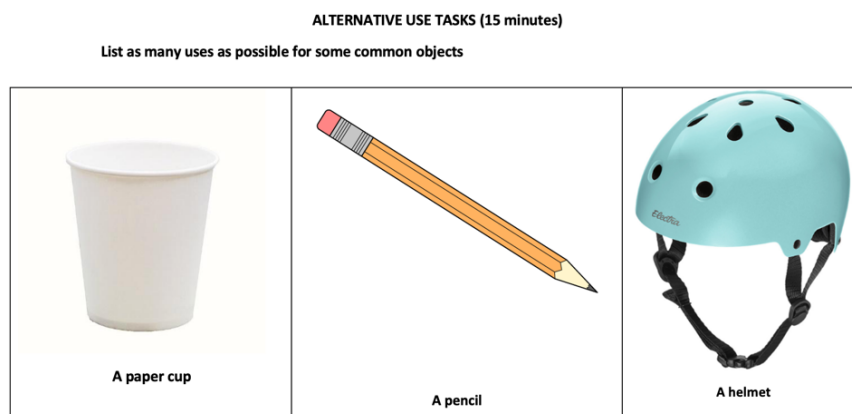
The purpose of this study is to examine whether students' creativity is associated with their ability to learn new grammatical forms. To address this aim, a correlational approach was adopted by measuring students' creativity scores and their grammar scores.

3.3 Research Instruments

Two instruments were used to answer the research question. To measure students' creativity, **an alternative use task** was employed. The reason for using this task is due to its being cost-effective and quick to measure creativity (Pipes, 2022). This is the most popular form of task to measure students' divergent thinking (based on the Torrance Tests of Creative Thinking; Torrance, 1966). As illustrated in the literature review, creativity, or divergent thinking was categorized into four main components: fluency, flexibility, elaboration, and originality. The task contained three pictures of three different objects: a brick, a paper cup, and a pencil. Within time limit (15 minutes), students were required to list as many uses as they can for the objects. After that, the students' answers were examined based on the four criteria (fluency, flexibility, elaboration, and originality).

Figure 1

Example of the Task



The second instrument to measure students' acquisition of grammatical forms is a grammatical judgment task. The task, which was designed by the researcher, consists of 28 items (14 distractors and 14 target structures). The rationale for creating the task by the researcher is that there is lack of existing grammatical judgment task that is appropriate in the research context to adopt. These items contain the grammatical forms that students were taught during the first term of grade 7th, namely: present simple tense, present continuous tense, infinitives, and gerunds. The participants were asked to judge whether the 28 sentences given were grammatically correct or not. For example:

Figure 2*Example of Grammaticality Judgment Task***GRAMMATICALITY JUDGMENT TASKS**

Sentence 1: She managed to download the file.

- a) Correct
- b) Not correct

Sentence 2: She do not sing well.

- a) Correct
- b) Not correct

Each sentence was rated as “Correct” or “Incorrect.” 50% of the sentences are grammatically correct and the remaining are not correct. The rationale for choosing this grammatical judgment task is to measure students’ implicit knowledge of new grammatical forms. Students completed the task within 12 minutes. Ellis (1998) stated that a timed judgment task helped to measure implicit knowledge rather than untimed one. However, one limitation of this task is that some students might have acquired some of grammatical items before. Moreover, some students might guess the answers or choose the answers randomly when answering the two-option task.

3.4. Procedure

At the end of the first term in grade 7th, 89 students were asked to complete a creativity test and a grammatical judgment task with an interval of 1 week. The creativity test lasted for 15 minutes while the judgment task was required to complete in 12 minutes.

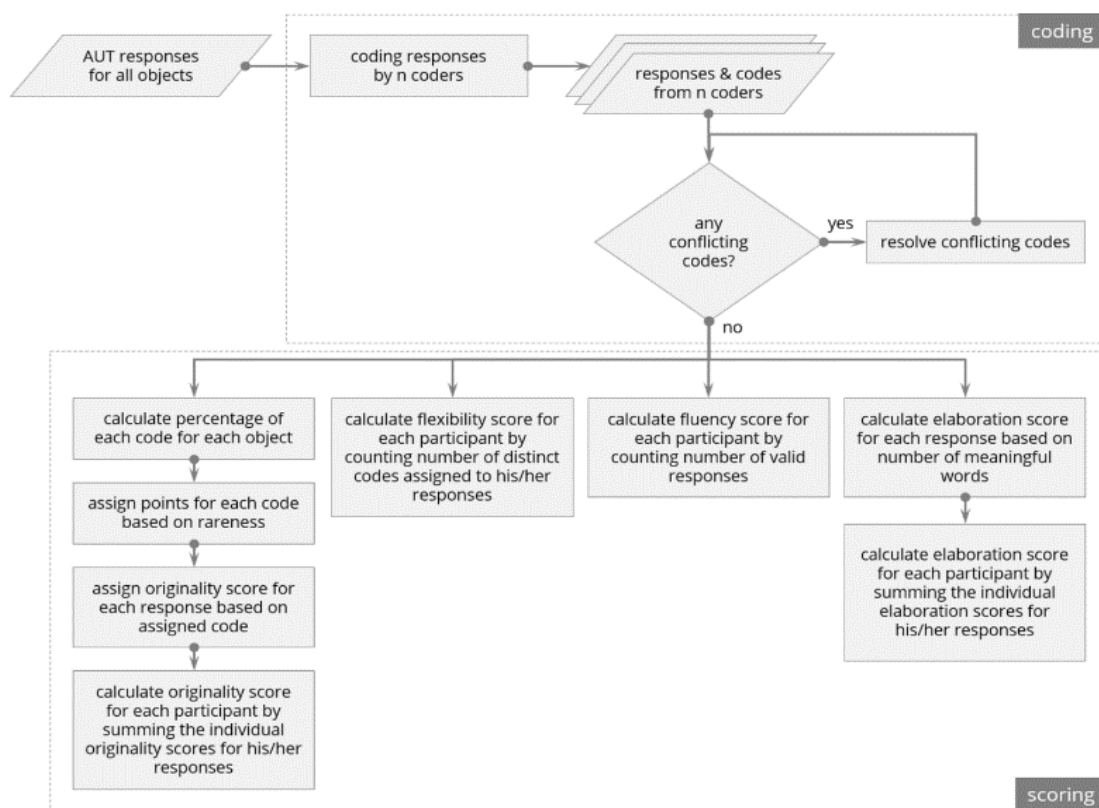
3.5. Data Analysis

After collecting the data, the two tasks were scored. In the grammatical task, binary judgment was adopted as it is the easiest way to score students’ responses (Spinner & Gass, 2019). Each correct answer was given 1 point while incorrect answer receives no point.

In the alternative use task to measure students’ creativity, four subgroups were examined namely: fluency (number of answers), flexibility (flexible use of objects), originality (novel use of objects), elaboration (extended answer). Each answer for the subgroups were given 1 score. The most commonly used dimensions to score responses are originality, or how rare the responses are; flexibility, or how different the responses are; fluency, or how many responses are generated; and elaboration, or how informative the responses are. My study followed Alhashim et al., (2020)’s scoring procedure in assessing creativity. The assessment process was illustrated in the following flowchart by Alhashim et al., (2020):

Figure 3

Flowchart of Alternative Usage Task Assessment Process



An example of scoring creativity for one participant was described below:

Table 2

Example of Scoring Creativity in Alternative Usage of Item: Paper Cup

Alternative usage ideas for: A paper cup	Code	Originality	Flexibility	Fluency	Elaboration
drink water	Container	0	Code 1	Idea 1	2
sell for money	Money	0	Code 2	Idea 2	3
To decorate	Entertainment	0	Code 3	Idea 3	1
To plant trees.	Container	0	Code 1	Idea 4	2
A toy	Entertainment	0	Code 3	Idea 5	1
A lantern to carry in the Mid-Autumn festival	Entertainment	1	Code 3	Idea 6	4
Net score for participant		1	3	6	13

Originality score was calculated based on the novelty of each usage. If the answer is rarely seen in other students' answer, in particular, the response appeared less than or equal to 5% of total responses of all students, the student would be given 1 point for their answer. In the

table, the student received 1 point for originality as the answer a lantern to carry in Mid-Autumn festival was rarely seen in other students' responses. Flexibility can be how many different classifications the responses fall into. For example, in the table, the participant lists paper cup as to decorate, to be a toy, they are all classified as *entertainment*. Fluency is the number of responses that were generated in the specified time. And the elaboration is the details for the response. A response received one point for each meaningful word it contained. For example, in the table, A lantern to carry in the Mid-Autumn festival, the participant received 4 points for 4 meaningful words he gave. After scoring, all data were computed and analyzed with the help of Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS).

3.6. Trustworthiness and Reliability

To ensure the reliability of the grammatical judgment task, a pilot stage was done with a similar group of participants. The Cronbach alpha was calculated to show the reliability of the task below. According to Spinner and Gass (2019), the Cronbach alpha score, which is most often used to measure internal consistency of judgment task, should be more than 0.7. Therefore, the task can be used for actual study.

Table 3

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.788	28

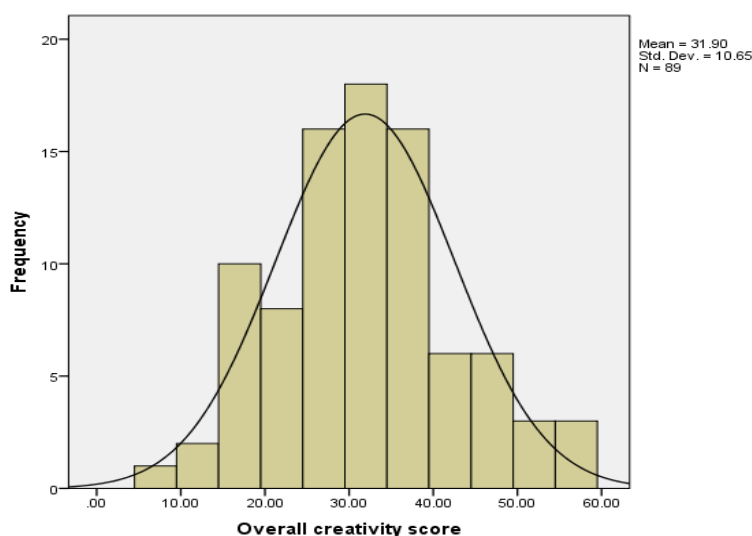
4. Findings

4.1. Descriptive Statistics

4.1.1. The Creativity Test Scores

Figure 4

Overall Creativity Score Histogram With Overlaid Normal Distribution



From the chart, the creativity score which is the sum of fluency, flexibility, elaboration, originality was calculated. The creativity score ranges from 7 to 57 (M= 31.90, SD = 10.85, N=

89). The skewness level of creativity score was .216, which is deemed to be sufficient for normal distribution as the acceptable skewness level is +/- 2 in the field of linguistics (Roever & Phakiti, 2017). Each subgroup of creativity scores was also described in the following table:

Table 4

Subgroups in Creativity Score

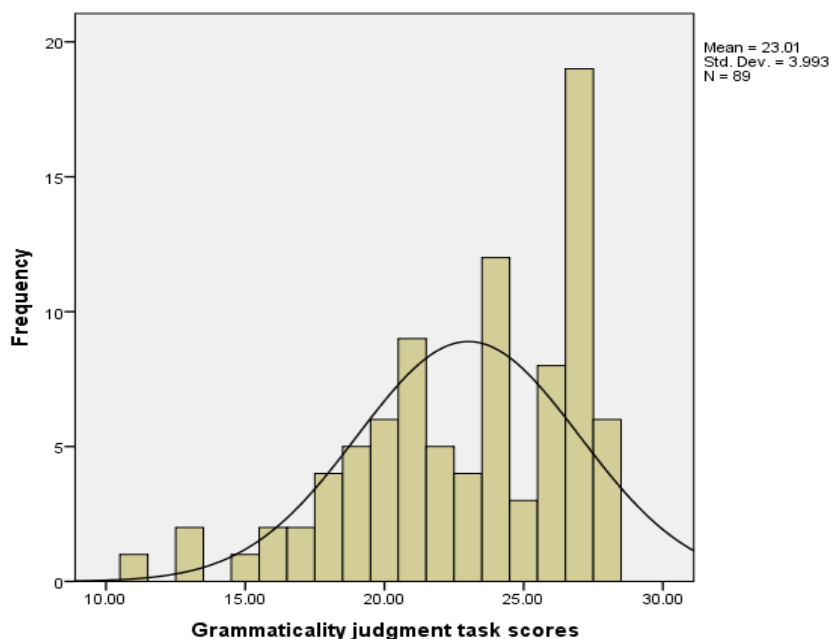
Measure	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Fluency	89	19.59	7.72
Flexibility	89	8.76	2.56
Originality	89	.977	.99
Elaboration	89	2.56	4.17
N	89		

4.1.2. The Grammaticality Judgment Test Scores

The grammaticality judgment task scores were examined for normal distribution as below:

Figure 5

The Overall Grammaticality Judgment Task Scores



The grammaticality judgment tasks scores range from 11 to 28 (M= 23.01, SD= 3.99, N= 89). The skewness level of the grammaticality judgment task scores was -.775, which can be acceptable for normal distribution (Roever & Phakiti, 2017).

4.2. Research Question Results

Is there a relationship between students’ creativity and their acquisition of new grammatical forms?

Pearson’s correlations of creativity and grammatical judgment task scores were

calculated. It showed no relationship between sub-measures of creativity and grammaticality. For example, the relationship between grammaticality and fluency ($r=-0.08$, $p=0.94$), flexibility ($r=0.1$, $p=0.9$), originality ($r=0.01$, $p=0.9$), elaboration ($r=0.2$, $p=0.5$). Sub-measures which are fluency, flexibility, originality showed no relationship with creativity while elaboration showed negligible correlation.

Table 5

Correlations Between Sub-Measures of Creativity and Grammaticality Judgment Task Scores

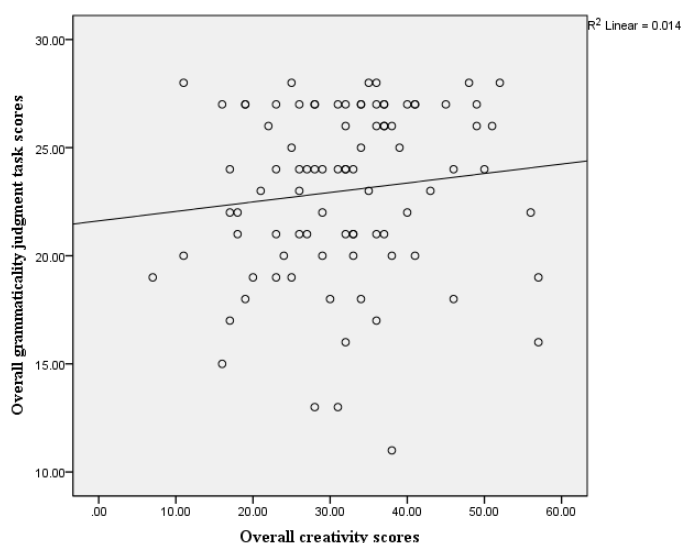
		Fluency	Flexibility	Originality	Elaboration	Grammaticality judgment task scores
Fluency	Pearson Correlation	1	.431**	.470**	.001	-.008
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000	.000	.992	.941
	N	89	89	89	89	89
Flexibility	Pearson Correlation	.431**	1	.117	.049	.177
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000		.273	.652	.098
	N	89	89	89	89	89
Originality	Pearson Correlation	.470**	.117	1	.319**	.011
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.273		.002	.915
	N	89	89	89	89	89
Elaboration	Pearson Correlation	.001	.049	.319**	1	.201
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.992	.652	.002		.059
	N	89	89	89	89	89
Grammaticality judgment task scores	Pearson Correlation	-.008	.177	.011	.201	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.941	.098	.915	.059	
	N	89	89	89	89	89

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

The research continued to compute the relationship of overall creativity scores and overall grammatical judgment task scores. The relationship of creativity and grammatical acquisition of new grammatical forms was visualized in scatterplot. The scatterplot showed almost no relationship between creativity and grammar acquisition ($r=0.11$, $R^2=0.01$).

Figure 6

Scatterplot of Overall Creativity Scores and Grammaticality Judgment Task Scores



5. Discussion

The study is conducted to figure out the relationship between creativity and grammatical acquisition. The findings indicated no relationships between creativity and grammatical acquisition. There is also no relationship between sub-measures of creativity and the grammatical scores. This means that students who are not naturally creative can become good language learners. Contrary to previous findings which underscore the association of creativity with a variety of linguistic variables, showing the relationship between creativity and course grades (Ottó, 1998), use of questions and coordination (McDonough, Crawford, and Mackey, 2015), communication strategies (Pipes, 2019), this study shows that creativity and grammar acquisition of new forms are not related to each other.

There are some plausible explanations for the current study's results. First, the study contrasts with Ottó (1998)'s study which indicates that creativity and course grades are positively correlated. One of the plausible explanations is the context of the study. While in Ottó (1998)'s context, the students mainly studied for mainly communicative purposes. Their course grades were based on their spoken and written assessment, which is different from my context where the teacher still teaches English mainly for focusing on forms. In the current study's teaching context, the teacher mainly adopts P (present)- P (practice) -P (production) approach, students are presented grammar rules, and through doing various types of exercises (repetition, question, answer) to acquire the rules. The use of P-P-P approach might not require much creativity as students mainly learn grammar solely through a process called habit-formation (Larsen-Freeman & DeCarrico, 2019). This results in the absence of creativity in terms of grammatical acquisition in this current study.

Another possible explanation for this result is the design of task. While previous studies (Ottó, 1998; McDonough, Crawford & Mackey, 2015) mainly use the interactive tasks to measure proficiency, my current study uses monologic task that is grammatical judgment task to measure students' grammatical acquisition. The rationale for choosing this monologic task is that the study would like to exclusively include only one monologic task which was inspired

by Pipes (2019)'s study, which used both interactive and monologic tasks to measure participants' creativity and communication strategies. She recommended that it is better to use only one task rather than combined tasks to measure students' creativity. She also states that the relationship between creativity and other language variables mainly emerges in interactive tasks as it requires more creative thoughts. In monologic task like grammatical judgment task, it might require fewer creative thoughts rather than interactive task that was reflected in previous studies. My study confirms Pipes (2019)'s results that the relationship of creativity and other variables seems to exist in interactive tasks. DeHaan (2009) also shows that creativity is a process that might be mediated through social interactions.

Additionally, while Pipes (2019)'s study shows that creativity can be correlated with communication strategies in interactive tasks, her study also reveals an absence of relationship between creativity and course grades which includes grammar component. My current study seems in line with Pipes (2019)'s result, contributing to the literature that creativity and grammar acquisition might not related. Those who are considered not naturally creative can still learn grammar effectively. This can be seen as a good thing. Pipes (2019) argues that the lack of relationship between creativity and course grades (including grammar) also gives equal chance for all students to acquire language when no one can be left behind by a perceived lack of creativity.

From the findings, this paper argues that students' creativity in language might be developed if there exists the implementation of interactive tasks in language classroom. If the relationship of interactive tasks and creativity emerges, Pipes (2019) also suggests that the use of task-based teaching needs to be promoted as it could help more creative students develop their creativity but not prohibit those less creative from improving language learning themselves.

Some pedagogical implications are made. Because creativity might emerge in interactive tasks, it is important for teachers to implement more communicative activities to improve students' language and creativity. This does not mean that the use of P-P-P approach is not beneficial, but it could be adapted to make it more communicative. Tin (2022) gives some demonstrations on how teachers can promote not only creativity but also language learning by converting form-focused activities into creative tasks. Also, teachers could consider adopting task-based teaching into language classrooms as the use of interactive tasks could promote students' language ability and creativity. This could achieve twofold purpose: improve students' language ability and creativity.

This study is not free from limitations. Due to small sampling size and intact classes, this might not be enough to generalize the findings. Further studies could be conducted with random sampling. Also, the proficiency of students might not be totally novice language learners, therefore might not capture their most foundational grammar learning, which could affect the reliability of this finding. This suggests further studies working on sampling at beginner level to confirm this result. Another limitation is that as there was no pre-test required, thus it is unclear whether the grammatical items in the judgment task were new to students or not. This might affect the reliability of the data as some students might have already acquired the grammatical forms before. Future studies could distribute a pre-test to measure the prior knowledge of students to ensure the reliability of the results. Experimental design would also be effective in investigating students' creativity and grammar acquisition. Another weakness of this study is that due to the two-option grammaticality judgment task, this can be subject to students' speculation in answers. It is recommended that studies which design a judgment task

with two options consider including confidence ratings (Spinner & Gass, 2019). Students could indicate how confident they are after judging each sentence, which helps to tackle the problem of guessing. However, this can also be a burden to participants, which needs careful consideration when implementing.

The current study only focuses on the relationship of creativity and grammar acquisition. Further studies could be conducted to figure out the relationship of creativity and other linguistic aspects of language learning such as vocabulary or writing, which could be a promising research area.

6. Conclusion

In conclusion, the study shows that students who are not naturally creative can become good language learners. There is no relationship between creativity and grammatical acquisition of new forms. One noticeable finding is that the relationship of creativity might not emerge in monologic task, therefore explains the absence of the relationship. These findings can be beneficial to both teachers and students as there is no need to be creative to learn basic grammatical forms more effectively. Obtaining foundational grammar could lay a foundation to become a creative thinker. Only by learning basic forms can students be able to think outside the box (Tin, 2022). Considering the importance of creativity in life, this study argues that teachers need to employ more communicative tasks in their grammar teaching to promote students' creativity and language ability.

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MỐI QUAN HỆ GIỮA SÁNG TẠO VÀ SỰ ĐẮC THỤ NGỮ PHÁP TRONG HỌC TIẾNG ANH CỦA HỌC SINH TRUNG HỌC CƠ SỞ Ở VIỆT NAM

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Tóm tắt: Sáng tạo là một khái niệm gần đây đang thu hút các nhà khoa học trong ngôn ngữ học ứng dụng (Dörnyei & Ryan, 2015). Sáng tạo được chứng minh có tương quan với các biến trong học ngôn ngữ như sáng tạo và sử dụng ngôn ngữ phối hợp (McDonough et al., 2015), chiến lược giao tiếp (Pipes, 2019), kỹ năng nói (Suzuki et al., 2022). Tuy nhiên, rất ít nghiên cứu điều tra về mối quan hệ giữa sáng tạo và các biến ngôn ngữ như từ vựng hay ngữ pháp. Để lấp đầy khoảng trống này, nghiên cứu này tìm hiểu về mối tương quan giữa sáng tạo và sự đắc thụ ngữ pháp. 89 học sinh trung học cơ sở được mời tham gia nghiên cứu bằng cách hoàn thành hai nhiệm vụ: một bài nhiệm vụ về các cách sử dụng thay thế nhằm đo lường sự sáng tạo và một bài đánh giá ngữ pháp để đo lường sự đắc thụ ngữ pháp. Nghiên cứu sử dụng tương quan Pearson để phân tích số liệu. Kết quả chỉ ra rằng không có mối liên hệ giữa sáng tạo và việc học ngữ pháp của học sinh. Cũng không có bất kỳ mối quan hệ nào giữa các khía cạnh phụ của sáng tạo và sự đắc thụ ngữ pháp. Bài báo tranh luận rằng học sinh dù không có khả năng sáng tạo tự nhiên vẫn hoàn toàn có thể học ngữ pháp hiệu quả, điều này được cho là có lợi dưới góc nhìn giáo dục. Kết quả cũng chỉ ra rằng sáng tạo dường như không xuất hiện ở các nhiệm vụ đơn lẻ được thực hiện một mình, gợi ý rằng việc sử dụng phương pháp giảng dạy theo nhiệm vụ nên được khuyến khích hơn trong các lớp học ngoại ngữ để thúc đẩy sự sáng tạo và khả năng ngôn ngữ của học sinh. Một vài gợi ý trong giảng dạy cũng được đưa ra ở bài báo này.

Từ khóa: sự sáng tạo, sự đắc thụ ngữ pháp, tiếng Anh như một ngoại ngữ

TEACHING OUTSIDE AREA OF EXPERTISE: A BARRIER TO OR ENABLER OF TEACHERS' SENSE OF COMPETENCE?

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Abstract: For a majority of academics, it has become an increasingly common reality to teach outside their area of expertise. However, there has been little discussion on the impact of out-of-field teaching on teachers and their teaching. The current study examined Vietnamese English as a Foreign Language (EFL) teachers' perceptions and attitudes towards teaching outside their area of expertise, and the influence of out-of-field teaching on teachers' sense of competence through the lens of Self-Determination Theory. Data were collected through semi-constructed interviews carried out by 15 Vietnamese EFL university teachers. Findings revealed that out-of-field teaching can be either a barrier to or an enabler of the satisfaction of teachers' need for competence. The study found that lack of content knowledge did not always prevent teachers from seeing themselves as effective teachers and enhancing their need for competence. Teachers' senses of effectiveness, confidence, motivation, and enjoyment of teaching depend largely on how they conceptualise their roles in teaching. Particularly, those with a high level of self-efficacy and did not consider themselves as a knowledge expert in teaching were more likely to see out-of-field teaching as an opportunity for their knowledge enhancement. The study suggests that different stakeholders (e.g., educators, policy makers, school leaders and administrators, and teachers) should develop an understanding of how teachers conceptualise their roles in teaching and what makes them feel competent to provide teachers with need-supportive environment.

Keywords: out-of-field teaching, teacher area of expertise, teacher competence, self-determination theory, expert teachers

1. Introduction

Teaching courses in which teachers are expert is an ideal working condition for teachers and also important for a high-quality education system (Hobbs & Torner, 2019). Research has shown that expert teachers with a deep understanding of subject-content knowledge can impart knowledge to students in more accurate and effective ways than novice teachers can do (Auerbach et al., 2018; Riordain et al., 2019; Tsui, 2009). Expert teachers' lesson plans are usually well-structured and consistent with curricular and learning outcomes (Tsui, 2009). Apart from subject-content knowledge, teachers with rich teaching experience in a specific domain tend to have a deep understanding of their students. They are also aware of critical points in content learning on which they need to pay more attention and provide students with more detailed explanations (Berliner, 2004; Wolff et al., 2016). Teaching within an area of expertise also allows teachers to be more effective in making decisions and solving issues related to classroom management (Ibrahim et al., 2013; Wolff et al., 2021). These teachers often interpret classroom events in the most critical ways and respond to these events in ways that

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support learning objectives (Berliner, 1988; Palmer et al., 2005; Wolff et al., 2016).

However, due to teacher shortages (Luft et al., 2020), teaching outside an area of expertise has become “an increasingly common reality for a majority of academics” (Huston, 2009, p. 9). The term *teaching outside area of expertise* is used to describe the situation when teachers are assigned to teach courses that they are not qualified for, or for which they do not have sufficient subject knowledge (Ingersoll, 1999; Tucker, 2012). In the context of the current study, teaching outside area of expertise refers to the practice of EFL teachers instructing students in courses that fall beyond their specialised knowledge or training. For example, teachers might be assigned to teach Business English, or Medical English, or Legal English, which they have never taught before. These courses require not only language proficiency but also a solid understanding of subject-specific content.

Pillay et al. (2005) found that teaching courses outside of teachers’ knowledge base could compromise teachers’ sense of competence. Teachers must work intensively on their speciality to sharpen teaching skills and deepen subject-knowledge (Robbs & Broyles, 2012). To become experts in a specific field or domain teachers must engage intensively in that field or domain for at least thousand hours (Berliner, 1986; Sternberg, 1998). When it comes to teaching unfamiliar courses, teachers might have to spend more time on learning new content and put more effort into lesson preparation (du Plessis, 2015). These activities might prevent them from developing their area of expertise (Hobbs, 2013; Riordain et al., 2019). Increased time and effort on teaching novel content and learning new materials increases teachers’ workload, which can cause teachers job stress and dissatisfaction (du Plessis, 2015). Pillay et al. (2005) conducted a quantitative study on teaching out-of-field in Australia and found that teachers who were assigned to teach courses outside their area of expertise reported high levels of burnout and emotional exhaustion. They also reported low levels of self-rated competence and ability to control their internal state.

Teachers’ instructional quality and students’ achievement can be affected by teachers’ limited knowledge of subject matter (Darling-Hammon, 2010; Williams, 2009). According to Baumert et al. (2010), teachers’ content representation and explanations in classroom “are largely dependent on the breadth and depth of their conceptual understanding of the subject” (p. 138). Teachers’ incapacity to provide students with subject matter support reduces their sense of effectiveness in teaching (Pillay et al., 2005). Dee and Cohodes (2008) demonstrated a correlation between teachers’ qualifications and students’ test scores in mathematics. Students taught by subject-qualified teachers got higher test scores than those taught by out-of-field teachers. du Plessis (2015) raised a concern about teachers’ lack of a deep understanding of content knowledge and low level of self-efficacy in teaching. Accordingly, out-of-field teachers report high levels of anxiety and incompetency. They are more likely to avoid complex subject concepts and in-depth subject discussions with students.

Nevertheless, teaching outside one’s *comfort zone* is not always problematic. Previous studies have shown that teaching unfamiliar courses can be an opportunity for teachers’ professional development (Hobbs, 2013; Zaid et al., 2021). Teachers can broaden their content knowledge and pedagogical content knowledge of courses outside their area of expertise. New knowledge can be used to support teachers’ in-field teaching and “give [teachers] a sense of renewal and reflection on practice” (Hobbs & Torner, 2019, p. 12). Findings of Zaid and colleagues’ study (2021) showed that teachers did not always find out-of-field teaching to be a burden. Rather they could enjoy teaching as a content novice. Teaching unfamiliar courses was stressful for teachers who considered themselves as content experts and focused on transmitting

knowledge to students.

There has been increasing interest in examining the impacts of teaching unfamiliar courses on the quality of teaching and learning (Hobbs & Torner, 2019). However, most of this research has focused on secondary and high school teachers who were required to teach mathematics and science courses for which they were not trained (Dee & Cohodes, 2008; du Plessis, 2015; Hobbs, 2013; Ingersoll, 1999; Jacob et al., 2017; Nixon et al., 2017; Robbs & Broyles, 2012). Less attention has been paid to tertiary teachers, particularly those working in language teaching contexts when they are required to teach courses outside their specialisation. Apart from the quality of the learning and teaching, how teachers' motivation and well-being are affected when teachers are required to teach unfamiliar courses should be taken into consideration. Research on teaching out-of-field also needs a stronger theoretical base (Hobbs, 2013). Hobbs and Torner (2019) aware that more elaborated theories will be needed to analyse the complexity of teaching outside area of expertise. To add to the literature, the current study employed the concept of need for competence within Self-Determination Theory (Deci et al., 2017) as a theoretical framework to examine teachers' perceptions of and attitudes towards teaching outside their specialisation. It can be hypothesised that Vietnamese EFL teachers might have different experience and attitudes towards teaching outside their area of expertise. To provide a thorough understanding of teachers' sense of competence when they are required to teach unfamiliar courses, the following question will be answered in this study:

What do teachers perceive as the obstacles to and enablers of teaching outside their area of expertise?

2. Self-Determination Theory and Teachers' Need for Competence

Self-Determination Theory, with the inclusion of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation, was developed by Deci and Ryan (1991) to explore the integration of human behaviour. They also proposed that social conditions may either support or thwart human growth or intrinsic motivation (Deci & Ryan, 2000). Social and cultural contextual variables must satisfy three basic psychological needs (for autonomy, competence, and relatedness) to optimise human healthy development and psychological wellness (Ryan & Deci, 2016).

Due to the scope of the current study, only the need for competence is discussed. Need for competence refers to the desire to feel effective and masterful when individuals interact with their social environment (Baumeister & Leary, 1995; Deci & Ryan, 2000). This psychological need can affect individuals' motivation and the amount of effort that they exert in an action. In the education field, fulfilment of teachers' need for competence has been linked to students' motivation and academic achievement (Ashton & Webb, 1986). Previous studies found that when teachers felt competent in teaching, they provided their students with autonomy-supportive teaching strategies, and persisted in supporting students and dealing with teaching challenges (Woolfolk et al., 1990). Teachers with a high level of satisfaction of the need for competence also experienced lower levels of job stress and reported a higher level of teaching enthusiasm in comparison to those who saw themselves as incompetent (Caprara et al., 2006; Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2010). Given the context of the current study, it is proposed that teachers achieve a sense of satisfaction of their need for competence when they feel confident, capable, and effective in their instructional role. On the other hand, teachers may find their need for competence unmet when they perceive a gap between their knowledge and the demands of teaching or when they question their abilities to effectively adapt to new content, prepare materials, and manage diverse students' needs.

Teachers' need for competence can be undermined by external influences, including difficult challenges, negative feedback, negative perceptions of person-focused criticism, or sense of inferiority (Cuevas et al., 2015; Ryan & Deci, 2017). Fernet et al. (2013) found that teachers' motivation and enthusiasm are threatened by job ambiguity. Insufficient information and unclear requirements about the job may make teachers feel unconfident and unsure of their performance. When facing such influences, teachers can withdraw from teaching or expend less effort on teaching to avoid a sense of incompetence and failure (Korthagen & Evelein, 2016). However, teachers might have different experience when they expose the same contextual condition (Deci et al., 2017). From the perspective of Causality Orientations Theory, Deci et al. (2017) suggest that:

People actively interpret and give psychological meaning to contexts and then act in accordance with their interpretations rather than with objective characteristics of the context. To a significant extent, these interpretations are affected by people's personalities – including both classic traits and individual differences in causality orientations. (p. 219)

3. Research Contexts

English language teaching at the higher education level in Vietnam is divided into two categories: English major programs and non-English major programs. English major students must take the National High School Graduation Examination and have the results of three subjects (Maths, Literature, and English) meet the standard score of the university to which they are applying. English major programs include integrated skills courses, linguistics, English literature, Western culture, translating, interpreting, and English language teaching methodology courses. Students who graduate from the English major programs can become teachers of English, interpreters, and translators (Hoang, 2010). On the other hand, non-English major programs are compulsory for students in other majors. There are two courses in this program, including General English (GE) and English for specific purposes (ESP). Students take the GE courses in their first two academic years and the ESP courses in their third year (Trinh & Mai, 2018). The GE courses are designed to develop students' integrated skills, including Listening, Speaking, Reading, and Writing. The ESP courses are designed to develop students' specific knowledge and vocabulary related to their majors, for example, English for Business, English for Engineering, English for Laws, etc. (Pham & Bui, 2019).

4. Method

This report is part of a larger project investigating the motivation of Vietnamese university EFL teachers. Data reported in this paper were drawn from interview data collected for the larger project, focusing on teachers' perceptions of and attitudes towards teaching outside their area of expertise. Face-to-face semi-structured interviews were used as the data collection instrument. Interviews have been widely considered as a powerful tool to develop a comprehensive understanding of others' life experience and worldviews (Jamshed, 2014; Qu & Dumay, 2011). Regarding the context and objectives of the current study, semi-structured interviews allowed us to examine teachers' feelings, perceptions, and attitudes when they taught courses that they did not know.

5. Participants

Data were gathered from in-depth interviews with 15 EFL teachers from 6 universities across Vietnam. Two thirds of the participants were female. Teachers' experience as English

language teachers (ELT) ranged between 4 to 22 years. The majority of participants (n = 10) had from 10 to 20 years of ELT experience. Three teachers had been teaching EFL for less than 10 years and two had been EFL teachers for more than 20 years. The number of teachers from provincial areas outweighed their counterparts from metropolitan areas (n = 9 and n = 6 correspondingly). Two thirds of the participants were working in the public sector. To protect participants' confidentiality, names were changed to pseudonyms. Appendix provides a summary of the characteristics of participants.

6. Data Collection and Analysis

An ethics approval was obtained from the institution where the researchers were based. Convenience sampling was used as a strategy for obtaining data in the current study. Universities were selected in terms of ease of access, willingness by administrators to allow EFL teachers to participate in the current study, and availability of EFL teachers. The researchers contacted leaders of the participating university to seek permission to conduct the current research project. After receiving approval, the researchers were allowed to access EFL teachers working at these universities. An invitation email, a participant information sheet, and a link to the online survey were emailed to teachers. Those who were interested in the project could complete the survey. At the end of the survey, teachers were invited to participate in follow-up interviews. Those who showed interest were asked to provide their contact details. The researchers contacted those who indicated their interest to schedule times and venues for the interview. Interviews were conducted in Vietnamese – the mother tongue of participants and the first researcher. Each interview lasted between 60 and 90 minutes. The following questions were used during the interview: *“Are any of the courses you have been teaching outside of your area of expertise?”*; *“If yes, please describe your feelings and experience when teaching courses outside of your area of expertise”*.

At the beginning of each interview, the researcher explained the objectives of the project, the interview process, participants' rights, benefits, and risks when participating in the interview. Participants' confidentiality was also discussed. Participants could skip questions they were not comfortable to answer and withdraw their participation at any time. Those who agreed to participate in the interview were asked to provide a written consent form for their responses to be audio-recorded and for their data to be used in research reports.

The researcher used the six-step thematic analysis method developed by Braun and Clarke (2006) to analyse interview data. Member checking and an audit trail were used as the main validating strategies of the current study. Interview transcripts were transcribed and emailed to each interviewee and encouraged them to verify the quality and accuracy of the transcribed data. The interviewees were also encouraged to provide extra information and explanations for what they said in the interviews. An audit trail was created to record all components, steps, decisions, and rationales for these decisions during the research process. The researcher then translated the verified transcripts from Vietnamese to English before importing them into NVivo 12 software. The coding process involved two phases: initial coding – getting familiar to participants' language, perspective and worldviews, and pattern coding – developing a sense of categorical, thematic conceptual and theoretical organisation from the initial codes (Saldana, 2009). Coded data were merged to create themes and sub-themes. Two themes and three sub-themes related to teachers' attitudes and perceptions of teaching outside their area of expertise emerged for further analysis. The following section will present results of the data analyses.

7. Findings

7.1. Out-of-field Teaching as an Enabler of Teachers' Need for Competence Satisfaction

Data analysis of interview transcripts revealed that teachers reported different perceptions and attitudes towards teaching outside their area of expertise. More than half of teachers (n = 9) indicated positive attitudes towards teaching outside their area of expertise. For example, five teachers said that it was a chance to enhance their knowledge. My commented that experience she gained from the new courses would increase the quality of her teaching in general:

It [the new course] allows me to learn more. When I had to teach the topic of diplomacy, I read everything related to the topic. I found many interesting things. No matter what the topic is, the more you explore and learn about it, the more interesting and attractive things you will find. It makes me love my profession. Knowledge that I gained from new courses might be useful for my daily teaching, too.

Hoang said that taking on a new challenge prevented boredom in teaching:

Obviously, it's hard when we teach a totally new course, but it changes the working climate. If we teach the same courses every year to such an extent that we know them by heart, it's definitely tedious. Teaching new courses brings something new and interesting.

Gam described herself as a curious and studious person. Teaching courses out of her "comfort zone" helped her to satisfy her need to explore and acquire new knowledge, *"I now know a lot about concrete, constructing bridges and roads, and so on. I found that new knowledge so interesting. My peers tell me that I'm versatile. I'm curious, too. I want to know everything about this planet"*.

When it came to teaching, these teachers perceived themselves as confident and comfortable during lessons. Vo reported that she was aware that she was not an expert on the course that she was assigned to teach. However, she was authentic and open-minded to be a learner and a teacher simultaneously.

I was not stressed when I taught that course [out-of-field course]. I was not afraid to say, "I don't know" to my students. When I didn't know about something, I would tell the truth to my students that I didn't know. Then I would learn more about it together with my students. I felt comfortable and ready to learn new knowledge and take on new challenges. (Vo)

These teachers also reported a high level of self-efficacy. They believed that they could perform the teaching tasks well. They also worked hard to overcome difficulties. Teachers noted that they spent a large amount of time preparing the course, for example, looking for textbooks and reading materials in both English and Vietnamese (n = 4), reading and studying the textbook carefully (n = 3), and discussing with peers who used to teach the course (n = 4). Gam described how hard she had been working to prepare for her content knowledge and lesson plan:

In 2005, I taught an automotive and mechanic course. It took me a long time to learn about automobiles and mechanics. I understood the terminologies, but I didn't know how these terms were used. I decided to learn to drive a car and learn the structure of a car. It consists of more than 7000 elements. After all, I felt that I was confident to teach the course to my students.

7.2. Out-of-field Teaching as a Barrier to Teachers' Need for Competence Satisfaction

On the other hand, six teachers reported negative attitudes towards teaching outside their

area of expertise. They found it “challenging, pressured and difficult” (Chi). Teachers faced challenges and difficulties when teaching out of their “comfort zone”:

I don't have much time to prepare for it [the course] and I have no experience in teaching it. It's one of the difficulties when I teach outside of my expertise. (Bich)

I taught an MBA course in the past. I could check the meaning of the economic vocabulary, but I didn't even understand these terms in Vietnamese. I didn't know how they were using them in economics. (Tuan)

Teachers reported negative feelings when teaching out-of-field courses. Nam described his teaching as “faking” because of “the lack of foundation, deep understanding and real experience of the subject”. Vu said that “teaching becomes a heavy burden”. While Tuan said that he felt nervous when giving lectures. When teachers experienced the lack of confidence in the subject knowledge, they tended to restrict the scope to the content provided in textbooks. They avoided introducing new knowledge that did not come from textbooks:

There were some terms that I couldn't understand. So I avoided them in class. When I didn't know or understand something, I introduced it quickly to my students and avoided talking too much about it. (Cam)

I tried my best, but I couldn't understand everything. So I just focused on what I knew and what I was confident about. The other things, I would do them in a perfunctory manner. (Chi)

Nam described his lack of confidence when teaching a course unfamiliar to him:

Students would ask questions beyond your knowledge. They would ask me about a tourism topic, like being a tour guide. Or they would ask me about the structure of a restaurant or a hotel. Their major was tourism, not an English-major. I was very careful when I taught them. I had to get my lesson well prepared. When they asked me and I was unable to answer their questions, they would laugh and no longer respect me. They were thinking that I was a teacher, but I knew nothing.

Similar to Nam, Nga pointed out that teachers' image was very important. These teachers reported that a good teacher should have deep and profound knowledge of the topics that they taught. Consequently, they attempted to protect their image in front of students:

When I realised that I didn't know much about a specific topic, ... I avoided deepening it. Because I'm a teacher, I have to create an image of me in students' minds: “oh, she is a good teacher. She has broad knowledge”. (Nga)

8. Discussion

The current study aimed to examine Vietnamese EFL teachers' perceptions and attitudes towards teaching outside their area of expertise, and the influence of out-of-field teaching on the satisfaction of need for competence. Findings revealed that teaching outside teachers' area of expertise can be either an obstacle to or an enabler of the satisfaction of teachers' need for competence and motivation for teaching. Teachers can have either positive or negative attitudes towards out-of-field courses which they had no teaching experience.

In line with previous research, teachers in this study agreed that teaching courses that they were not qualified to teach was challenging (du Plessis, 2015; Pillay et al., 2005). However, teachers' attitudes towards these challenges varied. For those who showed positive attitudes, these difficulties appeared not to deter them. They were not only confident that they could teach well but were also excited to explore new knowledge. Working on unfamiliar teaching content

satisfied their curiosity and desire to broaden knowledge. Teaching courses outside area of their expertise allowed teachers to refresh their teaching and avoid enthusiasm erosion. These findings are in contrast with previous results reported in the literature that teaching out-of-field had a negative impact on teachers' specialisation (Hobbs, 2013; Riordain et al., 2019; Robbs & Broyles, 2012). Teachers in the current study found that knowledge and experiences they gained from teaching out-of-field courses were helpful for their general teaching practice.

When it came to teaching, teachers with positive attitudes towards teaching unfamiliar courses showed high levels of excitement and confidence in their ability to teach. They felt comfortable to teach an unfamiliar course and willing to tell their students that they did not know everything (Zaid et al., 2021). They also showed a "can-do" attitude and were willing to explore the unknown areas of knowledge with their students. These findings suggested that these teachers considered themselves as a facilitator rather than an expert in one area (Phan, 2013). Their sense of competence was enhanced when they were able to help students to learn and able to develop their subject content knowledge and pedagogical skills. Therefore, a lack of subject knowledge did not threaten the satisfaction of their need for competence and their motivation for teaching.

On the other hand, there were teachers who found teaching outside their specialisation as a barrier to their performance and the fulfillment of their need for competence. These teachers also spent time and effort on learning new content and preparing their lesson plans as their counterparts did, but they did not enjoy their work. Learning new knowledge and getting familiar with novel courses was a "must-do" task in teaching, but not for purposes of exploratory or knowledge improvement. These teachers reported a low level of self-efficacy and a high level of anxiety in classrooms because of their lack of subject content knowledge (du Plessis, 2015; Hobbs, 2013; Zaid et al., 2021). They blamed their lack of self-efficacy in teaching on their limited subject matter knowledge. From their perspectives, teachers should know everything related to the content and be able to answer every single question raised by students, if not they would lose students' respect and fail to become a good teacher (Zaid et al., 2021). This finding emphasises the strong influence of Confucian ideology on Vietnamese teachers' conceptualisation of their role and sense of competence in English language teaching (Nguyen, 2015). Particularly, teachers are positioned as 'the transmitter of knowledge', 'knowledge provider' or 'knowledge expert', which shapes teachers' beliefs that "they are the most reliable source of knowledge and the one responsible for construction knowledge for their student" (Nguyen, 2015, p. 206). This also supports Le & Pham's findings (2013) that English language teachers' traditional identity as a 'knowledge expert' should be redefined in order to improve the quality of English language teaching and learning in Vietnam.

Findings revealed that when teachers felt uncertain of their subject knowledge, they tend to stay focused on the content covered in textbooks which they already knew and prepared. They tended to avoid discussing knowledge outside teaching materials or engaging in in-depth discussions with students on what they were not certain about (du Plessis, 2015). Their sense of competence was enhanced only when they were able to impart content knowledge and were able to deal with subject-matter related questions. These findings confirm previous research that teachers can withdraw from teaching or expend less effort into teaching to avoid a sense of incompetence or failure (du Plessis, 2015; Korthagen & Evelein, 2016; Phan, 2013). In line with previous studies, the current study found that teachers' low self-efficacy and self-doubt restrict their perceived satisfaction of the need for competence (Chen et al., 2015; Ebersold et al., 2019).

Findings of the current study supports the application of SDT and basic psychological needs (for autonomy, competence, and relatedness) (Ryan & Deci, 2017) to examine teachers' motivation for teaching. Contextual conditions can affect teachers' motivation by supporting or thwarting their psychological need satisfaction (Deci et al., 2017). In line with Causality Orientation Theory – one of six mini theories of SDT, this study found that there were individual differences in teachers' perceptions and interpretation of contextual conditions, and these differences affected the satisfaction or frustration of teachers' needs. Given the context of the current study, teaching courses outside teachers' area of expertise is considered as a contextual condition. Teachers could see this condition as either a barrier to or an enabler of their sense of competence in teaching. Findings of the current study revealed that teachers' self-efficacy – the extent to which they believe that they can perform well (Bandura, 1977), and their identity – how they conceptualise their roles in teaching (Beijaard, 1995) would determine whether teachers consider out-of-field teaching supported or thwarted their need for competence. This, in turn, would affect teachers' attitudes and behavioural tendencies in teaching.

9. Conclusion

Research in the field of education has shown that knowledgeable teachers are a crucial element of a high-quality education system (Berliner, 2004; Johnson, 2011; Schieman & Plickert, 2008; Wolff et al., 2016). Problems may arise when teachers are required to teach courses outside their area of expertise (Huston, 2009). This did not imply that teachers' content knowledge and pedagogical content knowledge are not important for high-quality teaching. Rather, educators, administrators and teachers should accept the fact that teachers are not knowledge experts when they teach courses outside their specialisation. Findings of the current study showed that lack of content knowledge did not prevent the same teachers from seeing themselves as effective teachers and enhancing their need for competence. Teachers' senses of effectiveness, confidence, motivation, and enjoyment of teaching depend largely on how they conceptualise their roles in teaching. The study argues that if teachers were not concerned with seeing themselves as "knowledge experts", they would be more confident about teaching courses outside their specialisation and experience a high level of their satisfaction of the need for competence (Nguyen & Hall, 2017).

The current study suggests that to promote teachers' need satisfaction and well-being, it is important to understand what they need in teaching and how they interpret teaching conditions (Chen et al., 2015). Most importantly, teachers can have different opinions and experiences even when they expose to the same condition (Deci et al., 2017). Regarding the current study, the study suggests that different stakeholders (e.g., educators, policy makers, school leaders and administrators, and teachers) should develop an understanding of how teachers conceptualise their roles in teaching and what makes them feel competent (Phan, 2008). These understandings are crucial in providing teachers' need-supportive environment and promoting the satisfaction of teachers' psychological needs and motivation for teaching.

Findings of this study add to a growing body of literature on out-of-field teaching and the application of SDT in examining teachers' motivation and need satisfaction. However, two limitations need to be considered. The first limitation was that of a small sample size, which might reduce the generalisation of the findings beyond the context of this study. Further studies should recruit a larger sample to enhance the representation of the population and provide more accurate results. Another limitation was due to the use of interview as the main data collection

instrument. To provide a comprehensive understanding of teachers' perceptions, motivation, and behaviour when teaching courses outside their specialisation, future research should collect data from survey, classroom observation, and teachers' diaries.

Studies of out-of-field teaching tend to focus on the negative effects of this occurrence on teachers' performance and students' achievement (Dee & Cohodes, 2008; du Plessis, 2015; Hobbs, 2013; Hobbs & Torner, 2019; Ingersoll, 1999; Johnson, 2011; Luft et al., 2020; Pillay et al., 2005; Zaid et al., 2021). However, teaching is not only about knowledge, knowledge transmission and students' outcome. It is also necessary to understand teachers' experiences and emotions in teaching because they are the most important determinants of teaching and students' learning outcomes. Consequently, future work should focus on understanding teachers' perceptions, needs, and motivation when they are required to teach unfamiliar courses. Besides, further work needs to be done to provide teachers with professional and personal support to help them to build their self-efficacy and improve their performance in both in-field and out-of-field teaching.

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APPENDIX
DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION OF INTERVIEWEES

Interviewees	Gender	ELT experience (years)	Course taught*	Geographical location		Institution	
				Metropolitan	Provincial	Public	Private
Vu	M	6	GE, ESP	X			X
Tuan	M	14	ESP	X			X
Bich	F	15	ESP		X	X	
Cam	F	22	ESP	X			X
Hoang	M	21	ESP		X	X	
My	F	16	ESP		X	X	
Gam	F	18	ESP GE		X	X	
Nga	F	9	ESP GE		X	X	
Nam	M	4	ESP, GE		X	X	
Doan	F	16	ESP, GE		X	X	
Chi	F	16	ESP GE		X	X	
Tien	F	20	ESP	X			X
Vo	M	10	ESP	X		X	
Lien	F	10	ESP		X	X	
Oanh	F	14	ESP	X			X

* Note. ESP: English for Specific Purposes; GE: General English

GIẢNG DẠY NGOÀI LĨNH VỰC CHUYÊN MÔN: RÀO CẢN HAY YẾU TỐ THúc ĐẨY NHẬN THỨC VỀ NĂNG LỰC GIẢNG DẠY CỦA GIÁNG VIÊN?

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Tóm tắt: Đối với phần đông giảng viên, giảng dạy ngoài lĩnh vực chuyên môn ngày càng trở nên phổ biến. Tuy nhiên, những nghiên cứu về ảnh hưởng của giảng dạy ngoài lĩnh vực chuyên môn đối với giảng viên và đối với hoạt động giảng dạy của họ vẫn còn hạn chế. Nghiên cứu này khảo sát thái độ của một số giảng viên tiếng Anh đối với việc giảng dạy ngoài lĩnh vực chuyên môn, và sự ảnh hưởng của hoạt động này đối với nhận thức của giảng viên về năng lực giảng dạy của họ qua góc nhìn của thuyết Tự quyết. Thông qua phỏng vấn 15 giảng viên tiếng Anh đại học ở Việt Nam, kết quả nghiên cứu chỉ ra rằng giảng dạy ngoài lĩnh vực chuyên môn có thể là rào cản hoặc là yếu tố thúc đẩy sự thỏa mãn nhu cầu về năng lực của giảng viên. Việc thiếu kiến thức về nội dung giảng dạy không phải lúc nào cũng là rào cản đối với nhận thức về năng lực giảng dạy của giảng viên và nhu cầu nâng cao năng lực giảng dạy của họ. Nhận thức của giảng viên về sự hiệu quả, sự tự tin, động lực và sự thích thú trong quá trình giảng dạy phụ thuộc phần lớn vào cách họ khái niệm hóa vai trò của mình trong công việc giảng dạy. Đặc biệt, giảng viên có mức độ tự tin cao về năng lực giảng dạy của mình và không coi mình là chuyên gia trong quá trình giảng dạy thường nhìn nhận giảng dạy ngoài lĩnh vực chuyên môn là cơ hội để nâng cao kiến thức. Nghiên cứu này cũng đưa ra một số đề xuất cho các bên liên quan, bao gồm: các nhà phát triển giáo dục, các nhà hoạch định chính sách, lãnh đạo và quản lý trường học, và giảng viên. Các đề xuất này đề cập đến việc nâng cao nhận thức của giảng viên về khái niệm hóa vai trò của họ trong giảng dạy và phát triển những điều kiện thúc đẩy nhận thức về năng lực giảng dạy của họ.

Từ khóa: giảng dạy ngoài lĩnh vực chuyên môn, lĩnh vực chuyên môn của giảng viên, năng lực giảng dạy, thuyết Tự quyết, giảng viên chuyên ngành

STUDENTS' PERCEPTIONS ON POSITIVE PSYCHOLOGY IN ENGLISH LEARNING AT THANH DONG UNIVERSITY

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Abstracts: The study aims to explore university students' perceptions of positive psychology (PP) in English language learning, examining the relationships among students' emotional experience and enjoyment, their anxiety, and their multicultural traits and personal dispositions. The study engaged 63 participants from diverse majors, utilizing Foreign Language Enjoyment (FLE), Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety (FLCAS), and Multicultural Personality Traits (MPQ) questionnaires. Findings revealed that students experienced favorable levels of FLE and MPQ, suggesting a potential positive impact of emotional well-being on intercultural attributes. However, the study also highlighted a moderate level of FLCAS, emphasizing the importance of addressing language-related anxiety within the classroom. In addition, a positive correlation between FLE and MPQ indicated that students experiencing higher enjoyment levels additionally demonstrated more positive multicultural traits. In contrast, a negative correlation between FLCAS and MPQ revealed that students with greater language anxiety tended to possess fewer positive multicultural attributes. These outcomes underscored the complex interplay between emotions, anxiety and intercultural competencies within the language learning context. The results suggested integrating strategies to enhance positive emotions and alleviate anxiety within language classrooms, fostering a conducive environment for intercultural skill development. The study also underscored the need to incorporate multicultural content to harness emotional well-being for improving intercultural competence. Additionally, recommendations encompassed adopting student-centered approaches and supportive resources to ensure holistic language acquisition experiences.

Keywords: Foreign Language Enjoyment (FLE), Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety (FLCAS), Multicultural Personality Traits (MPQ), Positive Psychology, students' perceptions

1. Introduction

English language proficiency has become an essential skill in today's globalized world, offering numerous economic, educational, and social opportunities. In the context of Vietnam, where the demand for English language skills is rapidly increasing, universities play a crucial role in equipping students with the necessary linguistic competencies. However, the process of language learning can often be associated with various challenges, including anxiety, nervousness, and lack of confidence, which might hinder students' ability to fully engage and succeed in language acquisition (Dörnyei, 2005; Fredrickson & Cohn, 2008; Hoa, 2015; Huong & Ha, 2023; Phuong, 2021). In response to these challenges, the field of education has turned its attention to the principles of Positive Psychology (PP), a branch of psychology that focuses on promoting well-being, resilience, and personal growth (Budzinska & Majchrzak, 2021;

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Dewaele et al., 2019). According to Fang and Tang (2021), PP seeks to create an environment where students not only learn the language but also experience a sense of enjoyment, motivation, and self-efficacy in their learning journey. Oxford and Cuellar (2014) and Oxford (2016) illustrate that integrating PP principles into language education is an emerging approach that aims to address the emotional and psychological aspects of language learning. Given the transformative potential of PP in the realm of education, there is a growing interest in investigating its impact on English language learning, particularly in culturally diverse contexts like Vietnam (Thang, 2022; Phuong & Yasri, 2023; Tuong & Anh, 2020). However, limited research has explored how Vietnamese university students perceive the integration of PP principles in their English language learning experiences. Therefore, this study aims to bridge this gap by examining students' perceptions of PP elements, such as enjoyment, anxiety, and personality traits, in the context of English learning at a university in Vietnam. The rationale for this study lies in its potential to contribute valuable insights to both the fields of PP and language education. Understanding how PP interventions influence students' emotional states, learning outcomes, and overall language proficiency can inform educators, curriculum designers, and policymakers in designing more effective and holistic language learning programs. By identifying factors that promote enjoyment, mitigate anxiety, and enhance personality traits conducive to successful language acquisition, this study can guide the development of pedagogical strategies that foster a positive and supportive English learning environment. Ultimately, this research endeavor holds the promise of enriching the educational experiences of Vietnamese university students and shedding light on the broader applicability of positive psychology principles in language education worldwide.

In the context of English language education at universities in Vietnam, there is a pressing need to address the multifaceted challenges that students often encounter during their language learning journey. These challenges encompass not only linguistic aspects but also psychological and emotional dimensions that can significantly impact students' motivation, engagement, and overall success in learning English (Hoa, 2015; Ha & Huong, 2023; Khanh & Ngoc, 2022; Phuong & Yasri, 2023; Anh et al., 2022; Thang, 2022). One of the key challenges is the prevalence of language learning anxiety, manifested as feelings of apprehension, nervousness, and lack of confidence when using English in various contexts (Thang, 2022; Thang et al. 2022). This anxiety can stem from various sources, such as fear of making mistakes, negative past experiences, and the pressure to perform well academically. MacIntyre et al. (2019) advocate that language learning anxiety has the potential to hinder students' language acquisition by impeding their willingness to participate actively in classroom activities, engage in interactions, and take risks necessary for language development. Furthermore, the traditional focus on linguistic competencies in language education, according to Abdolrezapour and Ghanbari (2021), and Hui et al. (2020), often overlooks the importance of incorporating PP factors that can enhance students' learning experiences. While PP principles, such as enjoyment, emotional stability, and cultural empathy, have demonstrated their efficacy in other educational contexts, their application and impact on English language learning in the Vietnamese university context remain underexplored. Therefore, the central problem of this research is to investigate how the integration of PP principles, specifically focusing on enjoyment, anxiety, and personality traits, influences students' perceptions of English language learning at a university in Vietnam. By delving into this problem, the study aims to unravel the complexities of students' experiences and shed light on the potential benefits of integrating PP strategies into language education. Addressing this problem can guide educators and policymakers in developing more comprehensive and effective approaches to English language instruction that

foster both linguistic proficiency and students' overall well-being.

This research seeks to explore several key objectives. Firstly, it aims to understand how students' enjoyment of the English learning process influences their engagement and overall language learning outcomes. Secondly, the study seeks to uncover the effects of language learning anxiety and lack of confidence on students' willingness to actively participate in English communication. Additionally, the research aims to establish a connection between students' personality traits, such as cultural empathy and open-mindedness, and their experiences in learning English. Furthermore, the study intends to analyze students' perspectives on the integration of positive psychology principles in English education. Lastly, the research endeavors to provide practical recommendations for incorporating positive psychology strategies into teaching methods and curriculum development to enhance English language education within the context of Vietnamese universities.

2. Literature Review

2.1. Positive Psychology in Education

Positive Psychology (PP), as a burgeoning field within psychology, has found a meaningful application in the realm of education (Boudreau et al., 2018; Chen, 2020; Liu et al., 2022; Oxford & Cuellar, 2014; Segal & Leighton, 2016; Sparks & Ganschow, 2007; Thang, 2022). Grounded in the philosophy of focusing on strengths, virtues, and well-being, PP seeks to cultivate a flourishing educational environment that goes beyond traditional emphasis solely on academic achievement (Oxford, 2014; Segal & Leighton, 2016). Instead, it aims to foster holistic development, resilience, and a positive outlook among students, stated by Wang et al. (2021). PP's impact on education is underscored by its alignment with student-centered approaches. This approach shifts the educational paradigm from a deficit-based model to one that emphasizes harnessing students' inherent strengths and talents. Abdolrezapour and Ghanbari (2021), Budzinska and Majchrzak (2021), and Byrd and Abrams (2022) highlight how incorporating PP principles can create supportive learning environments that not only enhance academic achievement but also promote mental health and well-being. Moreover, PP interventions have been shown to address the emotional and psychological challenges students face, thereby fostering engagement and motivation. Dewaele et al. (2019) and Fang & Tang (2021) shed light on how positive emotions and engagement play pivotal roles in language learning, which further substantiates the potential of PP to optimize learning outcomes across disciplines. PP's relevance extends beyond students to educators themselves. Studies such as Mercer (2017) emphasize that educators' well-being is intricately linked to effective teaching practices and student success. This underscores the holistic nature of the educational ecosystem, where the well-being of both learners and educators synergistically contributes to a positive learning environment. Crucially, the applicability of PP interventions isn't confined to theoretical frameworks; it resonates with students' perceptions and experiences. The research by Shao et al. (2020), Shen (2021), Tarihoran et al. (2019), and Wang et al. (2021) delve into how students perceive and value the integration of positive psychology elements in their educational journeys. This student perspective underscores the practical importance of PP in creating an environment that resonates with learners' needs, aspirations, and well-being.

In essence, PP's integration in education marks a paradigm shift that transcends the traditional focus on academic attainment. It acknowledges the interconnectedness of emotional, social, and cognitive aspects of learning, enriching the educational experience for both students and educators. As evidenced by a robust body of literature, positive psychology is not just a

theoretical concept; it is a transformative approach that has the potential to shape more meaningful and holistic educational practices.

2.2. Positive Psychology in Language Learning

The application of PP in the realm of English language learning holds promise for revolutionizing how students approach the acquisition of language skills. By incorporating PP principles into English language education, educators can create a dynamic and supportive learning environment that not only enhances linguistic competencies but also nurtures students' overall well-being and motivation (Van De Zee et al., 2013; Shao et al., 2020).

One of the core tenets of PP in the context of language learning is the cultivation of enjoyment and engagement. Dewaele et al. (2019) emphasize that positive emotions and a sense of enjoyment contribute to heightened motivation and increased language learning outcomes. When students find joy in their language learning experiences, they are more likely to be intrinsically motivated to participate actively, interact with the language, and invest effort in their studies. Furthermore, PP interventions can play a pivotal role in alleviating language learning anxiety and boosting students' confidence. Language learning anxiety, a common barrier to effective language acquisition, can hinder communication and engagement (Ha & Huong, 2023; Khanh & Ngoc, 2022; Thang et al., 2022). Integrating positive psychology strategies, as highlighted by Fang & Tang (2021), can mitigate anxiety, fostering a more conducive environment for risk-taking and experimentation in using the English language. PP also addresses the psychological aspects of language learning, including self-efficacy and growth mindset. By instilling a growth mindset, where learners believe in their capacity to develop language skills through effort and learning from mistakes, educators can empower students to embrace challenges and persist in their language learning journey. This aligns with the findings of Macintyre et al. (2019), who emphasize the role of humor and a positive classroom atmosphere in promoting language learning attitudes. Moreover, PP principles contribute to the development of essential life skills, such as resilience, adaptability, and effective communication, which are inherent to successful language learning. The studies conducted by Hui et al. (2019) and Liu et al. (2020) underscore the potential of PP interventions to mitigate stress and enhance psychological well-being, thereby creating a fertile ground for effective language learning. Ultimately, the integration of PP in English language learning resonates with students' perceptions and experiences. As evidenced by the research of Shao et al. (2020), Shen (2021), and others, students appreciate and benefit from an environment that prioritizes enjoyment, engagement, and holistic development. These findings reinforce the significance of integrating PP strategies into language instruction, highlighting that fostering positive emotions and psychological well-being can lead to more effective language learning experiences.

In conclusion, the incorporation of PP principles in English language learning is a transformative approach that transcends traditional methodologies. By nurturing enjoyment, reducing anxiety, fostering a growth mindset, and promoting holistic well-being, educators can create an environment where language acquisition becomes not just a skill but a joyful and enriching journey. PP's application in English language learning underscores its potential to reshape educational paradigms, providing students with tools not only for language proficiency but also for personal growth and lifelong learning.

2.3. Students' Perceptions of Positive Psychology in Education

Understanding students' perceptions of PP in education is a vital aspect of gauging the effectiveness and relevance of integrating PP principles into the learning environment.

The research conducted by Shao et al. (2020), Shen (2021), Tarihoran et al. (2019), and Wang et al. (2021) collectively sheds light on how students perceive and experience the incorporation of PP elements in their educational journeys. Students' perspectives offer valuable insights into how PP interventions impact their learning experiences and well-being. Shao et al. (2020) find that students often appreciate the emphasis on enjoyment and engagement that PP brings to the classroom. This resonates with the findings of Tarihoran et al. (2019), which highlight that students value a learning environment that prioritizes their emotional experiences and holistic growth. Shen (2021) delves into the student perception of PP interventions as tools for reducing stress and promoting well-being. This research underscores how students acknowledge the role of positive psychology strategies in addressing the emotional challenges often associated with education, indicating a growing awareness of the interconnectedness of psychological and academic well-being. Moreover, the studies collectively suggest that students' positive perceptions of PP interventions correlate with enhanced motivation, which leads to increased engagement and improved academic performance. Wang et al. (2021) highlight that students' positive attitudes toward the incorporation of PP elements result in a deeper sense of ownership and agency in their learning process, contributing to a more student-centered educational experience. The findings from these studies collectively illustrate the potential benefits of PP in education from a student's point of view. Students appreciate an educational environment that not only prioritizes academic outcomes but also recognizes their emotional well-being and personal development. This alignment of educational values with students' perceptions suggests a positive synergy between pedagogical approaches that incorporate PP and students' desires for a fulfilling and holistic learning experience.

In conclusion, students' perceptions of PP in education offer a valuable perspective on the impact of these interventions on their learning journey. The research by Shao et al. (2020), Shen (2021), Tarihoran et al. (2019), and Wang et al. (2021) collectively demonstrates that students value the emphasis on enjoyment, engagement, well-being, and holistic development. These findings underscore the importance of integrating PP principles in education to create a supportive, engaging, and enriching learning environment that aligns with students' aspirations and needs.

2.4. Previous Studies in Vietnamese Teaching Contexts

The studies conducted within the Vietnamese context have examined various facets of well-being, happiness, stress, and psychological outcomes among different segments of the population. Phuong and Yasri (2023) explored happiness and self-determination among students across academic levels, finding a positive correlation between happiness and positive learning motivation. Huong et al. (2022) characterized happiness patterns in the workplace, identifying distinct types of happiness related to job satisfaction and offering insights into the multidimensional nature of workplace happiness. Anh et al. (2022) investigated the mediating effects of psychological well-being and positive emotion in the relationships between self-compassion, mindfulness, stress, and self-esteem, contributing to the understanding of mental health factors among university students. Tuong and Anh (2020) delved into the psychological outcomes associated with self-warmth and self-coldness in Vietnamese adolescents, emphasizing their influence on well-being and stress levels. Quan (2022) addressed the pressing

issue of student stress within Vietnamese universities, revealing the existence of stress and suggesting potential solutions such as workload reduction and stress management training. In Thang et al. (2022), the PERMA Profiler scale was used to assess the well-being of students at the University of Languages and International Studies, Vietnam National University, Hanoi, during a period of Covid-19-related social distancing. The research aimed to comprehensively evaluate students' overall well-being and variations among different academic years. It also explored correlations between well-being and its constituent components (positive emotions, engagement, relationships, meaning, and accomplishment), as well as interrelationships among these elements. The findings revealed a strong positive correlation between the core happiness components (P, E, R, M, A) and the extended component (H) in students, particularly with "Positive Emotions (P)" and "Meaning (M)" showing the closest relationship with overall happiness scores. Conversely, "Negative Emotions (N)" and "Loneliness (L)" had inverse correlations with overall happiness scores, suggesting that higher levels of positive emotions, satisfaction, and a sense of purpose corresponded to higher overall happiness scores during the Covid-19-induced social distancing period. Conversely, experiencing more negative emotions and loneliness was associated with lower overall happiness scores. Hoa (2015) conducted a study with the following objectives: (i) to assess the levels of motivation among students in their pursuit of English language learning, (ii) to pinpoint sociocultural factors that exert an influence on this motivation, and (iii) to scrutinize the interplay between students' motivation and their academic performance. The outcomes of this investigation revealed that the majority of students exhibited motivation and displayed a favorable attitude toward the acquisition of the English language. However, their motivation was primarily utilitarian, driven by instrumental goals such as passing examinations, rather than intrinsic enjoyment or a genuine quest for knowledge. Furthermore, a significant and positive correlation emerged between students' motivation levels and their achievements in English language learning. This implies that enhancing motivation, particularly concerning critical motivational factors such as the learning environment and group cohesion, could be a viable strategy for improving students' academic performance. These findings hold valuable insights for both educators and researchers, offering potential avenues to enhance students' achievements through the development of effective pedagogical approaches aimed at bolstering student motivation.

Despite the valuable insights provided by these studies, several research gaps still persist in the Vietnamese context. Firstly, the interplay between positive psychology constructs, such as happiness and well-being, and their impact on academic performance remains underexplored. Secondly, while studies have focused on individual constructs like happiness, well-being, and stress, the holistic understanding of their interconnectedness is limited. Moreover, there is a lack of investigation into the effectiveness of intervention strategies targeting psychological well-being and stress management within Vietnamese educational institutions. Additionally, the influence of cultural factors on the perception and experience of these psychological constructs warrants further investigation.

2.5. Theoretical Frameworks

2.5.1. Foreign Language Enjoyment Questionnaire

The theoretical framework of Foreign Language Enjoyment (FLE) proposed by Dewaele and MacIntyre (2014) provides a comprehensive understanding of the role of positive emotions, particularly enjoyment, in the context of foreign language learning. Grounded in the principles of PP, this framework highlights the importance of emotional experiences in language acquisition and how these emotions contribute to motivation, engagement, and

ultimately, language learning outcomes.

At the core of the FLE framework is the concept of positive emotions and their impact on learners' attitudes and behaviors. Dewaele and MacIntyre argue that positive emotions, such as enjoyment, create a favorable learning environment by enhancing learners' motivation, increasing their willingness to participate, and promoting a sense of well-being. These positive emotional experiences can lead to a self-reinforcing cycle where increased enjoyment leads to improved motivation, which in turn leads to better language learning outcomes.

The FLE framework also distinguishes between two dimensions of enjoyment: social and private. The social dimension refers to the pleasure derived from interactions with others while using the foreign language. This could include engaging in conversations with classmates, teachers, or native speakers. The private dimension relates to personal experiences of enjoyment, such as the satisfaction of understanding the language, discovering cultural elements, or achieving language-related goals. Furthermore, the FLE framework acknowledges the dynamic interplay between emotions and motivation. Positive emotions like enjoyment can act as intrinsic motivators, driving learners to engage in language-related activities willingly. In this sense, the framework aligns with self-determination theory, which emphasizes the importance of intrinsic motivation for fostering effective and sustainable learning. The FLE framework has practical implications for language educators. By recognizing the significance of enjoyment in language learning, teachers can design pedagogical strategies that cultivate positive emotions in the classroom. Creating a positive and engaging learning environment, incorporating authentic materials, and providing opportunities for meaningful interactions can all contribute to enhancing students' enjoyment and motivation. Research based on the FLE framework has demonstrated the relationship between enjoyment and language learning outcomes. Studies utilizing the FLE questionnaire have found that learners who experience higher levels of enjoyment tend to exhibit increased motivation, engagement, and overall proficiency in the foreign language.

Overall, the theoretical framework of FLE proposed by Dewaele and MacIntyre (2014) offers a valuable lens through which to understand the role of positive emotions, particularly enjoyment, in foreign language learning. By highlighting the interplay between emotions, motivation, and learning outcomes, this framework provides insights that can guide educators and researchers in fostering a more engaging and effective language learning experience.

2.5.2. Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale Questionnaire

The Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS), developed by Horwitz, Horwitz, and Cope (1986), is a widely recognized instrument used to assess the level of anxiety that individuals experience while learning a foreign language.

The FLCAS was designed to measure various dimensions of anxiety that can arise in the context of language learning, providing valuable insights into the affective and emotional aspects of the language acquisition process. The FLCAS consists of three subscales. Firstly, "Communication Apprehension" assesses anxiety related to speaking in the foreign language in front of others. It includes concerns about making mistakes, being judged, and feeling self-conscious during verbal interactions. Secondly, "Test Anxiety" focuses on anxiety related to language tests, exams, and evaluations. It includes items that measure worries about performance, grades, and the pressure associated with assessments. Thirdly, "Fear of Negative Evaluation" addresses anxiety related to perceived negative judgments from teachers, peers, or native speakers. It includes concerns about being ridiculed, criticized, or rejected due to

language errors. The FLCAS is grounded in the recognition that language learning anxiety can have a significant impact on learners' willingness to engage in language-related activities, their overall motivation, and even their language proficiency. High levels of anxiety can hinder effective communication, impede learning progress, and lead to negative emotional experiences in the classroom.

Research utilizing the FLCAS has highlighted the prevalence and potential consequences of language learning anxiety. Studies have found that anxiety can lead to decreased participation in language activities, avoidance of speaking opportunities, and decreased self-confidence. Furthermore, high levels of anxiety have been associated with lower language proficiency and diminished overall learning outcomes. The FLCAS has provided valuable insights into the emotional challenges that learners may face in foreign language classrooms. By identifying the specific dimensions of anxiety, educators and researchers can design interventions and strategies to alleviate anxiety, create a more supportive learning environment, and foster effective language learning experiences.

In summary, the Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS) developed by Horwitz et al. (1986) serves as a crucial tool for assessing the anxiety experienced by language learners. By capturing the affective dimensions of language learning, this instrument contributes to a deeper understanding of the challenges learners face and informs efforts to create more effective and supportive language education practices.

2.5.3. Multicultural Personality Questionnaire

The Multicultural Personality Questionnaire (MPQ), developed by Van Der Zee et al. (2013), is a widely used instrument designed to assess individuals' multicultural personality traits. The theory of multicultural personality is grounded in the understanding that individuals possess specific personality traits that influence their ability to navigate and adapt to multicultural environments. These traits are considered essential for promoting cultural empathy, open-mindedness, social initiative, emotional stability, and flexibility, all of which are crucial for successful cross-cultural interactions.

Cultural Empathy: This trait assesses an individual's ability to understand and appreciate the perspectives, values, and behaviors of people from different cultures. It involves being sensitive to cultural differences and demonstrating empathy toward others' experiences.

Open-mindedness: Open-minded individuals are receptive to new ideas, beliefs, and cultural practices. This trait reflects a willingness to explore and engage with different cultural perspectives without judgment or bias.

Social Initiative: Socially initiative individuals actively seek opportunities to connect with individuals from diverse backgrounds. They are proactive in initiating and maintaining cross-cultural relationships, contributing to a more inclusive and diverse social network.

Emotional Stability: Emotional stability pertains to the ability to manage one's emotions effectively in intercultural interactions. Individuals high in emotional stability are less likely to be overwhelmed by cultural differences or intercultural conflicts.

Flexibility: Flexibility involves adapting to new cultural environments and adjusting one's behavior, communication style, and attitudes to fit the context. Flexible individuals can navigate changing cultural norms and expectations.

The MPQ has been widely used in research to examine the relationship between multicultural personality traits and intercultural competence, cross-cultural communication, and adaptation to diverse cultural environments. Studies employing this questionnaire have

demonstrated that individuals with higher scores in cultural empathy, open-mindedness, social initiative, emotional stability, and flexibility tend to exhibit better intercultural communication skills and higher levels of overall cross-cultural competence.

In short, the MPQ developed by Van Der Zee et al. (2013) plays a significant role in assessing individuals' personality traits relevant to multicultural interactions. By capturing the dimensions of personality that contribute to effective functioning in diverse cultural contexts, this instrument provides valuable insights into individuals' potential for successful intercultural engagement and adaptation.

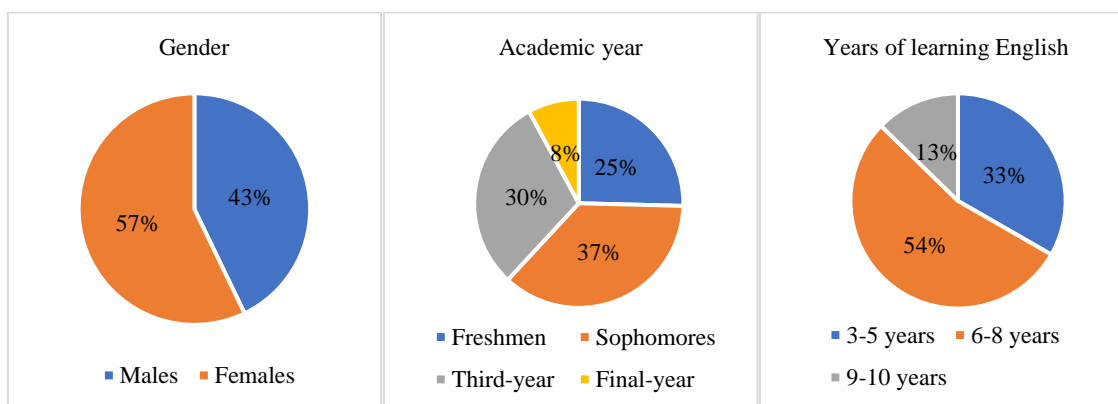
3. Methodology

3.1. Setting and Participants

The research was conducted at Thanh Dong University, a private university founded in 2009, characterized by its student-centered approach and interactive learning pedagogy. The institution's educational philosophy emphasizes engagement, participation, and an immersive learning environment. The academic curriculum caters to students pursuing various fields, spanning majors such as Laws, Economics, Languages, Pharmacy, Land Management, State Administration, Tourism and Hotel Management, among others.

The choice of Thanh Dong University as the teaching context for this study may have been influenced by several factors. Firstly, conducting research at one's own institution is often more accessible and logistically feasible. Being a lecturer at Thanh Dong University, the researcher has easier access to participants, data, and resources, reduces the cost and time associated with data collection. In addition, the researcher has an in-depth understanding of the institution's specific context, culture, and academic practices. This familiarity can be advantageous in designing and implementing the study. The next merit is that Thanh Dong University could have provided a readily available pool of participants. The researcher might have had a sufficient number of students willing to participate in the study, making it convenient for data collection. Furthermore, this university's diversity in terms of students' academic majors and English language learning experiences may align with the research objectives. This diversity can help capture a broad range of perceptions and experiences. Finally, in terms of ethical considerations, the researcher has considered ethical considerations, such as obtaining informed consent and ensuring participant confidentiality, more manageable within his own institution.

The study comprised 63 students, primarily focusing on bachelor-level learners across different academic years – freshmen, sophomores, third-year, and final-year students. While hailing from diverse majors, the majority of participants were from the Northern part of Vietnam. These students brought varying learning styles, habits, and educational backgrounds to the study. The demographic information was demonstrated in Figure 1 below.

Figure 1*Demographic Information*

The study involved a diverse group of students at Thanh Dong University, a private university in Vietnam, representing various genders, academic years, and years of English language learning. The gender distribution was relatively balanced, with 57% females and 43% males, ensuring a comprehensive perspective. Students from different academic years participated, with a focus on sophomores and third-year students, allowing for insights into the evolution of perceptions over time. A significant proportion (54%) had six to eight years of English learning experience, reflecting diverse language proficiency levels. All the participants met standardized entrance exam requirements, indicating a baseline academic proficiency, and the university provided customized English language classes to cater to the varied range of students enrolled.

The study aimed to explore students' perceptions of English language learning in this dynamic setting. It delved into how students' motivations and perspectives towards learning English are shaped by their varying majors, years of study, regional backgrounds, and individual learning approaches. The comprehensive and inclusive nature of the participant pool offered the researcher an opportunity to gain insights into how a diverse student body approaches English language learning within an institution that promotes an interactive and student-centric educational model.

3.2. Research Questions

The current study aims to explore students' perceptions of PP in English language learning, including the relationships among their emotional experience and enjoyment, their anxiety, and their multicultural traits and personal dispositions. Therefore, two main research questions were addressed.

- What are the students' perspectives on positive psychology in their English language learning at Thanh Dong University?

Sub-questions:

+ What are the students' perspectives on emotional experience and enjoyment in their English language learning?

+ What are the students' perspectives on anxiety in their English language learning?

+ What are the students' perspectives on multicultural traits and personal dispositions in their English language learning?

- To what extent are the students' levels of enjoyment correlated with their levels of

anxiety, multicultural traits and personal dispositions in their English language learning at Thanh Dong University?

The research questions outlined above will serve as the foundation for the subsequent sections, which will discuss the research design and the development of data collection instrument, enabling a structured and systematic approach to investigate students' perspectives on positive psychology in the context of the study.

3.3. Research Design and Data Collection Instrument

The research design adopted for this study employed a quantitative approach. The quantitative research design allowed for systematic data collection, enabling the measurement of specific constructs such as emotional experience, enjoyment, anxiety, and multicultural traits. The use of established scales and adapted questionnaires ensured the reliability and validity of the data collected (Hoy, 2010). Participants' responses were quantified using descriptive statistics, such as means and standard deviations, which provided insights into the distribution and central tendencies of their perceptions.

While the study primarily focused on quantitative data collection through the administration of questionnaires, the structured design facilitated the exploration of the relationships among variables, such as the correlations between enjoyment, anxiety, and multicultural traits. According to Cohen et al. (2017), the quantitative nature of the research design allowed for statistical analysis, contributing to a deeper understanding of the interplay between these constructs within the context of English language learning.

In this study, the sampling frame, derived from university records, forms the basis for participant selection. It is a comprehensive list of all students enrolled in English language programs at Thanh Dong University. By employing this sampling frame, the study ensures the impartial and inclusive selection of participants, reducing the risk of bias (Dumais & Gough, 2012). This approach enhances the external validity of the research. Furthermore, the research utilized a list of attendance provided by the Office of Student Affairs and Academic Affairs for random participant selection. This method minimizes researcher bias and guarantees fairness. It reflects the university commitment to impartiality in participant recruitment. The systematic and standardized approach strengthens internal validity and the potential for biased conclusions.

3.4. Questionnaire

The questionnaire designed for this study drew inspiration from well-established instruments in the field of language learning, specifically adapting the Foreign Language Enjoyment Questionnaire (FLE) by Dewaele & MacIntyre (2014), the Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS) by Horwitz et al. (1986), and the Multicultural Personality Questionnaire (MPQ) by Van Der Zee et al. (2013). All the questionnaire items were designed with five-point Likert Scale which consisted of "Strongly agree, Agree, Neither agree nor disagree, Disagree, and Strongly Agree". These adaptations were tailored to the unique context of the private university setting, incorporating elements that resonate with the institution's student-centered approach and diverse academic landscape.

Foreign Language Enjoyment (FLE): The FLE questionnaire aligns with the PP approach, which emphasizes the significance of positive emotions, strengths and engagement in enhancing overall well-being and performance. In the context of language learning, positive emotions like enjoyment are believed to contribute to heightened motivation, increased engagement and improved learning outcomes. The FLE questionnaire was modified to suit the university's dynamic learning environment, reflecting its emphasis on interactive pedagogy and

diverse majors. The adapted FLE items probed students' enjoyment levels in both social and private dimensions of English language learning. The social dimension, comprising 15 items encompasses the pleasure derived from interactions with others while using the foreign language. This can involve conversations with classmates, teachers or native speakers. The private dimension which includes 6 items, reflects the enjoyment experienced through personal achievements, such as understanding the language, exploring cultural content, or achieving linguistic milestones.

Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS): The FLCAS was customized to consider the university's student body composition, which encompassed individuals with varying learning styles and regional backgrounds. The adapted FLCAS items were designed to explore anxiety in relation to different language learning activities and evaluations experienced within diverse academic majors. By addressing specific situations that students encountered in the university's context, the adapted FLCAS sought to reveal how anxiety factors into their language learning experiences. There are three types of dimensions in FLCAS, including anxiety (15 items), nervousness (9 items) and lack of confidence (9 items). Anxiety items were designed to capture the general feeling when learning a foreign language; nervousness dimension was geared towards measuring the heightened state of tension and physical agitation that individuals may experience in language-related situations; and the lack of confidence subscale addressed individual's doubts about their language ability and feeling of uncertainty when engaging in language learning activities.

Multicultural Personality Questionnaire (MPQ): The MPQ was adjusted to align with the multicultural nature of the university's student population. The adapted MPQ items aimed to explore how students' multicultural personality traits influence their attitudes toward learning English, taking into account the varying majors and backgrounds represented among the participants. This adaptation aimed to reveal how traits such as cultural empathy (8 items), open-mindedness (8 items), social initiative (8 items), emotional stability (8 items), and flexibility (8 items) are linked to perceptions of language learning within the diverse academic landscape.

Incorporating these adapted questionnaires into the study design allowed for a nuanced exploration of students' experiences within the university's unique educational environment. By integrating elements from these established instruments while tailoring them to the specific context, the questionnaire aimed to capture the interplay between enjoyment, anxiety, multicultural personality traits, and perceptions of English language learning among the diverse student body. The adaptation process was guided by the intention to ensure the instruments resonated with the institution's mission and the participants' diverse experiences, ultimately contributing to a more accurate and insightful representation of students' perceptions.

3.5. Data Analysis

Descriptive analysis involves computing key statistics such as M, standard deviation, and frequency distributions for each dimension of FLE, FLCAS, and MPQ via SPSS version 22.0. These statistics provide an overview of students' experiences, anxiety levels, and multicultural personality traits in language learning.

Since A Cronbach's alpha above 0.70 is generally considered acceptable for research purposes, these values of 0.77 for FLE, 0.72 for FLCAS, and 0.98 for MPQ indicate acceptable to good reliability. This suggests that the items within each instrument consistently measure their respective constructs. Descriptive analysis and Cronbach's alpha values contribute to

understanding students' enjoyment, anxiety, and multicultural traits, enhancing the credibility of the instruments used in the study. Moreover, Pearson correlations were employed to discover the relationship among students' learning enjoyment, their anxiety and their multicultural traits and personal dispositions.

4. Findings

4.1. Students' Perception on Emotional Experiences and Enjoyment

The FLE dimension of the study is depicted through the descriptive statistics of individual items that encompass students' perceptions of their emotional experiences and enjoyment in the English language learning environment. Among the specific items, "Making errors is part of the learning process" garnered the highest mean score of 4.35, suggesting a positive attitude towards embracing mistakes as an essential part of the learning journey. Additionally, the items related to teacher attributes, such as "The teacher is encouraging" (M=4.19) and "The teacher is friendly" (M=4.35), highlight the importance of teacher-student interactions in fostering a supportive and enjoyable classroom atmosphere. Items concerning the classroom environment also garnered noteworthy Mean scores, with "The teacher is supportive" (M=4.71) indicating high perceived teacher support and "We laugh a lot" (M=2.90) illustrating the presence of humor within the classroom setting. The results also showcase variations in means, with items like "I'm a worthy member of the foreign language class" (M=2.21) and "We form a tight group" (M=3.37) reflecting diverse perceptions among participants regarding their sense of belonging and group cohesion. Overall, the descriptive statistics shed light on various facets of students' enjoyment within the English language learning context. The findings highlight the significance of a positive classroom atmosphere, supportive teachers, humor, and a willingness to embrace mistakes as pivotal factors contributing to students' enjoyment of the language learning experience.

4.2. Students' Anxiety Within the English Language Environment

The FLCAS data presents a comprehensive view of participants' self-reported anxiety levels within the language learning environment. With responses from 63 participants, the collected data provide a nuanced understanding of the various scenarios and circumstances that trigger anxiety, highlighting both moderate and low levels of anxiety across different contexts.

Among the responses, certain items suggest a lower magnitude of anxiety, exemplified by the response to "I wouldn't bother me at all to take more foreign language classes" (M=1.97). This response indicates a relatively comfortable stance towards language classes that do not seem to elicit notable anxiety. Similarly, the mean score of 2.38 for the item "I am usually at ease during tests in my language class" reflects a sense of ease when academic evaluation is involved. Conversely, a range of items signifies a moderate level of anxiety. The mean score of 3.51 for "I feel confident when I speak in foreign language class" and 3.49 for "I would not be nervous speaking the foreign language with native speakers" denotes a reasonable level of self-assuredness in using the foreign language. Interestingly, certain items underscore higher levels of anxiety among participants. For instance, the item "I am afraid that my language teacher is ready to correct every mistake I make" yielded a substantial mean score of 4.48, reflecting concerns about constant scrutiny and correction. Additionally, the response of 3.92 for "I feel very self-conscious about speaking the foreign language in front of other students" suggests pronounced apprehension related to public language use. Moreover, the dataset unveils a diverse range of anxiety triggers, from classroom interactions to native speaker interactions.

The multifaceted nature of anxiety within the language learning context is evident from the mean scores and standard deviations associated with each item.

In conclusion, the FLCAS dataset provides a comprehensive understanding of the anxiety landscape in foreign language classrooms. The varying degrees of anxiety across different scenarios underscore the need for tailored strategies that address specific anxiety triggers. This data holds significant implications for educators and institutions aiming to create supportive and anxiety-reducing language learning environments, thereby fostering a more conducive setting for language acquisition and proficiency.

4.3. Students' Perceptions on Multicultural Traits and Personal Dispositions

The analysis of students' perceptions regarding multicultural traits and personal dispositions provides a comprehensive view of the diverse array of self-perceived attributes among the participants. The data reflects a spectrum of emotional and interpersonal tendencies.

Empathetic qualities emerge prominently in the dataset. Students frequently report paying attention to others' emotions ($M=3.21$) and being good listeners ($M=3.96$). They also often notice when someone is in distress ($M=4.20$) and enjoy other people's stories ($M=4.01$). These findings collectively suggest a heightened sense of emotional awareness and an inclination towards supportive interpersonal interactions.

Concurrently, the data indicates that students often seek predictability, regularity, and routine in their lives. They often work according to plans ($M=3.95$), and schemes ($M=3.90$). They also often look for regularity in life ($M=4.40$) and have a preference for routine ($M=3.92$), signifying a desire for stability and order.

However, a subset of students exhibits anxiety-related traits, as they often worry ($M=3.62$), get upset easily ($M=3.71$), and feel nervous ($M=3.43$). They also often report being under pressure ($M=4.67$), reflecting a higher level of emotional sensitivity and susceptibility to stress.

In terms of personal dispositions, students display a range of inclinations. Some are inclined to take the lead ($M=2.31$), while others prefer to leave initiative to others when making contacts ($M=3.75$). Some students find it challenging to initiate contact ($M=2.82$), while others take the initiative ($M=3.04$) and tend to speak out ($M=3.53$). The dataset also reveals that a subset of students often act as the driving force behind endeavors ($M=4.56$) and make contacts easily ($M=3.07$). These dispositions reflect variations in assertiveness, sociability, and leadership qualities among the students.

In summary, the data emphasizes the diversity of students' self-perceived attributes, encompassing emotional empathy, adaptability, a preference for routine, and anxiety-related traits. This multidimensional perspective on students' personal dispositions highlights the complexity of their individual characteristics and emotional tendencies within the context of multicultural traits and personal dispositions.

4.4. The Correlations Among Students' Enjoyment, Anxiety, Multicultural Traits and Personal Dispositions

The presented correlation matrix in Table 1 underscores the intricate interplay among university students' enjoyment levels in English language learning, their foreign language classroom anxiety, and their multicultural traits and personal dispositions.

Table 1

The Correlations Among Students' Enjoyment Level, Their Anxiety and Their Multicultural Traits and Personal Dispositions

		FLE	FLCAS	MPQ
FLE	Pearson Correlation	1	.330**	.398**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.008	.001
	N	63	63	63
FLCAS	Pearson Correlation	.330**	1	.319*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.008		.011
	N	63	63	63
MPQ	Pearson Correlation	.398**	.319*	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.001	.011	
	N	63	63	63

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

* . Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed)

The findings reveal statistically significant correlations that illuminate the relationships between these variables. The Pearson correlation coefficients reveal notable associations among the variables. Firstly, a positive and significant correlation emerges between students' enjoyment levels and their multicultural traits ($r=0.398$, $p=0.001$). This suggests that students who experience higher levels of enjoyment in the language learning process also tend to exhibit more positive traits related to cultural empathy, open-mindedness, and adaptability.

Secondly, a positive correlation is observed between students' enjoyment levels and their foreign language classroom anxiety ($r=0.330$, $p=0.008$). This connection implies that students who report higher levels of enjoyment also experience elevated levels of anxiety in language classroom contexts. This paradoxical relationship may indicate that individuals who are more engaged and invested in their language learning experiences may also be more sensitive to performance-related pressures.

Additionally, a significant positive correlation is noted between foreign language classroom anxiety and multicultural traits ($r=0.319$, $p=0.011$). This suggests that students who experience higher levels of language classroom anxiety also tend to possess more positive multicultural attributes. This intriguing association might imply that a certain degree of anxiety prompts students to develop heightened social awareness and adaptability as coping mechanisms in diverse environments.

These correlation findings collectively unveil the intricate interplay between students' emotional experiences, anxiety levels, and their intercultural attributes within the language learning context. The interconnectedness of these variables underscores the multidimensional nature of students' experiences and highlights the need for nuanced approaches in enhancing language education practices that cater to emotional well-being, cultural adaptability, and effective language acquisition.

5. Discussions

Comparing the findings of the current study with previous research, encompassing both domestic and foreign investigations, illuminates key themes concerning emotional experiences, well-being, and psychological attributes in educational and intercultural contexts. The resonance between the current study and domestic research is evident in the examination of students' perceptions of emotional experiences and enjoyment in English language learning. Analogous to Phuong and Yasri's (2023) exploration of happiness and self-determination, both studies underscore the significance of positive emotional encounters and their ramifications for motivation and engagement within educational settings. Similarly, the characterization of happiness patterns in the workplace by Huong et al. (2022) aligns with the present study's focus on students' enjoyment levels, reinforcing the universality of emotional well-being's influence across diverse contexts. Moreover, the findings align with the broader notion of well-being and happiness explored by Thang et al. (2022), where positive emotions, a sense of meaning, and a supportive environment were linked to higher overall happiness scores. Conversely, Hoa (2015) highlights the pragmatic motivations of students, which might not necessarily be aligned with enjoying the learning process but are more focused on utilitarian goals like passing exams.

In line with the mediating effect investigation of Anh et al. (2022), the correlations unveiled in the present study between enjoyment, anxiety, and multicultural traits elucidate the intricate interplay between emotional and psychological factors. Both studies accentuate the interrelation of these dimensions and their profound impact on individuals' experiences and outcomes. Concurrently, Tuong and Anh's (2020) examination of psychological outcomes mirrors the current study's focus on emotional experiences and personal attributes, collectively emphasizing the pivotal role of self-awareness and psychological dispositions in shaping interactions and well-being. Furthermore, while Thang et al. (2022) and Hoa (2015) offer valuable insights into happiness and motivation, respectively, the current study bridges these concepts by revealing how emotional experiences, anxiety levels, and intercultural attributes intertwine, emphasizing the importance of addressing these aspects in language education. Among domestic studies, Quan's (2022) exploration of stress levels in Vietnamese university students converges with the present study's investigation of foreign language classroom anxiety. This parallel scrutiny underscores the shared recognition of emotional challenges within academic environments and underscores the pressing need for stress alleviation strategies to foster a conducive learning milieu. Additionally, the results complement Thang et al.'s (2022) exploration of emotional well-being, as anxiety can significantly impact students' overall happiness and well-being. The comparison with foreign studies accentuates the international congruity in the correlations observed between enjoyment, anxiety, and multicultural traits, mirroring Shao et al.'s (2020) exploration of emotional experiences and intercultural attributes. These concordant findings underscore the inseparability of emotional and cultural dimensions in influencing individuals' encounters and relationships within diverse contexts. Furthermore, the identification of varied workplace happiness profiles by Huong et al. (2022) aligns harmoniously with the current study's revelations concerning students' perceptions of multicultural traits and personal dispositions. Both investigations underscore the intricate nature of emotional experiences and the centrality of individual attributes across distinct contextual domains.

Notably, the findings represent a significant contribution to the existing literature, shedding light on various facets of students' perceptions and experiences in the context of English language learning. First and foremost, the positive attitude observed among students

towards embracing mistakes as an integral part of the learning journey challenges traditional assumptions. This insight highlights the importance of nurturing a growth mindset within language education, an aspect often overlooked in previous studies. Furthermore, the study emphasizes the pivotal role of teacher attributes, such as encouragement and friendliness, in shaping the classroom atmosphere. These observations extend the understanding of teacher-student interactions beyond mere pedagogical roles and emphasize the substantial influence teachers have on students' language learning experiences. In addition, the study's exploration of the multifaceted nature of anxiety, with diverse triggers ranging from fear of correction by teachers to self-consciousness when speaking in front of peers, adds depth to the understanding of foreign language classroom anxiety. The paradoxical relationship between enjoyment and anxiety levels provides another layer of complexity. This finding challenges conventional wisdom and highlights the need for a more intricate understanding of students' emotional experiences in language learning, a facet previously oversimplified in the literature. Finally, the study's practical implications for language education underscore the significance of addressing specific anxiety triggers, promoting emotional well-being, and enhancing cultural adaptability within language classrooms. These implications offer a direct pathway for improving language education practices, connecting research insights with actionable strategies for educators.

Despite the valuable insights gained from this study, it is crucial to acknowledge its limitations, which offer avenues for future research and refinement. Firstly, the limitation of a relatively small and humble sample size, consisting of only 63 students from a single university, is an important consideration in the context of this study. While the research has provided valuable insights, this limited sample size presents certain constraints on the generalizability and external validity of the findings. With only 63 participants, the study may not capture the full diversity of perspectives and experiences that exist within a more extensive and diverse population of English language learners. It limits the ability to make comprehensive and far-reaching conclusions about students' perceptions in a broader educational context. Moreover, the study's focus on a single university introduces potential biases. The unique characteristics and academic culture of Thanh Dong University may influence the perceptions and experiences of its students. This makes it challenging to ascertain whether the findings are representative of students in other educational institutions in Vietnam or students with different demographic profiles. The diversity of university settings, educational levels, and geographic regions in Vietnam could result in varying experiences and perceptions that are not adequately represented by the study's sample. Additionally, the reliance on a small sample size limits the ability to conduct robust subgroup analyses. For instance, the study might not have sufficient statistical power to detect differences in perceptions between different academic majors or among students in various academic years. This could be essential for gaining a more nuanced understanding of how these factors affect students' experiences. To address these limitations, future research should consider expanding the sample size to encompass a more diverse range of institutions, academic levels, and geographical regions. This broader sampling approach would facilitate the generalizability of findings and provide a more comprehensive understanding of students' perceptions in different contexts.

Secondly, the reliance on self-reported data through questionnaires may introduce response biases. Social desirability bias could lead participants to provide responses they believe align with societal expectations, potentially affecting the accuracy and authenticity of their perceptions. To mitigate this limitation, incorporating additional research methods, such as behavioral observations or longitudinal studies, could provide a more holistic perspective on students' experiences. Furthermore, the study's cross-sectional design offers a snapshot of

students' perceptions at a specific point in time. Longitudinal studies that track participants' perceptions and experiences over an extended period would enable researchers to explore the dynamic nature of emotional experiences, anxiety levels, and personal attributes as they evolve throughout the language learning journey. Additionally, while the study sheds light on correlations between variables, the cross-sectional nature prevents causal relationships from being firmly established. To delve deeper into causal links, experimental or intervention studies that manipulate specific factors and observe their effects on students' perceptions would be valuable. Lastly, the study's focus on a specific cultural and educational context may limit the transferability of findings to other settings. Cultural nuances and educational systems can significantly influence perceptions and responses. Comparing findings with similar studies conducted in different cultural and educational contexts would enrich the understanding of how these variables interact across diverse backgrounds.

In conclusion, while this study provides valuable insights into students' perceptions of emotional experiences, anxiety, and personal attributes within the English language learning context, its limitations highlight the need for caution when generalizing the findings. Addressing these limitations through broader sampling, mixed methods, longitudinal designs, and cross-cultural comparisons would contribute to a more comprehensive and nuanced understanding of the complex interplay between emotions, perceptions, and language learning outcomes.

6. Conclusions

In light of the comprehensive analysis of students' perceptions within the English language learning context, this study culminates in several significant conclusions that contribute to our understanding of emotional experiences, anxiety levels, and personal attributes in educational settings.

In FLE dimension, students displayed positive attitudes towards embracing mistakes as part of the learning process. This, along with the importance of teacher-student interactions and a supportive classroom atmosphere, underscores the significance of a positive and engaging learning environment. Variations in perceptions of belongingness and group cohesion highlight the need for customized strategies promoting inclusivity.

Regarding students' anxiety in the English language learning environment, the FLCAS dataset offers a nuanced view of anxiety triggers. The presence of both moderate and low levels of anxiety in diverse contexts underscores the multifaceted nature of language classroom apprehension. This necessitates context-specific strategies to mitigate anxiety and create a supportive learning atmosphere, accentuating the importance of addressing anxiety within language education.

The exploration of students' perceptions of multicultural traits and personal dispositions through the MPQ dataset reveals a complex interplay between personal attributes and intercultural competence. Diverse personality traits, from empathy to adaptability, illustrate how individuals engage with multicultural contexts. These attributes have the potential to enhance intercultural interactions, promote adaptability, and contribute to a more inclusive environment.

Moreover, the correlation analysis uncovers the interconnectedness of students' enjoyment levels, anxiety, and multicultural traits. These correlations emphasize the intricate interplay between emotional experiences, psychological factors, and intercultural attributes within the language learning context.

The current study's findings carry important implications for educators, institutions, and policymakers aiming to enhance the English language learning experience and students' overall well-being. These implications are underscored by recommendations that align with the study's objectives and results. Firstly, to promote a positive and supportive classroom environment, educators can integrate strategies that encourage open communication, teacher-student interactions, and peer collaboration, creating an atmosphere where students feel comfortable expressing themselves and embracing mistakes as part of the learning process. Furthermore, recognizing the paradoxical relationship between enjoyment and anxiety requires a balanced approach. Educators can employ stress-reduction techniques, such as mindfulness and relaxation exercises, to address anxiety triggers and create a more relaxed learning atmosphere. Additionally, providing opportunities for students to engage in activities that align with their personal dispositions, such as group discussions or creative projects, can contribute to heightened enjoyment and reduced anxiety. The correlation between enjoyment, anxiety, and multicultural traits suggests that educational institutions should promote intercultural competence as an integral component of language learning. Incorporating cultural diversity and intercultural communication into the curriculum can help students develop a greater understanding of different perspectives, enhancing their personal attributes and contributing to a more inclusive and harmonious learning environment. Incorporating findings from both domestic and foreign studies further emphasizes the importance of tailoring interventions to specific cultural and educational contexts. This underscores the need for institutions to adopt a context-sensitive approach when implementing strategies to enhance students' language learning experiences and emotional well-being. In addition, the study's recommendations extend to teacher training programs. Educators should be equipped with the tools to create an environment that nurtures positive emotional experiences and minimizes anxiety. Professional development opportunities that focus on effective teaching methods, empathy, and communication skills can empower teachers to effectively support students' emotional and language learning needs.

In conclusion, the implications of this study emphasize the pivotal role of emotions, enjoyment, anxiety, and personal attributes in shaping students' English language learning experiences. Implementing the recommendations highlighted in this study can lead to more holistic and effective language education practices, fostering not only language proficiency but also emotional well-being and intercultural competence among students.

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APPENDICES

Students' perception on emotional experiences and enjoyment

	Mean	Std. Deviation
I can be creative.	2.98	.582
I can laugh off embarrassing mistakes in the foreign language class.	2.67	.475
I don't get bored.	2.43	.499
I enjoy it.	3.16	.482
I feel as though I'm a different person during the foreign language class.	2.84	.846
I learnt to express myself better in the foreign language class.	3.44	.713
I'm a worthy member of the foreign language class.	2.21	.408
I've learnt interesting things.	3.24	.856
In class, I feel proud of my accomplishments.	3.24	.756
It's a positive environment.	3.37	.485

It's cool to know a foreign language.	3.67	.741
It's fun.	3.41	.496
Making errors is part of the learning process.	4.35	.481
The peers are nice.	3.51	.896
The teacher is encouraging.	4.19	.503
The teacher is friendly.	4.35	.481
The teacher is supportive.	4.71	.658
There is a good atmosphere.	4.19	.692
We form a tight group.	3.37	.604
We have common "legends", such as running jokes.	2.92	.414
We laugh a lot.	2.90	.712

Students' anxiety within the English language environment

	Mean	Std. Deviation
I never feel quite sure of myself when I am speaking in my foreign language class.	3.25	.740
I don't worry about making mistakes in language class.	3.56	.501
I tremble when I know that I'm going to be called on in language class.	3.71	.991
It frightens me when I don't understand what the teacher is saying in the foreign language.	2.92	.485
I wouldn't bother me at all to take more foreign language classes.	1.97	.538
During language class, I find myself thinking about things that have nothing to do.	2.73	.447
I keep thinking that the other students are better at languages than I am.	2.92	.829
I am usually at ease during tests in my language class.	2.38	.633
I start to panic when I have to speak without preparation in language class.	3.27	.447
I worry about the consequences of failing my foreign language class.	3.65	.481
I don't understand why some people get so upset over foreign language classes.	4.10	.665
In language class, I can get so nervous I forget things I know.	3.54	.737
It embarrasses me to volunteer answers in my language class.	3.87	.582
I would not be nervous speaking the foreign language with native speakers.	3.49	.644
I get upset when I don't understand what the teacher is correcting.	4.27	.515
Even if I am well prepared for language class, I feel anxious about it.	2.87	.609
I often feel like not going to my language class.	2.86	.759
I feel confident when I speak in foreign language class.	3.51	.504
I am afraid that my language teacher is ready to correct every mistake I make.	4.48	.618

I can feel my heart pounding when I'm going to be called on in language class.	3.57	.499
The more I study for a language test, the more confused I get.	2.97	.822
I feel pressured to prepare very well for language class.	2.95	.851
I always feel that the other students speak the foreign language better than I do.	3.05	.490
I feel very self-conscious about speaking the foreign language in front of other students.	3.92	.655
Language class moves so quickly I worry about getting left behind.	2.87	.684
I feel more tense and nervous in language class than in my other classes.	3.24	.712
I get nervous and confused when I am speaking in my language class.	3.32	.591
When I'm on my way to language class, I feel very sure and relaxed.	2.97	.915
I get nervous when I don't understand every word the language teacher says.	2.22	.580
I feel overwhelmed by the number of rules you have to learn to speak a foreign language.	2.25	.933
I am afraid that the other students will laugh at me when I speak the foreign language.	2.44	.501
I would probably feel comfortable around native speakers of the foreign language.	2.40	.493
I get nervous when the language teacher asks questions which I haven't prepared.	2.63	.679

Students' perceptions on multicultural traits and personal dispositions

	Mean	Std. Deviation
I often pay attention to others' emotions.	3.21	1.290
I am a good listener.	3.96	.755
I often feel sense when others get irritated.	4.20	.621
I often get to know others profoundly.	3.15	.717
I often enjoy other people's stories.	4.01	.701
I often notice when someone is in trouble.	4.50	.755
I often sympathize with others.	3.37	.826
I often set others at ease.	3.62	1.061
I often work according to strict rules.	1.95	.966
I often work according to plan.	3.95	1.338
I often work according to strict scheme.	3.90	1.399
I often look for regularity in life.	4.40	1.204
I often like routine.	3.92	1.461
I often want predictability.	3.07	1.472

I often function best in a familiar setting.	4.37	1.453
I often have fixed habits.	4.34	1.585
I often take the lead.	2.31	1.983
I often leave initiative to others to make contacts.	3.75	1.959
I often find it difficult to make contacts.	2.82	2.112
I often take initiative.	3.04	2.242
I am often inclined to speak out.	3.53	2.329
I am often the driving force behind things.	4.56	2.259
I often make contacts easily.	3.07	2.565
I am often reserved.	3.84	2.613
I often worry.	3.62	2.774
I often get upset easily.	3.71	2.870
I am often nervous.	3.43	3.033
I am apt to feel lonely.	3.39	3.190
I often keep calm when things don't go well.	3.81	3.325
I am insecure.	3.32	3.399
I am under pressure.	4.67	3.371
I am not easily hurt.	3.98	3.671
I try out various approaches.	3.31	3.787
I am looking for new ways to attain his or her goal.	3.85	3.866
I start a new life easily.	4.57	3.886
I like to imagine solutions to problems.	4.21	4.076
I am a trendsetter in societal developments.	4.40	4.211
I have feeling for what's appropriate in culture.	4.28	4.311
I seek people from different backgrounds.	3.37	4.572
I have broad range of interests.	4.78	4.502

NHẬN THỨC CỦA SINH VIÊN VỀ TÂM LÝ HỌC TÍCH CỰC TRONG VIỆC HỌC TIẾNG ANH TẠI TRƯỜNG ĐẠI HỌC THÀNH ĐÔNG

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Tóm tắt: Nghiên cứu này nhằm tìm hiểu nhận thức của sinh viên đại học về tâm lý học tích cực trong việc học tiếng Anh, kiểm tra mối quan hệ giữa trải nghiệm cảm xúc và sự thích thú của sinh viên, sự lo lắng cũng như đặc điểm đa văn hóa và khuynh hướng cá nhân của họ. Nghiên cứu có sự tham gia của 63 người từ nhiều chuyên ngành khác nhau, sử dụng bảng hỏi về *Niềm đam mê ngoại ngữ (FLE)*, *Nỗi lo lắng trong lớp học ngoại ngữ (FLCAS)* và *Đặc điểm tính cách đa văn hóa (MPQ)*. Kết quả chỉ ra rằng sinh viên đã trải qua mức độ *Niềm đam mê ngoại ngữ (FLE)* và *Đặc điểm tính cách đa văn hóa (MPQ)* cao, cho thấy tác động tích cực tiềm ẩn của tình trạng hạnh phúc về mặt cảm xúc đối với các thuộc tính liên văn hóa. Tuy nhiên, nghiên cứu cũng nhấn mạnh mức độ *Nỗi lo lắng trong lớp học ngoại ngữ (FLCAS)* vừa phải, nhấn mạnh tầm quan trọng của việc giải quyết sự lo lắng liên quan đến ngôn ngữ trong lớp học. Ngoài ra, mối tương quan tích cực giữa FLE và MPQ chỉ ra rằng những sinh viên có mức độ thích thú cao hơn cũng thể hiện những đặc điểm đa văn hóa tích cực hơn. Ngược lại, mối tương quan nghịch giữa FLCAS và MPQ cho thấy những sinh viên lo lắng về ngôn ngữ nhiều hơn có xu hướng sở hữu ít thuộc tính đa văn hóa tích cực hơn. Những kết quả này nhấn mạnh sự tương tác phức tạp giữa cảm xúc, sự lo lắng và năng lực liên văn hóa trong bối cảnh học ngôn ngữ. Nghiên cứu đã đề xuất các chiến lược tích hợp nhằm nâng cao cảm xúc tích cực và giảm bớt lo lắng trong các lớp học ngôn ngữ, thúc đẩy môi trường thuận lợi để phát triển kỹ năng liên văn hóa. Nghiên cứu cũng nhấn mạnh sự cần thiết phải kết hợp nội dung đa văn hóa để khai thác sức khỏe cảm xúc nhằm nâng cao năng lực liên văn hóa. Từ đó, các khuyến nghị cũng được đưa ra, bao gồm: việc áp dụng các phương pháp lấy người học làm trung tâm và các nguồn lực hỗ trợ để đảm bảo trải nghiệm tiếp thu ngôn ngữ toàn diện.

Từ khóa: niềm đam mê ngoại ngữ (FLE), nỗi lo lắng trong lớp học ngoại ngữ (FLCAS), đặc điểm tính cách đa văn hoá (MPQ), tâm lý học tích cực, nhận thức của sinh viên

SINGAPORE'S EXPERIENCE IN DEVELOPING ENGLISH AND POLICY IMPLICATIONS FOR PROMOTING ENGLISH IN UNIVERSITIES IN VIETNAM

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Abstract: Singapore, a small Southeast Asian nation, has achieved remarkable economic development in the 20th and 21st centuries. A crucial element contributing to this success is its robust economy and enduring political stability, both of which are highly regarded, similar to the situation in Britain. This article will analyze general education and the evolving role of English in Singapore's economic growth. It will also offer policy recommendations for English language provision in Vietnamese universities, aiming to equip Vietnam's youth with strong English skills, enabling them to confidently enter the global economic arena, as Singapore has achieved successfully.

Keywords: Singaporean English, Singlish, multilingual policy, bilingual policy, universities in Vietnam

1. Introduction

Singapore, originally just a small fishing village and town, has undergone significant development since Thomas Stamford Raffles discovered this beautiful island nation in 1819. In 1826, Singapore became a British settlement, beginning a colonial period that lasted until 1963. During this period, Singapore attracted a large number of immigrants from all over places, especially from China, India and the Malay Archipelago, creating a unique ethnic diversity. The population here includes ethnic Chinese, Malays, Indians, and Eurasians, along with many expatriate communities from many different countries.

Throughout the 19th century, during the period of British colonial rule, the incorporation of English into Singapore's educational landscape took shape. Consequently, English assumed a pivotal role in the daily lives and educational pursuits of the populace. Nonetheless, Singapore's rich tapestry of ethnicities also gave rise to an intricate mosaic of linguistic expressions, encompassing Chinese, Tamil, and Malay languages. This linguistic diversity, in turn, fostered the emergence of a multilingual and multicultural framework within Singaporean society. Further exploration of this phenomenon will be undertaken in the subsequent section, which delves into the progressive evolution of English policy in Singapore.

Following World War II, English assumed a pivotal role in Singapore's economic progress, championed by leader Lee Kuan Yew, who advocated its adoption as the official language. English has now emerged as the primary language in vital domains like science, technology, politics, and law. Proficiency in English has facilitated Singapore's integration into the global marketplace and enabled effective communication with international partners. This

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serves as an exemplary model for other nations, including Vietnam, as they formulate their economic development strategies with language policies that prioritize English in trade, politics, and mainstream culture.

2. Reality

Singapore's territorial expanse spans 710 square kilometers, hosting a population of roughly 5.4 million individuals, with approximately 3.3 million holding citizenship. The populace boasts a rich tapestry of ethnicities, with Chinese constituting the majority at 74.2%, followed by Malays at 13.3%, Indians at 9.1%, and other ethnic groups at 3.3% (2015 Census). Each of these diverse ethnic cohorts has an officially recognized government language assigned to them - namely Mandarin, Malay, and Tamil (Lee, 2000, p. 170), for the purpose of representing their unique linguistic and cultural heritage (Tan, 1998). However, this intricate linguistic milieu poses a significant challenge to Singapore's socio-economic progress, as individuals hailing from distinct linguistic backgrounds encounter a myriad of difficulties and obstacles across various domains due to their limited comprehension of one another's national languages.

2.1. English Before 1959

In 1900, only a small portion of the population could use English effectively for work and communication (Okumura et al., 2006). Similarly, the 1957 census indicated that just 1.8% of the population spoke English. During the colonial-era education system, a notable division existed between English-speaking schools and local-language schools, including those teaching in Chinese. Chew (2013, p. 154-155) provided documentary evidence of a Singaporean teacher who attended both a Chinese-medium Primary School and an English-medium Secondary School in the 1940s and 1950s. He described the situation in colonial Chinese schools as one where English usage was discouraged, and individuals speaking even a bit of English were subject to strong reprimands and criticism from their colleagues.

Social and policy changes, driven by the increasing number of Singaporeans, particularly the upper class, viewed English proficiency as a means to attain social status and enhance their prospects for a better future. Singaporean society recognizes that proficiency in English, alongside their mother tongue, is crucial for gaining privileges, especially as the state prioritizes the policies which aimed at advancing economic and global trade engagement.

2.2. English Since 1959

In 1959, the Singapore government officially recognized four languages: Chinese (Mandarin) for the Chinese, Malay for the Malays, Tamil for the Indians, and English as the primary language, designating English as one of the country's official languages. After gaining independence in 1965, the government introduced English education in ethnic Chinese, Malay, and Indian schools, despite initial resistance from some communities. The advantages of using English were eventually acknowledged. During the 1960s and 1970s, English was essentially a foreign language for most children, as around 85% did not speak English at home (Lee, 2012). In 1979, research revealed that many students struggled with their mother tongue in school subjects, likely because they still used dialects at home. Consequently, the government discouraged the use of local languages, particularly Chinese dialects, arguing that mastering multiple languages could be challenging. Prime Minister Lee Kuan Yew, Singapore's future head of state, once advised, "If I were you, I would focus on Mandarin and English; English - because you need to connect with the world" (Plate, 2010, p. 132).

2.3. Singaporean English (Singlish)

In the course of its socio-economic development, Singapore, being a diverse nation, has forged a distinct variant of English that differs from standard British English. This informal variety is commonly referred to as "Singlish" (Gupta, 1994) and bears the imprint of various languages and dialects, including Mandarin, Hokkien, Malay, and Tamil. In practice, the prevalence of Singlish often corresponds to individuals holding average occupations and occupying lower rungs of society. Even authoritative figures have characterized Singlish as a form of English "deteriorated by Singaporeans," potentially placing the less educated half of the population at a disadvantage (Rubdy, 2005). Consequently, the Singapore government has advocated for the reduction of Singlish in everyday discourse, asserting that its usage reflects negatively on Singaporean society and could tarnish the nation's global reputation.

3. Singapore's Policies in Developing English

The policies of spreading English in Singapore have their roots in the country's pre-colonial history and the British colonial population management strategies. English has evolved into a common language in a linguistically diverse society because the British did not prioritize a specific ethnic language. Instead, they created conditions for individuals to make their own choices regarding education. Subsequently, Singapore successfully promoted English as an international language and utilized it as a vital tool in economic development and social communication. The Singaporean government has focused on comprehensive English improvement, spanning from family and societal education to school-based education, and from school-based education to English language reform in government and businesses. As a result, this has enhanced the nation's outstanding global image and brought significant economic benefits to this beautiful island nation.

3.1. Policy of Prioritizing English in Families and Society

Prime Minister Lee Kuan Yew believed that the path to success in English language education involved using English more frequently within the family. In one of his speeches, he affirmed if parents wanted their children to excel in subjects taught in English, in addition to Malay, they must also speak English at home (Platt, 1980).

At the societal education level, the policy promoting the "Speaking Good English Movement" (SGEM) serves as a testament to the government's special interest in encouraging the use of standard English. The objective of these policies is to enhance Singapore's position in regional economic and industrial activities. SGEM was first launched in 2000 and garnered predominantly positive responses right from the outset. The movement was initiated with an official speech by Prime Minister Goh Chok Tong, who regarded Singlish as "a corrupted form of English," a "deficiency" not to be supported (Tan, 2007). He expressed concerns that if Singaporeans continued to use Singlish, others would not understand them, thus compromising a crucial competitive advantage on the international stage (Leimgruber, 2014). As mentioned earlier, many believe that Singlish is an "unreliable dialect associated with low social status" and poses a barrier to the nation's continuous economic growth, weakening Singapore's global market position (Rubdy, 2007). This is why Singapore implemented the SGEM with determination.

At the societal level, Singapore implements a multilingual policy to accommodate and align with its diverse multicultural nature. The Singaporean government perceives the downside of linguistic diversity as potentially weakening integration and, in general, implying

inefficiency in managing economic and political affairs, impeding the nation's socio-economic and political development (Kuo & Jernudd, 1994, p. 87). Consequently, Singapore has formulated and implemented language policies to address this issue and meet the practical needs of the nation. This led to the passage of the Republic of Singapore Independence Act in 1965, stipulating that Malay, Mandarin, Tamil, and English would be the four official languages of Singapore, with English considered the official language due to its association with technology and economic development. For an individual, this means that regardless of the language used during childhood, the child's paternal ethnicity must determine which language is formally designated as their "mother tongue." Gopinathan (1998) explains that the multilingual strategy involves the application of policies promoting equal treatment, wherein the languages of various ethnic groups must be officially recognized on an equivalent basis.

3.2. Bilingual Policy in Education System

The bilingual education policy began in 1966, designating English as the first language of Singapore and the mother tongue—Mandarin, Malay, or Tamil—as the second language.

Why was English designated as the first language? There are four reasons for this. Firstly, English was the administrative language during the colonial period, and members of the newly formed government were familiar with it. Secondly, as a predominantly Chinese-populated state surrounded by the Malay community, they did not want to declare Chinese as the national language. Thirdly, in this multicultural and multiracial society, people needed a neutral language to unite various groups. Lastly, and importantly, English has become the global language of politics and the global economy. Policy makers concluded that if the nation were proficient in English, Singapore could compete in numerous global activities and attract foreign investment.

From another perspective, Chiew (1980) wrote that the implementation of this policy is based on two political objectives. Firstly, the English component in bilingualism is seen as a means to facilitate interaction among different ethnic groups to break down community exclusivity and promote Singapore's identity. Secondly, bilingualism is expected to reduce inequality in career achievements between English learners and those learning their native languages who may face challenging circumstances.

This policy is succinctly explained by former Minister of Education, Dr. Tony Tan Keng Yam that every child should learn English and his mother tongue. This is seen as a fundamental feature of Singapore's educational system. Children have to learn English to have access to the knowledge, technology, and expertise of the modern world. They have to know their mother tongue to understand what makes us what we are today (Lee, 1983). Therefore, Singapore actively promotes English language learning starting from primary school. This includes making English a compulsory subject and training teachers for effective English instruction. Simultaneously, the education system undergoes continuous reforms, beginning with the mandate for secondary schools to provide English as a second language in 1966 and universities to conduct instruction in English from 1980.

3.3. Policy of Reforming English in Government and Business

Singapore is the only country in the region that uses standard English as the official working language in government and businesses. This bold and distinctive move is seen as a crucial factor in driving Singapore's continuous economic development and creating a competitive advantage.

Standard English is employed as the primary language in state administrative

management, law, banking, and accounting, ensuring consistency and efficiency in these fields. It is promoted for use in international business and transactions, ensuring that Singaporean citizens have the capability to engage in the global economy. Standard English enables the nation to access international resources and information while bridging the gap with international partners. It is not only the language of global technology and knowledge but also an important tool for individual career advancement.

4. Evaluation

Despite changing the official language in a culturally and historically diverse society, Singapore initially faced resistance and societal challenges in implementing these policies. However, these policies have indeed had a significant economic impact, transforming Singapore from a third-world nation into a first-world global powerhouse in just a few short decades.

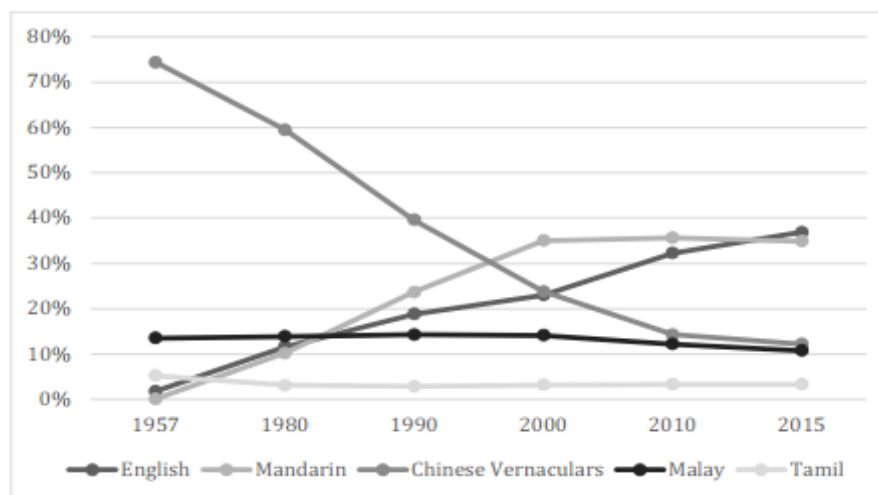
4.1. Evaluation of the Standard English Speaking Movement (SGEM) Policy

This policy reflects the Singaporean government's special interest in promoting the use of standard English, with the aim of improving Singapore's position in regional economic and industrial activities.

In fact, the literacy rate in English has increased from 70.9% to 79.9%, and continued to rise to 83.1%. Concurrently, the bilingual-speaking population increased by 17.2% from 2000 to 2015 (Wong, 2016). This policy has also led to a significant surge in the use of English as the household language (see Figure 1). However, the initial goal of SGEM – the eradication of Singlish – has not been achieved. Leimgruber (2013a) predicts that Singlish is unlikely to disappear in the near future.

Figure 1

Changes in Home Language Use Over Time in Per Cent (Based on Wong, 2010, 2016; Cavallaro, 2011; Leimgruber, 2013; Department of Statistics Singapore)



The policy of addressing Singlish has actually caused tense confrontations with those who defend this language as part of Singapore's cultural identity. To this day, Singlish is still widely used, and therefore, Singapore needs a cautious approach to preserve native languages while ensuring that the promotion of standard English does not erode linguistic and cultural

diversity, as it is an essential aspect of sustainable development.

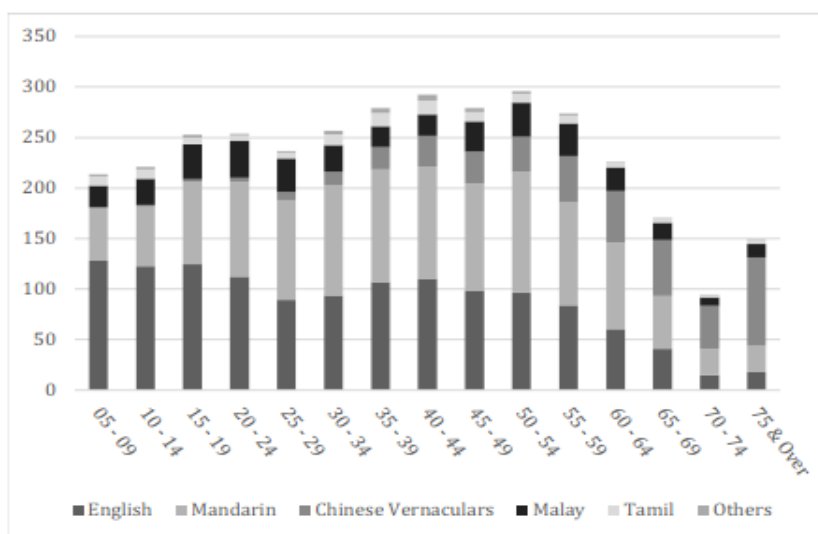
4.2. Evaluation of the Multilingual Policy

The multilingual policy requires the redefinition of heterogeneous communities, where each community can be identified by a single language, coupled with a related culture (Ho & Alsagoff, 1998). Thus, intra-group differences among the Chinese, Malay, and Indian communities have been significantly minimized by implementing a common language for all ethnic groups (Clammer, 1985).

Overall, Singapore's multilingual policy has its own advantages and challenges. On the positive side, it helps preserve and respect linguistic and cultural diversity in society. Designating Malay, Mandarin, Tamil, and English as the country's four official languages ensures that each ethnic group maintains its language and identity. This policy also demonstrates equal treatment of different languages and ethnic groups, ensuring no discrimination or language disadvantage for any ethnic group. Having multiple official languages encourages people to learn additional languages, especially English, a vital global language. Consequently, the rate of English usage at home has significantly increased (Figure 2). This has proven to be highly beneficial for Singaporeans in participating in the global economy.

Figure 2

Differences in Home Language Use According to Age in Thousand (Department of Statistics Singapore, General Household Survey, 2015)



On the challenge side, the multilingual policy leads to categorizing citizens based on language and ethnic origins, which can create divisions in society. Singapore also has to ensure that the officially designated languages are promoted carefully so as not to weaken English, the language of the economy and industry. Managing and promoting multiple languages can also pose challenges for the education system and other industries.

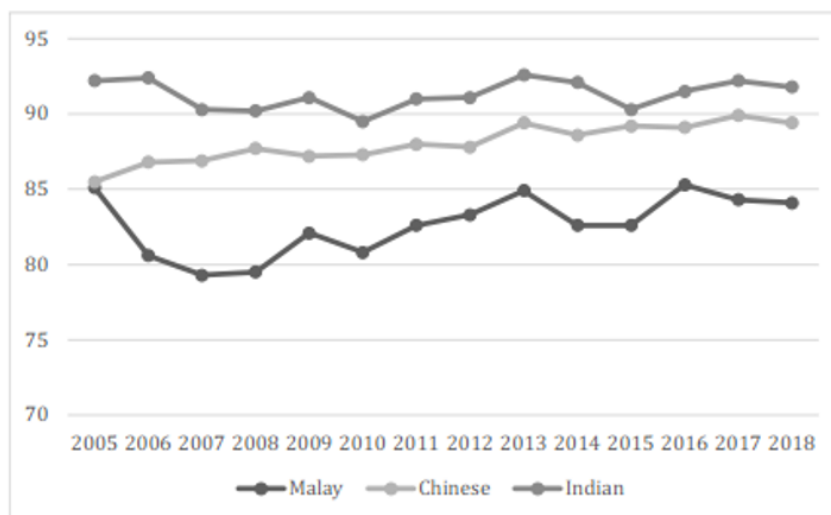
4.3. Evaluation of the Bilingual Policy

Pendley (1983) observed that the bilingual policy has clearly defined the roles of languages in Singaporean society. As a result, English has become the official working language in Singapore, while Mandarin, Malay, and Tamil are the official mother tongues of

the Chinese, Malay, and Indian communities, respectively. Overall, Singapore's bilingual education policy has many commendable aspects and positive evaluations. This policy has genuinely contributed to improving the English proficiency of students and, by extension, the general population of Singapore, enabling them to use English proficiently. Figure 3, provided by the Singapore Ministry of Education below, partly illustrates this positive change in the student population:

Figure 3

Percentage of Students Who Passed the O-Level English Language Exam (MOE, 2015, 2018)



This bilingual policy has also helped Singapore create a diverse and culturally rich learning environment, beneficial for personal development, providing favorable conditions for future career advancement, and contributing to economic development and foreign investment attraction.

However, the uncontested dominance of English as the official and administrative language has been a cause for concern nationwide. Chua (1995) reported that by the late 1970s, some cultural consequences of English dominance had surfaced, posing various issues for the country. This was exemplified by the words of former President Wee Kim Wee that Singapore became more open to external influences... thanks to the widespread use of the English language in education... Singapore became an international nation, in close contact with new ideas and technologies from abroad, while also encountering unfamiliar lifestyles and values (Ho & Alsagoff, 1998).

4.4. Evaluation of the English Language Reform Policy in Government and Business

The policy promoting English in government and business has enabled Singapore to access the global economy. Thanks to English, since the early days of implementing this policy, Singapore has attracted leading multinational companies to operate on the island, providing employment opportunities for its citizens. From humble beginnings, Singapore has now become a financial hub in Asia. Despite its small size, Singapore ranks as the 14th largest trading nation globally, with its trade volume of goods increasing manyfold. Singaporean workers are in demand in high-skilled industries worldwide, as many of them are proficient in two languages: English and another language, such as Chinese and Indian languages. These languages are well-suited to the two largest emerging economies, China and India, respectively. This has

strengthened Singapore's role in facilitating English-speaking businesses' connections with these Asian economies.

5. Policy Implications of the English Promotion in Vietnamese Universities

To develop English proficiency and enhance the quality of education in Vietnamese universities, we can draw inspiration from the experiences of developed countries like Singapore. Singapore's policies for widespread English development have created a successful model, leading to their economic prosperity and impressive international standing. From faculty training and capacity building to the implementation of bilingual teaching models and close collaboration with businesses and communities, the key implications of this policy below have potential to elevate English and the education system in Vietnam to new heights. Here, we will delve into the details of these measures and their implementation to improve learning opportunities and competitiveness for Vietnamese students in the global context.

5.1. Faculty Training and Capacity Building

First and foremost, there is a need to invest in the faculty, ensuring that they are proficient in English and possess deep knowledge in their respective fields. To achieve this, universities should establish mechanisms that promote mutual learning and collaboration among faculty members. They should work together to create internal and inter-university training programs focusing on improving English communication, teaching, and assessment skills. Additionally, universities should provide funding to encourage faculty participation in international English proficiency exams such as IELTS, TOEFL, or English teaching certifications like CELTA. These certifications can serve as evidence of faculty members' English proficiency and help enhance the quality of teaching and learning.

Furthermore, faculty members should be provided with favorable conditions to practice English in academic settings where the language is used, such as at English-language seminars and conferences. Moreover, if universities can establish collaborative relationships with institutions in Singapore or reputable English-teaching universities, they can organize joint training programs, send faculty members to Singapore for courses and knowledge exchange. In parallel, universities must fully support faculty involvement in research projects related to English teaching and learning, enabling them to develop effective teaching methods and apply new research findings in the classroom.

5.2. Bilingual Teaching Model

In today's interconnected world, it is time for universities in Vietnam to proactively adopt a bilingual teaching model where students can study any subject in either English or Vietnamese. This creates favorable conditions for learners to develop multilingual skills and promotes international integration.

To achieve this, educational institutions need to formulate curriculum plans for the bilingual teaching model, identifying suitable courses and stages for instruction in both English and the native language. This requires close coordination among departments and faculties within the university. Accordingly, bilingual teaching materials for each course should be developed early on to ensure that students have access to study materials in both English and Vietnamese, allowing them to choose their preferred language of instruction. Before implementing these instructional materials, faculty members need to undergo training on bilingual teaching methods and quality assurance techniques in knowledge transmission through both languages. Additionally, educational institutions should create a conducive

learning environment for bilingual instruction, including modern classrooms, teaching materials, and supporting technologies. Lastly, once implemented, universities should conduct regular assessments to ensure that the bilingual teaching model aligns with its objectives and maintains the highest quality in developing multilingual skills for students.

5.3. Supporting Individualized English Supplementary Activities

Universities should provide opportunities for students to develop personally through participation in English supplementary activities, such as joining clubs or extracurricular educational events related to English. This can be easily facilitated through English clubs where students can interact with each other in English. These clubs can focus on themes like culture, music, sports, or communication skills. Additionally, the university's student affairs and management department should organize extracurricular educational activities such as workshops, English-speaking competitions, or presentations on culture and art in English, creating opportunities for students to practice and improve their English skills outside of regular classes.

Furthermore, universities should allocate a budget to encourage students to use English in projects, research, or articles. This helps them apply their English knowledge in practical contexts and enhances their language proficiency. In addition, universities should establish mechanisms to promote the use of English not only in the academic environment but also in daily life, including using English during meals, daily communication, or in dormitories where students live together.

5.4. Connecting with Businesses and the Community

Universities need to collaborate closely with businesses and organizations to develop English training programs that meet the needs of the international labor market, making it easier for students to enter the international working environment after graduation. To achieve this, universities need to establish cooperative relationships with businesses operating in the international market, especially in industries that require the use of English in daily work. This can be achieved through organizing seminars, meetings, or creating internship opportunities for students in these businesses.

When collaborating with businesses, universities can gain a clear understanding of the specific English requirements in various industries. Based on this information, universities can develop English training programs with practical content tailored to the needs of the international labor market. With established relationships with businesses, universities can create opportunities for students to practice and communicate in a business environment, supporting students' participation in projects, internships, or work programs in international businesses or English-speaking work environments. Moreover, by excelling in these aspects, universities can build cooperative programs with international organizations, such as universities in Singapore, including student and faculty exchanges, organizing international events, or participating in global research projects.

6. Conclusion

Singapore's experience in enhancing the role of English in the education system serves as a valuable lesson for Vietnam. By implementing multilingual and bilingual policies to establish strong connections with businesses and the community, Singapore has succeeded in creating a global learning and working environment, leading to significant achievements. Vietnamese universities can also apply these principles and measures to improve the quality of

English education and provide global learning and working opportunities for their students. By implementing appropriate policies and fostering a conducive environment, Vietnam can confidently step into the international arena and promote sustainable development for the country in this era of globalization.

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KINH NGHIỆM CỦA SINGAPORE TRONG PHÁT TRIỂN TIẾNG ANH VÀ NHỮNG ĐỀ XUẤT CHÍNH SÁCH ĐỐI VỚI CÁC TRƯỜNG ĐẠI HỌC Ở VIỆT NAM

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Tóm tắt: Singapore, một quốc gia nhỏ tại khu vực Đông Nam Á, đã chứng kiến sự phát triển kinh tế đáng kể trong hai thế kỷ 20 và 21. Yếu tố then chốt góp phần vào thành công này là nền kinh tế vững mạnh và sự ổn định chính trị bền vững, những đặc điểm được đánh giá cao, có sự tương đồng với tình hình ở Anh. Bài viết này đi sâu vào phân tích về hệ thống giáo dục tổng quát và vai trò đặc biệt của tiếng Anh trong quá trình phát triển kinh tế của Singapore. Ngoài ra, bài viết cũng đưa ra những đề xuất chính sách về việc giáo dục tiếng Anh tại các trường đại học ở Việt Nam, nhằm trang bị cho sinh viên Việt Nam kỹ năng tiếng Anh mạnh mẽ, từ đó giúp các em tự tin bước chân vào thị trường kinh tế toàn cầu, theo cách mà Singapore đã làm thành công.

Từ khoá: Tiếng Anh Singapore, Singlish, chính sách đa ngôn ngữ, chính sách song ngữ, trường đại học tại Việt Nam

AN EVALUATION OF TWO BUSINESS ENGLISH COURSE BOOKS, *BUSINESS PARTNER B1+* AND *BUSINESS PARTNER B2*: STUDENTS' AND TEACHERS' PERSPECTIVES

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Abstract: When discussing formal education, one may instantly think about teachers, classrooms, and teaching materials. Teaching materials such as textbooks are crucial for learning and teaching because knowledge is displayed in them, and the classroom teacher or a peer can explain it. Nevertheless, careless textbook selection can impact this learning and teaching process negatively. Therefore, this study investigated teachers' and learners' perceptions of the textbooks they use in their major. A five-point Likert scale questionnaire was administered to 15 EFL teachers and 122 business students to obtain their perceptions of the books using seven criteria: practicality, layout, activities, language, skills, topics, and content. The results show that they are generally satisfied with the textbooks. However, the teachers disagreed with one criterion, the "topics" of the books, which are inappropriate. The study also used semi-structured focus group interviews to obtain more specific participant information. Both groups agreed that the books are practical and have videos to practice listening. However, many criteria, such as language skills, activities, and content, should be improved. Several suggestions are made for improving the use of the textbooks.

Keywords: Business students, criteria, EFL teachers, textbooks, textbook evaluation

1. Introduction

According to Hasibuan and Fithriani (2022), "Course textbooks are very meaningful for teaching students how to communicate in the language of their field" (p. 290). "Since textbooks are one of the integral components of the learning process, their evaluation is essential to improve their correspondence to the learners' needs and goals" (Karimnia & Jafari, 2017, p. 219). However, finding a quality textbook for a course of study can be challenging as it has to satisfy many criteria to reach a program's goal. Thus, this project was conducted due to the need to analyze two textbooks used to teach Business students at X University in Vietnam. As declared, the two textbooks, "Business Partner B1+" and "Business Partner B2", were designed for Business students who need Business English to fulfil their discipline. However, although the books have been used, they have yet to be evaluated. A book evaluation is essential to help curriculum designers, educators, and students adjudge their teaching and learning materials in time to satisfy their academic goals. According to Mukundan (2007), the quality of a textbook can be crucial in determining the success or failure of an English as a second language course.

Still, textbooks are often purchased without careful analysis. Usually, selecting a

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textbook is based on something other than the value of intrinsic pedagogy but on the prestige of the author or publisher and even the reference by the rate of using that book in many institutions. Tomlinson (2010) writes that textbooks used in many educational contexts are chosen in advance by many teachers because those books are best-selling, and they think the books are outstanding. This subjective book selection may hinder the success of a course. Therefore, textbook evaluation plays a significant role in teaching and learning in ESL/EFL classrooms. Sheldon (1988) notes that textbook evaluation could help administrators and teachers choose the best material among plenty of them on the market. Besides, textbook evaluation helps teachers develop and grow professionally by providing information to analyze their presuppositions about the nature of language and learning (Hutchinson, 1987). Tomlinson (2003) also claims that to have a successful program, many elements must be evaluated, such as language teaching methods, materials, textbooks, and the program design. Teachers are the main actors who use textbooks to teach, and students are the main actors who use textbooks to learn, so listening to their ideas about the textbooks they use is vital. This study hopes to contribute the necessary information to the Business major program at the school so that further consideration of the program design can be made. The two following research questions are devised to obtain the study's objectives.

1. What are the Vietnamese EFL teachers' perceptions of the textbooks "Business Partner B1+" and "Business Partner B2" concerning the criteria developed by Litz (2005)?

2. How do the Business students perceive the two books, "Business Partner B1+" and "Business Partner B2", concerning the criteria developed by Litz (2005)?

2. Literature Review

2.1. Definitions of Textbook Evaluation

Evaluation occurs systematically to obtain information for judgments or decisions (Lynch, 1996). Hutchinson and Waters (1987) also claim that evaluation is related to judging the fitness of something for a particular purpose, meaning to see whether something is qualified. Evaluating materials is an interactive process involving a deeper analysis of the materials being implemented (Yumuk, 1998). Evaluating materials creates an opportunity to observe the interaction between teachers, learners, and materials (Cakit, 2006). Tomlinson (2003) similarly states that material evaluation measures the value of learning and teaching materials to see the degree of impact of materials on users.

Carter and Nunan (2001) state that textbook evaluation is a measuring process to create the value of learning materials based on three methods: predictive/ pre-use evaluation, ongoing/whilst-use evaluation and retrospective/post-use evaluation.

Most scholars share a similar view about material evaluation, which requires making judgments and gathering information on the value of something. However, when giving a specific definition of textbook evaluation, these scholars have different points of view. Tomlinson (2003), for example, thinks that textbook evaluation is a judgment about the material effects on users. Yumuk (1998) evaluates the materials through in-depth analysis involving the interaction between teachers and learners and the materials. These above-mentioned scholars have their arguments to claim their definitions of textbook evaluation. These definitions help the researcher decide on the criteria for selecting a textbook. Generally, textbook evaluation can be depicted as a procedure for judging the quality of a textbook used in a particular context.

2.2. Types of Textbook Evaluation

Grant (1987), Hemsley (1997) and Tomlinson (2003) suggested that the evaluation of teaching materials can adopt a process, starting from the Initial (pre-use) evaluation, Detailed (while-use) evaluation, to the In-use (post-use) evaluation.

The "Initial (pre-use) evaluation" is based on first impressions through materials. Experienced teachers can use this method to quickly grasp the main points of materials (Tomlinson, 2003). This evaluation type is called predictive evaluation, which involves predicting the potential value of materials for users; because of the first impression of the materials, users could easily make mistakes with their options (Tomlinson, 2003).

Secondly, the "While-use evaluation" examines the users' current material. This evaluation method involves measuring materials' value while using or observing them, considering time for evaluating a textbook, clarity of instruction, appropriate layout, comprehensibility of texts, the credibility of tasks, achievability of the functions, achievement of performance, objectives, the potential for localization, the practicality of the materials, and teach-ability of the materials (Tomlinson, 2003). As Hemsley (1997) put it, this method could be more objective and reliable than the "Pre-use" evaluation. However, according to Tomlinson (2003), this method cannot measure what is in learners' brains because it can only measure learners' short-term memory.

The last stage of textbook evaluation is the "post-use (reflective) evaluation" of a textbook, which aims to assess materials after they have been utilized in an institution.

This stage helps assess a textbook's performance more thoroughly and can identify materials' strong and weak points that have emerged throughout continuous use. This post-use evaluation is seen as the most valuable (but least administrated) evaluation method since it can measure the actual effect of the materials on users (Grant, 1987; Tomlinson, 2003).

This final stage helps related stakeholders to obtain information about motivation, impact, and instant learning regarding the materials. Put another way, this process stage can determine materials' actual outcomes after use, and users can consider materials' credibility for adapting and/or replacing materials in use. Thus, after evaluation, an educational institution can inform its material evaluation results to related stakeholders, such as the government body, educators, publishers, and policymakers.

2.3. Book Evaluation Criteria

Users may want to use specific task criteria when selecting a book. This section presents two views on the topic based on the current project, which was carried out to evaluate two textbooks for Business students. Hence, the study lends the two opinions from Cunningsworth (1995) and Ur (1996).

Cunningsworth (1995) has set many criteria for choosing an ESP textbook. For example, the ESP textbook should be based on learners' needs, clearly state objectives and goals in terms of content and performance, be learner's level appropriate, creditable, match specialist language with the subject matter, offer learners language skills and strategies, balance language skills, techniques and content knowledge, present collaborative work between the instructor and learners, provide learners with supplementary materials, give guidance to individual study, use task-based or skills-based activities to reflect real-life situations, and contain outcomes that help learners self-evaluate their performance.

Ur (1996) emphasized the importance of learners when choosing a language textbook. For example, activities in the book should motivate and be appropriate for learners (not too easy or difficult, not too childish or sophisticated); writing should be relevant to learners' needs; it should be clear whether the teacher needs to prepare in advance for any activities in the book; and if the teacher is willing to use those activities in their classroom. Besides, Ur also recommended using many stages to assess a course book, such as deciding on criteria, applying criteria, and summary.

Regarding language book coverage, Ur suggested looking for pronunciation practice, introduction of new words, vocabulary practice section, grammar instruction section, grammar practice section, audio files for listening practice, listening and speaking communicative tasks, short and long reading texts, dictionary work, previously learnt materials review section, and entertaining activities.

2. Related Studies

Hasibuan and Fithriani (2022) explored an ESP textbook evaluation criteria by Cunningsworth and Kusel (1991), and Skierso (1991) to teach a group of Fashion Design students. Many criteria were the book's purpose, methodology, layout, organisation, teaching content, language skills, subskills, such as grammar and vocabulary, and functions. Most participants were generally satisfied with the book regarding learning and teaching contents. Nevertheless, it lacks exercises and a teacher's book to guide teaching and learning.

Serasi et al. (2021) investigated 141 students and one English teacher's perceptions of two English textbooks, "Grow with English," regarding subjects and contents, skills and subskills, layout and physical make-up, and practical consideration by the teacher. The authors use a checklist provided by Demir and Ertas for EFL course book evaluation. The result uncovered that teachers and students generally liked to use the book.

Nazim (2021) examined an EFL textbook regarding language skills, grammar, vocabulary, style, and appropriateness. Twenty EFL teachers participated in the study, and most agreed that the content was acceptable and language skills, uses, and appropriateness were qualified. Nonetheless, it was found that the textbook's video was not good for practising listening skills; there were not enough strategies for practising language. Also, the book did not prompt active and passive vocabulary to teach and learn when practising language skills.

Atigh and Khabbazi (2021) used Litz's (2005) questionnaire and a semi-structured interview to achieve students' attitudes towards the textbooks they used. It was found that they had positive attitudes towards the investigated textbooks. However, the results from the interview indicate that biology and psychology students agreed that the books should help students improve their oral communication, more specifically, speaking and listening skills. Moreover, the books mainly concentrate on reading skills, and no writing activities were found, so they disagreed with how textbooks present language skills.

Regarding teachers' perceptions of English textbooks, Orfan et al. (2021) found in a survey that the instructors were satisfied with the English textbooks that they were using. Four English skills were equally presented in the textbooks, mentioning other English elements suitable to the Afghan context. Moreover, the textbooks contained a variety of assignments and assessments. Simultaneously, the school encouraged the instructors to use other English sources to maximise their teaching and learning of English.

To examine the suitability of Maritime English textbook for teachers, graduates, and cadets in a school, Sari and Sari (2020) studied it by adopting the textbook evaluation by Daoud and Celce-Murcia (1979), including subject matter, vocabulary and structure, exercise, illustration, and physical make-up. It disclosed that the book had sufficiently specialised vocabulary and various grammatical structures. However, the book should have been designed systematically. The exercises in the book needed to be added more so that students had more practice proportion. Besides, the illustration and physical make-up of the book needed to be enhanced for better language acquisition.

Barus and Simanjuntak (2020) explored students' perceptions of the learning materials they used to learn Business in their English Business class. The authors used a 100-point questionnaire to obtain their opinions on the materials. They found that they generally were content with the materials regarding *comfort, content, efficient use, language, clarity, and enjoyment*.

To explore teachers' perceptions of the maritime English textbooks used in a vocational school, Khosiyono and Priyana (2019) found that teachers were satisfied with their books. The subject and the content are relevant to the current curriculum and suited to the student's needs. It also saved teachers' time for preparation. Accompanied with it were files guiding how to use the glossary and the teacher's book. Nevertheless, they wished to contribute more to all the book selection steps. They hoped to join in selecting supplementary ESP materials to judge if the textbook is authentic, if topics, texts and contexts, knowledge and language, tasks or activities represent the students' needs and level, and if the book contained pedagogical prompts.

For the purpose of obtaining users' opinions about the textbook (Vision 1), Khodabandeh and Mombini (2018) recruited 30 teachers and 70 students who used the textbook for the study. Seven criteria were applied: practical considerations, layout and design (e.g. visual intriguing), activities, skills, language type, subject and content and cultural considerations. It uncovered that the teachers and students liked the book, such as having the teacher's guidebook, CDs, and workbook. Nonetheless, they were not interested in cultural considerations.

Suhirman (2018) obtained information from 20 students and one teacher regarding their ideas about an ESP textbook they used, adopting a ten-item questionnaire developed by Garant (1987). It was found that the participants were satisfied with the book regarding learners' needs and interests. However, if language skills had been improved, learners could have benefited more from practising using English in their major.

Rezaee and Hashemi (2017) examined criteria for evaluating the ESP textbook for Civil Engineering Students using Cunningsworth's (1995) criteria, including layout, design, exercises, activities, skills, subjects, and content. The results of 30 teachers showed they were satisfied with the textbook, except that the book's quality is low. Nonetheless, the students thought that the book had low printing quality, was too broad concerning the topic, and lacked exercises, varieties, and examples. Besides, the book was not appealing, repetitive, and boring.

Karimnia and Jafari (2017) investigated instructors' ideas about the textbook "Visual Arts ESP" regarding its suitability, methodology, and features using the model by McDonough and Shaw (2003) as criteria for evaluation. They found that the participants wanted the book enhanced to correspond to the Iranian context. Furthermore, students were unsatisfied with the book, such as a lack of art knowledge. Overall, they considered the book did not suffice the standard framework to prepare for designing the book. In addition, they opined that as ESP textbooks typically focus on reading, the book should include more reading strategies, and

grammar or other language registers should start with functional approaches.

In some cases, teachers need clarification about the content of the textbook. For example, MR (2016) found that teachers confessed they must examine what was presented in the book to judge the sequences and activities for their students' needs; supplementary materials should accompany the text. Moreover, their experience, students' needs, interests, and abilities influenced how they perceived the textbook. Referring to book selection, the teachers wanted to participate in the process. Nonetheless, teachers also encountered problems like using inefficient time for book selection and opposing ideas about the book selection.

Salehi et al. (2015) investigated teachers' and students' perceptions of a medical English textbook through a questionnaire and an interview protocol. It uncovered that both groups were satisfied with the book's content, which was short and simple and contained a reviewing part. Besides, it was suitable for the student's level and needs.

Lim and Hew (2014) found that 36 high school students perceived the e-book they used helped promote students' involvement in learning and interaction with each other as the book guided them to construct their knowledge and share their ideas.

In a nutshell, the literature on book evaluation has provided helpful information, including many criteria: the content of the book (e.g., if it is authentic, appropriate, engaging), topics (if the context is local or international, and interesting), the subject matter (if the specialised knowledge is sufficiently displayed), organisation (how knowledge and skills are sequenced), layout (design), and printing quality. In addition, as ESP textbooks are related to language, many authors are concerned with the components and balance of language skills, sub-skills, vocabulary, grammar, and language skills practice activities/exercises. Additionally, audio files and videos are also required when considering a textbook. Furthermore, some authors are concerned with the need for supplementary materials, such as a teacher's book, for guidance and methodology. Two last points that some authors mentioned are that when selecting a textbook, users need to consider students' needs and level, as careless selection, otherwise, causes counter-effect.

Some studies also revealed that teachers want to participate in textbook selection, so schools must facilitate them.

Concerning book users, generally, many were satisfied with the books they used. However, they might have differing views on a few book criteria, and some schools even permit teachers to adjust their teaching using supplementary materials.

Although the literature provides such helpful information, the contexts and participants are different, so the author of the current study wants to investigate the above-mentioned textbook evaluation by using Litz (2005) to obtain the perspectives of teachers and students in the survey. This set of criteria covers the present textbook evaluation needs, comprising overall general criteria: practicality, layout, activities, skills, language, topics, and content. Atigh and Khabbazi (2021) have previously used this set of textbook criteria. In addition, as the author sees that it can be insufficient if only the quantitative data were collected, she collected more data from the qualitative data using the interview.

3. Methodology

3.1. Research Design

The descriptive research employs a mixed-method approach with quantitative and qualitative data collected through two questionnaires delivered to business students and EFL

teachers and in-depth interviews with two focused groups. In mixed-method research, an additional research question is usually added to answer the inquiry associated with combining quantitative results with qualitative findings (Edmonds & Kennedy, 2016).

The quantitative data were collected through two questionnaires designed based on the two evaluation forms developed by Litz (2005), targeting to elicit the information provided by students and teachers about the two investigated course books, “Business Partner B1+” and “Business Partner B2”. However, to obtain more in-depth perspectives of the evaluated textbooks, one semi-structured interview was conducted with students and teachers to gain transparent insights into how they evaluate the course books.

3.2. Participants

The study was carried out between April and May, in the academic year 2023. The study recruited 137 participants from two different groups. The first group is 15 EFL teachers with experience using the two books as teaching materials (40% using “Business Partner B1+” and 60% using “Business Partner B2”). Male teachers accounted for 26.7%, and females, 73.3%. 86,7% of teachers have taught over ten years, and 13,3% have taught between 5 and 10 years. They all have gained experience teaching undergraduates and have qualifications in teaching English as a foreign language. The second group includes 122 Business students from various academic enrollment years. They are first- and second-year students majoring in various majors related to Business, such as Accounting and Business Administration. Male students comprise 32%, females comprise 65,6%, and others comprise 3%. They were chosen since they have experience learning English using the two investigated course books.

3.3 Textbooks

The materials to be evaluated are “Business Partner B1+” (Dubicka et al., 2018) and “Business Partner B2” (Dubicka et al., 2018). These two books belong to a series of eight proficiency levels, including eight books starting from A1, A2, A2+, B1, B1+, B2, B2+, and C1 from Pearson Education Limited. The school chose B1+ as the main course book for first-semester students and B2 for second-semester students since these students were accepted into an advanced program based on their English entrance exam scores.

3.4. Instruments

3.4.1. Questionnaires

As mentioned earlier, the study utilised two instruments to collect the data. The main instruments are two sets of questionnaires whose contents are adapted from the student textbook evaluation form and the teacher textbook evaluation form developed by Litz (2005). The study adapted 38 questions eliciting the students’ and teachers’ responses about the textbooks based on the seven criteria (practicality: 4 items, layout: 8 items, activities: 8 items, skills: 6 items, language: 5 items, topics: 4 items, and content: 3 items). Their responses are prompted to be given in the box that best describes them, applying a five-point Likert Scale, from 1: strongly disagree, 2: disagree, 3: neutral, 4: agree and 5: strongly agree. The author tested Cronbach's alpha to determine whether the questionnaire questions were reliable.

3.4.2 Semi-Structured Focus-Group Interviews

Semi-structured interviews can be helpful as an adjunct to supplement and add further understanding of data from the questionnaires (Glesne, 2011; Merriam, 2009). Hence, the discussions with the participants circulate the seven criteria used to judge the textbooks so their

interview stories can assist in correctly understanding the situation.

3.5. Procedures

After completing the questionnaires, the author designed a Google form and created a link that was seen as a convenient way to conduct a survey. After receiving the classroom teachers' permission, the author came to each class and continued to seek the students' consent to provide their responses to the survey. The consent form said, "Once you participate in this survey, it means you have agreed to accept the invitation, and it is used as your signature". The author explained the purpose of the survey to the students and committed not to disclose their personal information. Then, after setting up everything, the author sat in front of them during the survey to encourage them to finish on time and ensure they did it correctly. Once they finished, the author checked the Google form's results to ensure that anyone had answered the survey. After that, the author said "thank you" to the students for their participation. Then, the author also said "thank you" to the classroom teacher. The next step is to ask many students to volunteer for the group interview of 15 students. The author interviewed them at recess in a quiet place for better recording.

In order to obtain the data from the teachers, the author sent them a permission message to conduct the survey. Then, after receiving their agreement, the author sent them the Google form link so they could finish it on time. The author reminded some of the voluntary teachers who forgot to complete the survey to help with the answers so the study could be completed promptly. Finally, the 15 questionnaires were returned, and the author thanked them. The next step is that the author invited five teachers for a group interview. The author set an interview in her office and recorded the interview. Finally, the author thanked them for participating in the interview.

3.6. Data Analysis

The SPSS (Statistical Package for Social Sciences) calculated all the quantitative data. Concerning the opinions on the textbook evaluation criteria, a scale run will be run to check the reliability of the two questionnaires based on the input piloting data. After being modified, the questionnaires would be administered to the participants. The data were analysed for Cronbach alpha and descriptive statistics for each criterion's maximum and minimum scores. Then, the mean scores of the two groups between the students and teachers were compared.

The interview data were transcribed and translated for analysis. Theming on the criteria used to assess the books was executed to investigate the interviewees' perceptions.

4. Empirical Results and Discussion

4.1. Empirical Results

For the first and second research questions, the study will start with the reliability of the first questionnaire collected from the teacher participants before looking at the descriptive data. Table 1 shows the reliability of the first and second research data collected from the teacher and student groups.

Table 1*Reliability Statistics Obtained From the Teachers' and Students' Responses*

Teachers		Students	
Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items	Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.904	38	.981	38

The Cronbach's Alpha of 0.904 for the teachers' responses to a 38-item questionnaire about their perceptions, and the Cronbach's Alpha of 0.981 for the students' responses to a 38-item questionnaire about their perceptions of the two course books "Business Partner B1+", and "Business Partner B2" are reliable enough to look into the further individual mean scores of the two groups of the participants as shown in the descriptive data in Table 2 below. The textbook evaluation in the table uses letters to represent the following: P stands for Practicality, L for Layout, A for Activities, S for Skills, La for Language, T for Topics, and C for Content.

Table 2*Mean Scores (M) of the Two Groups Regarding Their Perceptions of the Course Books*

		N	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
P1	Student	122	3.97	.871	.079	
	Teacher	15	3.13	.990	.256	
P2	Student	122	3.80	.869	.079	
	Teacher	15	3.73	.884	.228	
P3	Student	122	4.17	.830	.075	
	Teacher	15	3.73	.961	.248	
P4	Student	122	3.95	.978	.089	
	Teacher	15	3.33	.617	.159	
Overall mean	Student	122	3.9734	.73421	.06647	
	Teacher	15	3.4833	.68444	.17672	
L5	Student	122	4.04	.876	.079	
	Teacher	15	3.93	.704	.182	
L6	Student	122	4.05	.842	.076	
	Teacher	15	3.40	1.056	.273	
L7	Student	122	4.09	.782	.071	
	Teacher	15	4.20	.775	.200	
L8	Student	122	4.01	.867	.079	
	Teacher	15	3.07	.961	.248	
L9	Student	122	3.88	1.017	.092	

	Teacher	15	3.07	1.100	.284
L10	Student	122	3.93	.937	.085
	Teacher	15	3.87	.990	.256
L11	Student	122	3.93	.860	.078
	Teacher	15	3.80	.941	.243
L12	Student	122	4.17	.869	.079
	Teacher	15	4.33	.724	.187
Overall mean	Student	122	4.0123	.69354	.06279
	Teacher	15	3.7083	.51249	.13233
A13	Student	122	3.84	1.023	.093
	Teacher	15	3.20	.941	.243
A14	Student	122	3.66	.993	.090
	Teacher	15	3.27	1.033	.267
A15	Student	122	3.99	.895	.081
	Teacher	15	3.20	.862	.223
A16	Student	122	3.98	.904	.082
	Teacher	15	3.60	.632	.163
A17	Student	122	4.02	.876	.079
	Teacher	15	3.80	.862	.223
A18	Student	122	3.82	.927	.084
	Teacher	15	3.60	.828	.214
A19	Student	122	4.05	.861	.078
	Teacher	15	3.20	.676	.175
A20	Student	122	3.89	.916	.083
	Teacher	15	3.80	.862	.223
Overall mean	Student	122	3.9068	.77265	.06995
	Teacher	15	3.4583	.51683	.13344
S21	Student	122	3.88	.858	.078
	Teacher	15	3.53	.640	.165
S22	Student	122	3.66	.924	.084
	Teacher	15	3.20	.862	.223
S23	Student	122	3.85	.888	.080
	Teacher	15	3.73	.458	.118
S24	Student	122	3.73	.945	.086

	Teacher	15	3.67	1.047	.270
S25	Student	122	3.95	.861	.078
	Teacher	15	3.80	.775	.200
S26	Student	122	3.89	.893	.081
	Teacher	15	3.60	.737	.190
Overall mean	Student	122	3.8265	.78009	.07063
	Teacher	15	3.5889	.55587	.14353
La27	Student	122	3.92	.905	.082
	Teacher	15	4.00	.756	.195
La28	Student	122	3.80	.906	.082
	Teacher	15	3.40	.910	.235
La29	Student	122	3.86	.912	.083
	Teacher	15	3.40	.910	.235
La30	Student	122	3.89	.934	.085
	Teacher	15	3.60	.828	.214
La31	Student	121	3.98	.894	.081
	Teacher	15	3.40	.828	.214
Overall mean	Student	122	3.8914	.77749	.07039
	Teacher	15	3.5600	.58162	.15017
T32	Student	122	3.92	.849	.077
	Teacher	15	3.40	.910	.235
T33	Student	122	4.02	.838	.076
	Teacher	15	3.40	.828	.214
T34	Student	122	3.68	.956	.087
	Teacher	15	3.07	.799	.206
T35	Student	122	4.11	.851	.077
	Teacher	15	3.47	.743	.192
Overall mean	Student	122	3.9324	.75175	.06806
	Teacher	15	3.3333	.64550	.16667
C36	Student	122	3.93	.942	.085
	Teacher	15	3.60	.632	.163
C37	Student	122	3.60	.906	.082
	Teacher	15	3.47	.834	.215
C38	Student	122	3.91	.971	.088

	Teacher	15	3.47	.915	.236
Overall mean	Student	122	3.8142	.82216	.07443
	Teacher	15	3.5111	.67691	.17478

The study will use standard agreement to guide and analyse the data. First, it will focus on all statements with a mean score of 4.40 and above for the participants' agreement with the statements, and the analysis centred on the criteria: practical, layout, activities, skills, language, topics, and content.

Regarding the practical criterion, the overall mean for the teachers is 3.4833, and for the students, it is 3.9734, indicating that both groups agree that the book should be practical. However, looking into some individual statements revealed that the teachers seem not to agree with some statements in this group. They are P1 (M: 3.31) and P4 (M: 3.33).

In terms of layouts of the course books, the overall mean for the teacher is 3.7083, and for the students is 4.0123, suggesting that both groups agree with this criterion. When looking into individual statements, the author observed three statements that obtained a mean score below 4.40 (L8 and L9, M: 3.07) and L12 (M: 4.33), orderly.

Examining the activity criterion, generally, the mean for the teachers is 3.4583, and for the students is 3.9068. Notably, some statements in the teacher group obtain means below 4.40 (e.g. A13, A15, A19, M: 3.20, A14, M: 3.27).

Investigating the overall mean score of the skill criterion, the teacher group obtained 3.5889, and the student group received 3.8265. More specifically observed, one statement has a mean below 4.40 (S22, M= 3.20).

The two groups' overall mean scores for the language used in the textbooks are 3.5600 for the teachers and 3.8914 for the students. No means were observed below 4.40, which indicates that both groups agreed with all the statements in this criterion.

Concerning topics of the textbooks, the teachers' overall mean score is 3.3333, and the students' is 3.9324. This value showed that the teachers are in a neutral position for this criterion. Closely looking, only one item was observed to attain a mean score below 4.40 (T34: 3.07).

Finally, about the content of the textbooks, generally, the mean score for the teachers is 3.5111, and for the students, it is 3.8142, indicating they agree with the importance of content in the textbooks. Closely exploring, no items were seen to experience a mean score below 4.40.

To see if there were any mean differences between the two groups, an Independent Sample T-test was analysed regarding the seven overall means for the seven criteria that the teachers and the students perceived of the textbooks, as seen in Table 3 below.

As it is often difficult to tell the statistical mean difference between the two groups through numbers, this study performed this extra analysis to provide readers with information about the issue.

Table 3

Independent Samples Test of the Overall Means of the Two Groups of Responses

			ig.		f	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
Overall mean for Practical use	Equal variances assumed	.000	.990	.456	35	.015	.49003	.19952	.0954	.8846
	Equal variances not assumed			.595	.20	.018	.49003	.18881	.0937	.8864
Overall mean for Layout	Equal variances assumed	.223	.138	.641	35	.103	.30396	.18524	.062	.6703
	Equal variances not assumed			.075	0.89	.051	.30396	.14647	-.001	.6087
Overall mean for Activities	Equal variances assumed	.892	.091	.185	35	.031	.44843	.20526	.042	.8544
	Equal variances not assumed			.976	2.55	.007	.44843	.15067	.136	.7605
Overall mean for Skills	Equal variances assumed	.297	.072	.143	35	.255	.23761	.20792	-.173	.6488
	Equal variances not assumed			.485	1.46	.152	.23761	.15996	-.095	.5698
Overall mean for Language	Equal variances assumed	.757	.187	.595	35	.113	.33139	.20782	-.080	.7424
	Equal variances not assumed			.998	0.71	.059	.33139	.16585	-.014	.6766

	Equal variances not assumed			.753	7.71	.013	.625	.227	.147	1.102
Overall mean for Topics	Equal variances assumed	405	526	.953	35	.004	.59904	.20287	.1978	1.0003
	Equal variances not assumed			.328	8.99	.004	.59904	.18003	.2222	.9759
Overall mean for Content	Equal variances assumed	455	501	.370	35	.173	.30310	.22116	-.134	.7405
	Equal variances not assumed			.596	9.47	.127	.30310	.18997	-.094	.7001

The Sig (2-tailed) item is the two-tailed *p*-value that will be interpreted to determine the mean difference between the two responses. The standard value to look for unequal values of the responses is 5% (0.05), and values more significant than this value are regarded as no statistical difference. As seen in Table 2, the means of the two groups for the topic of the textbooks (Teachers: 3.3333, Students: 3.9324) are statistically different. After comparing, as seen in Table 3, this pair is different, with a *p*-value of $0.04 < 0.05$. However, the mean difference between the groups for the activity criterion was observed not to be different, with a *p*-value of 0.07, surpassing 0.05, indicating that the two groups' perspectives are not statistically different. Likewise, other means have no statistical difference, as the *p*-values are much greater than the standard value. For more details about the mean score differences of individual items, please refer to the appendix attached at the end of the study.

The author also conducted semi-structured focus group interviews with both groups to support the quantitative data. The interview questions centred on the following open-ended questions: (1) What is your general sense of the two textbooks you have used regarding practicality, layout, activities, skills, language, topics, and content? (2) What other good points of the books do you think? (3) What other weak points of the books need to be improved? To allow a convenient way of collecting the quantitative data, the author summarized the scripts by grouping them into positive and negative evaluations, as shown in Table 4 below.

Teachers	Students
<p><i>Positive evaluation:</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • They like the books as they have the vocabulary for practice and audio files for practising listening skills. • The books are practical, vivid, and updated. • Writing activities and videos in the books are suitable. 	<p><i>Positive evaluation:</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • They like the books because they include online exercises facilitating time flexibility for practice. <p><i>Negative evaluation:</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • They prefer a more specialized vocabulary load and videos to practice listening skills, not

<p><i>Negative evaluation:</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • However, some consider videos because most are too long (5-6 minutes). The books have more exercises on listening than reading, so they discourage students' vocabulary mastery. • The books lack a variety of exercises, such as listening exercises, which are sometimes repeated from level B1+ to B2. • Most listening exercises are questions that require complete, short answers, which makes students unable to take notes properly. The listening part is too bad because it lacks a variety of degrees of difficulty, and the question and answer section is complex to understand. • Weaker or passive students cannot catch up with the book activities. • The designs need improvement for variety as they look dull. Some teachers consider vocabulary is not the strong point of the books, which are not as good as those preceding them, such as Market Leader. • The books lack balance in allocating skills. • The format of the books is boring, and they do not know what to do with the books except to follow the faculty and have no further ideas. • The layout is not convenient for students because the size of the words is small and causes some confusion. The books are designed purposefully to equip learners with international exam preparation, such as PTE, BEC, or BULATS. However, the university has other exam preparation directions, such as IELTS, TOEIC, or TOEFL, so the books cannot satisfy all the students' needs, making some discouraged. • The actual teaching by the faculty seems to differ from the university's educational objectives. Selecting the textbook should stick to the educational purposes and students' needs. 	<p>writing exercises.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The two books should be designed differently to increase motivation and excitement when learning with the books. • They complain that some long videos have made them unable to focus on information to answer listening questions. • Most listening exercises require students to provide complete, short answers. Hence, the books should have a variety of activities, such as True/ False or Gap fillings. • The books should have more activities for practising the reading skill. Many contexts in the books should be better for those employed. • The books are designed appropriately for employees rather than students. • The books should start with brainstorming activities preceded by other activities.
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As can be seen, the results from the interview can be more detailed compared to the information obtained from the quantitative data through the mean scores showing agreement. First, not all the criteria received absolute agreement from the participants in the survey. Thus, this interview response helps bring more ideas about the related criteria used in the survey. Second, more ideas were gathered in addition to the mean scores showing agreement with the

seven criteria used in the survey. For example, the participants are also concerned with the faculty's objectives and appropriateness (Regarding the students' scripts: e.g., the books are designed appropriately for employees rather than students).

4.2 Discussion

This study is the first to investigate the teachers' and students' perspectives of the investigated textbooks. Textbook evaluation is one of the elements that can contribute to the program's success. This current study is not an exception when it has provided the users' opinions about these two textbooks for related stakeholders' consideration of whether or not to use the books. The quantitative results show that both groups, generally, are satisfied with the course books "Business Partner B1+" and "Business Partner B2". The questionnaire used seven textbook evaluation criteria (practical, layout, activities, language, skills, topics, and content) with 38 items. The students tend to agree more with the statements than the teachers. With all the overall mean scores, the students tend to be greater than those provided by the teachers. This result aligns with those found in the studies conducted by previous researchers (e.g. in cases of teachers' perceptions found in Hasibuan and Fithriani (2022), Khodabandeh and Mombini (2018), Khosiyono and Priyana (2019), Nazim (2021), Orfan et al. (2021), and Serasi et al. (2021), and in case of students' perceptions as found in the studies by Atigh and Khabbazi (2021), Khodabandeh and Mombini (2018), and Serasi et al. (2021), who found that the participants were satisfied with most of the criteria used to judge the textbooks. However, in this study, the two groups' means are different in terms of the criterion for the topics of the books. For the activity criterion, both groups show no significant difference.

In terms of interviews, the study will direct its discussion toward the three criteria used in this study. First, many ideas provided by the two groups are similar. For example, language skills are not balanced. While more listening practice is designed, other skills like reading are not practised enough. This is consistent with the findings of Hasibuan and Fithriani (2022). I thought it was challenging to balance language skills if students' needs were unclear. The problem has been discussed extensively, e.g. by Atigh and Khabbazi (2021) and MR (2016), who emphasised the interaction between related stakeholders during the textbook selection process.

Another example is that teachers and students complained that the listening exercises were too long, distracting them from understanding the main points. The books should be redesigned based on such ideas to balance language skills. The issue has been mentioned by Atigh and Khabbazi (2021). They found that the book they evaluated lacked communicative skills, and reading exercises mainly focused on writing. Similarly, the current books lack in-class exercises, especially about reading skills. Hence, the book designers and other related stakeholders must reconsider this point.

Another noteworthy remark is about the content and topics of the books. The mean score obtained from the teachers was not positive. They said the books are designed to help students better prepare for some international tests. However, the books' content and topics do not match the university's educational goals. For instance, the students in this university must take other international examinations, so the content and topics must be revised and updated. This response is aligned with the quantitative data. The teachers disagreed with this criterion (topics of the book with $M= 3.3333$). This issue has been discussed by Nazim (2021), who said that a good book must have a good design of strategies to practise language appropriately to help them reach their goals. Again, the question is who will decide the criteria used to design a textbook, as mentioned by Lynch (1996), Yumuk (1998), Cakit (2006), and Tomlinson (2003). Any

selected textbook would receive less negative feedback if this answer were answered. The topics are essential since they decide on the content selection, which can impact students' ultimate goals and motivation to use a book in the long run.

Regarding the upsides of the books, most teachers like them as they are practical and vivid, and the students like the books since they offer online listening exercises that they can practise flexibly. Such responses align with the results collected from the quantitative survey. Both students and teachers agreed with this criterion (Practical).

Several suggestions are humbly made to improve the situation of the textbooks. Firstly, all related stakeholders should sit side by side to reevaluate the books after a course or a year of study. Some teachers in the interview complained that they did not want to have more ideas about the books as they had no authority to change anything about the books or find other suitable books. Secondly, students' needs should be clearly stated, so that the school's administrative board can address those needs and proceed with book selection. In the interview, some teachers also noted that the books are designed for international test preparation. Nonetheless, the current international tests are different from those initially proposed. Finally, when selecting a textbook, the selection board should use a framework to guide the selection process, as suggested by researchers like Cunningsworth (1995) and Ur (1996).

5. Limitations

The study's sample, especially for the teacher participants, is modest as it was difficult to find more teachers available, so the perceived ideas can be subjective. Second, the study could not explore students in other schools to see their perceptions of the two textbooks since doing this could yield more varied responses. Third, the study could not interview all the teachers in this university to have a more objective picture of the books. Finally, some teachers have not explored the full content of the textbooks, so they could not provide a more detailed evaluation of the books. Future studies may want to consider these limitations when researching the same topic.

6. Conclusion

The current study explores two groups of participants' perceptions of the textbooks they used. More specifically, the teachers evaluated the books based on their experience using them to teach specialised English to students in economics. In contrast, the students assessed the books based on their experience learning technical English with the books. The study used a questionnaire with seven textbook evaluation criteria to elicit the participant's perceptions of the books within this framework. The results are positive in a general sense; however, regarding the teachers, they regarded the topics of the books as not helpful for students, and they disagreed with this criterion. Regarding the designs of books, they tend to facilitate readers with jobs rather than students. Regarding interviews, the teachers have more ideas than the students. However, both groups agree that the books need to balance language skills and add more exercises to practise necessary language skills. Then, although the videos in the books are helpful, their length should be shortened to assist students in catching information more quickly and motivate them to learn. Overall, they are satisfied with the books.

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APPENDIX

			ig.		f	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
1	Equal variances assumed	.410	237	.446	35	.001	.834	.242	.355	1.312
	Equal variances not assumed			.116	6.774	.006	.834	.268	.269	.399
2	Equal variances assumed	.000	984	.294	35	.769	.070	.238	-.401	.541
	Equal variances not assumed			.290	7.494	.775	.070	.241	-.438	.578
3	Equal variances assumed	.437	510	.899	35	.060	.439	.231	-.018	.896
	Equal variances not assumed			.692	6.670	.109	.439	.259	-.109	.987
4	Equal variances assumed	.907	170	.383	35	.019	.617	.259	.105	1.130

	Equal variances not assumed			.387	3.714	.002	.617	.182	.241	.994
P	Equal variances assumed	000	990	.456	35	.015	.49003	.19952	.09544	.88461
	Equal variances not assumed			.595	8.200	.018	.49003	.18881	.09367	.88639
5	Equal variances assumed	.412	038	458	35	.648	.108	.235	-.357	.573
	Equal variances not assumed			543	9.756	.593	.108	.198	-.306	.522
6	Equal variances assumed	.217	272	.739	35	.007	.649	.237	.180	1.118
	Equal variances not assumed			.294	6.262	.035	.649	.283	.050	1.248
7	Equal variances assumed	048	827	.514	35	.608	-.110	.214	-.533	.313
	Equal variances not assumed			.518	7.697	.611	-.110	.212	-.556	.336
8	Equal variances assumed	279	598	.922	35	.000	.942	.240	.467	1.416
	Equal variances not assumed			.617	6.923	.002	.942	.260	.392	1.491
9	Equal variances assumed	080	778	.887	35	.005	.810	.281	.255	1.366
	Equal variances not assumed			.715	7.077	.015	.810	.299	.181	1.440
10	Equal variances assumed	067	795	231	35	.818	.060	.258	-.451	.570

	Equal variances not assumed			221	7.230	.828	.060	.269	-.508	.627
11	Equal variances assumed	038	846	566	35	.573	.134	.238	-.336	.604
	Equal variances not assumed			527	7.001	.605	.134	.255	-.404	.673
12	Equal variances assumed	256	614	.689	35	.492	-.161	.234	-.624	.302
	Equal variances not assumed			.795	9.333	.436	-.161	.203	-.585	.263
L	Equal variances assumed	.223	138	.641	35	.103	.30396	.18524	-.06239	.67031
	Equal variances not assumed			.075	0.892	.051	.30396	.14647	-.00073	.60865
13	Equal variances assumed	209	648	.290	35	.024	.636	.278	.087	1.185
	Equal variances not assumed			.446	8.322	.025	.636	.260	.090	1.182
14	Equal variances assumed	012	915	.457	35	.148	.397	.273	-.142	.937
	Equal variances not assumed			.412	7.335	.176	.397	.281	-.196	.990
15	Equal variances assumed	253	616	.245	35	.001	.792	.244	.309	1.274
	Equal variances not assumed			.343	7.925	.004	.792	.237	.294	1.290
16	Equal variances assumed	.057	306	.559	35	.121	.375	.241	-.101	.852

	Equal variances not assumed			.055	1.762	.052	.375	.183	-.004	.754
17	Equal variances assumed	005	944	938	35	.350	.225	.239	-.249	.698
	Equal variances not assumed			951	7.752	.355	.225	.236	-.272	.721
18	Equal variances assumed	270	604	875	35	.383	.220	.251	-.277	.716
	Equal variances not assumed			956	8.598	.351	.220	.230	-.262	.701
19	Equal variances assumed	913	341	.678	35	.000	.849	.231	.393	1.306
	Equal variances not assumed			.442	0.047	.000	.849	.191	.450	1.248
20	Equal variances assumed	107	744	375	35	.708	.093	.249	-.399	.586
	Equal variances not assumed			393	8.122	.699	.093	.238	-.405	.592
A	Equal variances assumed	.892	091	.185	35	.031	.44843	.20526	.04249	.85437
	Equal variances not assumed			.976	2.554	.007	.44843	.15067	.13641	.76045
21	Equal variances assumed	666	416	.498	35	.136	.344	.229	-.110	.797
	Equal variances not assumed			.882	0.762	.074	.344	.183	-.036	.724
22	Equal variances assumed	085	771	.848	35	.067	.464	.251	-.032	.960

	Equal variances not assumed			.952	8.191	.067	.464	.238	-.035	.963
23	Equal variances assumed	.373	.038	.510	.35	.611	.119	.233	-.343	.581
	Equal variances not assumed			.833	9.217	.411	.119	.143	-.173	.411
24	Equal variances assumed	.056	.813	.240	.35	.811	.063	.262	-.455	.580
	Equal variances not assumed			.222	6.929	.827	.063	.283	-.535	.661
25	Equal variances assumed	.297	.587	.647	.35	.519	.151	.233	-.310	.612
	Equal variances not assumed			.703	8.527	.491	.151	.215	-.299	.601
26	Equal variances assumed	.324	.570	.188	.35	.237	.285	.240	-.190	.760
	Equal variances not assumed			.380	9.435	.183	.285	.207	-.147	.717
S	Equal variances assumed	.297	.072	.143	.35	.255	.23761	.20792	-.17359	.64882
	Equal variances not assumed			.485	1.455	.152	.23761	.15996	.09461	.56984
27	Equal variances assumed	.751	.100	.336	.35	.737	-.082	.244	-.564	.400
	Equal variances not assumed			.387	9.304	.703	-.082	.212	-.525	.361
28	Equal variances assumed	.067	.796	.626	.35	.106	.403	.248	-.087	.894

	Equal variances not assumed			.620	7.586	.123	.403	.249	-.121	.927
29	Equal variances assumed	052	820	.847	35	.067	.461	.249	-.033	.954
	Equal variances not assumed			.849	7.638	.081	.461	.249	-.063	.985
30	Equal variances assumed	126	723	.161	35	.248	.293	.253	-.206	.793
	Equal variances not assumed			.276	8.672	.218	.293	.230	-.188	.775
31	Equal variances assumed	025	874	.401	34	.018	.583	.243	.103	1.064
	Equal variances not assumed			.551	8.296	.020	.583	.229	.103	1.063
LL	Equal variances assumed	.757	187	.595	35	.113	.33139	.20782	-.07960	.74239
	Equal variances not assumed			.998	0.712	.059	.33139	.16585	-.01381	.67660
32	Equal variances assumed	123	727	.213	35	.029	.518	.234	.055	.981
	Equal variances not assumed			.095	7.131	.051	.518	.247	-.003	1.039
33	Equal variances assumed	044	835	.728	35	.007	.625	.229	.172	1.077
	Equal variances not assumed			.753	7.713	.013	.625	.227	.147	1.102
34	Equal variances assumed	.892	029	.384	35	.019	.614	.257	.105	1.123

	Equal variances not assumed			.744	9.293	.013	.614	.224	.146	1.081
35	Equal variances assumed	001	976	.783	35	.006	.640	.230	.185	1.095
	Equal variances not assumed			.094	8.820	.006	.640	.207	.207	1.073
T	Equal variances assumed	405	526	.953	35	.004	.59904	.20287	.19784	1.00025
	Equal variances not assumed			.328	8.997	.004	.59904	.18003	.22224	.97585
36	Equal variances assumed	.584	210	.336	35	.184	.334	.250	-.161	.830
	Equal variances not assumed			.815	2.494	.083	.334	.184	-.047	.716
37	Equal variances assumed	342	560	.536	35	.593	.132	.246	-.355	.618
	Equal variances not assumed			.572	8.315	.575	.132	.230	-.352	.615
38	Equal variances assumed	011	916	.678	35	.096	.443	.264	-.079	.965
	Equal variances not assumed			.757	8.098	.096	.443	.252	-.086	.973
C	Equal variances assumed	455	501	.370	35	.173	.30310	.22116	-.13429	.74049
	Equal variances not assumed			.596	9.465	.127	.30310	.18997	-.09387	.70006

ĐÁNH GIÁ HAI CUỐN GIÁO TRÌNH TIẾNG ANH THƯƠNG MẠI, *BUSINESS PARTNER B1+* VÀ *BUSINESS PARTNER B2*: QUAN ĐIỂM CỦA SINH VIÊN VÀ GIẢNG VIÊN

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Tóm tắt: Khi nói đến giáo dục chính quy, người ta sẽ sớm nghĩ đến giáo viên, lớp học và tài liệu giảng dạy. Tài liệu giảng dạy, ví dụ như sách giáo khoa, giáo trình, rất quan trọng cho việc học và dạy vì kiến thức được thể hiện trong đó và giáo viên đứng lớp hoặc đồng nghiệp của họ có thể sử dụng để giảng dạy. Việc lựa chọn sách giáo khoa, giáo trình không phù hợp có thể tác động tiêu cực đến quá trình dạy và học. Vì vậy, nghiên cứu này điều tra ý kiến của giảng viên và người học về giáo trình họ sử dụng trong chuyên ngành của mình. Một bảng câu hỏi thang đo Likert năm điểm đã được đưa ra cho 15 giảng viên phụ trách lớp và 122 sinh viên đã và đang sử dụng giáo trình để họ đưa ra nhận xét của mình theo 7 tiêu chí: giá trị thực tiễn, bố cục, hoạt động dạy và học, ngôn ngữ, kỹ năng, chủ đề và nội dung. Kết quả cho thấy nhìn chung, họ hài lòng với hai cuốn giáo trình này. Tuy nhiên, các giảng viên không đồng ý với một tiêu chí là “chủ đề” của sách là không phù hợp. Nghiên cứu cũng sử dụng các cuộc phỏng vấn nhóm tập trung bán cấu trúc để có được thông tin cụ thể hơn về người tham gia. Cả hai nhóm đều đồng ý rằng hai cuốn giáo trình rất thiết thực và có video để luyện nghe. Tuy nhiên, nhiều tiêu chí như kỹ năng ngôn ngữ, hoạt động, nội dung cần được cải thiện. Một số đề xuất được đưa ra nhằm hoàn thiện hai cuốn giáo trình hơn.

Từ khóa: sinh viên thương mại, tiêu chí, giảng viên giảng dạy tiếng Anh như ngoại ngữ, giáo trình, đánh giá tài liệu giảng dạy

THE BRITISH ECONOMIC SITUATION AFTER BREXIT TO THE YEAR 2023

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Abstract: After Brexit and the global Covid 19 pandemic, Britain has been going through the most difficult time since the 2007-2008 world financial and monetary crisis. In 2019, Britain's GDP reached a low level before plummeting to double-digit negative growth in the most severe year of the pandemic in 2020. Although the economy improved in 2021 and 2022, compared to the "starting point" previous negative growth, the economy has basically not recovered to pre-pandemic levels. Within the scope of this article, the author focuses on researching the British economic situation in the post-Brexit period until 2023, identifying the causes leading to the serious recession of the British economy in recent years. The article also analyzes the direct and indirect impacts of the Brexit process and the Covid-19 pandemic on the current British economy, and makes forecasts about the prospects of the British economy in the near future.

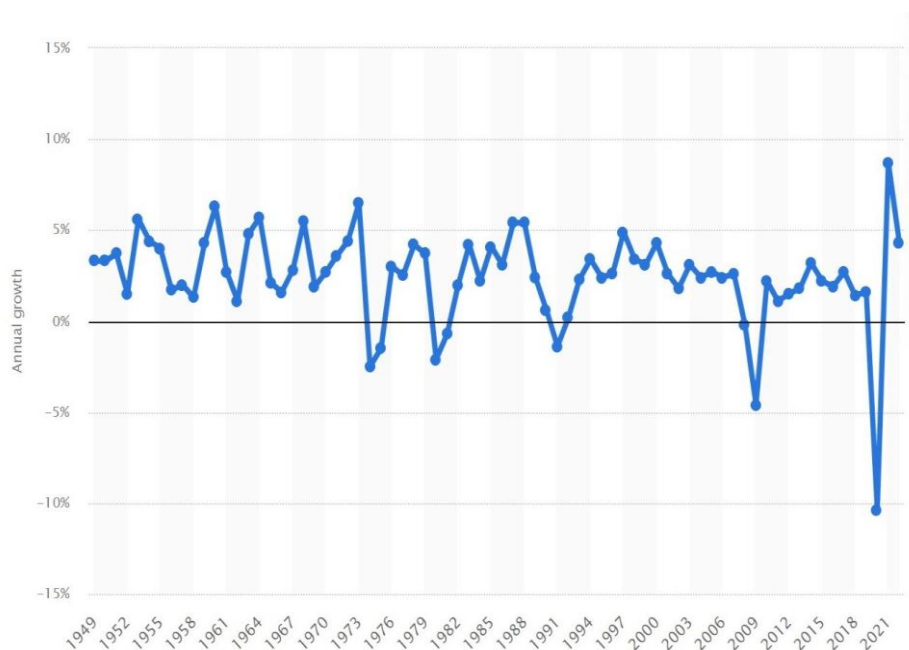
Keywords: British economy, post-Brexit, prospects, trade, investment

1. Introduction

Up to the year 2023, when both the Brexit process (a movement and policy reaction to exit from the European Union after the referendum in 2016 when approximately 52% of the voters in the UK said “yes” to the exit choice from the EU) and the Covid-19 pandemic have officially ended, Britain has just begun to enter the worst recession since the Great Depression of the 1930s (see the growth rate chart of the British economy from 1920 to the present (2023) below). This situation has derived from many objective and subjective factors, of which both Brexit and the Covid-19 pandemic are considered key factors. In addition to the decline in consumer demand and labor productivity due to depletion after the Covid-19 pandemic, the Bank of England also emphasized the earlier and more severe than expected effects of the Brexit process on the country's economy. The major indicators such as trade, investment, economic openness, exchange rates and currencies, migration status... have all been strongly influenced by both Brexit and the global pandemic in recent years.

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Figure 1*British Economic Growth From 1920 to Present¹*

2. Trade, Production and Commodity Prices

According to the figures from the United Nations Conference on Trade and Development (UNCTAD)², the British economy in the first quarter of 2022 did not perform as well as expected. While global merchandise trade growth in the 2019-2022 period reached 30%, both the UK's exports and imports during this period decreased seriously and were left far behind in the G7 group or when compared to other countries. With the EU-27 group, it was 0% for exports and only 19% for imports. Notably, France and Germany - the two largest economies in the EU and also the UK's two largest trading partners - only achieved trade growth of 9% and 7% respectively, which was much lower than the EU and the world's average. Meanwhile, other countries, despite having smaller and weaker economies, but which are not linked or have few links with the British economy, have shown impressive growth. Typical examples for this group in the EU include Belgium (48%) and Poland (37%). A noteworthy point is that countries less affected by Brexit, as trade with the EU and the UK does not account for too much weight in the economy, are also the countries that recorded record growth in the same period of 2019-2022, typically China, Vietnam, Australia, Malaysia, and India. OECD figures once again confirm that between the first quarter of 2019 and the first quarter of 2022, the UK's real GDP increased by only 0.87% - much lower than the average growth rate of other countries, such as OECD (4.5%), or G7 (3.26%), and EU27 (3.12%). The decline continues in the first two quarters of 2023, pushing the forecast growth rate for the whole year down to only

¹ Statista (2023). *Annual growth of gross domestic product in the United Kingdom from 1949 to 2022*. <https://www.statista.com/statistics/281734/gdp-growth-in-the-united-kingdom-uk/>

² Du, J., Satoglu, E. B., & Shepotylo, O. (2023). How did Brexit affect UK trade? *Contemporary Social Science*, 18(2), 266-283. <https://doi.org/10.1080/21582041.2023.2192043>

0.3%³. This implies that the Brexit process has a real impact on the British economy. One of the concerns of British economic planners and developers today in the present year 2023 comes from the risk that this economy has long been closely linked to the EU economy, and the Brexit event has officially severed these connections, causing the British economy to stagger. If British businesses cannot maintain high productivity, high management efficiency and low capital costs, it will become increasingly impossible for British goods to compete with similar businesses in other countries. In addition to the Brexit, the British economy has recently fallen into stagflation, (which means that at the same time under pressure from high inflation while production, trade and services all stagnate) as the result of the fuel supply disruption and the exhaustion of workers after the COVID-19 pandemic. A large number of workers refusing to return to offices or factories has been recorded in 2021-2022, leading to a growing shortage of skilled workers and human resources in the field of design or creativity for high value.

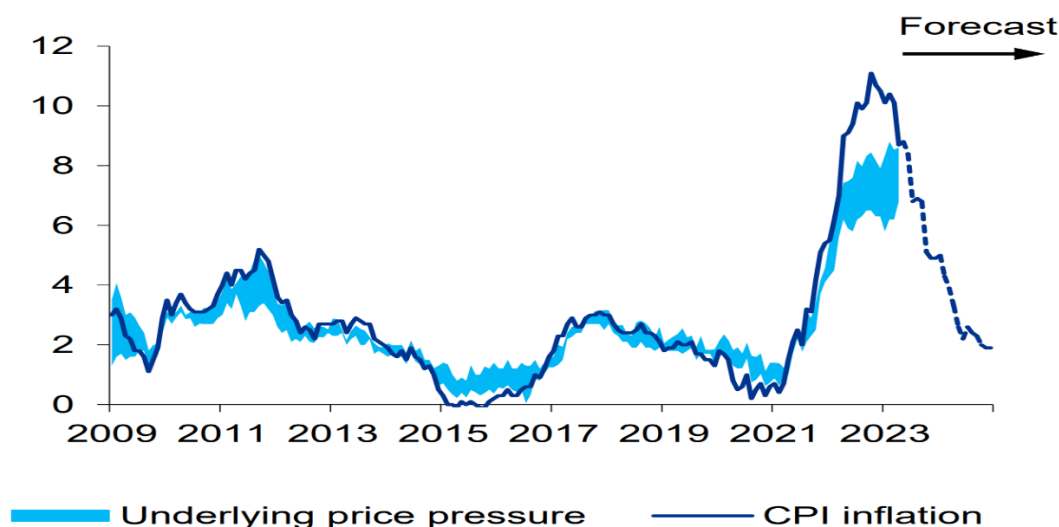
According to the latest data from the world's leading independent international auditor and economic trends research agency, KPMG, by the end of June 2023, the UK economy has shown signs of improvement but the risk of recession still remains. The British government has provided households and businesses with certain support to cope with high energy prices, but the slowdown in the economy has caused large savings among the population to dry up; and the government's tightening monetary policies still need more time to penetrate into the economy. Britain's GDP in 2023 as well as the next two years is forecast to still achieve growth, but it will certainly be difficult to exceed 1%. Some organizations, institutions and research agencies even predict UK growth in 2023 in the range of 0.3-0.8%. The PMI index (purchasing management index, which measures the status of inventory, production and purchase and sale of goods and services of economic sectors) in the first months of 2023 was reported to have increased, with the service sector showing the most positive progress while the manufacturing sector appears the least promising⁴.

Also, according to KPMG, inflation continues its stable trend. By April 2023, the CPI (inflation index) stopped at 8.7% - down from 10.1% a month earlier (March 2023) and fell from the peak of 11.1% in October 2022 (see the chart showing inflation in the UK from 2009 to present below). Economists expect inflation will continue to be controlled and will fall back to 5% in the fourth quarter of 2023, or will reach 7.7% for the whole year, before continuing to be zoned at the level of 2.9% in 2024⁵.

³ KPMG (2023). *UK Economic Update*. <https://assets.kpmg.com/content/dam/kpmg/uk/pdf/2023/06/uk-economic-update.pdf>

⁴ *UK Economic Update*. Cited doc.

⁵ *UK Economic Update*. Cited doc.

Figure 2*Inflation in the UK From 2009 to Present (2023)⁶*

Conventionally, inflation increases due to main sources including: (1) demand pull inflation; (2) cost push inflation, when the costs of labor, input materials and energy, along with services and by-products, all increase; (3) inflation due to speculation; and (4) inflation due to increased money supply (for example, during periods when the government applies quantitative easing, increases monetary supplies, or prints money to stimulate consumer demands). Considering the context of the UK in the post-Brexit period from 2016 to present, it can be seen that the UK's CPI (consumer price index) has fluctuated in two distinct time segments: (1) the first period from 2016- 2019, characterized by the Brexit result causing surprise and confusion in the market, leading to the possibility of speculation in input materials and hoarding of goods waiting for the next developments, pushing CPI up to over 3%. But then with the Government's measures to reassure and stabilize psychology, and the awareness that both the UK and the EU will make efforts to progress the Brexit transition process (expected to end in 2019, but in reality it was delayed for another year) took place harmoniously, the prices of goods and services gradually decreased to 2%. (2) Phase 2 can be counted as from 2020 to present. During this period, characterized by lockdowns and supply disruptions in many regions of the world as a result of the Covid-19 pandemic, production stagnated and consumer spending declined, leading to the CPI of the first year of the pandemic 2020 almost not increasing, only fluctuating below 1%. This year also witnessed tireless efforts by economic operators in both the UK and the EU to conclude a successful Brexit transition. However, from 2021, when Britain is officially no longer a member of the European Union, Brexit began to reveal Britain's weaknesses as an economy strong in services but weak in manufacturing goods. Globalization, heavy dependence on imports and foreign workers, as well as the fact that at this time the country has not yet had sufficient time to build policies and legal corridors strong enough to support domestic production and promptly prevent a sharp increase in the CPI. As a result, by 2021, the CPI has reached a record level of over 11% - the highest since the 2008 global financial crisis. The year 2022 also saw the CPI sticking at a high level even though it decreased by 1% compared to the previous year. Currently, controlling inflation and trying to bring CPI

⁶ UK Economic Update. Cited doc.

to 7-8% by the end of 2023 is one of the key goals of the Government, considering the openness of the British economy and the disruptions in the economy, as well as linkage and cooperation between this country and other partners in the region.

3. Investment

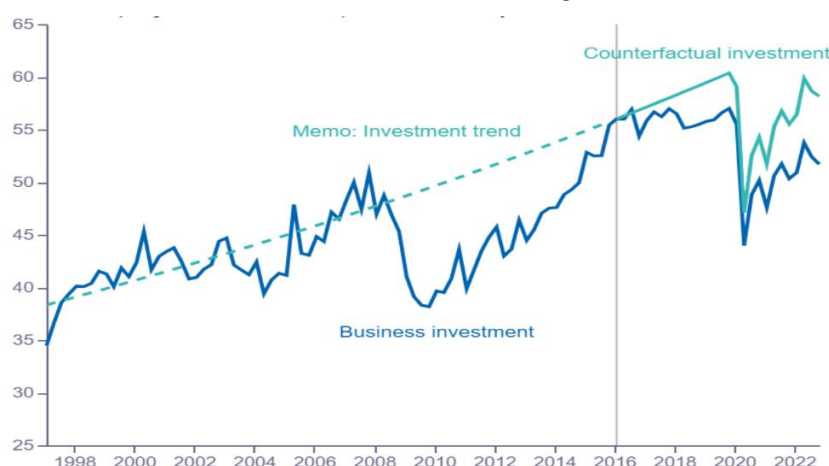
UK investment has been reported to be entering a period of stagnation and severe recession, with the biggest decline among the G7 since Brexit and the Covid-19 pandemic⁷.

In the context of depleted productivity, workers' skills that cannot be transferred after Brexit and uncertainty about the future pattern of UK - EU relations, investors have shown a precautionary and have not ventured to aggressively provide investment capitals. The Financial Times has reported on the situation of a number of branches of global companies in the fields of mechanical engineering and electronics located in the UK facing difficulties when trying to convince the "parent" company to continue investing into the UK's market. The BMW Company also announced that it will move its factory in the Cowley area (a suburb of Oxford city) to China by the end of 2023. Another company, the Arrival, part of the EV trade group, also announced to move to America in the near future. The wave of people, investors and international companies moving out of the UK is expected to continue in the next few years⁸.

From 2016 to 2022, under the influence of both Brexit and the Covid-19 pandemic, investment in the UK has stagnated. Although there are signs of a slight recovery at the end of 2022, investment has not yet returned to pre-pandemic levels. The Chart 3 below shows this fact, with corporate investment (bottom dark blue line) which was making a spectacular breakthrough in the period 2011-2016 (6% growth/year), has suddenly stopped and even declined after Brexit, especially from 2020 onwards⁹.

Figure 3¹⁰

The Chart Shows the Investment Situation in the UK during 1998-2022 (Unit: Billion Pound)



According to experts' estimates, investment in the UK has been expected to decline by

⁷ Haskel, J. & Martin, J. (2023). *How has Brexit affected business investment in the UK?* <https://www.economicsobservatory.com/how-has-brexit-affected-business-investment-in-the-uk>

⁸ *How has Brexit affected business investment in the UK?* Cited doc.

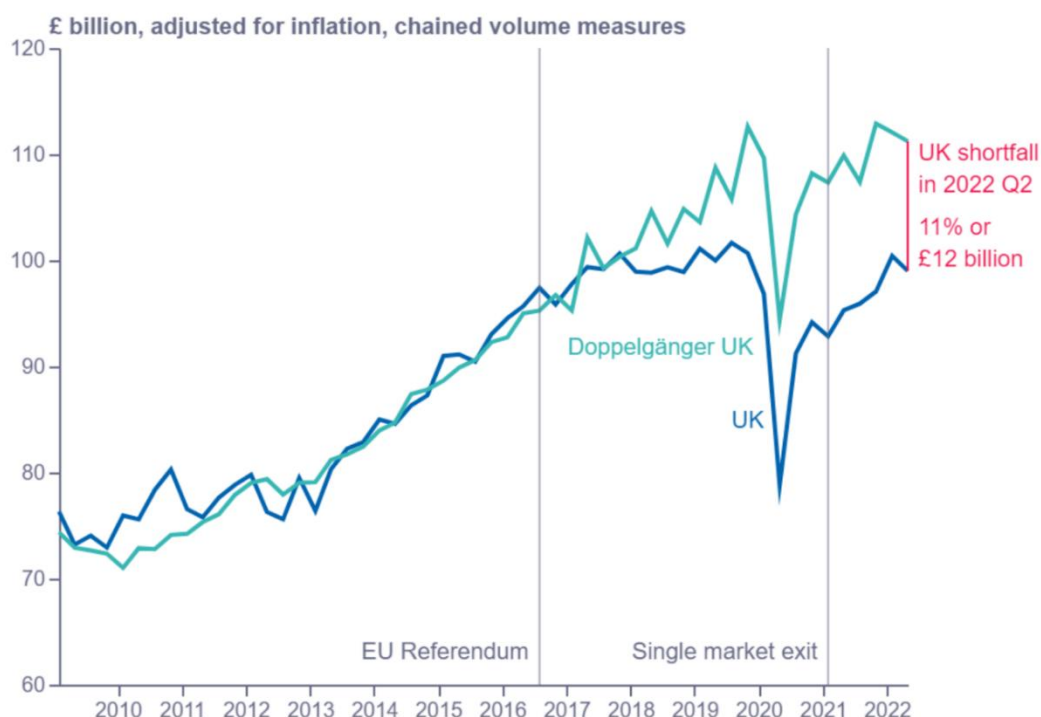
⁹ *How has Brexit affected business investment in the UK?* Cited doc.

¹⁰ *How has Brexit affected business investment in the UK?* Cited doc.

at least 10% in 2022 alone due to the impact of Brexit. John Springford, a senior researcher at the Center for European Reform, used a research method called 'doppelgänger' to analyze and calculate the impact of the Brexit on the UK's economy internationally. This method uses multi-variable statistical techniques with 22 other economies directly related to the UK, combining with running computer algorithms to measure indicators such as GDP growth, inflation, investment and commerce, etc. The research team also built a simulation model for the scenario if Brexit had not happened; they then compared it with the actual situation with Brexit to calculate the cost or price to pay for Brexit in each stage. Using this method, John's research team calculated that in the period 2016-2019, for the investment category alone, the UK lost at least 1% of total investment due to Brexit. This index continued to decline during Covid-19 but increased again at the end of the pandemic. Also using the above measurement, the research team estimates that the UK will suffer a decline in investment of up to 11% in the second quarter of 2022 (see chart 4 estimating the investment gap between the scenario "with" and "without" Brexit below)¹¹.

Figure 4¹²

Using the Doppelgänger Method to Measure the Actual Difference in Investment in the British Economy During Brexit (Unit: Billion Pounds)



In a similar effort, researchers at the Bank of England also provided estimates on the impact of Brexit on investment in the UK. Accordingly, total investment is said to have decreased by 23% in the period 2021-2022 compared to the level that could have been achieved if Brexit had not happened. Also, according to this research group, UK GDP in 2022 would have been 1.3% higher without Brexit, equivalent to 29 billion pounds. If we divide this

¹¹ How has Brexit affected business investment in the UK? Cited doc.

¹² How has Brexit affected business investment in the UK? Cited doc.

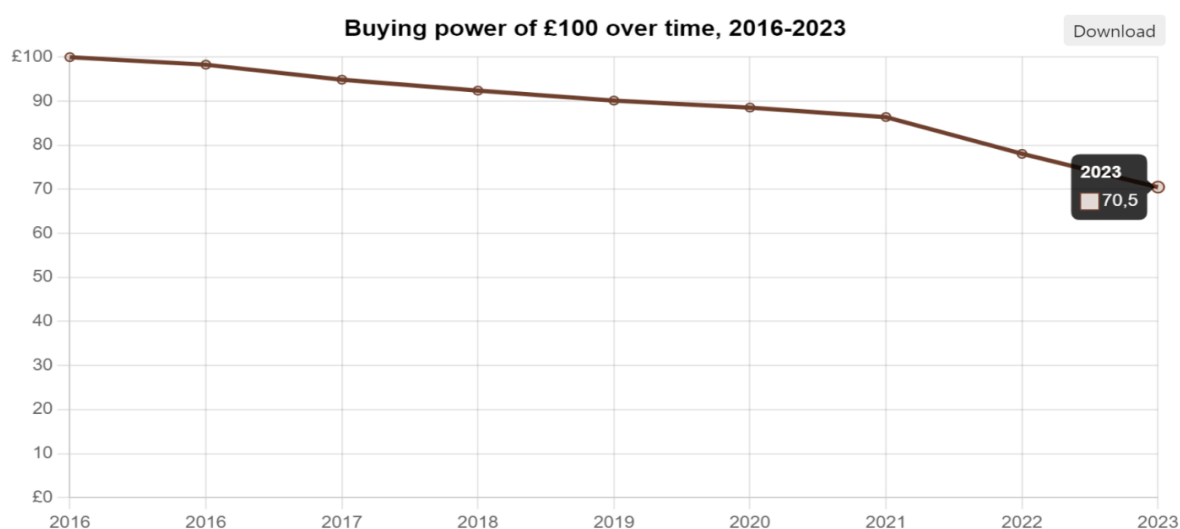
"surplus" by a total of 28 million British households, each family would have had a surplus of more than 1,000 pounds to spend in 2022. Other British Government policy implementing agencies such as the Ministry of Budget and the Bank of England and the Office for Budget Responsibility (OBR) also made similar calculations and estimates of the decline in UK productivity, exports and imports under the influence of Brexit from 2020 to present. Accordingly, the OBR predicts that by the end of this decade productivity in the UK will decrease by 4%, while exports and imports will decline by 15% under the impact of Brexit.

4. The Value of the British Pound and Exchange Rates

Since Brexit in June 2016, the exchange rate between the British Pound and other currencies has plummeted. This reflects international investors' concerns about the UK's economic prospects when it is no longer a member of the European Union (EU). Data show that from Brexit to early 2021, the Pound had lost 15% in value compared to the Euro. If compared to the value of the Pound itself in December 2015, this currency had lost up to 20% of its value¹³. As of August 2023, the value of the Pound has decreased by 28%. If this number is converted to the purchasing power of the Pound, the decrease is much larger, up to 39.42%¹⁴ (see the chart showing the purchasing power of the British Pound from 2016-2023 in Figure 5 below).

Figure 5¹⁵

Chart Illustrating the Purchasing Power of 100 British Pounds in the Period 2016-2023



In recent years, Brexit has been considered one of the main factors affecting these exchange rate fluctuations. The impact of Brexit was especially evident immediately after the results of the Brexit vote were announced, when the British pound plummeted to a record low

¹³ Coyle, C. (2021). *How has Brexit affected the value of sterling?*

<https://www.economicsobservatory.com/how-has-brexit-affected-the-value-of-sterling>

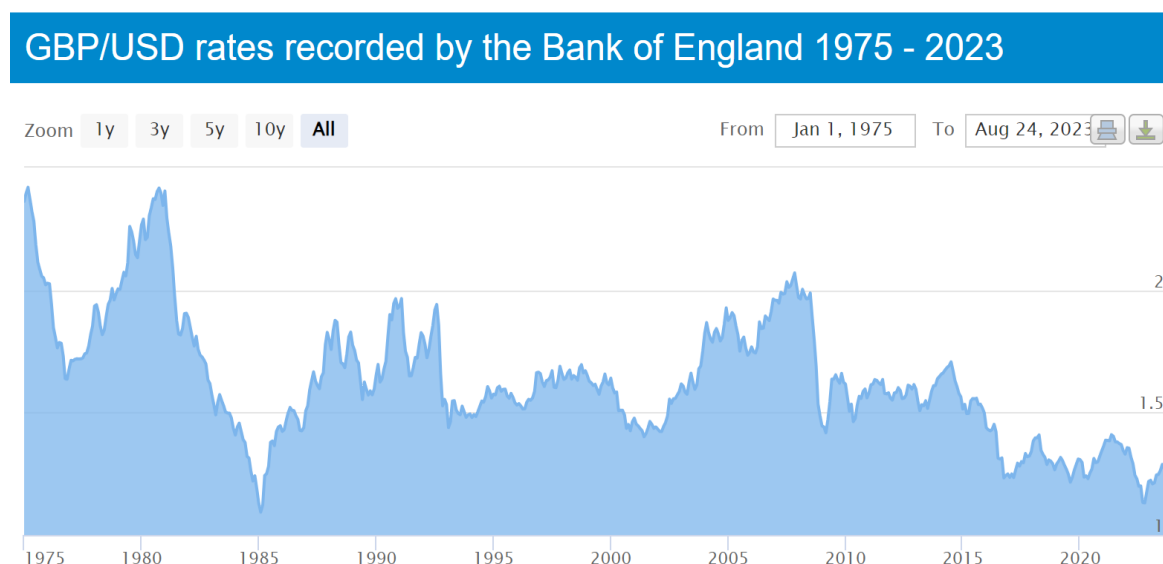
¹⁴ Webster, I. (2023). *The British pound has lost 28% its value since 2016.* <https://www.in2013dollars.com/uk/inflation/2016>. Dated 10/8/2023.

¹⁵ *The British pound has lost 28% its value since 2016.* Cited doc.

in the past 30 years. The following period also witnessed two depreciations of the Pound in 2017 and 2019 as shown in chart number 6 below¹⁶.

Figure 6¹⁷

Exchange Rate Between British Pound and US Dollar From January 1975 - August 2023



The sharp depreciation of the British Pound is said to be related to the concerns about trade disruptions between the UK and its largest partner, the EU, after Brexit. A coincidence is that the subsequent Brexit transition process (from 2016 to the end of 2020) witnessed the change of a series of Prime Ministers including David Cameron (resigned on July 13, 2016), Theresa May (resigned on July 24, 2019), and Boris Johnson (resigned on September 6, 2022). Meanwhile, issues related to the Covid-19 pandemic contributed to the coming and going of three more British Prime Ministers, including Boris Johnson and Liz Truss (resigned on October 25, 2022 after only 50 days in office); and Rishi Sunak (current British Prime Minister as dated to November, 2023). Thus, along with Brexit, the Covid-19 pandemic and the turmoil in British politics have led to the change of 5 governments with 5 different Prime Ministers within 6 years. This fact also contributes to explaining why the British Pound has become less attractive in the eyes of investors and related fields, from international trade to finance and foreign exchange. Investors are concerned that assets whose value is anchored in the pound's face value will increasingly lose value, so they have quickly sought to convert to assets or goods listed in other currencies.

As if to further contribute to the decline in the value of the Pound, from August 2016, the Bank of England decided to lower interest rates from 0.5% to 0.25% and increase the quantitative easing program (quantitative easing - QE, which means loosening the money supply or more simply known as pumping more money into the economy). This causes goods

¹⁶ Pound Sterling Live (2023). *British Pound / US Dollar Historical Reference Rates from Bank of England for 1975 to 2023*. <https://www.poundsterlinglive.com/bank-of-england-spot/historical-spot-exchange-rates/gbp/GBP-to-USD>

¹⁷ *British Pound / US Dollar Historical Reference Rates from Bank of England for 1975 to 2023*. Cited doc.

and investments to receive lower returns or lose value¹⁸. On the one hand, a fall in the value of the pound immediately leads to an increase in the price of goods and services for citizens living in the UK, making everything more expensive and pushing up inflation. On the other hand, a weaker currency in the long term will make British exports more attractive to foreign customers. However, as a country with more strengths in services than finished goods production, especially financial services like the UK, the above positive factors are difficult or less effective to promote.

5. Forecasting the UK Economic Situation in the Near Future

First of all, it must be affirmed that in the post-Brexit period, British manufacturers and suppliers of goods and services must face fierce competition with many competitors, including suppliers from the Union. European Union (EU). These competitive forces are especially difficult to overcome, because after many years in the Alliance, the two sides are familiar with each other's strengths and weaknesses. This is a fact proven in the 2020 and 2021 reports of the UK Competition and Markets Authority (CMA)¹⁹. Reports confirm that the prices of products and services of major economies such as the UK, US, and EU have increased steadily from the period 2007-2009 until now, leading to a decrease in competitiveness with Eastern countries, Asia or even other emerging economies in America and Africa.

In the context of the decline in competitiveness of British goods and services after Brexit and the Covid-19 pandemic, the UK is also under additional pressure from tariff barriers for imported goods when the Brexit issue ends the transition process at the end of 2021. Accordingly, from the beginning of 2022 until now, the UK is facing a situation where appropriate additional tariff barriers for goods imported into the UK have not yet been established. This is considered especially serious in the context of other countries around the world increasing tariff barriers after the COVID-19 pandemic to protect domestic production and prevent money flow abroad. For example, the World Trade Organization (WTO) calculates that 8.8% of G20 countries' trade is currently subjected to import restrictions, while even in the context of the 2007-2008 financial crisis, this number was only 0.7%²⁰. From this perspective, the British economy is considered to be in a weak position on both "overseas arena" and "home arena". If the situation is to improve, the UK Government, investors, product and service providers and the entire country's workforce will have to make great efforts in the coming years.

A group of experts from the independent consulting organization Resolution Foundation (London) and the Bank of England (BoE) commented that the UK will not be able to grow more than 0.7% per year in both 2023 and 2024. This is a record low growth forecast, only one quarter of the growth rate of this economy during the 2007-2008 global financial crisis. KPMG provides the UK economic growth forecast table below (see Table 1 - Statistics and Growth Forecast of the UK economy to 2030)²¹.

¹⁸ *How has Brexit affected the value of sterling?* Cited doc.

¹⁹ Pike, C. & Valletti, T. (2021). *Brexit: what are the risks and opportunities for UK competition policy?* <https://www.economicsobservatory.com/brexit-what-are-the-risks-and-opportunities-for-uk-competition-policy>. Dated 9/2/2021.

²⁰ *Brexit: what are the risks and opportunities for UK competition policy?* Cited doc.

²¹ *UK Economic Update*. Cited doc.

Table 1*Statistics and Growth Forecast of the UK Economy to 2024²²*

	2021	2022	2023	2024
Real GDP	7.6	4.1	0.3	1.1
Consumer spending	6.3	5.3	0.2	0.6
Investment	6.1	8.6	0.8	0.8
Unemployment rate	4.5	3.7	4.1	4.5
Inflation	2.6	9.1	7.7	2.9
Base interest rate	0.25	3.50	5.25	5.00

Statistical table No. 1 shows that under the influence of Brexit and Covid-19, the year 2023 will be witnessing a record low GDP level, based on a decline in both consumption and investment, while both unemployment and inflation and base interest rates all increased sharply, to 4.1%, 7.7% and 5.25%, respectively. The year 2024 is forecast to have better GDP growth but has not yet returned to pre-Brexit or pre-pandemic levels. In the vision to 2030, according to research by Huseyn Mammadov (2021)²³, the British economy is at risk of prolonged stagnation when most economic indicators remain at low or significantly low levels according to impact calculations of Brexit on the UK economy from 2018 to 2030 as shown in Table 2 below.

Table 2*Estimated Impact of Brexit on the UK Economy From 2018 to 2030²⁴*

	GDP Percent Change	Contribution of Policy Measure	Welfare Impact (GBP billions)	Contribution of Policy Measure
Tariffs	-0.947	34.33%	-19.880	28.14%
Border Costs	-1.197	43.40%	-32.526	46.04%
Goods NTBs	-0.468	16.97%	-13.310	18.84%
Services NTBs	-0.144	5.22%	-4.880	6.91%
FDI NTBs	-0.002	0.08%	-0.049	0.07%
Total	-2.759	100.00%	-70.65	100.00%
EU budget saving	0.53	19%	14.1	20%
Total incl EU budget	-2.23	81%	-55.52	80%

²² UK Economic Update. Cited doc.

²³ Mammadov, H. (2021). *The consequences of Brexit for the UK Trade and its long-run effects on the UK economy*. <http://dx.doi.org/10.13140/RG.2.2.31114.80323>

²⁴ *The consequences of Brexit for the UK Trade and its long-run effects on the UK economy*. Cited doc.

Looking from the estimate table, it can be seen that Brexit has had an impact and will continue to impact GDP as well as the general welfare of the British people in the period 2018-2030. Regarding GDP, under the impact of Brexit, the British economy decreased by 2.23% compared to the scenario without Brexit; corresponding to a decline in welfare of up to 55.52 billion Pounds overall for the entire period. In the context of the global economy falling into stagnation and risking recession after the COVID-19 pandemic, the above decline numbers have a certain warning meaning, requiring greater policy efforts to prevent the situation from getting worse.

6. The UK's Post-Brexit Economy - Some Policy Recommendations

Brexit has been proven to have a certain impact on every aspect of the British economy in the past 2016-2023 period; and is expected to have an impact on the British economy in the coming years. Challenges for the British economy arose as soon as the Brexit referendum results were announced. First, after Brexit, the participation of British companies in the EU market and vice versa has had certain disruptions or confusion due to unclear laws and market standards. If there are no early measures, this will cause fear and even withdrawal from the market to avoid future legal problems for many partners. Second, separated from the EU, a "supranational" institution that has a strong foothold in the world economy, the UK's coordination with major institutions or economies in solving development issues Global birth is certainly affected, at least from the perspective of British voice and influence. Third, there is a risk that Britain will have to "sacrifice" some of the rights of British citizens in the face of external competition challenges. As John Vickers, former Director General of the Office of Fair Trading (the forerunner of the CMA) observed that there is a risk that "public interest" – which has different meanings to different groups of people – will be resisted when it comes to competition policy²⁵. And finally, and most dangerously, Brexit could be turned into a "tax haven" when interest groups try to impose new tax laws or policies according to their wishes. While the EU-UK Cooperation Agreement was signed on December 30, 2020 and officially took effect in some areas (with conditions) from January 1, 2021 before taking full effect on May, 1, 2021²⁶ with the precise aim of preventing this scenario, more time is still needed to verify whether the Agreement's institutional arrangements are sufficient to protect EU and UK citizens from this risk or not. The conflict between efforts to protect consumers and improve Britain's competitiveness could push the British Government into a series of other major policy adjustments or changes that require unprecedented levels of effort and money like when they were in the EU; For example, the question of whether British companies should be subsidized? If so, which companies and sectors should be prioritized and what level of subsidy should be given and for how long?

Despite many difficulties, Brexit and the Covid-19 pandemic still create new premises and opportunities for the British economy. First, the UK has been making efforts to perfect institutions, legislate conditions and regulations to help stabilize and develop sustainable economic development in the new context, after the disruptions caused by both factors mentioned above. Some of the provisions or decisions of the European Court in the past have

²⁵ *Brexit: what are the risks and opportunities for UK competition policy?* Cited doc.

²⁶ Europa (2021). *The EU-UK Trade and Cooperation Agreement*. https://commission.europa.eu/strategy-and-policy/relations-non-eu-countries/relations-united-kingdom/eu-uk-trade-and-cooperation-agreement_en. Dated 30/4/2021.

been really disadvantageous to the UK, and this is the right time to refine them. For example, the European Court has allowed a high concentration of mobile phone networks in the Union, including the UK, which has been controversial because it threatens privacy and markets of health care for consumers. In fact, the UK is moving very quickly towards perfecting these legal and procedural documents. Another opportunity is that the new situation after Brexit and Covid-19 has been forcing the UK to enter "experiments" and journeys to explore new markets, alliances and new fields. A typical example is the opening of the Open Banking system, allowing the world's leading banks to interact and cooperate with each other in cyberspace while still ensuring the system's API standards.

7. Conclusions

This research article has captured the effects of Brexit and the Covid-19 pandemic on the UK's economy from 2016 to 2023. The impacts of the two significant events has been analyzed with the supports from previous research works of the same types, updated data and techniques and also the insights gained through thorough or rigorous comparisons and contrasts by the author. Main sectors of the UK's economy, namely trade, production and commodity prices, investments, exports and imports, the value of the British Pound and exchange rates, etc. have all shown a descending trend during the period mentioned of 2016-2023. The article has also attempted to envision a forecast on the UK economic situation in the near future, in which the economy has been seen as continually going down until at least to 2025, with the impacts being serious on almost the households, entrepreneurs and the administrative agents. Despite a large number of obstacles and challenges, the economy has been expected to recover soon at the end of 2025 or the beginning of 2026, provided that the governing units at both the local and the central, the residents or citizens, the entrepreneurs and all the other related agents cooperate together to surpass the hard times.

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TÌNH HÌNH KINH TẾ ANH HẬU BREXIT ĐẾN NAY

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Tóm tắt: Sau Brexit và đại dịch toàn cầu Covid 19, nước Anh đã và đang trải qua khoảng thời gian khó khăn nhất kể từ sau khủng hoảng tài chính tiền tệ thế giới 2007-2008. Năm 2019, GDP của Anh đạt mức thấp trước khi lao dốc xuống mức tăng trưởng âm hai con số vào năm đại dịch trầm trọng nhất 2020. Năm 2021 và 2022 tuy nền kinh tế có khởi sắc nhưng nếu so với “xuất phát điểm” tăng trưởng âm trước đó thì về cơ bản, nền kinh tế chưa hồi phục về mức trước đại dịch. Trong phạm vi bài viết này, tác giả tập trung nghiên cứu tình hình kinh tế Anh thời kỳ hậu Brexit đến nay, nhận diện các nguyên nhân dẫn đến tình trạng suy thoái nghiêm trọng của nền kinh tế Anh trong những năm qua. Bài viết cũng phân tích các tác động trực tiếp và gián tiếp của tiến trình Brexit và đại dịch Covid-19 đối với kinh tế Anh hiện nay, đồng thời đưa ra các dự báo về triển vọng của nền kinh tế Anh trong thời gian tới.

Từ khóa: kinh tế Anh, hậu Brexit, triển vọng, thương mại, đầu tư

BOOK REVIEW

ENGLISH MEDIUM INSTRUCTION PRACTICES IN VIETNAMESE UNIVERSITIES - INSTITUTIONAL, PRACTITIONER AND STUDENT PERSPECTIVES

Editors: Min Pham & Jenny Barnett

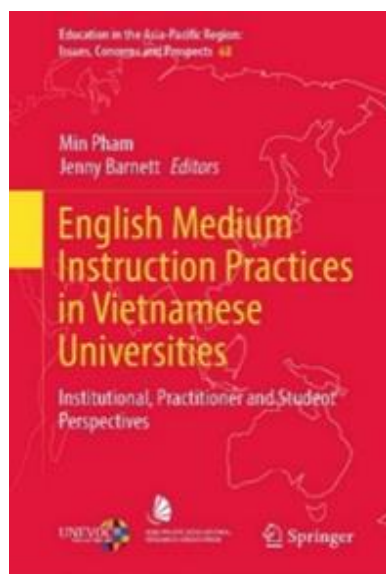
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In the context of internationalization in all aspects of life, the dominance of English as a global lingua franca has been widely affirmed. This trend contributes to the expansion of English as a Medium of Instruction (EMI), which allows an increasing adoption of English in teaching specialized knowledge in countries or jurisdictions where the official language is not English (Pun & Jin, 2021). The transition to implement EMI at the tertiary level has become a global phenomenon that has witnessed significant development over the last two decades (Galloway & Sahan, 2021).

There have been several studies investigating the challenges and benefits of EMI programs across the world; however, not much literature can be found about EMI implementation experiences and practices in Vietnam. The book entitled “**English Medium Instruction Practices in Vietnamese Universities - Institutional, Practitioner and Student Perspectives**” takes the spotlight of one among very few focusing on EMI practices in Vietnamese higher education, addressing institutional, practitioner, and student perspectives. It makes itself different from the others in supplying guidance and practical information for universities’ EMI policymakers, rector boards, lecturers, and student support teams in English for academic purposes across disciplines, as well as to the theoretical framing of EMI field itself.

This book, as the first collection dealing with aspects of EMI in Vietnam, is a collection of sixteen chapters presented under three parts. Following Chapter 1, which introduces the

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book, Part 1 (consisting of Chapters 2, 3, 4, and 5) entitled “Institutional Perspectives on EMI Practices in Vietnamese Universities” provides a backdrop and frame of reference for the other two parts. Part 2 (Chapters 5 to 11) named “Practitioner Perspectives on EMI Practices in Vietnamese Universities” presents the practitioner's perceptions of designing and teaching EMI courses that support the students to achieve the required content goals. Part 3 (Chapters 12, 13, and 14) – Student Perspectives on EMI Practices in Vietnamese Universities – addresses the importance of students’ experiences and insights as a source of input to policies and practices for moving forward with EMI. The content of each of these chapters will be provided below.

Chapter 1 gives a holistic view of the book's aims, making it a valuable resource for successful EMI implementation not only inside Vietnam but also in other Asian settings. The chapter then restates a standard definition of EMI and briefly reviews EMI as a pedagogical innovation internationally, regionally, and domestically. Three types of EMI programs offered in Vietnamese universities namely Joint Programs, Advanced Programs, and High-Quality Programs are also mentioned and distinguished based on the legal basis of the foundation and requirements. The chapter ends with an explanation of the book’s structure and an overview of sixteen chapters organized into three parts covering institutional, practitioner and student perspectives on EMI practices.

Chapter 2 opens Part 1 with an overall picture of the development of EMI in Vietnamese universities through the theoretical lens of the ROAD-MAPPING framework established by Dafouz and Smit (2016), which is specially designed for the analysis of English-Medium Education in Multilingual University Settings (EMEMUS). In the beginning, the author, also one of the book’s editors, introduces the uses and structure of the ROAD-MAPPING framework. The interrelations of the six dimensions called Roles of English (RO), Academic Disciplines (AD), (Language) Management (M), Agents (A), Practices and Processes (PP), and Internationalization and Globalization (ING) are also highlighted and illustrated. Together the dimensions conform to the framework as a valuable tool for moving EMI forward in Vietnam. The remaining contents of the chapter focus on analyzing the historical development of EMI in Vietnamese higher education using the ROAD-MAPPING framework. All the factors and agents associated with EMI implementation are explored according to each of the dimensions at national, institutional, and individual levels. It can be concluded from the chapter that the divergence of the agency during the implementation of EMI programs in Vietnam is attributed to several factors that have effects at all levels.

Chapter 3 delves into the challenges of EMI implementation at a university in Danang and places the focus on investigating the impacts of the threefold EMI enhancement practices of non-curricular, curricular, and extra-curricular approaches on the EMI students’ English capacity, self-confidence, and motivation. By employing a longitudinal case study, the research results show that the practices of the threefold positively improve students’ EMI experiences, which is of great significance and sets the base for expanding the models to a larger scale in the university.

Chapter 4 provides insight into the matter of EMI teachers’ job satisfaction through a qualitative case study carried out at a university in Vietnam. The study aims to investigate the factors influencing EMI teachers’ job satisfaction utilizing Hagedorn’s (2000) framework with an additional factor proposed by the researchers. The findings indicate the mediators influencing EMI teachers’ job satisfaction at the university function as both motivators and hygienes, of which the hygienes are more numerous than the motivators. Based on the results, recommendations are made for appropriate policy development and timely support from

institutions to maximize the effectiveness of EMI programs at higher education institutions in Vietnam. The study can be regarded as the gap filler in vast research on EMI implementation with little attention paid to exploring EMI teachers' job satisfaction.

Chapter 5 reviews the three previous chapters of the Part that show the real experiences of EMI implementation in Vietnam universities. The importance of institutional preparation, consultation and support is highlighted as the core of the chapter. The commenter indicates that the top-down nature of decision-making in the Vietnamese context serves to widen the disconnect between the government's understandable desire to internationalize education and the practical needs of the institutions and stakeholders. The chapter ends with a list of questions that need to be answered by the authorities at the national, institutional, and departmental levels before implementing EMI programs.

Chapter 6 provides an interesting window into what really happened inside and outside the class of EMI programs offered at a multidiscipline university in Vietnam. By deploying an exploratory study with the data sources triangulated, compared, contrasted, and synthesized, the authors explore various teaching strategies adopted by the lecturers to facilitate the student's learning and engagement and the students' positive reflections on the usefulness of the practices. Although the research results cannot be generalized due to the study's small scale, they can serve as a helpful reference for EMI practitioners and institutional authorities in similar educational contexts.

Chapter 7 shows another picture of an Advanced Program at Da Nang University where the researcher-practitioner successfully adopted the key principles of the Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) approach in a single course. The researchers also make a succinct distinction between CLIL and EMI and then highlight the benefits of the CLIL-ised approaches. The students' uniformly high evaluation of the course activities and project shows that the lesson activities and the project CLIL-ised practices can help achieve teaching for deeper learning.

Chapter 8 explores the use of first language (L1) in EMI teaching practices in some universities across Vietnam because of the top-down management model regardless of the voice of EMI lecturers and the lack of explicit policy guidelines about the use of L1 in EMI classrooms. Although it cannot be denied that L1 is inevitable in second-language classrooms from the historical views and literature review, the study reveals different views on its use by lecturers and students. Despite the top-down institutional language policy, the lecturers in this study acted actively in their EMI teaching practices since they were aware of the opportunities for their own professional development. However, what has been done is somehow a different story in the hope of offering the best possible ways of supporting their students to achieve the course objectives without adjusting the course content. At the end of the chapter, the researcher suggests several implications for university managers and EMI lecturers for a better move toward EMI.

Chapter 9 goes into another deep teaching practice using translanguaging in EMI classrooms. The term "translanguaging" is clearly explained in its development and promotion thanks to its strengths in English as a foreign language (EFL) classrooms. This qualitative study, of which the participants are the two teachers of English to non-English major students, provides new insights into EMI lecturers' utilization and perceptions of translanguaging in their teaching practices. The researcher shows that the lecturers have flexible strategies for applying translanguaging inside and outside class to support students' learning process and build rapport with them. The research results set the base for some implications for policy planners and

teacher professional development and training in relation to moving forward pedagogically with EMI.

Chapter 10 discusses the aspects of assessment in EMI practices at a public university in Vietnam aiming at providing several types of assessment employed, the reasons for their employment and the students' views on their effectiveness. The students' difficulties in participating in EMI lessons and both the advantages and disadvantages of the assessment types are also examined in the chapter. The findings reveal that the activities of assessment for and of learning practices in the EMI courses are limited and depend on individual teachers' professional competence. Most of the assessment methods applied in EMI classes are the same as those of Vietnamese Medium Instruction lessons in terms of the content complexity and test format and not all the students are quite satisfied with the test results.

Chapter 11 showcases an overview of the five constituent chapters on EMI practitioners' perspectives. It highlights the core of the research-based chapters and makes it easier to catch the points of EMI implementation in Vietnam where there may still be a lack of readiness for EMI. The commenter suggests that to move EMI forward and effectively contribute to Vietnamese society with "competitiveness, prosperity, and international engagement," a static picture of EMI should become situated and accommodated to the context-specific needs.

Chapter 12 opens Part 3 with a study on students' views and experiences of EMI policies and curricula, and classroom activities by exploiting in-depth interviews with the participants. The findings show that although the students completed the first year of English tuition as the preparation period, they were shocked in moving to the second year with a focus on learning content without any language support. Before EMI lessons, the lecturers provided them with PPT slides and topic-related Vietnamese videos; however, they still had to struggle to comprehend. Consequently, translanguaging was used as a solution. Besides, the students spent a huge amount of time reading related Vietnamese books and materials and searching for videos in L1 after class. The chapter contributes to raising a voice to assure the importance of close relationships between institutional decisions and the role of lecturers and learners as agents regarding moving forward with EMI.

Chapter 13 shifts the focus to students' learning experiences in a provincial university where most of the students come from different areas and have little exposure to English outside class. The research was done in a single EMI course, also the first EMI course experienced by the participants. By employing a mixed method, the research shows that although the students faced a lot of challenges during the course due to their limited English proficiency and exposure, the course was greatly beneficial to them in terms of content knowledge and English improvement. It is noteworthy that scaffolding among the students in collaborative working can result in enhancing English language use. Besides, learner diaries were seen to be helpful for the students and lecturers to track the learners' improvement in both their content acquisition, teaching skills and English levels. In addition, once again, the use of L1 during the EMI course was traced for the best support to the students and proved to be useful in mediating knowledge construction. The findings of the research propose pedagogical implications for moving forward with EMI in Vietnamese universities, especially those in difficult areas.

Chapter 14 reveals students' difficulties in doing EMI courses and their strategies in response to those difficulties. The data analyzed under six themes such as listening comprehension, grasping academic content, workload, assessment, speaking in English and teaching methods gives full details of how the students struggled with their EMI courses. The

research implies that the causes of the difficulties are both intrinsic and extrinsic. Accordingly, the students had to adapt themselves to a variety of strategies to cope with the obstacles both personal and interpersonal before class, during class and after class. Although the so-called approaches indicate the students' sense of responsibility for finding the solutions themselves, it seems that they are not aware of their rights or responsibility in making their voice in calling for institutional actions to improve EMI offerings. The implicit feedback from this study of student perspectives suggests several implications for moving forward with EMI covering all the parts of the stakeholders and for further research.

Chapter 15 comments on the key issues of three chapters of Part 3 in terms of socio-ecological perspective at the macro, meso and micro levels. At each level, from the reflection of the three research-based chapters, the commenter gives her main insights into the student's problems and challenges they faced in doing EMI courses and then highlights the implications which are of excellent value for those most directly affected in moving forward with EMI. The utilization of a wide range of qualitative methods by the researchers is also highly appreciated in this commentary since they help to uncover not only the cognitive but also the affective experiences of the students. It can be learned from this commentary that Vietnamese universities have been grasping effective models to initiate and maintain EMI. Though the journey is very much in progress, this proposes a need for more priority on investigating the students' experiences and the lecturers' professional development.

Chapter 16 brings the key themes presented in the previous chapters into a review and meta-analysis using the ROAD-MAPPING Framework (Dafouz & Smit, 2016). The chapter begins with the introduction of a newly emerged term called EME (English-Medium Education), of which the concept of "education" is much broader and more learner-centered than "instruction" (Dafouz & Smit, 2020). It is argued that the important perspectives presented in the previous chapters show a closer alignment with the EME approach because of the promotion of students' content learning as the key concern as well as the importance of institutional, practitioners and student agency that illustrates many features of EME approach in Vietnamese higher education. As an illustration of the point, the following sections of the chapter focus on analyzing the reported studies of the previous chapters using the six dimensions of the ROAD-MAPPING framework and the EME principles they associate with each dimension. Interestingly, in each section under a ROAD-MAPPING framework's dimension, after summarizing and analyzing related key points of the previous chapters, the editors propose potential ways that the EME approach could be applied and help to address the existing problems. Finally, it is strongly recommended that an EME approach should be adopted at all levels – from national policy to classroom interaction, contributing to the sustainable and effective development of EMI and the internationalization of higher education in Vietnam.

One of the book's strengths is the collection of diversified research methods, making it a valuable source for novice researchers or those who are confused with their research designs and methods in the field of EMI. Almost all types of research designs can be found in the book such as Case study (Chapters 3, 7, 14), Qualitative research (Chapters 4, 8, 9, 12), Mixed-method (Chapter 10), Exploratory study (Chapter 6), and Practitioner-researcher research (Chapter 13). The researchers enhance their studies' reliability and validity by exploiting triangulated data sources. The data generation methods are also of common use such as student and lecturer interviews, classroom observation, questionnaire surveys, and pre and post-tests. Of these, student and lecturer interviews are the most frequently used in the chapters since this is one of the best ways that facilitate access to participants' sense of agency in EMI, by eliciting

insights into how practitioners and students see their own actions and the reasons for them.

As a novice researcher attempting to study EMI for the first time, personally, this book is a great reference for me and my Ph.D. dissertation in this field. There are many reasons why I feel I have been so lucky to have access to it. Firstly, the book is reader-friendly and well written and structured, making it easy for the readers to understand EMI development and implementation in higher education in Vietnam where EMI is becoming an increasingly common phenomenon but with little literature. Secondly, the threefold design of the book according to the three associated aspects of EMI implementation named institutional perspectives, practitioner perspectives, and student perspectives enables the flexibility for the readers to choose to read in any order of their need. Thirdly, the commentary concluding each part of the book is written by an international scholar whose name is widely seen in EMI-related research and practices. They are Andy Kirkpatrick (Part 1), Marta Aguilar-Pérez (Part 2), and Anne Burns (Part 3). The commentaries present the outsider's comments on the issues addressed in the chapters and share the voice for implications for more successful EMI implementation in Vietnamese universities under diversified contexts. In addition to this, they offer the readers opportunities to refer back to the key points of the previous chapters and draw important lessons from the cases. Fourthly, theoretically, the book offers an excellent explanation of the ROAD-MAPPING framework as the frame for the review of EMI in Vietnam universities and the suggestion for a pedagogical transition from EMI to EME, which really interests me and makes me decide this will be a valuable guideline for my Ph.D. dissertation. Lastly, methodologically, it is noteworthy that the book can function as a “how-to” guide for an inexperienced researcher like me in EMI. There is so much to learn about the research design and data collection tools in response to the research aims and objectives in EMI research and practices in Vietnam.

In conclusion, the book “English Medium Instruction Practices in Vietnamese Universities – Institutional, Practitioner and Student Perspectives” successfully achieves its purpose of providing a resource for the effective implementation of EMI programs and courses in Vietnam and other Asian settings. It has a clear pedagogical significance and suggests particular directions for moving forward with EMI, which serves as an informative source of reference for all stakeholders of EMI in similar educational contexts.

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METHODS IN PRAGMATICS

Editors: Andreas H. Jucker, Klaus P. Schneider & Wolfram Bublitz

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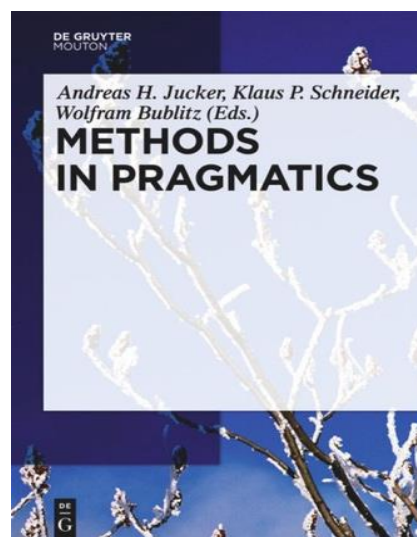
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1. Introduction

Pragmatics is undeniably a huge and diversified branch of linguistics. There has been an increasingly wide variety of specialized publications, textbooks, and guidebooks that attest to its significance and growing influence. *Methods in Pragmatics* is Volume 10 of the series *Handbooks of Pragmatics*, which has been divided into fourteen separate books, and it offers a thorough review of the entire area of pragmatics. The fourteen volumes of the series are organized in a rather logical manner. More concretely, Volumes 1, 2, and 3 cover the fundamentals of pragmatics, highlighting both micro and macro units of analysis. In detail, starting from the *Foundations* (Volume 1), the series continues to elaborate on the rudimentary pragmatic concepts, speech acts (micro-level in volume 2), and discourses (macro-level in volume 3). The six subsequent volumes aim at providing an insight into the field from varied perspectives, including cognitive (volume 4), societal (volume 5), interactional (volume 6), cultural and contrastive (volume 7), diachronic (volume 8), and medial (volume 9). Volume 10 centers on the methodological side of the field, whereas volumes 11, 12, and 13 emphasize the socio-medial, fictional, developmental and clinical aspects of the field respectively. Besides, more recently, with the title *Pragmatics of Space*, Volume 14 seeks to give a thorough picture of how language is utilized in terms of space and how language use is configured spatially.

The series is distinguished by two overarching goals, as pinpointed by Jucker et al. (2018, pp. v-vi). To begin with, it aims to shed light on the discipline by introducing thorough articles addressing the field's major and diverse theories and methodologies, as well as key components and themes unique to pragmatics, such as the inspection of language use in social settings. Second, while acknowledging the intricacy and richness of the field, the series works towards proposing a defined framework that provides consistency to the entire



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area of pragmatics and guidance to the readers of these reference books.

The goal of this volume, *Methods in Pragmatics*, is to provide an account of the whole range of research methods adopted in pragmatics presently. It is the complete antithesis of opinionated commitment to a particular methodological approach, a single method of theory, or a specific kind of data scrutiny. The volume serves to offer credible directional synopses of research methodologies in Pragmatics that are valuable to both students and much more senior academics and instructors working in the realm of Pragmatics research.

2. Discussion

The book launches into three articles (constituting Part 1 - Introduction) that cover the fundamentals of every pragmatic study. It provides general reviews of data categories, data gathering methodologies and ethics, and alternative ways of transcribing speech. The volume's second section (Part 2 - Introspectional Pragmatics) contains examinations of what is termed "introspectional pragmatics." Current pragmatic research is primarily empirical; however, significant work is still being conducted within this research tradition, which traces its origins to some of the field's early major figures, philosophers of language John L. Austin, John Searle, and H. Paul Grice. The book's final three sections are concerned with empirical models of pragmatic studies. Part 3 (Experimental Pragmatics) encompasses summaries of pragmatic research experimental approaches, including discourse completion tasks, comprehension tasks, and psycholinguistic production tasks. Part 4 (Observational Pragmatics) examines methods that centre on generally relatively small data sets, such as ethnomethodology, conversation analysis, or discourse analysis, whereas Part 5 (Corpus Pragmatics) discusses the approaches that rely on considerably larger samples and typically utilize computer tools for pragmatic analysis.

The book emphasizes the essence of data as the cornerstone of pragmatic research, rejecting the common rigid reasoning. It transcends the mindset of many linguists who are inclined to promote their own theoretical framework while rejecting that of others and stating only one data type is valid. The book highlights the broad array of data and data procurement methods. Instead of limiting data to the common core variability, the source of all data categories that may be evaluated is the entire complexity and diversity of language use. As a result, the handbook's approach is oriented to the diversity of issues, research strategies, and frameworks.

The first part's three chapters expose the readers to the underlying presumptions indicated above, the fundamental data types, the key techniques, and the transcription procedure. Andreas H. Jucker (Chapter 1 - "Data in pragmatic research", pp. 3-36) makes the analytical units clear. The basic units are stated to be utterances, while both smaller units (including deictic elements, stance markers, discourse markers, hedges, and pragmatic noise) and bigger ones (such as "discourse" and "text" of whichever sense) are also explored. Four dimensions of observational data are highlighted after reviewing the media of transformation (spoken versus written language, online data, sign language data and data of nonverbal behavior). Klaus P. Schneider provides an overview of the data-gathering approaches used in pragmatics in Chapter 2 - "Methods and Ethics of Data Collection" (pp. 37-93). The author carefully examines the wide range of methodologies and draws a conclusion in line with the main principles of the book: "[...] there is no best method as such, even though some researchers may claim that the method they have chosen is generally superior to other methods. [...] A best method does not exist because each and every method has its specific strengths and

weaknesses [...]” (p. 80). The author’s highlighted ethical principles center on the researchers’ duty to the respondents in a multitude of ways: the respondents’ permission, their welfare, privacy, and autonomy, along with legal considerations, are the elements that must never be disregarded. Next, “The art of transcription: Systems and methodological issues” is the topic of Chapter 3 of Part 1 by Roger J. Kreuz and Monica A. Riordan, which is devoted to discussing transcription methods (pp. 95-120). In this chapter, the authors clarify that “there is no universal transcription system that will be suitable for all researchers and all research questions” (p. 95). The analysis illustrates which transcribing procedures can be used for which purpose by depicting a detailed image of the array of those procedures.

Beginning with Wolfram Bublitz’s introductory chapter (Chapter 4, pp. 123-131), Part 2 of the volume is unfolded to the readers with the title “Introspectional Pragmatics”. Chapter 4 outlines the approach of introspection, which is conceptualized as essentially deductive, and distinguishes it from the inductive methods of experimentation and observation as well as corpus research. The chapter also provides an overview of the important notions and connections between the final three chapters in this section. As a result of this introduction to the introspective technique, Marina Sbisà provides a summary of philosophical pragmatics in Chapter 5 (pp. 133-153). She briefly summarizes the contributions of Austin and Grice to pragmatics and delves into the major themes of speech act theory as it was elaborated by Bach, Harnish, and Searle. She gives a segment to introduce Recanati’s contextualism and Stalnaker’s influence on the growth of pragmatics. In Chapter 6, “Research technique in classical and neo-Gricean pragmatics” (pp. 155-183), Yan Huang explains the reasons why introspection appears to have evolved into an effective research methodology in Gricean and neo-Gricean pragmatics. The author explains this methodology’s upsides and downsides while also demonstrating how experimentation and verified data interact with introspection. In the subsequent chapter (Chapter 7 - “Cognitive pragmatics: Relevance-theoretic technique”, pp. 185-215), Billy Clark separates the evolution of relevance theory into three stages from the perspective of the prevalent data type. In the initiation stage, intuitions acted as the primary source of data. The emergence of experimental pragmatics throughout the 1990s of the previous century marked the beginning of the second stage. Although more data types are taken into account in the third stage of the relevance-theoretic investigation, introspective and experimental data continue to be the focus of inquiry. Following the discussion of the major concerns of introspectional pragmatics, the book progresses with Parts 3-5, which shift focus to empirical methodologies utilized in pragmatic research.

Klaus P. Schneider makes a distinction between “experimental” and “experimental pragmatics” in the introduction chapter to Part 3 (Chapter 8 - “Experimental Pragmatics”, pp. 219-228). In detail, the latter is a broader concept that encompasses experimental procedures grounded in a range of other traditions, in contrast to the former, which is confined to the method used by relevance theory (“Xprag”). Similarly to what Bublitz does in the preceding section, Schneider also presents an outline of the subsequent chapters. “Discourse completion tasks”, which are adapted to the gathering of data originating primarily from contextually diversified cross-linguistic speech acts, are one of the methodologies falling within the purview of the wide concept of experimental pragmatics. Eva Ogierman summarizes many aspects of this data elicitation approach in Chapter 9 - “Discourse completion tasks” (pp. 229-255) and contrasts it with other data elicitation methods as well as data that naturally occurs in the world. In Chapter 10 - “Assessing the comprehension of pragmatic language: Sentence judgment tasks” (pp. 257-279), Alma Veenstra and Napoleon Katsos employ instances from the publications on scalar implicatures to display how sentence judgment tasks operate. In these

tasks, sentence judgments are based on binary scales, for instance, “correctness” versus “incorrectness.” In addition to highlighting its benefits, the writers also bring attention to its drawbacks and analyze substitutes to this paradigm, which assists them in making a detailed portrayal of how this strategy can be used. The potential of experimental psycholinguistics to study pragmatic language production is outlined by Raymond W. Gibbs in Chapter 11 - “Psycholinguistic production tasks” (pp. 281-303). The chapter demonstrates, among other things, that pragmatic language production involves the participation of both speakers and listeners and is not an autonomous process. J. César Félix-Brasdefer explores the use of role-playing in cross-cultural and interlanguage pragmatics in the final chapter of Part 3 (Chapter 12 - “Role play” pp. 305-331). The author draws several conclusions, including the fact that role-play data should be regarded as trustworthy because they reveal a learner’s sociopragmatic and pragmalinguistic understanding in face-to-face or telephone interactions.

The fundamental principles of observational pragmatics are presented in Part 4's introduction by Andreas H. Jucker (Chapter 13, pp. 335-342). It divides analyses into qualitative (small sets of data, such as transcriptions of audio or video recordings) and quantitative (huge sets of digital data), focusing on the former in the present section. The author highlights the main points of subsequent chapters after defining “naturally occurring” data and separating it from “researcher-driven data.” Characterizing the ethnographic paradigm is addressed by Meredith Marra and Mariana Lazzaro-Salazar in Chapter 14 (“Ethnographic approaches in pragmatics”, pp. 343-366). They detail the theoretical underpinnings of ethnography, the salient characteristics of pragmatics-based ethnographic approaches, as well as the data-gathering and analyzing tools exclusive to these methodologies. They also assess the pluses and minuses of each methodology. In the following chapter (Chapter 15 - “Ethnomethodology and conversation analysis”, pp. 367–394), Andrea Golato and Peter Golato examine ethnomethodological conversation analysis. The chapter not only provides an overview of this trend’s approach but also encapsulates sociology’s historical setting at the time it emerged. The chapter also offers a forecast on the potential directions for additional study. Discourse analysis is the main topic of Anita Fetzer’s chapter (Chapter 16 - “Discourse analysis”, pp. 396-423). Following the detailed analyses of the micro, meso, and macro units of discourse, coupled with the dialectical relationships between them, and the portrayal of the framework for research, the chapter comes to a conclusion that “[i]rrespective of methodology and research framework, the fundamental questions of (1) granularity regarding micro, meso, and macro discourse units and (2) the nature of the connectedness between their constitutive parts remain a challenge.” (p. 418). Piotr Cap covers critical discourse analysis in Chapter 17, entitled “Critical Discourse Analysis” (pp. 425-451). The chapter entails the schools and models associated with this tendency and explains how they integrate into trends influencing the recent advancements in corpus studies, pragmatics, and cognitive linguistics. It also provides a case study that illustrates how the legitimisation - proximisation model fits within the field of critical discourse analysis.

Unlike Part 4, which concentrates on qualitative methods within observational pragmatics, Part 5 provides an overview of quantitative methods within corpus studies. The introduction by Andreas H. Jucker (pp. 355-366) outlines the fundamental characteristics of large-scale studies whose goal is to identify generalizations through the investigation of electronic corpora. The key finding is that “the tension between such large-scale generalizations and the goal of paying attention to the minute details of each individual occurrence remains a leitmotif in all the chapters of part 5” (p. 464). Gisle Anderson’s chapter (Chapter 19 - “Corpus construction”, pp. 467-494) covers a variety of topics, including form- and function-based

pragmatics techniques, corpus-based versus corpus-driven studies, and other themes. By doing so, the author examines the chosen procedures that lead to various styles of corpus formation and briefly discusses how the decisions have an impact. Dawn Archer and Jonathan Culpeper suggest in Chapter 20 - "Corpus annotation" (pp. 495-525) that pragmatic annotation has a lot of untapped potentials. Future opportunities for corpus annotation in pragmatics are outlined in the final section. The methodologies of pragmatics are broadened by the historical perspective in the following chapter (Chapter 21 - "Historical Corpus Pragmatics", pp. 527-553). Irma Taavitsainen highlights both the shortcomings and the accomplishments of historical corpus pragmatics and touches on emerging trends. She also discloses discrepancies between the methodologies of historical approaches to corpus pragmatics and pragmatic investigations into contemporary corpus data. Karin Aijmer makes the case for the necessity of combining corpus findings with a dialogic understanding of the interaction in Chapter 22 - "Corpus Pragmatics: From Form to Function" (pp. 555-585). However, this necessitates the investigation of the roles of a variety of pragmatic elements as well as spoken corpora for a wide range of languages. By starting from the function rather than the form, Anne O'Keeffe's Chapter 23, "Corpus-based function-to-form approaches" (pp. 587-618) explores the potential for analyzing pragmatic phenomena by adopting function-to-form techniques. In the final chapter of the book, Chapter 24, titled "Corpus-based Metapragmatics", Michael Haugh discusses corpus-based methods for "*the ways in which we display awareness of our use of language through the various ways in which we use language to refer to our use of language*" (p. 619).

Each chapter is distinguished by flexibility, openness toward various approaches, ideas, and methodologies as well as the appreciation of the positives of the methodological diversity of the discipline, in conformity with both its own underlying assumptions and the larger methodological setting. These issues can be rendered much more evident by the frequent cross-references across the chapters. The introduction chapters for parts of the volume persuasively trigger the chapters' themes and weave them into a logical unity.

It does not seem that the volume constantly flows well from cover to cover despite the editors' best attempts to arrange the chapters and tie the sections to the introductory text. Several themes may inevitably reappear in the writings of different authors, and the theoretical explanation that accompanies them is frequently duplicated with very little modification. With the number of theoretical digressions, repetitions, and reopened issues taken into account, the book might have been made much shorter while still fulfilling the editors' stated goals to a great degree.

3. Conclusion

Methods in Pragmatics offers a comprehensive review of the various kinds of data, data gathering techniques, and data analysis techniques utilized in pragmatic research. It provides well-founded and thorough overviews of the full range of approaches. The book features reliable overviews of pragmatic research methodology, presents introspectional and empirical data gathering and analysis techniques, and provides in-depth characterizations of corpus creation, annotation, and retrieval of data in corpus pragmatic research.

The book is insightful and encouraging in many regards, including the variety and viability of pragmatics' methodologies and the readers' ability to engage in pragmatic investigations in a skilled, adaptable, but productive, and positive manner. The handbook is without a doubt one of the most notable contemporary developments in pragmatics. Professional linguists and linguistics students should not be hesitant to refer to and employ this

fundamental work through their research and studies.

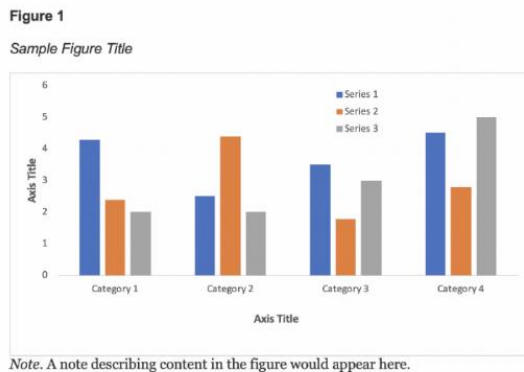
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THẺ LỆ GỬI BÀI

- 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.*
- Bài gửi đăng cần trích dẫn ÍT NHẤT 01 bài đã đăng trên Tạp chí Nghiên cứu nước ngoài.
- 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.
- 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.
- 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:



- 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
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Row 1	3.6	.49	9.2	1.02	69.9***	.12
Row 2	2.4	.67	10.1	.08	42.7***	.23
Row 3	1.2	.78	3.6	.46	53.9***	.34
Row 4	0.8	.93	4.7	.71	21.1***	.45

*** $p < .01$.

7. Quy cách trích dẫn: Các tài liệu, nội dung được trích dẫn trong bài báo và phần tài liệu tham khảo cần phải được **trình bày theo APA7** (vui lòng tham khảo trang web: <https://apastyle.apa.org/style-grammar-guidelines> hoặc hướng dẫn của Tạp chí trên trang web <https://jfs.ulis.vnu.edu.vn/index.php/fs/about/submissions>)

8. Bản thảo xin gửi đến website của Tạp chí tại <https://jfs.ulis.vnu.edu.vn/>. Tòa soạn không trả lại bản thảo nếu bài không được đăng. Tác giả chịu hoàn toàn trách nhiệm trước pháp luật về nội dung bài viết và xuất xứ tài liệu trích dẫn.

MẪU TRÌNH BÀY BỐ CỤC CỦA MỘT BÀI VIẾT TIÊU ĐỀ BÀI BÁO

(bằng tiếng Anh và tiếng Việt, in hoa, cỡ chữ: 16,
giãn dòng: single, căn lề: giữa)

Tên tác giả (cỡ 13)*

Tên cơ quan / trường đại học (cỡ 10, in nghiêng)
Địa chỉ cơ quan / trường đại học (cỡ 10, in nghiêng)

Tóm tắt: Tóm tắt bằng tiếng Anh và tiếng Việt, không quá 250 từ, cỡ chữ: 11

Từ khóa: Không quá 5 từ, cỡ chữ: 11

Phần nội dung chính của bài báo thường bao gồm các phần sau:

1. Đặt vấn đề

2. Mục tiêu

3. Cơ sở lý thuyết

3.1. ...

3.2.

4. Phương pháp nghiên cứu

4.1. ...

4.2. ...

5. Kết quả nghiên cứu

6. Thảo luận

7. Kết luận và khuyến nghị

Lời cảm ơn (nếu có)

Tài liệu tham khảo

Phụ lục (nếu có)

*ĐT.: (Số của tác giả liên hệ)

Email: (Email của tác giả liên hệ)