



TẠP CHÍ

NGHIÊN CỨU NƯỚC NGOÀI

VNU JOURNAL OF FOREIGN STUDIES

TRƯỜNG ĐẠI HỌC NGOẠI NGỮ - ĐẠI HỌC QUỐC GIA HÀ NỘI
VNU UNIVERSITY OF LANGUAGES AND INTERNATIONAL STUDIES

ISSN 2525-2445

Vol. 40 - No. 1
2024

TẠP CHÍ NGHIÊN CỨU NƯỚC NGOÀI

Vol. 40 - No.1

Giá: 120.000đ

TẠP CHÍ NGHIÊN CỨU NƯỚC NGOÀI

VNU JOURNAL OF FOREIGN STUDIES

ISSN 2525-2445

Xuất bản 01 kỳ/02 tháng

Ấn phẩm của **Tạp chí Nghiên cứu Nước ngoài**, Trường Đại học Ngoại ngữ, Đại học Quốc gia Hà Nội. Bản quyền đã được bảo hộ. Nghiêm cấm mọi hình thức sao chép, lưu trữ, phổ biến thông tin nếu chưa được **Tạp chí Nghiên cứu Nước ngoài** cho phép bằng văn bản. Tuy nhiên, việc sao chép độc bản các bài báo nhằm mục đích học tập hoặc nghiên cứu có thể không cần xin phép. Việc sao chép các hình ảnh minh họa và trích đoạn bài báo phải được sự đồng ý của tác giả và phải dẫn nguồn đầy đủ. Việc sao chép số lượng lớn bất kỳ nội dung nào của tạp chí đều phải được **Tạp chí Nghiên cứu Nước ngoài** cho phép theo đúng qui định của pháp luật Việt Nam.

Published by the **VNU Journal of Foreign Studies**, University of Languages and International Studies, Vietnam National University, Hanoi. All rights reserved. No part of this publication may be reproduced, stored in a retrieval system or transmitted in any form or by any means, electronic, mechanical, photocopying, recording or otherwise without the written permission of the **VNU Journal of Foreign Studies**. However, single photocopies of single articles may be made for private study or research. Illustrations and short extracts from the text of individual contributions may be copied provided that the source is acknowledged, the permission of the authors is obtained and the **VNU Journal of Foreign Studies** is notified. Multiple copying is permitted by the **VNU Journal of Foreign Studies** in accordance with the Vietnamese Laws.

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

Tổng biên tập/Editor-in-Chief

Lâm Quang Đông

Hội đồng biên tập/Editorial Council

Lâm Quang Đông (*Chủ tịch/Chairman*)

Walter Bisang

Mai Ngọc Chừ

Nguyễn Văn Hiệp

Nguyễn Hòa

Nguyễn Văn Khang

Rosemary Orlando

Jonathan Newton

Ngô Minh Thủy

Nguyễn Lâm Trung

Hoàng Văn Vân

Nguyễn Ngọc Vũ

Cầm Tú Tài

Len Unsworth

Tôn Nữ Mỹ Nhật

Nguyễn Thị Quỳnh Hoa

Sun-Young Shin

Nguyễn Ngọc Anh

Lê Hương Hoa

Raqib Chowdhury

Eunice M Aclan

Ban Trị sự/Administration Board

Ngô Việt Tuấn

(*Thư ký Tòa soạn/Secretary*)

Nguyễn Thị Kim Dung

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

* ĐT.: (84-24) 66886972

* Email: tapchincnn@gmail.com / tapchincnn@vnu.edu.vn

* Website: <https://jfs.ulis.vnu.edu.vn/>

CONTENTS

RESEARCH

- 1 **Urmee Chakma**, Indigenous Knowledge Integration in Australian Curriculum: Culturally Responsive Pedagogy and Perspectives for Vietnam 1
- 2 **Raqib Chowdhury**, Contesting Linguistic Identities and the Persistence of Standardised Pronunciation 11
- 3 **Quan Thi Hoang Anh, Huynh Anh Tuan**, Modulation of Moving Conceptual Metaphors in Vietnamese Translation in Economic Discourse 26
- 4 **Nguyen Huu Hoang**, Investigating Vietnamese Tertiary EFL Teachers' Levels of Information and Communication Technology Integration Through the Lens of the SAMR Model 57
- 5 **Ho Dinh Phuong Khanh, Phan Thi Ngoc Thanh**, Student Persistence in Online Learning: A Literature Review 76
- 6 **Nguyen Thi Lan**, Analysis of Teachers' Written Feedback on Writing Skills of Third-year English-majored Students at a Vietnamese University 103
- 7 **Tran Thi Long, Mai Ngoc Khoi**, Narratives of Self-Authorship: How a Graduate From an EFL Teacher Education Programme Became a Business Woman and a Wedding Host 124
- 8 **Dao Thi Tuyet Nhung, Nguyen Hoang Giang, Nguyen Huong Ly, Vuong Thi Ha, Nguyen Thi Linh Phuong, Pham Thi Minh Tam**, The Current Status of History Subject Learning: Case Study of ULIS Middle School 135
- 9 **Pham Thi Quyen, Nguyen Ngoc Khanh An, Nguyen Thai Ha Anh, Nguyen Duc Kien**, A Critical Discourse Analysis of Rishi Sunak's First Speech as Prime Minister of the United Kingdom 148
- 10 **Tran Thi Yen, Nguyen Thi Mai Huong, Huynh Anh Tuan**, Exploring the Social and Emotional Aspects of Teaching and Learning English as a Foreign Language 166

MỤC LỤC

NGHIÊN CỨU

- Urmee Chakma**, Tích hợp kiến thức bản địa vào chương trình giảng dạy của Úc: Phương pháp sư phạm đáp ứng về mặt văn hóa và những gợi ý cho Việt Nam 1
- Raqib Chowdhury**, Bàn về bản sắc ngôn ngữ và sự tồn tại của cách phát âm chuẩn hóa 11
- Quản Thị Hoàng Anh, Huỳnh Anh Tuấn**, Sự điều biến của ẩn dụ ý niệm “Những thay đổi kinh tế là các cách chuyển động” trong bản dịch tiếng Việt diễn ngôn kinh tế 26
- Nguyễn Hữu Hoàng**, Nghiên cứu mức độ tích hợp công nghệ thông tin và truyền thông của giảng viên tiếng Anh tại Việt Nam thông qua mô hình SAMR 57
- Hồ Đình Phương Khanh, Phan Thị Ngọc Thanh**, Sự kiên trì của người học trong học tập trực tuyến: Tổng quan nghiên cứu 76
- Nguyễn Thị Lan**, Phân tích phản hồi dạng văn bản từ giáo viên về kỹ năng viết của sinh viên chuyên ngành tiếng Anh năm thứ ba tại một trường đại học ở Việt Nam 103
- Trần Thị Long, Mai Ngọc Khôi**, Nghiên cứu tường thuật về nhận thức tự chủ: Câu chuyện của một cựu sinh viên ngành Sư phạm tiếng Anh trở thành một doanh nhân và một người dẫn chương trình lễ cưới 124
- Đào Thị Tuyết Nhung, Nguyễn Hoàng Giang, Nguyễn Hương Ly, Vương Thị Hà, Nguyễn Thị Linh Phương, Phạm Thị Minh Tâm**, Thực trạng học tập môn Lịch sử: Trường hợp nghiên cứu Trường THCS Ngoại ngữ, Trường Đại học Ngoại ngữ, Đại học Quốc gia Hà Nội 135
- Phạm Thị Quyên, Nguyễn Ngọc Khánh An, Nguyễn Thái Hà Anh, Nguyễn Đức Kiên**, Phân tích diễn ngôn phê phán bài phát biểu đầu tiên của Rishi Sunak trên cương vị Thủ tướng Vương quốc Anh 148
- Trần Thị Yến, Nguyễn Thị Mai Hương, Huỳnh Anh Tuấn**, Khám phá các khía cạnh xã hội và cảm xúc của việc dạy và học tiếng Anh như một ngoại ngữ 166

RESEARCH

INDIGENOUS KNOWLEDGE INTEGRATION IN AUSTRALIAN CURRICULUM: CULTURALLY RESPONSIVE PEDAGOGY AND PERSPECTIVES FOR VIETNAM

Urmee Chakma*

La Trobe University, School of Education, Australia

Received 26 December 2023

Revised 29 January 2024; Accepted 26 February 2024

Abstract: This paper explores the Australian curriculum's integration of Indigenous knowledge and perspectives, highlighting its potential to foster cultural inclusivity and social justice in education. Culturally responsive pedagogy is highlighted as a key component, acknowledging the richness of Indigenous cultures and traditions. Particularly, the Australian curriculum's standards 1.4 and 2.4 emphasize the significance of recognizing Indigenous worldviews, traditional ecological knowledge, and contributions to national heritage. The article suggests that Vietnam, with its diverse Ethnic Minority (EM) groups, can benefit from Australia's approach. Embracing EM knowledge and culturally responsive pedagogy may help Vietnamese educators create a more inclusive education system, celebrating cultural diversity and promoting tolerance and national unity. This paper advocates for valuing and integrating Indigenous and EM's perspectives in educational frameworks as a means to enrich and empower learners, fostering a more just and equitable society.

Keywords: indigenous knowledge, Australian Curriculum, culturally responsive pedagogy, cultural diversity, inclusivity in education

1. Introduction

In recent years, a global acknowledgment has arisen regarding the crucial role of education in shaping individuals' perspectives and cultivating a collective sense of identity within society. The imperative to incorporate Indigenous knowledge and perspectives (Ford et al., 2014; Kitson & Bowes, 2010; Shizha, 2017) into educational frameworks has gained prominence as a means to enrich cultural diversity and foster social inclusivity (El-Ayoubi, 2008). In alignment with countries like New Zealand (e.g., Aotearoa New Zealand Curriculum, 2023) and Canada (e.g., Truth and Reconciliation Commission of Canada, 2015), Australia exemplifies a profound commitment to integrating Indigenous content into its curriculum within the transformative educational paradigm as outlined by the Australian Curriculum, Assessment and Reporting Authority (ACARA, 2023). This commitment, manifest in initiatives like the Cross-curriculum Priority: Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Histories and Cultures (ACARA, n.d.), serves as a noteworthy example, fostering culturally responsive pedagogy (Shay & Oliver, 2021).

Within Australia, there exist two primary categories of Indigenous populations: the

* Corresponding author.

Email address: U.Chakma@latrobe.edu.au

Aboriginal peoples residing on the Australian continent and Tasmania, and the Torres Strait Islanders located north of Cape York in the Torres Strait. Both groups are collectively referred to as Indigenous Australians, Indigenous people, or First Nations peoples, and these terms are used interchangeably throughout this paper to encompass both groups.

Historically, Australian Indigenous people have faced exclusion from education policies, evident in disparities in educational resources, opportunities, and cultural relevance (Morrison et al., 2020). Discriminatory education policies have marginalized Indigenous perspectives and languages, hindering meaningful inclusion in the education system (Yunkaporta, 2019). The failure to address these issues has perpetuated a cycle of disadvantage, impeding the holistic development and empowerment of Indigenous communities (Nakata et al., 2012).

In recent times, however, there has been a growing movement towards decolonizing the curriculum in Australia (McLaughlin & Whatman, 2011). This movement is driven by a recognition of the historical injustices and cultural erasure experienced by Indigenous peoples due to colonial policies (Shay & Oliver, 2021). Efforts to incorporate Indigenous perspectives, histories, and knowledges into the education system aim to address the systemic exclusion and marginalization of Indigenous cultures, fostering a more inclusive and respectful approach to education (El-Ayoubi, 2008; Shay & Oliver, 2021). This movement seeks to challenge Eurocentric perspectives and promote a more accurate and holistic representation of Australia's diverse cultural heritage (Hickling-Hudson & Ahlquist, 2003).

The integration of Indigenous knowledge within the Australian curriculum, therefore, signifies a profound step forward in acknowledging and embracing the diverse cultural heritage of its First Nations peoples. This article explores the implications of Australia's approach, particularly emphasizing the pivotal role of culturally responsive pedagogy (Morrison et al, 2019). Culturally responsive pedagogy goes beyond tokenistic (Shay & Oliver, 2021) recognition; it actively incorporates Indigenous worldviews, histories, and languages into the very fabric of learning experiences. In the Australian Professional Standards for Teachers (APST), there are explicit guidelines outlining the knowledge and skills that teachers should possess to effectively teach Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander students and to teach *all* students about Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander languages, history and culture. Standards 1.4 - strategies for teaching Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander students and 2.4 - understand and respect Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander People to promote reconciliation between Indigenous and non-Indigenous Australians (see Appendix) within the Australian curriculum emphasise the significance of strategies for teaching Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander students and the importance of understanding and respecting their contributions to the nation's heritage (Rhea et al, 2012).

As we explore Australia's commitment to this inclusive educational model, we aim to draw parallels with Vietnam, a nation boasting a rich tapestry of diverse ethnic minority (EM) groups and cultures (IWGIA, 2022) representing 14.7% of the country's total population of about 96 million. The parallels are not only in the diversity of their cultural landscapes but also in the potential of their education systems to be more intentional and inclusive. By examining Australia's journey, Vietnamese educators can glean valuable insights to enhance their own education system, creating a more inclusive and equitable environment (El-Ayoubi, 2008) that celebrates cultural diversity, promotes tolerance, and strengthens national unity. The Australian example demonstrates the transformative power of valuing and integrating Indigenous or EM's perspectives within educational frameworks, offering a roadmap for a more culturally enriched

and inclusive educational experience for all, not only in Vietnam but potentially across the global educational landscape.

2. Culturally Responsive Pedagogy: Weaving Indigenous Knowledge into the Fabric of Education

Culturally responsive pedagogy (CRP) is a constructive method that promotes the importance of integrating students' cultural backgrounds and social contexts with the curriculum of the school (Rhea et al., 2012). It is central to the integration of Indigenous knowledge within the Australian curriculum. It goes beyond acknowledging the existence of Indigenous cultures; it actively incorporates indigenous worldviews, histories, and languages into the fabric of learning experiences (Rhea et al., 2012). As mentioned in the previous section, Standards 1.4 and 2.4 in the Australian curriculum specifically highlight strategies for teaching Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander students and the importance of understanding and respecting their contributions to the nation's heritage (Australian Curriculum, n.d.). This approach ensures that Indigenous cultures are not merely recognised but are woven into the educational narrative, offering students a more comprehensive understanding of their country's identity.

The infusion of Indigenous perspectives into subjects such as history, science, and literature contribute to a more holistic educational experience (Demssie et al., 2000). Students engage with the rich tapestry of Indigenous cultures, gaining insights into traditional ecological knowledge (Bates, 2019) and the profound contributions of First Nations peoples (Nakata, 2004) into Australian history, fostering a deeper understanding of the interconnectedness of all living things and their place within the natural world. This engagement fosters an appreciation for the unique perspectives and values held by Indigenous Australians, enabling students to recognize the ongoing impacts of colonization and dispossession. Through this process, students are empowered to contribute to reconciliation efforts between Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander peoples and non-Indigenous peoples and build a more just and equitable society that honors and respects the diverse cultures and histories that shape Australia. This not only broadens their knowledge base but also fosters a deep respect for the diversity that constitutes the Australian identity (Villegas & Lucas, 2002). The Australian example demonstrates that by valuing and integrating Indigenous wisdom (Thaman, 2003), education can become a powerful tool for promoting cultural enrichment and inclusivity.

CRP, therefore, is not merely an acknowledgment of Indigenous cultures within the Australian curriculum but serves as the linchpin for the integration of Indigenous knowledge into the very heart of educational practices. Moving beyond superficial recognition, this pedagogical approach actively incorporates Indigenous worldviews, histories, and languages into the fabric of learning experiences to provide a clear framework, emphasizing the development of strategies specifically tailored for teaching Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander students (Australian Curriculum, n.d.). Moreover, they emphasize the importance of fostering an understanding and respect for the invaluable contributions of these Indigenous communities to the nation's heritage (Australian Curriculum, n.d.).

By actively integrating and valuing Indigenous wisdom (Thaman, 2003), education transforms into a potent force capable of challenging preconceived notions, dismantling harmful stereotypes, and cultivating a heartfelt appreciation for the diverse tapestry of cultures that intricately weave the Australian nation (Villegas & Lucas, 2002). Australia's experience serves as a powerful testament to the transformative potential of education, extending beyond

mere academic pursuits to act as a catalyst for broader societal shifts towards a future characterized by deeper cultural understanding and unwavering inclusivity.

3. Parallels with Vietnam: Embracing Diversity in Education

Mirroring the rich tapestry of ethnic groups and cultures found in Australia, Vietnam boasts an equally diverse array of communities and customs. With an estimated population of 14.1 million individuals, constituting roughly 14.7% of the population (IWGIA, 2022) representing 53 EMs, Vietnam's social landscape resonates with the echoes of ancient customs and enduring traditions. This diversity serves as a testament to the nation's vibrant and dynamic social fabric, highlighting the enduring influence of its remarkable historical and cultural heritage.

However, the Vietnamese education system has not fully reflected this diversity, highlighting a need for a more inclusive and intentional approach (El-Ayoubi, 2008; Shaeffer, 2019). While Vietnam recognizes 53 EMs, the government has yet to fully acknowledge them as Indigenous Peoples (Clarke, 2001) despite increasing demands from these communities (IWGIA, 2022). Nevertheless, international organizations operating in Vietnam frequently use the term "ethnic minorities" interchangeably with "Indigenous Peoples" (IWGIA, 2022).

Embracing Indigenous or EM knowledge in Vietnam can entail recognizing and incorporating the diverse perspectives of its ethnic groups into the curriculum (Villegas & Lucas, 2002). This extends beyond a surface-level recognition of cultural distinctions; it entails actively incorporating traditional wisdom, languages, and histories into the educational discourse. (Demssie, 2000). Such an approach can lead to a more comprehensive understanding of Vietnam's cultural diversity, fostering tolerance and respect among students (Nguyen, 2008).

Moreover, the Australian example highlights the importance of involving Indigenous communities in the development and implementation of educational strategies. In Vietnam, collaboration with diverse ethnic communities can provide a foundation for a more inclusive education system (Nguyen, 2008). Authors like Shaeffer (2019) argue that engaging with community leaders, elders, and educators can ensure that the curriculum is reflective of the rich cultural heritage present within the country. Engaging these stakeholders ensures that the curriculum transcends a top-down model, evolving instead into a collaborative effort that reflects the vibrant tapestry of Vietnam's cultural knowledge (Shaeffer, 2019). This approach aligns with the deeply-rooted Vietnamese tradition of valuing community input (Nguyen, 2008) and holds the potential to facilitate a more nuanced and contextually relevant integration of diversity within the education system.

The parallels between Australia's commitment to culturally responsive pedagogy and Vietnam's educational landscape are not only intriguing but hold significant promise for the Southeast Asian nation. Vietnam, akin to Australia, is characterized by a mosaic of ethnic groups and cultures (Kien, 2023), each contributing to the nation's vibrant tapestry. However, like many nations navigating the complexities of a diverse population, Vietnam's education system presents opportunities for growth in terms of inclusivity and recognition of its cultural diversity (Miller, 2019).

While the Australian model undoubtedly provides valuable inspiration, it is important to acknowledge that Vietnam's journey towards embracing diversity in education may encounter distinct challenges. Language barriers, regional variations, and differing historical contexts may pose hurdles to seamless integration (Miller, 2019). However, these very challenges can serve as catalysts for creativity and innovation in curriculum development,

allowing Vietnam to tailor strategies that authentically represent its unique cultural heritage. In the next section, the challenges and opportunities will be discussed.

4. Challenges and Opportunities

4.1. Challenges

Vietnam's linguistic landscape is vibrantly diverse, encompassing 54 recognized languages and countless dialects, each with its own unique history and cultural significance (Kien, 2023). This linguistic tapestry provides a rich foundation for education, but it also presents a complex challenge: how to integrate the diverse perspectives of these languages into the curriculum in a way that is equitable and inclusive? Therefore, a standardized, one-size-fits-all approach curriculum that fails to consider regional variations risks overlooking the unique cultural heritage and needs of different communities. Students from minority language groups may struggle to understand and participate in lessons conducted solely in Vietnamese, leading to feelings of isolation and disengagement (Chakma, 2021; Nguyen, 2008). This can have a detrimental impact on their learning outcomes and create disparities in educational achievement (Miller, 2019).

Another hurdle involves the scarcity of educational resources in minority languages that presents a significant obstacle for students whose native tongue differs from the national language, Vietnamese. This lack of resources manifests in various ways, including limited availability of textbooks, teaching materials, and multimedia resources in minority languages. Additionally, libraries in minority language communities often lack sufficient resources, hindering students' access to information and diverse reading materials (Miller, 2019). This resource disparity creates a vicious cycle of disadvantage for students from minority language groups. Without access to culturally relevant and linguistically appropriate materials, students struggle to grasp complex concepts and engage meaningfully with the curriculum. This ultimately leads to lower academic performance (Chakma, 2022) and widens the achievement gap between students from majority and minority language groups (Kien, 2023).

Furthermore, accommodating regional variations in cultural practices and traditions (Chakma & Sultana, 2023) can lead to inaccurate representations and misinterpretations of diverse traditions and practices. What may be considered central to the cultural identity of one EM might differ significantly from another. Adapting the curriculum to reflect these regional distinctions while maintaining a cohesive national educational framework requires careful consideration and collaboration with local communities (Chakma & Sultana, 2023). What is more, implementing a curriculum infused with Indigenous knowledge (Ford et al., 2014; Kitson & Bowes, 2010; Shizha, 2017) demands well-equipped educators. Training teachers to navigate culturally responsive pedagogy effectively, ensuring they have a deep understanding of diverse cultural perspectives, is a continuous and resource-intensive process. Vietnam would need to invest in comprehensive teacher training programs to empower educators with the skills and knowledge necessary for successful implementation.

In addition, the historical context within which ethnic knowledge has evolved must be delicately approached. Vietnam, with its unique historical narrative, may find it challenging to integrate the many minority perspectives without inadvertently imposing foreign historical contexts. Balancing a global understanding of Indigenous cultures with the local historical intricacies of Vietnam requires a nuanced and contextually sensitive approach.

4.2. Opportunities

Challenges inherently offer opportunities for creativity and innovation, inspiring individuals to think critically and devise inventive solutions. Developing a curriculum that authentically represents the diversity of EM's knowledge and cultural practices requires inventive approaches. Vietnam can leverage the above-mentioned challenges to create a curriculum that not only educates but also inspires critical thinking, cultural appreciation, and creativity among students. The involvement of minority communities is not just a challenge but a key opportunity (Chakma, 2023). Collaborating with community leaders, elders, and educators can foster a sense of ownership and authenticity in the curriculum. Vietnam has the opportunity to establish a model of inclusive educational development that actively involves the communities it seeks to represent (Shaeffer, 2019).

In navigating the challenges of integrating EM knowledge, Vietnam can explore opportunities for global collaboration. Learning from other nations that have successfully incorporated diverse cultural perspectives into education, sharing best practices, and participating in international forums can provide valuable insights and support. Embracing EM knowledge creates a unique opportunity to foster cultural understanding among students. It goes beyond textbook learning, encouraging students to engage actively with diverse perspectives (Kien, 2023). This can contribute to the development of open-minded, empathetic citizens who appreciate the richness of cultural diversity within their own nation and globally.

While challenges exist, they are inherent in any transformative educational endeavor. By viewing challenges as opportunities for growth and innovation, Vietnam can build an education system that not only celebrates its cultural diversity but also becomes a global exemplar for inclusivity, cultural appreciation, and mutual understanding (Shaeffer, 2019).

The Australian model serves as a guiding light, emphasizing that the journey toward a more culturally enriched education system is both challenging and yet profoundly rewarding.

5. Recommendations and Conclusion

This article has explored the parallels between Australia's commitment to Indigenous knowledge and Vietnam's potential to embrace diversity in education. It is evident that the journey toward a more inclusive educational landscape is multifaceted. The Australian model provides invaluable insights, emphasizing the transformative power of culturally responsive pedagogy and the integration of Indigenous perspectives. As Vietnam contemplates its path forward, several recommendations and suggestions emerge to navigate this transformative journey successfully.

Australia's commitment to incorporating Indigenous knowledge and perspectives into its curriculum serves as a valuable model for nations like Vietnam seeking to enhance cultural diversity and inclusivity in education. By embracing Indigenous wisdom or wisdom of EMs and culturally responsive pedagogy, Vietnam can create a more inclusive and equitable education system that celebrates its cultural diversity, promotes tolerance, and strengthens national unity. The Australian example underscores the transformative power of valuing and integrating Indigenous perspectives within educational frameworks, offering a roadmap for a more culturally enriched and inclusive educational experience for all in Vietnam and beyond.

Moving forward, continued collaboration with Vietnam's EMs is crucial. Their deep understanding of their cultures and traditions must be woven into the fabric of the educational framework. This ensures the curriculum's relevance and responsiveness to the diverse tapestry

of cultures that enrich Vietnam. In addition, investing in comprehensive teacher training programs is paramount. Equipping educators with the skills and knowledge of culturally responsive pedagogy empowers them to create inclusive and engaging learning environments. This means understanding and respecting diverse cultural backgrounds, incorporating them into lesson plans, and utilizing teaching methods that resonate with all students.

Culturally relevant educational resources are fundamental. Textbooks, multimedia materials, and teaching aids that reflect the richness of Indigenous knowledge and traditions should be developed. This allows students to connect with their heritage, fostering a sense of identity and belonging. Additionally, these resources can act as bridges of understanding for students from different backgrounds, promoting intercultural dialogue and appreciation.

Embracing international collaboration can be immensely valuable. Vietnam should actively seek out educational exchanges and partnerships with nations that have successfully implemented culturally inclusive education. Learning from best practices around the globe allows for adaptation and refinement within Vietnam's unique context, accelerating progress towards a truly inclusive educational system.

The journey towards embracing EM knowledge in Vietnam's education system has the possibility to revolutionize pedagogical approaches, fostering a more inclusive and technologically enriched learning environment. Inspired by the Australian model, Vietnam has the opportunity to shape an educational landscape that celebrates diversity, fosters tolerance, and strengthens national unity. Implementing recommendations and exploring future studies will refine the approach, creating a transformative educational experience resonating with the richness of the country's cultural tapestry. The Australian example serves not only as a guide but also as an inspiration for Vietnam and other nations striving to build inclusive and culturally enriched educational environments.

References

- ACARA. (n.d.). *Cross-curriculum priority: Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Histories and Cultures*. Australian Curriculum, Assessment and Reporting Authority.
- ACARA. (2023). *The Australian Curriculum*. Australian Curriculum, Assessment and Reporting Authority.
- Aotearoa New Zealand Curriculum. (2023). *Te Whāriki: He Whāriki Matauranga mō ngā Mokopuna o Aotearoa*. Ministry of Education.
- Australian Curriculum. (n.d.). *Australian curriculum*. <https://www.australiancurriculum.edu.au/>
- Bates, D. (2019). Traditional ecological knowledge and science: Bridges for collaboration. In D. Bates, N. Davidson-Hunt, T. Burgess, L. Garnett, & M. Liba (Eds.), *Knowing and learning about Australia's land and sea* (pp. 19-33). Springer.
- Chakma, U. (2022). Negotiating hyphenated identities in diaspora, *J. Gube, F. Gao, & M. Bhowmik, Identities, Practices and Education of Evolving Multicultural Families in Asia-Pacific*, 31-48.
- Chakma, U. (2023). *Empowering subaltern voices through education: The Chakma diaspora in Australia*. Routledge.
- Chakma, U., & Sultana, S. (2023). Colonial governmentality and Bangladeshis in the anthropocene: Loss of language, land, knowledge, and identity of the Chakma in the ecology of the Chittagong Hill tracts in Bangladesh. *Ethnicities*, 14687968231219521.
- Clarke, G. (2001). From ethnocide to ethnodevelopment? Ethnic minorities and indigenous peoples in Southeast Asia. *Third World Quarterly*, 22(3), 413-436.
- Demssie, Y. N., Biemans, H. J., Wesselink, R., & Mulder, M. (2020). Combining indigenous knowledge and modern education to foster sustainability competencies: Towards a set of learning design principles. *Sustainability*, 12(17), 6823.

- El Zoghbi, M. B. (2008). Inclusive Pedagogies: The development and delivery of Australian Indigenous curricula in higher education. *Learning and Teaching in Higher Education* (3), 33-48.
- Ford, L., Arnott, A., Nasir, T., & Prior, J. (2014). Incorporating Indigenous knowledge into the Bachelor of Education (pre-service) primary. *International Journal of Diversity in Organizations, Communities and Nations*, 13(1), 35.
- Hickling-Hudson, A., & Ahlquist, R. (2003). Contesting the curriculum in the schooling of Indigenous children in Australia and the United States: From Eurocentrism to culturally powerful pedagogies. *Comparative Education Review*, 47(1), 64-89.
- IWGIA (2022). Indigenous Work Group for Indigenous Affairs. *Indigenous peoples in Vietnam*. <https://www.iwgia.org/en/vietnam.html>
- Kitson, R., & Bowes, J. (2010). Incorporating Indigenous ways of knowing in early education for Indigenous children. *Australasian Journal of Early Childhood*, 35(4), 81-89.
- McLaughlin, J., & Whatman, S. (2011). The potential of critical race theory in decolonizing university curricula. *Asia Pacific journal of education*, 31(4), 365-377.
- Miller, A. L. (2019). (Re) conceptualizing family-school partnerships with and for culturally and linguistically diverse families. *Race Ethnicity and Education*, 22(6), 746-766.
- Morrison, A., Rigney, L. I., Hattam, R., & Diplock, A. (2019). *Toward an Australian culturally responsive pedagogy: A narrative review of the literature*. University of South Australia.
- Nakata, M. (2004). *Dreaming with open eyes: Awakening cultural intelligence*. Allen & Unwin.
- Nakata, M., Nakata, V., Keech, S., & Bolt, R. (2012). Decolonial goals and pedagogies for Indigenous Studies. *Decolonization: Indigeneity, Education and Society*, 1(1), 120-140.
- Nguyen, P. M. (2008). *Culture and cooperation: Cooperative learning in Asian Confucian heritage cultures. The case of Viet Nam*. Utrecht University.
- Pidgeon, M. (2016). More than a checklist: Meaningful Indigenous inclusion in higher education. *Social inclusion*, 4(1), 77-91.
- Rhea, Z. M., Anderson, P. J., & Atkinson, B. (2012). *Improving teaching in Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander education: National professional standards for teachers standards focus areas 1.4 and 2.4*.
- Shaeffer, S. (2019). Inclusive education: A prerequisite for equity and social justice. *Asia Pacific Education Review*, 20(2), 181-192.
- Shay, M., & Oliver, R. (Eds.). (2021). *Indigenous education in Australia: Learning and teaching for deadly futures*. Routledge.
- Shizha, E. (2007). Critical analysis of problems encountered in incorporating indigenous knowledge in science teaching by primary school teachers in Zimbabwe. *Alberta Journal of Educational Research*, 53(3), 302-319.
- Thaman, K. H. (2003). Decolonizing Pacific studies: Indigenous perspectives, knowledge, and wisdom in higher education. *The Contemporary Pacific*, 15(1), 1-17.
- Truth and Reconciliation Commission of Canada (2015). *Truth and Reconciliation Commission of Canada*. House of Commons.
- Villegas, A. M., & Lucas, T. (2002). Preparing culturally responsive teachers: Rethinking the curriculum. *Journal of teacher education*, 53(1), 20-32.
- Yunkaporta, T. (2019). *Sand talk: How Indigenous thinking can save the world*. Text Publishing.

Appendix

The Standards comprise four tiers, representing ascending degrees of knowledge, expertise, and leadership. These levels range from graduate, suitable for individuals completing their teacher education course, to lead, outlining the expectations for the executive team and school principal to attain or maintain teacher registration at these levels.

Focus Standard	Graduate	Proficient	Highly Accomplished	Lead
1.4. Strategies for teaching Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander students	Demonstrate broad knowledge and understanding of the impact of culture, cultural identity and linguistic background on the education of students from Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander backgrounds	Design and implement effective teaching strategies that are responsive to the local community and cultural setting, linguistic background and histories of Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander students	Provide advice and support colleagues in the implementation of effective teaching strategies for Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander students using knowledge of and support from community representatives.	Develop teaching programs that support equitable and ongoing participation of Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander students by engaging in collaborative relationships with community representatives and parents/careers.
2.4. Understand and respect Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander people to promote reconciliation between Indigenous and non-Indigenous Australians.	Demonstrate broad knowledge of, understanding of and respect for Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander histories, cultures and languages.	Provide opportunities for students to develop understanding of and respect for Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander histories, cultures and languages.	Support colleagues with providing opportunities for students to develop understanding of and respect for Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander histories, cultures and languages.	Lead initiatives to assist colleagues with opportunities for students to develop understanding of and respect for Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander histories, cultures and languages.

TÍCH HỢP KIẾN THỨC BẢN ĐỊA VÀO CHƯƠNG TRÌNH GIẢNG DẠY CỦA ÚC: PHƯƠNG PHÁP SỰ PHẠM ĐÁP ỨNG VỀ MẶT VĂN HÓA VÀ NHỮNG GỢI Ý CHO VIỆT NAM

Urmee Chakma

Trường Đại học Sư phạm, Đại học La Trobe, Úc

Tóm tắt: Bài viết này tìm hiểu về sự tích hợp kiến thức và cách nhìn bản địa trong chương trình giảng dạy của Úc, nêu bật tiềm năng của chương trình này trong việc thúc đẩy sự hòa nhập văn hóa và công bằng xã hội trong giáo dục. Phương pháp sư phạm đáp ứng về mặt văn hóa được nhấn mạnh là một thành phần quan trọng, thừa nhận sự phong phú của văn hóa và truyền thống bản địa. Đặc biệt, tiêu chuẩn 1.4 và 2.4 trong chương trình giảng dạy của Úc nhấn mạnh tầm quan trọng của việc ghi nhận thể giới quan của người bản địa, kiến thức sinh thái truyền thống và những đóng góp cho di sản quốc gia. Bài viết gợi ý rằng Việt Nam, với các nhóm dân tộc thiểu số (DTTS) đa dạng, có thể được hưởng lợi từ cách tiếp cận của Úc. Việc nắm bắt kiến thức về người DTTS và phương pháp sư phạm đáp ứng về mặt văn hóa có thể giúp các nhà giáo dục Việt Nam tạo ra một hệ thống giáo dục toàn diện hơn, tôn vinh sự đa dạng văn hóa và thúc đẩy lòng khoan dung và đoàn kết dân tộc. Bài viết này ủng hộ việc đánh giá và tích hợp các quan điểm của người bản địa và người DTTS vào các khung chương trình giáo dục như một phương tiện để làm phong phú thêm và trao quyền cho người học, thúc đẩy một xã hội công bằng và bình đẳng hơn.

Từ khóa: kiến thức bản địa, chương trình giảng dạy của Úc, phương pháp sư phạm đáp ứng về mặt văn hóa, đa dạng văn hóa, hòa nhập trong giáo dục

CONTESTING LINGUISTIC IDENTITIES AND THE PERSISTENCE OF STANDARDISED PRONUNCIATION

Raqib Chowdhury*

Faculty of Education, Monash University, Australia

Received 26 December 2023

Revised 31 January 2024; Accepted 26 February 2024

Abstract: Despite a global paradigm shift towards multilingualism and EIL (English as an International Language) in English language education, a stubborn adherence to so-called ‘standardised’ forms of foreign languages persists in non-English language speaking countries. Language teachers, learners and their parents, as much as policy makers and curriculum designers, insist on the adoption of ‘standard’ varieties of English as normative and unquestioned. These expectations are natural, given language users’ awareness of the cultural capital that these standardised forms of pronunciations can afford to them. This paper discusses how formal education, often through the hidden curriculum, reinforces the pressure to conform to standardised pronunciation and how this can negatively implicate language learners’ identities. One may question why a Vietnamese speaker would want to have a distinct ‘American’ or ‘British’ accent when they speak, and what real privileges these bring to them. One may also question why a Vietnamese accent in English, a distinct identity marker, can be deemed to represent less prestigious capital, and whether this may disadvantage them in certain contexts. In discussing the cognitive and cultural benefits of multilingual and culturally responsive instruction, the paper argues that as language educators we need to make our learners aware of their linguistic identities and how intelligible but non-standardised accents of foreign languages can and should be legitimate markers of one’s identity.

Keywords: linguistic identity, standardised pronunciation, accent, hidden curriculum, native speakerism, English as an international language

In a recent article, Bjork (2023) raises the concern that with the recent extensive infiltration of generative artificial intelligence platforms such as ChatGPT in academia, there is real danger of losing diversity in academic writing. Bjork is concerned that such tools will “erase” diversity by shaping dominant modes of writing, which will slowly become normalised and legitimised by such extensive practices whereby privileged groups assert power over others. Likewise, while there are many Englishes (Kachru, 1986, 1996; Canagarajah, 1999), the tendency of the Anglosphere to continue to promote standardised varieties of US and UK English in classrooms, even in EFL contexts, marginalises other Englishes, those that are collectively termed as English as an International Language (McKay, 2010). In this process, non-standard varieties, such as Vietnamese English are penalised and shamed, and this affects a learner’s identity. Yet the high status of English and the cultural capital (Bourdieu, 1991) it entails in current day Vietnam are obvious, reflected in the fact that those who are considered to have insufficient competency in English are more likely to be excluded from positions of

* Corresponding author.

Email address: raqib.chowdhury@monash.edu

power and prosperity (Canh, 2018; Hoang, 2010).

In the evolving landscape of English language education, there has been a global shift towards embracing multilingualism and recognising English as an International Language (EIL). Despite this paradigm shift, non-English language-speaking countries continue to exhibit a tenacious adherence to what is commonly referred to as 'standardised' forms. This article delves into the phenomenon wherein language teachers, learners, parents, policymakers, and curriculum designers persistently advocate for the adoption of 'standard' varieties of English, such as those in the Anglosphere such as in the US and the UK, considering them as normative and beyond questioning. In countries where English is a foreign language, such inclination is deeply rooted in the awareness among language users of the cultural capital associated with these so-called 'native' varieties of the language.

This article scrutinises the role of formal education in reinforcing the pressure on language teachers and learners to conform to standardised English. It also explores how such pressures can exert detrimental effects on the identities of language learners. Such inquiry poses pertinent questions regarding the motivations behind Vietnamese speakers' desire to acquire a distinct 'American' or 'British' accent and examines the tangible privileges that may accrue from such linguistic endeavours. It also interrogates the societal perceptions that render a Vietnamese accent in English as a marker of *less* prestigious cultural capital, potentially placing individuals at a disadvantage in some contexts, such as in seeking employment. This article argues that as language educators, we bear the responsibility of fostering awareness among learners regarding their linguistic identities. It contends that *intelligible* but *non-standardised* accents, such as a Vietnamese accent of English, can serve as powerful markers of one's identity, challenging prevailing norms and fostering a nuanced understanding of linguistic diversity.

Although the scope of this article is about pronunciation, thus speaking, I transfer the above argument about how technology can homogenise writing to speaking, because it is characterised by the same concern about how such forms of standardisation are not just related to power and control, but how they also perpetuate inequity (Bjork, 2023). After all, if we are to borrow Althusser's (1976) contention that an individual's ideologies and action are shaped by their inherent philosophical positions and beliefs about social reality, we could argue that a teachers' pedagogical beliefs are *also* transferred to how they construct the identities of their learners (Fitch, 2003).

As a way of providing context, I first discuss the global trends towards the critical and multilingual turn in recognition of English as an international language, followed by a brief historical overview of English education in Vietnam to show the complex interplay of historical legacies, cultural capital, and societal perceptions. I then discuss the cultural capital associated with standardised Englishes and the value of non-standardised accents. Finally, I discuss linguistic identity and the practice of translanguaging as a way of facilitating rich classroom environments that recognise non-standardised Englishes and celebrate linguistic diversity.

1. The Multilingual Turn in English Language Teaching

The political history of how the so-called 'standard' varieties of English became dominant have been well documented since the 90s, arguably triggered by Pennycook's seminal book, *The Cultural Politics of English as an International Language* (1994). Bjork's (2023) aforementioned article explains how in New Zealand, the 'Queen's English' became dominant because the country's European settlers had an intrinsic reason to furthering the objective of colonisation by using this variety as a tool of control to 'stamp out' Maori culture, rather than

because it was any more intelligible, to the local people, than the local Māori accent. As he points out, even in the early 20th century, students were beaten for speaking Māori in New Zealand schools.

Soon following the ‘critical turn’ in the 90s in English language teaching (Kumaravadivelu, 2006), research and practices in language acquisition saw a ‘multilingual turn’ (May, 2013). Whereas previously learners’ linguistic repertoire was seen in a fragmented and monoglossic manner by separating their first, second and additional languages, this new multilingual perspective was heteroglossic (García, 2013, 2017; García & Lin, 2017), looking into language acquisition and learning in a holistic manner. Specifically, this new orientation allowed the understanding of how learners acquire language through various social configurations both in and out of the classroom. Research from authors such as Cummins et al. (2005) showed how learner success can be enhanced by teachers’ recognition of and active engagement with learners’ home or first languages, allowing them to positively transfer knowledge from their first language (L1) to the foreign language. Such an orientation also helps students realise that their *other* languages are valued in the classroom. Such a holistic view also reinforces learners’ belongingness in the school community and can facilitate greater learning and more active literacy development (Cummins et al., 2005; Taylor et al., 2008).

In order to facilitate more linguistically responsive teaching in schools, there is a need to develop greater language awareness and adopt multilingual pedagogies in the classroom. A linguistically and culturally responsive teacher is someone who understands the importance of language and culture in a student’s learning. To this end, the role of home languages “is fundamental to the thinking, learning, and identity of every individual” (Miramontes et al., 2011, p. 12).

Research in the past two decades - since the critical turn in ELT in the 90s - has established the significant role a learner’s home languages play in their language learning in school (Cummins, 2007; Goldenberg, 2008; Ovando & Combs, 2011; Slavin & Cheung, 2005). Alisaari et al.’s (2019) large-scale study investigated 820 Finnish English teachers’ beliefs and ideologies on multilingualism and their use of home languages as learning resources. Although the study reports generally positive beliefs among teachers, results showed that in the classroom, immigrant teachers often failed to consider learners’ home languages as learning resources, reflecting Taylor et al.’s (2008, p. 270) assertion that “students’ diverse linguistic capital is rarely framed or tapped into as valuable forms of literacy”, leading to poorer academic achievement (Menken & Kleyn, 2010). In fact, such monolingual practices lead to “high rates of academic failure” (García & Hesson, 2015, p. 221) among language-minority students.

On the other hand, a *multilingual* orientation to teaching and learning, which acknowledges *all* languages as important resources for learning, affirms and facilitates the construction of multilingual identity of learners by providing impetus to feelings of belonging in the school community, while making them invest more in classroom literacy practices using *all* of their languages (Cummins et al., 2005; Taylor et al., 2008). By using a learner’s entire linguistic repertoire as a resource for learning helps them value differences in languages and cultures and promote an ethos of multilingualism in the classroom. Schools thus need to promote a multilingual attitude in classrooms to counter the dominant discourses that marginalise minority languages, consolidate monolingual ideologies and codify acceptable languages for multilingualism, through the systemic push towards negative attitudes towards speakers of these minority languages.

2. Evolution of English Education in Vietnam

In addition to global linguistic hierarchies that have persisted for more than two centuries, the enduring impact of Vietnam's colonial legacies on its English language education contributes to today's insistence on standardised pronunciation in English. Like in other countries where English is used as foreign language, a host of socio-economic considerations and the internalisation of linguistic biases within national educational systems have shaped the perception of standardised pronunciation as a marker of prestige and socio-economic mobility. Understanding the historical trajectories of English language education in Vietnam thus provides valuable insights for shaping future policies and practices in this dynamic and evolving educational landscape.

English is now the first foreign language of choice in Vietnam. However, this was not always the case. As Canh (2018, p. 3) writes, in the 70s, "English was considered to be the language spoken in capitalist countries and as a result it did not have any social status", while "English language lecturers were... low in the social and economic ladder as compared with their Russian or French language peers." As a learner, Canh recalls that even when English became a compulsory subject at school, learners did not have any "clearly-defined reasons of learning English". The "highly centralized educational system" (Canh, 2018, p. 8) for long had a "reductionist view of teaching according to which teaching is reduced to method" (p. 9).

The roots of English language instruction in Vietnam can be traced back to the French colonial period, during which French was the dominant foreign language. The introduction of English gained momentum in the post-colonial era, influenced by global trends and the recognition of English as a lingua franca. With the influx of American personnel and aid, the Vietnam War marked a pivotal period in the nation's history with regard to English taking over as the nation's preferred foreign language of choice and significantly impacting formal education. Although the aftermath of the war brought economic challenges, and English language education faced resource constraints limiting its widespread accessibility, the powers of globalisation prompted an increased demand for English proficiency since the late 80s and early 90s, positioning it as a key skill for diplomatic, economic, and academic pursuits.

In fact, Hoang (2010) divides the history of English language teaching in Vietnam into two periods: before and after 1986, the year when the Vietnamese government initiated its national economic reform through its open-door policy, turning English into the foreign language of choice. Hoang (2010, p. 9) points out that December 1986 marks period of the beginning of the "English boom", a period of "rapid growth and expansion of English in Vietnam". Specifically, the *Đổi Mới* reforms initiated in 1986 marked a turning point, opening Vietnam to global economic integration through the adoption of a socialist-oriented market economy. The *Đổi Mới* created "mounting pressures for more and more places to teach English at every stage of the far-expanding educational system", further accelerated as it coincided with the concurrent forces of globalisation, which is the "strongest external force for English language teaching and learning in Vietnam" (Hoang, 2010, p. 10).

English language education became a focal point in the government's efforts to enhance international communication and attract foreign investment. The demand for English proficiency surged, leading to the establishment of English language centres and the incorporation of English into the national curriculum. The new century then witnessed a continued emphasis on English language education, driven by the recognition of its role in fostering technological advancement and global competitiveness. The rise of the Internet and the integration of Information and Communication Technologies (ICT) into education in the

2000s further transformed English language instruction, with online platforms and digital resources becoming integral components, especially during and after the COVID-19 Pandemic.

Despite such progresses, concurrent challenges persisted, including disparities in access to quality English education across regions and socioeconomic backgrounds. Ongoing research and policy initiatives aim to address these disparities and enhance the effectiveness of English language education in Vietnam, aligning it with the evolving demands of the globalised world.

3. The Cultural Capital of Standardised Pronunciation

Building on this historical context, it is necessary to explore the concept of cultural capital associated with standardised pronunciation. Such a conceptual lens allows the examination of how language users, including teachers, learners, and parents, internalise the perceived advantages of acquiring a 'standard' accent and how these perceptions influence educational policies and societal expectations.

Bourdieu's (1991) notion of cultural capital is particularly salient in the Vietnamese educational context, where the mastery of a foreign language (in this case, English) is often seen as a gateway to prestigious educational institutions and lucrative career paths. This linguistic market, therefore, creates a dichotomy between the *economic* capital associated with foreign language proficiency and the *cultural* and *symbolic* capital embedded in the native language. The pedagogical implications are profound: educational institutions become sites where linguistic capital is accumulated, transmitted, and legitimised, often reinforcing existing social inequalities (Bourdieu & Passeron, 1977). Consequently, the dynamics of language in Vietnam, through the lens of Bourdieu's theories, reflect a complex interplay of cultural identity, social stratification, and the global economic order, underscoring the pivotal role of language as a form of cultural capital within the society.

The notion of 'cultural capital' originates from Bourdieu's theory of social reproduction (1986) and helps understand educational inequality. Essentially, it can be described as an asset which embodies some cultural value (Throsby, 1999), and is distinct from technical knowledge, ability, skills or competence, which are referred to as *human* capital. Some like Lareau and Weininger (2003) would argue that cultural capital entails an appreciation of 'highbrow' cultural values, and this seems to be the case of the perceived cultural capital associated with *standardised* forms of English.

Indeed, the cultural capital of standardised pronunciation serves as a multifaceted lens through which linguistic and sociocultural dynamics intersect. Standardised pronunciation, often associated with prestige and social status, functions as a symbolic marker of linguistic competence and cultural capital within a given society (Roshid & Chowdhury, 2013; Roshid, Webb & Chowdhury, 2022; Roshid & Chowdhury, 2023). This phenomenon is particularly evident in societies where linguistic norms are codified and linked to cultural identity. In education, the cultural capital of standardised pronunciation manifests as a crucial component in language acquisition and assessment. Educational institutions often uphold specific pronunciation standards – such as British and American – reflecting societal norms and reinforcing linguistic hierarchies, and thus learners who acquire and demonstrate proficiency in any of these standardised pronunciations are perceived as possessing a form of cultural capital that facilitates social mobility and acceptance.

Needless to say, the cultural capital of standardised pronunciation extends beyond educational settings to impact professional spheres and interpersonal relationships. Individuals with mastery of standardised pronunciation are often afforded advantages in employment and

social interactions, as their linguistic competence aligns with prevailing cultural norms.

However, such myopic adherence to standardised pronunciation can contribute to the erasure of unique linguistic identities - much in a similar way to how generative artificial intelligence can erase the richness and diversity in writing – as explained above, perpetuating a cycle of conformity to dominant groups and undermine the rich tapestry of global linguistic diversity. More importantly, the cultural capital associated with standardised pronunciation raises questions about linguistic diversity and inclusivity. Examining how societal values are embedded in pronunciation standards provides insights into the intricate interplay between language, culture, and social structures, offering a foundation for critical discourse on linguistic equity and cultural representation in diverse linguistic communities.

After all, language, as conceptualised within the ambit of Bourdieu's theoretical framework, transcends mere communication, embodying a form of cultural capital that profoundly influences social mobility and the stratification of society (Bourdieu, 1986). It can be said that in the context of Vietnam, a nation marked by its colonial history and rapid economic transformation, language serves as a pivotal axis around which cultural capital is accrued and manifested. The Vietnamese language, deeply entrenched with indigenous cultural nuances and historical intricacies, operates as a symbol of national identity and social cohesion. However, as discussed above, the linguistic landscape of Vietnam is also characterised by the valorisation of foreign languages, particularly English (and historically, French), which are perceived as *symbolic* capital that facilitates access to global economic opportunities and positions within the global hierarchy (Le Ha, 2008).

4. Linguistically and Culturally Responsive Teaching

The concept of linguistically and culturally responsive teaching, which Valdiviezo and Nieto (2017) call every child's right, recognises that the linguistic and cultural resources and prior knowledge of every learner must be considered in all instructional scenarios (Ladson-Billings, 1995). Language policies often hierarchise languages leading to discrimination and marginalisation of linguistically minority students, thereby viewing multilingualism as a deficit. A *linguistically responsive teaching* approach considers a learner's *entire* linguistic repertoire into account and affirms a language learner's linguistic identity by considering *all* of their languages as resources for literacy and learning in the classroom. Similarly, a *culturally responsive teaching* approach is understood as an instructional orientation that “empowers students intellectually, socially, emotionally, and politically by using cultural referents to impart knowledge, skills, and attitudes” (Ladson-Billings, 1994, pp. 16). By connecting learners' cultural experiences and knowledge to academic (content) knowledge, it recognises and invests in what students *already* know (Gay, 2000), which can be seen as a form of scaffolding.

Since schools are sites for the development of students' identities, it is imperative for teachers to create environments that promote a sense of belonging for all students, regardless of their cultural or linguistic backgrounds. Such a practice not only affirms students' home languages and cultures, it also develops their learner identities (Paris, 2012).

Within this orientation to linguistically and culturally responsive teaching, when it comes to the teaching of pronunciation, there is need to examine the potential drawbacks of adhering to a monolithic, native-norm-driven standard and explore why *non*-standardised accents should be celebrated and valued, emphasising the importance of recognising and appreciating linguistic diversity in an increasingly globalised world. Valuing non-standardised

accents is imperative in fostering linguistic inclusivity and dismantling language-based hierarchies. Accents, reflective of regional and cultural diversity, are intrinsic to the richness of a language. However, prevalent linguistic biases, such as those described above, often elevate standardised accents, marginalising those with non-standard varieties. Recognising the inherent value in non-standardised accents is thus a step towards acknowledging the diverse linguistic landscapes that contribute to the global tapestry of languages. By embodying the lived experiences and histories of communities and thus offering unique perspectives within the linguistic spectrum, non-standardised accents carry cultural and regional significance, serving as distinct markers of identity and heritage. Embracing these accents challenges the notion of linguistic superiority associated with standardised varieties, promoting a more inclusive understanding of linguistic diversity.

Educational institutions such as schools play a pivotal role in shaping perceptions of accents, while the curriculum is the primary mechanism through which educators can actively incorporate and celebrate linguistic variety. Valuing non-standardised accents contributes to the empowerment of speakers whose accents have been considered as deviant, fostering a linguistic environment that reflects the multifaceted nature of language. Emphasising the legitimacy of diverse accents not only promotes linguistic equity but also enriches our collective appreciation for the inherent diversity encapsulated within language.

5. Formal Education and Linguistic Conformity

Educational systems play a pivotal role in shaping linguistic norms, and the selection of pronunciation standards within curricula reflects broader sociocultural dynamics. Through the formal education system, curricula and teaching methodologies contribute to the entrenchment of standardised pronunciation norms, which is deeply intertwined with the curricula and teaching methodologies. The deliberate inclusion and reinforcement of specific pronunciation norms in teaching methodologies thus shape the perpetuation of linguistic hierarchies.

In other words, influenced by societal perceptions of prestige and acceptability, the curricula - as structured frameworks for learning - often *prescribe* particular pronunciation models as benchmarks for linguistic proficiency and markers of linguistic competence. Textbooks, instructional materials, and language assessments further reinforce these norms, creating a pedagogical environment that prioritises specific pronunciation features. Teaching methodologies, on the other hand, including pronunciation drills, phonetic exercises, and oral assessments, play a crucial role in shaping learners' pronunciation habits. The repeated exposure to and reinforcement of standardised pronunciation in classroom settings contribute to its normalisation and acceptance as the linguistic ideal. Teachers, as agents of linguistic socialisation, thus play a key role in disseminating and upholding these norms, inadvertently perpetuating linguistic biases already embedded in standardised pronunciation.

Furthermore, the influence of global English language teaching trends, often driven by native-speaker models, contributes to the entrenchment of standardised pronunciation norms. The privileging of 'native-like' pronunciation in teaching materials and teacher training reinforces an idealised linguistic standard that may not align with the linguistic diversity present in the nation. This issue is further complicated by practices that are determined by forces outside teaching practices not endorsed by educational policies and the formal curriculum, which I discuss next.

6. The Persistence of the Hidden Curriculum

In Vietnam, the school English curriculum is meticulously structured and documented, guided by national educational standards and objectives, and designed to equip students with a command of English, viewing language proficiency as a crucial skill in the globalised world, aligning with the nation's broader socio-economic goals (Le, 2016). As Nguyen (2011) explains, textbooks, standardised assessments, and pedagogical guidelines constitute the backbone of this curriculum, aiming to provide a cohesive and comprehensive framework for English language education across the country.

However, teachers are often unaware of what is known as the “hidden curriculum” (Rossouw & Frick, 2023), which can pose significant challenges in teaching (Koutsouris et al., 2021; Thielsch, 2017) and learning outcomes. The notion of the hidden curriculum is not new (see, for example, Jackson, 1968; Anyon, 1980), however, it is still often not understood well by teachers, especially as a lot of issues in the hidden curriculum originate from normative expectations and assumptions that are not officially documented or communicated (Alsubaie, 2015, p. 125), or codified into the formal or official curriculum (Uleanya, 2022) and seep into day-to-day teaching practices. Such hidden curriculum can play a significant role in shaping learner’s linguistic and cultural competencies. By encompassing implicit academic, social, and cultural norms, it can shape their attitudes, beliefs, and perceptions about the English language and the cultures it represents (Giroux & Penna, 1983).

In the context of Vietnam, as Phan (2008) argues, the hidden curriculum might manifest in the valorisation and privileging of certain accents of English, subtly imparting a hierarchy of linguistic prestige and power within the classroom. It may also involve the uncritical dissemination of cultural values and ideologies embedded in teaching materials, thereby shaping students' worldviews and cultural identity in nuanced ways (Apple, 1979). Additionally, classroom interactions, teacher attitudes, and peer dynamics contribute to the hidden curriculum, subtly reinforcing or challenging prevailing social norms and expectations related to English language use and proficiency.

Understanding the interplay between the explicit and hidden curricula in English language education in Vietnam is thus pivotal for educators and policymakers. It calls for a reflective and critical approach to teaching and curriculum development, ensuring that English language instruction not only imparts linguistic skills but also fosters a *critical* awareness of the cultural and ideological underpinnings that influence language learning in a globalised context.

7. Linguistic Identity as a Marker of Diversity

Just as standardised Englishes, non-standardised varieties, such as Vietnamese English, can serve as powerful markers of linguistic identity, and educators have the responsibility of making learners aware of the richness that diverse linguistic expressions bring into global communication. Individuals develop a profound connection to their linguistic identity, viewing language not merely as a tool for communication but as a fundamental aspect of their cultural and social identity. This connection is deeply rooted in the ways in which language reflects historical narratives, traditions, and societal values. Linguistic identity works as a distinct marker of diversity and encapsulates the rich tapestry of human communication and culture, and a manifestation of the multitude of human experiences and perspectives, enriching the global mosaic of languages and dialects.

At its core, linguistic identity refers to the unique linguistic attributes and practices that individuals or communities employ, reflecting their cultural heritage, geographical origin, and historical experiences. This intricate interplay between language and identity in turn serves as a critical lens through which we can understand and appreciate the diversity inherent in human societies.

However, the coexistence of various linguistic identities within a single geographical or sociopolitical space also highlights inherent complexities and fluidities. These linguistic variations contribute to the uniqueness of communities and underscore the importance of preserving and celebrating linguistic diversity as an integral part of global heritage.

In contemporary discourses, the recognition of linguistic identity as a marker of diversity is crucial for fostering inclusivity and respect for different cultures. Efforts to preserve endangered languages, promote multilingualism, and challenge linguistic biases contribute to creating a more equitable and diverse linguistic landscape. By acknowledging and valuing linguistic identity, societies can cultivate a deeper understanding of each other, fostering a global environment that embraces the richness of human expression and communication.

8. Towards Translanguaging

A heteroglossic or holistic orientation to languages instruction allows the practice of translanguaging, which García and Hesson (2015, p. 230) label as a critical 21st century skill and an “important communicative resource” in the language classroom. However, the notion and practice of translanguaging is relatively new, and only became a legitimate practice of language instruction in the 2000s. Since then, it has grown as a practice in promoting bi-/multilingualism as a sustainable learning resource, rather than as a subtractive model (Baker & Wright, 2021) of transition into a majority language (MacSwan, 2017). Scholars like García have promoted translanguaging practices by emphasising on the heteroglossic view on languages, arguing that in the linguistic repertoire of a language user, languages do not exist discreetly and in isolation of other languages (García & Otheguy, 2014), but are unified in a holistic and inseparable way and as a unified system (Canagarajah, 2011).

Importantly, such a view also allows a positive appreciation of bi-/multilingualism as a resource rather than as a deficit. Authors such as García and Hesson (2015) and García, Ibarra-Johnson, and Seltzer (2016) have thus advocated language pedagogies to be designed within a translanguaging framework, by making translanguaging practices as an essential and everyday tool of bi-/multilingual education. Practically, such a view allows students to use *all* of their linguistic resources in a classroom to experience rich and engaging learning of a foreign language, by investing in all of the languages they use. This also means teachers using L1 in their instructions and in providing feedback, and in planning assessment, but also allowing students to use their first languages for classroom interactions. Rather than insisting on students acquiring standardised accents (such as US or UK), they would accept and acknowledge local accents as a marker of their identity.

Specifically for the teaching of pronunciation, the practice of translanguaging offers a unique and effective framework for the acquisition of intelligible pronunciation in a foreign language by significantly enhancing phonetic acquisition and linguistic competence in several ways.

Firstly, translanguaging enhances a metalinguistic awareness that is pivotal for pronunciation proficiency in a foreign language. By alternating between languages, learners become acutely aware of the phonetic and phonological contrasts between their native language

and the target language. This heightened awareness facilitates a deeper understanding of the specific articulatory mechanics and sound systems unique to each language, thereby enabling learners to fine-tune their pronunciation in the target language (García & Wei, 2014).

Secondly, as García (2009) explains, a translanguaging approach nurtures a low-anxiety learning environment, which is conducive to the practice and repetition necessary for mastering foreign language pronunciation. The inclusive and validating nature of translanguaging pedagogy alleviates the stress and inhibition often associated with speaking in a foreign language using a standardised accent, encouraging learners to experiment with and practice new sounds more freely and confidently (García & Beardsmore, 2009).

The practice of translanguaging also aligns with Vygotsky's (1978) sociocultural theory of cognitive development, particularly the concept of the Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD). By leveraging the linguistic resources of both the native and target languages, learners can scaffold their language learning process, progressively advancing their pronunciation skills from what they can achieve independently to higher levels of proficiency with guidance and interaction (Vygotsky, 1978).

Finally, translanguaging pedagogy recognises and capitalises on the dynamic and fluid nature of language practices in real-world communication. As learners engage with authentic communicative tasks, integrating their entire linguistic repertoire, they develop a practical, functional (intelligible) pronunciation proficiency in the target language, which is more aligned with the goal of achieving intelligible, effective communication rather than native-like pronunciation perfection (Canagarajah, 2012).

Incorporating translanguaging strategies in the classroom thus recognises the diverse linguistic backgrounds of learners and leverages these backgrounds as valuable resources for language development. As explained above, research has shown that the strategic use of translanguaging can enhance learning in multiple ways by providing a robust framework for learners to develop intelligible pronunciation in a foreign language, ultimately enriching their communicative competence and linguistic dexterity. Perhaps most importantly, it scaffolds learners into bridging new learning with prior knowledge (including that of L1) and experiences.

9. Recommendations and Conclusion

Unintelligible pronunciation containing native-like features of the target language does not make any sense; it is intelligible pronunciation, not native-like pronunciation, which essentially contributes to communicative competence. (Tuan, 2021, p. 176)

This article has addressed some of the complex dynamics that shape individuals' perceptions of linguistic identity and the socio-cultural implications of conforming to standardised language norms. By examining the nuanced interplay between language, power, and identity, the article shows the potential drawbacks of subscribing to a monolithic standard in a world that increasingly recognises the legitimacy of diverse linguistic expressions. It emphasises the urgent need for educators, policymakers, and society at large to recognise the intrinsic value of linguistic diversity and propose practical recommendations for fostering a more inclusive approach to English language education, ultimately contributing to a global discourse that celebrates the myriad expressions of linguistic identity.

In a recent article, Tuan (2021, p. 176) argues that first language (L1) phonological transfer to second or foreign language (L2/FL) is "unavoidable". He emphasises that

“international intelligibility” (p. 176) should be the real target in ELT. While acknowledging some of the challenges in this, such as teaching qualifications and experiences of English teachers in Vietnam, he explains that L2 pronunciation only need to “approximate”, rather than “imitate” L2 sounds resulting in “personalised L2 speech” in a manner where it is “understandable to other L2 speakers” (p. 181).

As responsible educators, we advocate for a paradigm shift in English language education in non-English speaking countries like Vietnam by emphasising the need for educators to transcend the confines of standardised pronunciation, encouraging learners to embrace and celebrate their linguistic diversity. By doing so, we can empower individuals to navigate the complex terrain of linguistic identity with confidence, fostering a more inclusive and equitable language education landscape that reflects the rich tapestry of not just global communication but the linguistic and cultural diversity *within* the country.

In order to promote multicultural understanding and intercultural communication, all languages and cultures need to be utilised in the classroom (Taylor et al., 2008), which would not just affirm the linguistic diversity of students in the classroom - even when they all have a shared language - but promote diverse identities and alternate ways of thinking of diverse students. In this regard, García and Kleyn (2016) argue for the need for language teachers to embrace *linguistically and culturally responsive pedagogies* as the core to their knowledge, belief and practices. To make this happen, we could follow Alisaari et al.’s (2019) recommendation that teacher education programs too need to include topics such as better understanding multilingual students and their families, adequate knowledge of language and multilingualism, and, perhaps most importantly, understanding how to implement multilingual pedagogies.

Along with these, of course, it is important to make alignments between language policies, the curriculum, assessment and the actual classroom pedagogies. As Edwards (2017) puts it, both future teachers (pre-service teachers) and early-career teachers need institutional support in furthering their skills through sustained professional development opportunities as well as pre- and in-service experiences of working with students from various cultural and linguistic backgrounds. This will ensure the creation of sustainable and accountable classroom environments which recognise the diverse learning proficiencies that students in any classroom represent and nurture them into developing and affirming their identities through the respectful use of *all* of their languages.

Along with these, sustained teacher professional development is also needed to facilitate a transition from monolingual to multilingual instructional practices in accordance with the changed realities of the classrooms, as Alisaari et al.’s (2019) study recommends. Any respectful language pedagogy in a multilingual classroom must accept that every student has the right to study in a context where all their languages are seen as a potential for learning. Accordingly, instructions need to be designed in a way that will enhance learners' ability to transfer their knowledge and skills of L1 into the target foreign language. Miramontes et al. (2011) call this a pedagogy that includes tasks and activities in class that allows a range of interlinked and meaning-focused language use opportunities.

When learners can employ their entire linguistic repertoire, their cognitive skills develop more holistically. The curriculum thus needs to formally recognise multilingual instruction, feedback and assessment and scaffolding. The need for responding to linguistic diversity in the classroom is imperative to transcend the confines of standardised pronunciation, encouraging learners to embrace and celebrate linguistic diversity. After all, as Canh (2018, p.

9) affirms, “small imperfections of grammar or accent often just add to the charm”.

References

- Alisaari, J., Heikkola, L. M., Commins, N., & Acquah, E. O. (2019). Monolingual ideologies confronting multilingual realities: Finnish teachers' beliefs about linguistic diversity. *Teaching and Teacher Education, 80*, 48-58. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tate.2019.01.003>
- Alsubaie, M. A. (2015). Hidden curriculum as one of current issue of curriculum. *Journal of Education and Practice, 6*(33), 125-128.
- Althusser, L. (1976). Ideology and ideological state apparatuses. In A. Sharma, & A. Gupta (Eds.), *Essays on ideology* (pp. 1-60). Blackwell.
- Anyon, J. (1980). Social class and the hidden curriculum of work. *Journal of Education, 162*(1), 67-92.
- Apple, M. W. (1979). *Ideology and curriculum*. Routledge.
- Baker, C., & Wright, W. E. (2021). *Foundations of bilingual education and bilingualism*. Multilingual Matters.
- Bjork, C. (2023). ChatGPT threatens language diversity. More needs to be done to protect our differences in the age of AI. *The Conversation*. <https://theconversation.com/chatgpt-threatens-language-diversity-more-needs-to-be-done-to-protect-our-differences-in-the-age-of-ai-198878>
- Bourdieu, P., & Passeron, J. C. (1977). *Reproduction in education, society and culture*. Sage.
- Bourdieu, P. (1986). Forms of Capital. In J. G. Richardson (Ed.), *Handbook of theory and research for the sociology of Education* (pp. 241-258). Greenwood.
- Bourdieu, P. (1991). *Language and symbolic power*. Harvard University Press.
- Canagarajah, A. S. (1999). *Resisting linguistic imperialism in English language teaching*. Oxford University Press.
- Canagarajah, S. (2011). Translanguaging in the classroom: Emerging issues for research and pedagogy. *Applied Linguistics Review, 2*, 1-28.
- Canagarajah, S. (2012). *Translingual practice: Global Englishes and cosmopolitan relations*. Routledge.
- Canh, L. V. (2018). My professional journey: An autobiographical narrative. *VNU Journal of Foreign Studies, 34*(5), 1-11. <https://doi.org/10.25073/2525-2445/vnufs.4294>
- Canh, L.V (2016). English language teaching in Vietnam: An overview. In W. A. Renandya & H. P. Widodo (Eds.), *English language teaching today: Linking theory and practice* (pp. 229–241). Springer.
- Cummins, J. (2007). Rethinking monolingual instructional strategies in multilingual classrooms. *Canadian Journal of Applied Linguistics, 10*, 221-240.
- Cummins, J., Bismila, V., Chow, P., Cohen, P., Giampapa, F., Leoni, L., et al. (2005). Affirming identity in multilingual classrooms. *Educational Leadership, 63*(1), 38-43.
- Delavan, M. G., Valdez, V. E., & Freire, J. A. (2017). Language as whose resource? When global economics usurp the local equity potentials of dual language education. *International Multilingual Research Journal, 11*(2), 86-100.
- Fitch, F. (2003). Inclusion, exclusion, and ideology: Special education students' changing sense of self. *The Urban Review, 35*(3), 233-252.
- García, O., & Beardmore, H. G. (2009). *Bilingual education in the 21st century: A global perspective*. Wiley/Blackwell.
- García, O. (2013). From diglossia to transglossia: Bilingual and multilingual classrooms in the 21st century. In C. Abello-Contesse, P. M. Chandler, M. D. López-Jiménez, & R. Chacón-Beltrán (Eds.), *Bilingual and multilingual education in the 21st century: Building on experience* (pp. 155-178). Multilingual Matters. <https://doi.org/10.21832/9781783090716-012>
- García, O. (2017). Critical multilingual language awareness and teacher education. In J. Cenoz, D. Gorter, & S. May (Eds.), *Language awareness and multilingualism* (pp. 263-280). Springer. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-319-02240-6_30
- García, O., & Hesson, S. (2015). Translanguaging frameworks for teachers: Macro and micro perspectives. In A. Yiacometti (Ed.), *Multilingualism and language in education: Current sociolinguistic and pedagogical perspectives from Commonwealth countries* (pp. 221-242). Cambridge University Press.

- García, O., & Kleyn, T. (2016). Translanguaging theory in education. In O. García, & T. Kleyn (Eds.), *Translanguaging with multilingual students: Learning from classroom moments* (pp. 9-33). Routledge.
- García, O., & Lin, A. (2017). *Translanguaging in bilingual education*. Springer. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-319-02258-1_9
- García, O., & Otheguy, R. (2014). Spanish and Hispanic bilingualism. In M. Lacorte (Ed.), *The Routledge handbook of Hispanic applied linguistics* (pp. 639-658). Routledge.
- García, O., Johnson, S. I., & Seltzer, K. (2017). *The translanguaging classroom: Leveraging student bilingualism for learning*. Caslon Publishing.
- García, O., & Wei, L. (2014). *Translanguaging: Language, bilingualism and education*. Palgrave Macmillan.
- Gay, G. (2000). *Culturally responsive teaching: Theory, research, and practice*. Teachers College Press.
- Giroux, H. A., & Penna, A. N. (1983). *The hidden curriculum and moral education: Deception or Discovery?* McCutchan Publishing Corporation.
- Goldenberg, C. (2008). Teaching English language learners: What the research does and does not say. *American Educator*, 8(23), 41-44.
- Hoang, V.V. (2010). The current situation and issues of the teaching of English in Vietnam. *Ritsumeikan Studies in Language and Culture*, 22(1), 7-18.
- Jackson, P. W. (1968). *Life in classrooms*. Holt, Rinehart and Winston.
- Kachru, B. B. (1986). *The alchemy of English: The spread functions and models of non-native Englishes*. Pergamon.
- Kachru, B. B. (Ed.). (1996). *The other tongue: English across cultures*. Oxford University Press.
- Koutsouris, G., Mountford-Zimdars, A., & Dingwall, K. (2021). The 'ideal' higher education student: Understanding the hidden curriculum to enable institutional change. *Research in Post-Compulsory Education*, 26(2), 131–147. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13596748.2021.1909921>
- Ladson-Billings, G. (1994). *The dreamkeepers: Successful teachers of African American children*. Jossey-Bass.
- Ladson-Billings, G. (1995). Toward a theory of culturally relevant pedagogy. *American Educational Research Journal*, 32(3), 465-491.
- Lareau, A. & Weininger, E. B. (2003). Cultural capital in educational research: A critical assessment. *Theory and Society*, 32, 567–606.
- Le Ha, P. (2008). *Teaching English as an international language: Identity, resistance, and negotiation*. Multilingual Matters.
- MacSwan, J. (2017). A multilingual perspective on translanguaging. *American Educational Research Journal*, 54(1), 167-201. <https://doi.org/10.3102/0002831216683935>
- May, S. (2013). Introducing the “multilingual turn”. In S. May (Ed.), *The multilingual turn: Implications for SLA, TESOL and bilingual education* (pp. 1-6). Routledge.
- McKay, S. (2010). English as an international language. In N. Hornberger & S. McKay (Eds.), *Sociolinguistics and language education* (pp. 89-115). Multilingual Matters. <https://doi.org/10.21832/9781847692849-006>
- Menken, K., & Kleyn, T. (2010). The long-term impact of subtractive schooling in educational experiences of secondary English language learners. *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*, 13(4), 399-417. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13670050903370143>
- Miramontes, O. B., Nadeau, A., & Commins, N. L. (2011). *Restructuring schools for linguistic diversity: Linking decision making to effective programs*. Teachers College Press.
- Nguyen, H. T. M. (2011). Primary English language education policy in Vietnam: Insights from implementation. *Current Issues in Language Planning*, 12(2), 225–249.
- Ovando, C. J., & Combs, M. C. (2011). *Bilingual and ESL classrooms: Teaching in multicultural contexts*. McGraw-Hill Education.
- Paris, D. (2012). Culturally sustaining pedagogy: A needed change in stance, terminology and practice. *Educational Researcher*, 41(3), 93-97. <https://doi.org/10.3102/0013189X12441244>
- Pennycook, A. (1994). *The cultural politics of English as an international language*. Longman.
- Pennycook, A. (1998). *English and the discourses of colonialism*. Routledge.

- Phillipson, R. (1992). *Linguistic imperialism*. Oxford University Press.
- Roshid, M. M., & Chowdhury, R. (2023). Power dynamics in business English as lingua franca discourse. *Business and Professional Communication Quarterly*, 1-30. <https://doi.org/10.1177/23294906231165275>
- Roshid, M. M. & Chowdhury, R. (2013). English language proficiency and employment: A case study of Bangladeshi graduates in Australian employment market. *Mevlana International Journal of Education*, 3(1), 68-81.
- Roshid, M. M., Webb, S., & Chowdhury, R. (2022). English as a business lingua franca: A discursive analysis of business emails. *International Journal of Business Communication*, 59(1), 83-103. <https://doi.org/10.1177/2329488418808040>
- Rossouw, N., & Frick, L. (2023). A conceptual framework for uncovering the hidden curriculum in private higher education. *Cogent Education*, 10(1), 1-15. DOI: 10.1080/2331186X.2023.2191409
- Slavin, R., & Cheung, A. (2005). A synthesis of research on language of reading instruction for English Language Learners. *Review of Educational Research*, 75, 247-281.
- Taylor, L. K., Bernhard, J. K., Garg, S., & Cummins, J. (2008). Affirming plural belonging: Building on students' family-based cultural and linguistic capital through multiliteracies pedagogy. *Journal of Early Childhood Education*, 8(3), 269-294. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1468798408096481>
- Thielsch, A. (2017). Approaching the invisible: Hidden curriculum and implicit expectations in higher education. *Journal for Higher Education Development*, 12(4), 167–187. <https://doi.org/10.3217/zfhe-12-04/11>
- Throsby, D. (1999). Cultural capital. *Journal of Cultural Economics*, 23, 3–12. <https://doi.org/10.1023/A:1007543313370>
- Tuan, D. A. (2021). Intelligible pronunciation: Teaching English to Vietnamese learners. *VNU Journal of Foreign Studies*, 37(1), 176-182. <https://doi.org/10.25073/2525-2445/vnufs.4666>
- Uleanya, C. (2022). Hidden curriculum versus transition from onsite to online: A review following COVID-19 pandemic outbreak. *Cogent Education*, 9(1), 1-10. <https://doi.org/10.1080/2331186X.2022.2090102>
- Valdiviezo, L. A., & Nieto, S. (2017). Culture in bilingual and multilingual education: Conflict, struggle, and power. In W. E. Wright, S. Boun, & O. García (Eds.), *The handbook of bilingual and multilingual education* (pp. 92-108). Wiley.
- Vygotsky, L. (1978). *Mind in society: The development of higher psychological processes*. Harvard University Press.

BÀN VỀ BẢN SẮC NGÔN NGỮ VÀ SỰ TỒN TẠI CỦA CÁCH PHÁT ÂM CHUẨN HÓA

Raqib Chowdhury

Khoa Giáo dục, Đại học Monash, Úc

Tóm tắt: Bất chấp sự thay đổi mô hình toàn cầu theo hướng đa ngôn ngữ và EIL (tiếng Anh như một ngôn ngữ quốc tế) trong giáo dục tiếng Anh, việc tuân thủ nghiêm ngặt các dạng ngoại ngữ ‘chuẩn hóa’ vẫn tồn tại ở các quốc gia không nói tiếng Anh. Giáo viên ngôn ngữ, người học và phụ huynh của họ, cũng như các nhà hoạch định chính sách và thiết kế chương trình giảng dạy, đều nhấn mạnh việc áp dụng các loại tiếng Anh ‘chuẩn’ như một quy chuẩn và không cần bàn cãi. Những kỳ vọng này là tự nhiên, dựa trên nhận thức của người sử dụng ngôn ngữ về vốn văn hóa mà những hình thức phát âm tiêu chuẩn hóa này có thể mang lại cho họ. Bài viết này bàn về cách giáo dục chính quy, thông qua chương trình giảng dạy ản, gia tăng áp lực phải tuân theo cách phát âm chuẩn hóa và điều này có thể tác động tiêu cực đến bản sắc của người học ngôn ngữ như thế nào. Người ta có thể đặt câu hỏi tại sao một người nói tiếng Việt lại muốn nói giọng ‘Mỹ’ hoặc ‘Anh’ riêng biệt và những đặc quyền thực sự này mang lại cho họ là gì. Người ta cũng có thể đặt câu hỏi tại sao giọng Việt trong tiếng Anh, một dấu ản nhận dạng riêng biệt, lại có thể bị coi là kém uy tín hơn và liệu điều này có gây bất lợi cho họ trong một số bối cảnh nhất định hay không. Bài viết lập luận rằng với tư cách là nhà giáo dục ngôn ngữ, chúng ta có trách nhiệm làm cho người học nhận thức được bản sắc ngôn ngữ của họ và những giọng không chuẩn nhưng dễ hiểu có thể và nên là những chỉ dấu đúng nhất về bản sắc của một người.

Từ khóa: bản sắc ngôn ngữ, phát âm chuẩn hóa, giọng điệu, chương trình giảng dạy ản, cách nói bản xứ, tiếng Anh như một ngôn ngữ quốc tế

MODULATION OF MOVING CONCEPTUAL METAPHORS IN VIETNAMESE TRANSLATION IN ECONOMIC DISCOURSE

Quan Thi Hoang Anh^{1,*}, Huynh Anh Tuan²

¹ *The University of Finance and Business Administration, Trung Trac, Van Lam, Hung Yen, Vietnam*

² *VNU University of Languages and International Studies, Pham Van Dong, Cau Giay, Ha Noi, Vietnam*

Received 28 December 2023

Revised 8 February 2024; Accepted 29 February 2024

Abstract: The emergence of Cognitive Linguistics (CL) and the introduction of Conceptual Metaphor Theory (CMT) by Lakoff and Johnson (1980) have provided a novel lens through which metaphor translation can be examined. The persistent concern of translation practice remains the effective transmission of meaning and messages. To achieve this objective, modulation may be needed to effectively communicate the intended information. This sequential mixed method study investigates the translation of metaphoric expressions rooted in the conceptual metaphor “ECONOMIC CHANGES ARE WAYS OF MOVING” in English and Vietnamese economic press releases. The findings reveal that a significant number of metaphoric expressions are retained in translation with minimal alterations, suggesting a high degree of cross-linguistic conceptual coherence concerning economic changes. However, occasional modifications are observed, highlighting the potential influence of modulations on the conceptualization of economic events and the underlying conceptual metaphors within the Vietnamese economic context. This study contributes to providing insights into the dynamic interplay between language and conceptualization in the translation of economic news.

Keywords: translation, modulation, economic discourse, conceptual metaphor, metaphoric expressions

1. Introduction

The examination of metaphor has always been a significant topic in language studies as scholars (Aristotle in Butcher, 1998; Kövecses, 2020; Lakoff & Johnson, 1980; Peter Newmark, 1998; Richards, 1936; Toury, 2012) from diverse fields of Rhetoric, Linguistics, and Translation Studies have shown an enduring interest in metaphor and its uses. The development of metaphor theories exhibits an evolution rooting in Aristotle's comparison and substitution theory of metaphor (Wheatley, 1962), and progressing to interaction theory (Black, 1955), the conceptual theory of metaphor (Lakoff & Johnson, 1980), the critical metaphor analysis (Charteris-Black, 2004) and the extended theory of metaphor (Kövecses, 2020).

While metaphors can be general in nature, they can also be influenced by specificity of the discourse in which they dwell. In highly abstract domains such as economics, metaphors are prevalent and are defined as understanding economic issues and events in terms of non-economic issues (Klamer & Leonard, 2010; D. McCloskey, 1998; Richardt, 2003).

In translation studies, metaphor has always been a pivotal problem. There is a division among translation theorists about the translatability of metaphor from one language into

* Corresponding author.

Email address: quanthihoanganh@gmail.com

another. This study follows the stance that metaphors can be translated with a degree of linguistic inequivalence. This view suggests that the process of metaphor translation may involve modulation, which according to Vinay and Darbelnet (1995) means “change of viewpoint and category”.

The conceptual metaphor “ECONOMIC CHANGES ARE WAYS OF MOVING” is among the most common conceptual metaphors used to describe economic changes in the discourse. The use of moving conceptual metaphors in economic discourse shape our conceptualization of types of changes that take place in an economy (Charteris-Black, 2004, p. 159).

2. Objectives

With the aim of exploring how the translation of economic news releases from English to Vietnamese affects the understanding of conceptual metaphor “ECONOMIC CHANGES ARE WAYS OF MOVING”, this paper targets to address the three research questions:

(1) What moving metaphors can be identified in economic discourse?

This involves systematically identifying and categorizing metaphoric expressions aligned with the chosen conceptual metaphor in English economic discourse.

(2) What translation procedures are used in rendering metaphoric expressions?

To address this question, it is necessary to investigate the translation strategies and procedures used to render moving metaphoric expressions from English to Vietnamese, offering insights into cross-linguistic transfer and potential modifications.

(3) To what extent does Vietnamese translation modulate conceptual metaphor “ECONOMIC CHANGES ARE WAYS OF MOVING” generated in English economic discourse?

The answer to this question helps to assess how Vietnamese translations influence the conceptualization of economic events in the Vietnamese texts.

3. Literature Review

3.1. *Metaphors in Economic Discourse*

According to Bowker and Pearson (2003), specialized language, or Language for Special Purposes (LSP) is characterized as distinct language used in specialized fields with unique rules, content comprehensible to a limited audience, and rich in terminologies. Specialized language, such as that in economics, exhibits specific lexical and pragmatic features, differing from both general language and sociolects. In the same vein, Cabré (1992) outlines criteria for defining special language, illustrating that economic discourse involves diverse participants, economic-related situations, varied discursive functions, and primarily employs written communication. Accordingly, economic texts can be categorized into expert-expert and expert-layman communication, emphasizing that layman may have a certain level of economic understanding. This study focuses on the press-releases which, according to Richardt (2003) are written for a lay audience by experts in the field.

While economic discourse is often assumed to be devoid of metaphors, works by Klamer and Leonard (2010), Kövecses (2010), McCloskey (1998) and many others demonstrate the prevalence of metaphoric expressions in this discourse. Even Kövecses (2010) and Richardt (2003) highlight economic transactions and money as prominent sources of metaphors in this

domain. According to McCloskey (1998), metaphors, deeply embedded in scientific reasoning and expert knowledge representations, are not mere ornamentation but an integral part of economic reasoning and thinking. McCloskey further argues that metaphors in economics, particularly those comparing economic and noneconomic matters, constitute a vital aspect of economic vocabulary. Therefore, this paper adopts McCloskey's (1998) view of economic metaphor, in which economic metaphors is defined as understanding economic issues in terms of noneconomic domains. Economic issues and events are concerned with finance, allocation of funds, fiscal matters, market, economic crisis, inflation while non-economic matters may concern better known domains to users such as movement, war, building, plant, machine, animal, and natural phenomena like flowing liquid, storm.

3.2. Metaphor Translation

Before delving into the discussion of metaphor in translation, it is important to note that throughout this paper, the terms "metaphor" and "metaphoric expression" are used interchangeably. Additionally, the term "conceptual metaphor" serves as an overarching term, encompassing various entailments. As such, metaphor translation in this context refers to the translation of metaphoric expressions.

The translation of metaphor has long been a central concern in translation studies, with scholars holding diverse views. Some argue that metaphor poses no significant translation challenges, while others contend that it is inherently untranslatable, particularly in poetry and culture-specific contexts. A middle-ground perspective suggests that metaphors are translatable but may exhibit varying degrees of interlinguistic inequivalence.

Key contributors to these debates include Nida (1964), Reiss (2014), Dagut (1976, 1987), van den Broeck (1981), Newmark (1988), and Toury (1995). Those advocating the untranslatability of metaphor, such as Nida and Dagut, propose that translating metaphors results in the emergence of new metaphors. On the contrary, proponents of full translatability, like Reiss (2000) and Mason (1982), argue for a universal school of metaphor, positing that metaphors are omnipresent and translatable across all languages.

A third perspective, supported by scholars like Beekman and Callow (1975), Newmark (1988), Toury (1995), and Schäffner (2004), suggests that metaphor is partially or conditionally translatable, acknowledging a potential shift in meaning during translation. Snell-hornby (1995) adopts an in-between approach, asserting that the translation of metaphor depends on cultural factors, as well as the function and structure of the metaphor within the text.

Further discussion of metaphor's translatability can be found in Newmark (1988), who argues that many conventionalized metaphors, especially those considered "dead" can be translated without alteration. In agreement with Newmark (1988) about translatability of metaphors, Kövecses (2003) adds that the universality of metaphors stems from shared bodily experiences, making certain metaphors cross-language translatable without losing their meaning or impact. However, non-universal metaphors pose a greater challenge due to their inherent ambiguity, requiring shared knowledge among interlocutors. To address this, strategies such as rendering a metaphoric expression into the same metaphorical expression in target text or a metaphor into another can be employed to preserve the metaphor's image or impactful effects. Schäffner (2004) emphasizes that translatability extends beyond individual metaphorical expressions, becoming linked to conceptual systems in both the source and target cultures.

In the context of economic language, it is worth considering the implications of these

theoretical stances during the process of analyzing metaphor translation. Economic discourse often relies on metaphorical expressions to convey complex economic ideas. Moreover, it introduces additional layers of complexity as metaphors in this domain are closely tied to specific community, or economics-related nuances. Translation of metaphoric expressions may lead to the modulation of conceptual metaphors, therefore of conceptual systems (Schäffner, 2004), in order to get the message conveyed.

4. Methodology

4.1. Data Collection

This study investigates small corpus, which according to Aston (1997) (in Connor & Upton, 2004) is typical in specialized genre, like this current research. A collection of economic news releases and their authentic translations are gathered, exploring the employed procedures and patterns of modulation in rendering metaphors. To achieve this, online reports published by the World Bank (WB) and Asian Development Bank (ADB) between 2019 and 2022, available in both English and Vietnamese, are electronically collected from their websites. To ensure data quality, only reports meeting our specific criteria are included: (1) publication within the aforementioned timeframe for freshness, (2) availability in both languages, and (3) clearly stated authorship and publication details to distinguish translations from single-author works. WB and ADB reports typically preface both the original and translated versions with author and publication details. For example, if a report is written by a WB expert and published by WB in Washington, its Vietnamese counterpart would retain these same details. This distinct authorship fosters analysis of linguistic variation – examining how languages handle economic metaphors and reflecting underlying cultural differences.

Table 1

General Information About the Small Corpus

	Source Texts		Target Text	
Time span	2019 - 2022			
	English		Vietnamese	
Articles	WB: 20	ADB: 24	WB: 20	ADB: 24
Total length	11.512 words	13.726 words	18.258 words	21.391 words
Number of Source Text (ST) moving conceptual metaphors and their (Target Text) TT equivalences	35		49	
Average length of a text	574 words		901 words	
Total pages	81.2 pages		90.2 pages	

Table 1 provides an overview of the data collected. The total number of the collected journals is 44 and the length of the texts varies considerably. The average length of each English article is approximately 574 words and the length of the Vietnamese equivalent text is often over 300 - word- longer than the its English version, about 901 words each. The number of identified conceptual metaphors indicates that metaphors are pervasive in each text. Additionally, it is important to note that each conceptual metaphor can be expressed by multiple

metaphorical expressions, which may occur with varying frequency and quantity in each text. This is partly due to the amount of information and the number of wish-to-convey messages that each report is intended to. One more interesting thing is that when the linguistic manifestations of ST conceptual metaphors are rendered into Vietnamese, they can be modulated into metaphoric expressions of several different conceptual metaphors. Thus, the number of the TT conceptual metaphors overwhelms their ST corresponding ones. For example, 4 expressions underlying conceptual metaphor POOR ECONOMIC GROWTH IS MOVING DOWN in English are rendered into four different metaphoric expressions of four dissimilar conceptual metaphors POOR ECONOMIC GROWTH IS MOVING DOWN, POOR ECONOMIC GROWTH IS MOVING BACK, POOR ECONOMIC GROWTH IS SLIDING DOWN A SLOPE and POOR ECONOMIC GROWTH IS DOWN. This leads to the formation of more conceptual metaphors in the Vietnamese texts.

4.2. Analytical Framework

Methodologically, the current study adopts an exploratory sequential mixed methods approach, with qualitative analysis preceding quantitative analysis. The quantitative is supplementary to the qualitative analysis, helping to achieve the research goals and increasing the study's validity (Creswell, 2014). The utilization of both modes of analysis in the research is of great importance in achieving the study's aims.

In this study, the qualitative analysis focuses on the meanings and metaphoricity of words and phrases in the data, utilizing tools such as *MIP (Metaphor Identification Procedure)* by Pragglejaz Group (2007), *Vtudien*, *Open English Wordnet*, *Oxford Economics dictionary*, Kittay and Lehrer's (1981) *Semantic Theory of Metaphor*. First, the process of identifying linguistic metaphors in source texts is done by following MIP closely, with recurrent references to the two dictionaries *Open English wordnet* and *the Oxford Dictionary of Economics*. Secondly, once metaphoricity of a candidate expression is confirmed, the keywords of the metaphoric expression are assigned to appropriate conceptual domains utilizing Kittay and Lehrer's (1981) theory and *Open English wordnet*. The similar process is applied to determine the metaphoricity of the Vietnamese counterparts of the identified metaphoric expressions in the ST. However, in this stage, *Vtudien* is used instead.

The quantitative analysis centers on the frequency of conceptual metaphors, translation procedure occurrences and modulations happening to the identified conceptual metaphors in the data.

To analyze translation procedures of metaphor and to figure out the modulation of conceptual metaphor in translation, this research uses an adapted analytical framework from Kövecses (2003) and Vinay and Darbelnet (1995).

In Kövecses's (2003) study, he identifies five possibilities for the expression of the same figurative meaning in two languages, which can be simplified as follows:

(1) Different word forms, same literal meaning, same figurative meaning: The two languages use the same linguistic expressions to express the same figurative meaning.

(2) Different word forms, different literal meaning, same figurative meaning: The two languages use different linguistic expressions to express the same figurative meaning, but the expressions are based on the same conceptual metaphor.

(3) Different word forms, different literal meaning, different figurative meaning: The two languages use different linguistic expressions to express the same figurative meaning, and the expressions are based on different conceptual metaphors.

(4) Different word forms, different literal meaning, different figurative meaning: No metaphor: The two languages use different linguistic expressions to convey the same meaning, and there is no metaphor involved.

(5) Different word forms, different literal meanings, same figurative meaning: The two languages use different linguistic expressions to express the same figurative meaning, but one of the expressions is based on a conceptual metaphor and the other is not.

Among the given five possibilities, possibility (4) falls outside the scope of this paper as it involves no formation of metaphor. Additionally, Kövecses (2003) highlights the presence of shared conceptual metaphors and their overlapping expressions across languages, which implies that such metaphors can be rendered faithfully during translation. From the four possibilities (1), (2), (3) and (5), it is possible to synthesize the translation procedures and their corresponding codes in Figure 1.

Figure 1

Translation Procedures and the Corresponding Codes

Procedure	Codes of the procedure
1. CM → Same CM	
1.1. M → same metaphoric expression of the same CM	M.M
1.2. M → different metaphoric expression of the same CM	M.MD
2. CM → Different CM	M.M'
3. CM → Non-Metaphor	M.NM

As regards the issues of metaphor translation in translation studies, advocates of the translatability of metaphor acknowledge that in metaphor translation there are certain degrees of modulation not only at the level lexical but also in terms of message. Consequently, modulation can happen to both meaning and forms. It is defined:

Modulation is a variation of the form of the message, obtained by a change in the point of view. (Vinay & Darbelnet, 1995, p. 36)

According to the French scholars, modulation, which is motivated by the “different modes of thinking”, reflects the differences in the way the same situation is conceptualized in two languages. They also contend that the modulations enable a Source Language (SL) expression to remain at the conceptual level while its equivalent in the Target Language (TL) stays more concrete. This helps to obtain naturalness in the target text (Putranti, 2018). In their work, they propose eleven modulation patterns, encompassing the shift from *abstract for concrete and vice versa; explicative modulation; the part for whole; one part for another; reversal of terms; negation of the opposite; active to passive and vice versa; space for time; and exchange of intervals for limits* (in space and time).

In the context of metaphor translation, Vinay and Darbelnet’s (1995) focus primarily on changing symbols. This suggests that metaphor translation often involves transforming one metaphor into a different one in the Target Text (TT), revolving around alterations in symbols or imagery. Such alteration, however, is not discussed in depth. In the same book, Vinay and Darbelnet’s (1995) also mention that message can be modulated from abstract to concrete and vice versa. Therefore, in metaphor translation, the image can be altered from a more abstract in Source Text (ST) to a more concrete one in TT and vice versa. For example, “*a re-escalation*

of trade tensions” [WB20.01.08.EX11] draws up an image of something moving up in general. Nevertheless, its Vietnamese version “*căng thẳng thương mại tái leo thang*” evokes a more concrete image of moving up with a device. Or in another example, the expression “*further interest rate hikes are likely*” [ADB22.09.14EX08] describes an increase in interest rate as a journey on the road while its Vietnamese translation “*sẽ có những đợt gia tăng lãi suất mới*” simply depicts such changes as an increase in interest rate. Accordingly, there are several possibilities of symbol conversions in TT: When a ST symbol, which is more abstract, is altered into a more concrete image in target text, it is coded as A.C; when a ST symbol, which is more concrete, is transferred into a more abstract image in target text, the code used is C.A; finally, when a ST symbol is changed into a completely new symbol in target text, the code is C.S.

Obviously, that a metaphor is rendered into a different metaphor is not always a case. A metaphor can be rendered either into the same metaphor, into another metaphor or non-metaphorically in TT, which have been proved by works of many scholars including Newmark (1988), Kövecses (2003) and Toury (1995). Furthermore, Vinay and Darbelnet’s (1995) also give a discussion about fixed modulations in the message, which in their opinion takes place when the expression is shared between languages, “both at the lexical level and for whole messages” (p.154). Consequently, if a metaphor is universal, its translation tends to be a fixed expression in TT. This view aligns with Kövecses’ (2003) and D. McCloskey (1998), D. N. McCloskey (1995)’s view about universal metaphors. In this study, fixed modulation is included as a modulatory pattern wherein a metaphor is preserved in the target texts.

Another modulation that Vinay and Darbelnet (1995) mention in their work is explicative modulation (E.M), which, according to them, serves to explain and clarify in TT when a nuanced expression is required to translate into a TT. Therefore, in this study, explicative modulation is added in analyzing metaphor modulation in translation. This aligns with situations wherein a metaphor is rendered non metaphorically in TT. The utilizations of E.M, A.C, C.A and C.S, therefore, make Vinay and Darbelnet’s (1995) models of modulation of metaphor in translation more complete and can examine modulation of metaphor in translation more thoroughly.

To address the final research question, this study proposes an adapted taxonomy of modulation based on Vinay and Darbelnet (1995) and corresponding codes as in Figure 2.

Figure 2

Modulation Patterns and Corresponding Codes

Patterns of modulation	Corresponding codes
Fixed modulation	F.M
Abstract for Concrete	A.C
Concrete for Abstract	C.A
Change of symbol	C.S
Explicative modulation	E.M

As regard process of analysis, after the data collection, metaphor identification is carried out in the STs, using MIP in combination with the *Open English Wordnet*. Once the metaphoric expression is identified in the ST, its equivalent is then sorted out in the TT for metaphoricity identification. After that, these expressions, both in English and Vietnamese are analyzed, using Kövecses' (2003) model of metaphor translation. The alteration of metaphors in translation is

then triangulated using Vinay and Darbelnet's (1995) adapted model of modulation. In the triangulation, the identified procedures of translation are then examined and matched with the patterns of modulation in Figure 2. Specifically, M.M and M.MD are triangulated with F.M because M.M and M.MD involve the retainment of metaphor in TL. Similarly, M.M' is compared with A.C, C.A and C.S for it involves the adjustment of image in translation. For instance, when the ST conceptual metaphor POOR ECONOMIC GROWTH IS MOVING DOWN is altered into POOR ECONOMIC GROWTH IS MOVING BACK, there is a formation of a completely new image in TT. In this case, the modulation pattern is C.S. However, when it is turned into POOR ECONOMIC GROWTH IS SLIDING DOWN A SLOPE, the image of moving down a slope is more concrete and specific. The modulation pattern in this case is A.C. Contrarily, when it is modulated into POOR ECONOMIC GROWTH IS DOWN, the decided pattern is C.A. This is because the ST domain of moving down depicts more clearly the manner of event while the related domain of down is more generic. The orientational conceptual metaphor in the TT does not describe specifically how the event occurs. Meanwhile, M.NM is paired with E.M for they both serve to clarify and explain in TL. This pairing and matching process will help to work out whether there are any differences in the conceptualization of economic events in TL.

The instances (4.1), (4.2) and (4.3) below demonstrate the application of analytical framework after they are determined to be metaphoric using MIP.

(4.1):

“**Remittance flows** are expected to fall across all World Bank Group regions”

(Dự báo dòng kiều hối chảy vào tất cả các khu vực của Nhóm Ngân hàng Thế giới đều sẽ giảm xuống) [WB20.04.22EX05]

Excerpt (4.1) exemplifies MONEY IS FLOWING LIQUID. In this case, “Remittance flows” in the TT are rendered as “dòng kiều hối chảy vào” with addition of “chảy vào”. The additional phrase enhances the naturalness of the Vietnamese expression to Vietnamese readers. Nevertheless, it adds no new information or changes the message of the ST. Following Kövecses' (2003) model of metaphor translation, this scenario signifies the utilization of the M.MD procedure, where the conceptual metaphor remains consistent between the ST and TT. Triangulating with modulation patterns, it becomes evident that in this case, M.MD denotes quite a faithful representation with only a slight alteration of the message, confirming a shared metaphorical understanding between the languages. Therefore, the modulation pattern here is F.M:

(4.2):

“Lower Global Demand **Pulls Down** Developing Asia's Growth Prospects”

(Nhu cầu giảm sút toàn cầu kéo lùi triển vọng tăng trưởng của châu Á đang phát triển) [ADB19.04.03EX00]

In (4.2) the expression “Pulls Down Developing Asia's Growth Prospects” is the linguistic expression of conceptual metaphor POOR ECONOMIC GROWTH IS MOVING DOWNWARD. Nevertheless, its Vietnamese version, “kéo lùi triển vọng tăng trưởng của châu Á đang phát triển” aligns with a distinct conceptual metaphor, POOR ECONOMIC GROWTH IS MOVING BACKWARD. According to Kövecses' (2003) model of metaphor translation, this represents a case of M.M' procedure, signifying the transfer of the source text (ST) metaphor into a different target text (TT) metaphor, both linguistically and conceptually. Extending the analysis with Vinay and Darbelnet's (1997) modulation patterns, a comparison

of the identified conceptual metaphors indicates that MOVING DOWNWARD and MOVING BACKWARD evoke different concepts or images, conveying distinct messages. Therefore, the modulation pattern employed here is identified as C.S, where the new image is seamlessly integrated into the target text.

(4.3):

“Policies aimed at softening the blow of **global food price swings** can have unintended consequences if implemented by many governments in uncoordinated fashion.”

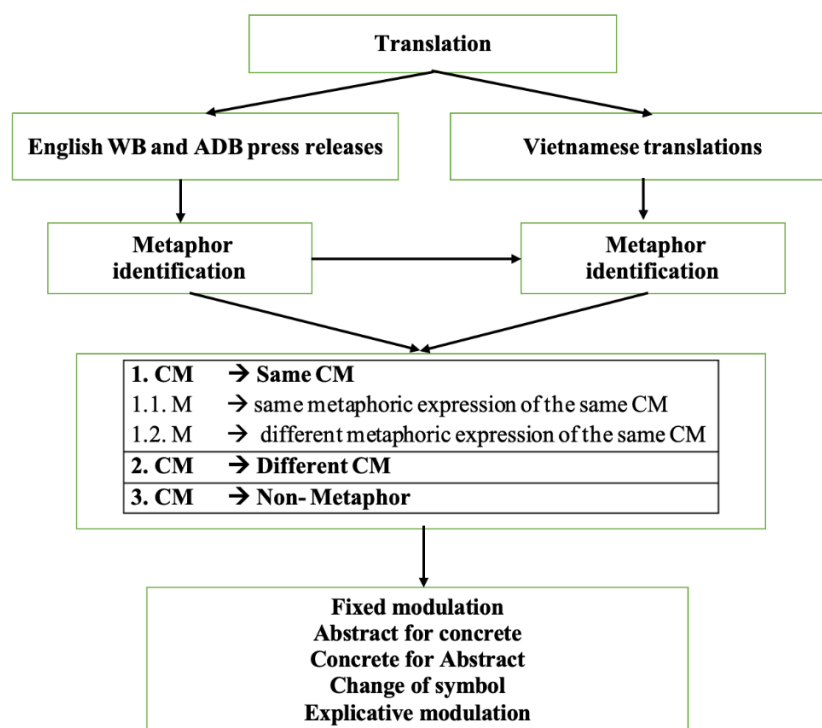
*(Các chính sách nhằm mục đích kìm hãm **biến động giá lương thực** có thể mang lại những hậu quả không mong muốn nếu các quốc gia không có sự phối hợp thực hiện.) [WB19.01.18EX22]*

Moving to (4.3), the expression “global food price swings” presents PRICE FLUCTUATION IS SWING MOVING. However, the ST phrase is rendered non-metaphorically into Vietnamese as “biến động giá lương thực”, without retaining the swinging image. This means the ST metaphor undergoes M.NM procedure. This aligns with category E.M in the framework, which indicates a meaning-oriented translation approach.

Figure 3 illustrates the adapted analytical framework and how the triangulation will be used.

Figure 3

Analytical Framework



5. Findings

This part of the study provides information to answer the three research questions. Section 5.1 supplies a bird’s eye view about the moving conceptual metaphors and the corresponding conceptual mappings. Meanwhile sections 5.2 and 5.3 give accounts of the

translation procedures and modulation pattern utilized in the data.

5.1. Economic Changes Are Ways of Moving

In this study, conceptual metaphors are divided based on Charister-Black's (2004) classification, in which overarching conceptual metaphor is called conceptual key and conceptual metaphor. The results of the analytical process reveal that moving conceptual metaphor can be subdivided into conceptual keys and basic conceptual metaphors. Each conceptual key is a set of basic conceptual metaphors. Specifically, ECONOMIC CHANGES ARE WAYS OF MOVING can be subcategorized into such key concepts as ECONOMIC CHANGES ARE MOVING UPWARD, ECONOMIC CHANGES ARE MOVING DOWNWARD, ECONOMIC CHANGES ARE MOVING BACKWARD, ECONOMIC CHANGES ARE MOVING FORWARD, ECONOMIC CHANGES ARE FLOWS OF LIQUID, ECONOMIC CHANGES ARE WAYS OF MOVING ON ROAD, ECONOMIC CHANGES ARE SWING MOVING. These conceptual keys can have more specific conceptual metaphors. For example, the last conceptual key can be represented by PRICE FLUCTUATION IS SWING MOVING, POVERTY ERADICATION IS AN ESCAPE, POOR ECONOMIC RECOVERY IS SLOW MOVING. These conceptual metaphors are manifested by 273 expressions.

5.1.1. Economic Changes Are Moving Forward

Among the conceptual keys which underpin the overarching conceptual metaphor ECONOMIC CHANGES ARE WAYS OF MOVING, ECONOMIC CHANGES ARE MOVING FORWARD appears with the highest frequency with 123 expressions of 10 basic English conceptual metaphors. Such conceptual metaphors, along with their translation procedures and modulation patterns can be found in Table 2, wherein the ST conceptual metaphors and their TT equivalents are given. These conceptual metaphors describe three major trends of economic changes, including improving changes, negative changes and neutral changes. Typically, positive changes are conceptualized moving forward while negative changes are described as either slow moving or stagnant. Neutral changes are portrayed simply as movement. The most prevalent conceptual metaphor is POOR ECONOMIC GROWTH IS SLOW MOVING with 66 expressions identified in ST, which leaves the second and third frequent conceptual metaphor IMPROVING ECONOMIC GROWTH IS MOVING FORWARD and IMPROVING ECONOMIC GROWTH IS MOVING HORIZONTALLY far behind with only 21 and 14 expressions respectively. The other popular conceptual metaphors identified include POOR ECONOMIC SECTOR GROWTH IS SLOW MOVING, FINANCIAL CONDITION CHANGES ARE MOVING, DEVELOPING HUMAN CAPITAL IS MOVING FORWARD, POVERTY ERADICATION IS AN ESCAPE, SOLVING ECONOMIC PROBLEMS IS MOVING FORWARD, LESS SERIOUS INFLATION IS SLOW MOVING, and ENACTING ECONOMIC POLICIES IS FOLLOWING PHYSICAL THING, which appear with low frequency and minimum quantity.

Table 2 reveals the most common target domains referenced in the data. These domains focus on negative aspects like poor economic growth, positive aspects like improving economic growth and sector-specific growth, and economic management concerns like changes in financial conditions, inflation rates, human capital development, poverty eradication, problem-solving, and policy enactment

Additionally, the data highlights interesting cross-linguistic differences in how English and Vietnamese conceptualize economic change through source domains. In English, physical

movement metaphors dominate, with references to “moving forward”, “moving horizontally”, “slow moving”, “escaping”, and “following”. Along with the movement patterns in the STs, Vietnamese, however, utilizes additional domains to describe economic change. These include orientational domains like “up” and “down”, growing organism, and road-based movement.

The lexical items which are seen in this group of metaphors often depict movement in general. For instance: growth momentum (đà tăng trưởng), slow down (chững lại), ease (chậm chạp), a faster pace (tốc độ nhanh hơn), and accelerate (tăng tốc).

The illustrations of the conceptual metaphors can be found in the following examples:

(5.1):

“the war in Ukraine is weighing on **growth momentum**”

(chiến tranh tại Ukraine lại tạo thêm áp lực cho đà tăng trưởng) [WB22.04.04EX06]

(5.2):

“Developing Asia will maintain **strong but moderating growth**”

(Khu vực châu Á đang phát triển sẽ vẫn duy trì đà tăng trưởng mạnh mẽ dù có giảm nhẹ) [ADB19.07.18EX01]

(5.3):

“Measures to protect peri-urban cropland and develop short supply chain marketing channels can sustain a critical source of fresh produce to cities, contributing to urban productivity, resilience, and **circular economies**”

(Bảo vệ đất trồng trọt ven đô và phát triển các kênh tiếp thị của chuỗi cung ứng ngắn mà có thể đảm bảo nguồn cung thực phẩm tươi sống cho các thành phố, góp phần tăng năng suất đô thị và khả năng phục hồi, đồng thời thúc đẩy nền **kinh tế tuần hoàn**.) [WB21.03.03EX12]

Table 2

General Information About Types of ECONOMIC CHANGES ARE MOVING FORWARD and Patterns of Modulation

Key concept	Conceptual metaphors		Number of Expressions	Metaphors Translation Procedure	Modulation pattern
ECONOMIC CHANGES ARE MOVING FORWARD	POOR ECONOMIC GROWTH IS SLOW MOVING	POOR ECONOMIC GROWTH IS SLOW MOVING	66	M.M (x23)	F.M (x37)
				M.MD(x14)	
		POOR ECONOMIC GROWTH IS DOWN		M.M' (x29)	C.S (x29)
	IMPROVING ECONOMIC GROWTH IS MOVING FORWARD	IMPROVING ECONOMIC GROWTH IS MOVING FORWARD	21	M.M (x15)	F.M (x17)
				M.MD (x2)	
		ECONOMY IS A GROWING ORGANISM		M.M' (x3)	C.S (x3)
	IMPROVING ECONOMIC				

		GROWTH IS UP			
		NON-M		M.NM (x1)	E.M (x1)
	IMPROVING ECONOMIC GROWTH IS MOVING HORIZONTALLY	IMPROVING ECONOMIC GROWTH IS MOVING HORIZONTALLY	14	M.MD(x1)	F.M (x1)
		IMPROVING ECONOMIC GROWTH IS UP		M.M' (x12)	C.S (x12)
		NON-M		M.NM (x1)	E.M (x1)
	POOR ECONOMIC SECTOR GROWTH IS SLOW MOVING	POOR ECONOMIC SECTOR GROWTH IS SLOW MOVING	9	M.MD (x2)	F.M (x2)
		POOR ECONOMIC SECTOR GROWTH IS DOWN		M.M' (x7)	C.S (x7)
	FINANCIAL CONDITION CHANGES ARE WAYS OF MOVING	FINANCIAL CONDITION CHANGES ARE MOVING	5	M.M (x3)	F.M(x3)
		NON-M		M.NM (2)	E.M (2)
	DEVELOPING HUMAN CAPITAL IS MOVING FORWARD	DEVELOPING HUMAN CAPITAL IS MOVING FORWARD	3	M.M (x1)	F.M (x1)
		DEVELOPING HUMAN CAPITAL IS MOVING FORWARD ON ROAD		M.M' (x2)	A.C (x2)
	POVERTY ERADICATION IS AN ESCAPE	POVERTY ERADICATION IS AN ESCAPE	2	M.M (x2)	F.M (x2)
	SOLVING ECONOMIC PROBLEMS IS MOVING FORWARD	SOLVING ECONOMIC PROBLEMS IS MOVING FORWARD ON ROAD	1	M.M' (x1)	A.C (x1)
	LESS SERIOUS INFLATION IS SLOW MOVING	LESS SERIOUS INFLATION IS DOWN	1	M.M' (x1)	C.S (x1)
	ENACTING ECONOMIC POLICIES IS FOLLOWING PHYSICAL THINGS	ENACTING ECONOMIC POLICIES IS FOLLOWING PHYSICAL THINGS	1	M.M (x1)	F.M (x1)
Total	10	16	123	M.M (x 45) M.MD (x19)	F.M (x64)

				M.M' (x 55)	C.S (x52)
					A.C (x3)
				M.NM (x4)	E.M (x4)

Examples (5.1), (5.2), and (5.3) convey different facets of economic fluctuations. In (5.1), the expression "growth momentum" utilizes the image of "momentum" to depict economic growth as moving forward. It exemplifies conceptual metaphor IMPROVING ECONOMIC GROWTH IS MOVING FORWARD. On the other hand, (5.2), an instance of POOR ECONOMIC GROWTH IS SLOW MOVING, articulates economic activity slowing down, employing the metaphorical concept of a slow pace of movement. Here, economic performance is metaphorically represented as a deceleration or modest movement. Moving to (5.3), the expression "*circular economies*" illustrates neutral changes as movements in general. In this example, the physical concept of a moving object with sustained moving force is mapped onto economic progress. This metaphorical mapping highlights the desired trajectory of economic growth – continuous, dynamic, and progressing.

5.1.2. Economic Changes are Moving Upward

ECONOMIC CHANGES ARE MOVING UPWARD is the second most prevalent conceptual metaphor with 64 expressions identified in the data, which can be subdivided into DEVELOPING ECONOMY IS A MOVING-UP OBJECT, MORE ECONOMIC UNCERTAINTY IS WAYS OF MOVING UP, HIGHER PRICE IS MOVING UP, MASSIVE DEBT IS MOVING UP, IMPROVING ECONOMIC GROWTH IS MOVING UP, and IMPROVING ECONOMY IS A JUMPING ANIMAL. Using the image of “moving up” to describe different economic issues such as economic uncertainties, improving economic growth, debt and higher price, these conceptual metaphors reflect a nuanced conceptualization of events. The detailed information about ECONOMIC CHANGES ARE MOVING UPWARD can be seen in Table 3.

The table highlights how the "moving up" pattern portrays rising economic issues. Interestingly, while English uses "moving up" solely to represent diverse target domains like development, uncertainty, price hikes, growth, and debt, Vietnamese employs broader expressions including "up and down", "escape", "upstanding object" and "ladder climbing". These additional domains and moving patterns inject nuance into describing economic changes, shaping diverse perspectives on economic events.

(5.4):

“determinants of sovereign local currency bond issuance in **emerging markets**.”

(các yếu tố quyết định việc phát hành trái phiếu quốc tế chính phủ bằng đồng nội tệ ở các thị trường mới nổi.) [ADB22.03.25EX16]

(5.5):

“supply disruptions continue **to push up** food and fuel prices”

(sự gián đoạn nguồn cung tiếp tục **đẩy giá thực phẩm và nhiên liệu lên cao**) [ADB22.09.21EX19]

(5.6):

“There is also the risk of renewed **escalation in trade tensions** between the United States and the People’s Republic of China.”

(có nguy cơ về **sự leo thang mới trong căng thẳng thương mại** giữa Hoa Kỳ và Cộng

hòa Nhân dân Trung Hoa) [ADB20.06.18EX10]

The metaphorical use of expressions indicating moving up in the examples signifies progress or growth in economic contexts. Economic changes are conceptualized as dynamic processes with a directional aspect. The metaphors underscore that economic changes are not static, instead they are perceived as movement herein the upward direction implies a positive connotation, suggesting progress, growth, or improvement. However, moving up is not always attached with positive meaning. The message depends on the economic event it depicts. While (5.4) describes new successful markets as a moving-up object, example (5.5) portrays the prices' being pushed up as a result of supply disruption. The shortage of supply has blown the price of food up. It conveys a sense of urgency or intensity in the upward movement. (5.6) describes a negative economic situation since it gives an account of the escalating trade tension between two big economies in the world, China and America. It visualizes something in upward trajectory.

Table 3

General Information About Types of ECONOMIC CHANGES ARE MOVING UPWARD and Patterns of Modulation

Key concept	Conceptual metaphors		Number of Expressions	Metaphors Translation Procedure	Modulation pattern
ECONOMIC CHANGES ARE MOVING UPWARD	DEVELOPING ECONOMY IS A MOVING-UP OBJECT	DEVELOPING ECONOMY IS A MOVING-UP OBJECT	43	M.M (x41)	F.M (x42)
				M.MD (x1)	
		DEVELOPING ECONOMY IS AN UPSTANDING OBJECT		M.M' (x1)	C.S (x1)
	MORE ECONOMIC UNCERTAINTIES ARE WAYS OF MOVING UP	MORE ECONOMIC UNCERTAINTIES ARE UP	11	M.M' (x11)	C.A (x6)
		MORE ECONOMIC UNCERTAINTIES ARE MOVING UP ON A LADDER			A.C (x5)
	HIGHER PRICE IS MOVING UP	HIGHER PRICE IS MOVING UP	4	M.M (x2)	F.M (x2)
		HIGHER PRICE IS UP			M.M' (x2)
	IMPROVING ECONOMIC GROWTH IS MOVING UP	IMPROVING ECONOMIC GROWTH IS UP	3	M.M' (x3)	C.A (x2)
		IMPROVING ECONOMIC GROWTH IS AN ESCAPE			C.S (x1)

	MASSIVE DEBT IS MOVING UP	MASSIVE DEBT IS UP	2	M.M' (x2)	C.A (x1)
		MASSIVE DEBT IS MOVING UP ON A LADDER			A.C (x1)
	IMPROVING ECONOMY IS A JUMPING ANIMAL	IMPROVING ECONOMY IS AN ESCAPE	1	M.M' (x1)	C.S (x1)
Total	6	11	64	M.M (x43)	F.M (x44)
				M.MD (x1)	
				M.M' (x20)	C.S (x3)
					A.C (x 6)
					C.A (x11)

5.1.3. Economic Changes are Flows of Liquid

The next conceptual key, which ranks third in terms of quantity, 37 out of 273 identified moving metaphoric expressions, making up of about 13.5% is ECONOMIC CHANGES ARE FLOW OF LIQUID. Despite the notable prevalence of linguistic metaphors, they are primarily categorized into distinct types, specifically MONEY IS FLOWING LIQUID, TRADES ARE FLOWS OF LIQUID, POOR TRADE IS POND OF STILL LIQUID.

Table 4

General Information About Types of ECONOMIC CHANGES ARE FLOWS OF LIQUID and Patterns of Modulation

Key concept	Conceptual metaphors		Number of Expressions	Metaphors Translation Procedure	Modulation pattern
ECONOMIC CHANGES ARE FLOWS OF LIQUID	MONEY IS FLOWS OF LIQUID	MONEY IS FLOWS OF LIQUID	35	M.M (x13), M.MD (x14)	F.M (x27)
		NON-M		M.NM (x8)	E.M (x8)
	TRADES ARE FLOWS OF LIQUID	TRADES ARE FLOWS OF LIQUID	1	M.M (x1)	F.M (x1)
	POOR TRADE IS POND OF STILL LIQUID	POOR TRADE IS STOP MOVING	1	M.M'(x1)	C.S(x1)
Total	3	3	37	M.M (x14)	F.M (x28)
				M.MD (x14)	
				M.M' (x1)	C.S (x1)
				M.NM (x8)	E.M (x8)

The metaphors in Table 4 all share a common feature: visualizing the direction of money flow within and between economies. However, while English relies solely on the liquid flow domain, Vietnamese counterparts use both liquid flow and physical movement. This difference in utilized domains contributes to the diverse ways people in these cultures perceive economic activity.

To describe the flow of capital through economy, lexical terms portraying liquid qualities are used. The typical lexical terms that can be found in the data include *flow*, *outflow*, *spill over*, *liquidity*, and *channel*. The image of liquid flow can be shown in the following examples:

(5.7):

“**Remittances** to the region also remained resilient.”

(*Lượng kiều hối đổ về khu vực cũng vẫn duy trì ổn định*) [ADB22.04.06AEX10]

(5.8):

“A sharper tightening in borrowing costs could depress **capital inflows**”

(*Chi phí vốn vay thắt chặt ảnh hưởng tiêu cực đến dòng vốn chảy vào*) [WB19.01.18.EX11]

(5.9):

“The upswing in commodity exporters **has stagnated**”

(*Xu hướng tăng xuất khẩu hàng hóa đang chững lại*) [WB20.04.22EX03]

(5.10):

“**Restricted trade flows** and declining tourism numbers have dampened economic outlook for the Pacific subregion.”

(*Các dòng chảy thương mại bị hạn chế và hoạt động du lịch giảm sút đã tác động nặng nề tới triển vọng kinh tế của Thái Bình Dương.*) [ADB20.06.18EX22]

All the three examples above demonstrate the conceptual metaphor “MONEY IS FLOWS OF LIQUID” where the abstract concept of money is metaphorically understood by a more concrete concept of flowing liquid. In these examples, money is described as resilient, implying a continuous and steady flow similar to the stability associated with liquid. In (5.7), the expression “Remittances to” is conceptualized as flowing liquid through the utility of the accompanying preposition. Similarly (5.8) evokes an image of a depressed flow of liquid under the impact of tightened monetary policy. Meanwhile (5.9) invites readers to think of the poor trade situation as a body or pond of still liquid through the employment of the expression “has stagnated”. Moving to (5.10), the expression “Restricted trade flows” portrays the poor trade situation in terms of a poor flow of liquid due to the external factors of tourism decline.

5.1.4. Economic Changes Are Moving on the Road

The fourth type of moving conceptual metaphor which describes the changes of economy is ECONOMIC CHANGES ARE MOVING ON THE ROAD, which is an overarching conceptual metaphor, making up of 21 expressions and constituting 7.5% among the moving linguistic metaphors identified in the data. The key conceptual metaphor is characterized by 7 sub conceptual metaphors. The reason for categorizing the expressions to the domain of moving on road stems from the recurrent employment of key words such as *path*, *stride*, *drive*, *derail*, *bumpy* and *step*.

Table 5 showcases a collection of conceptual metaphors depicting economic changes like growth, financial shifts, business competitiveness, and human capital development. Interestingly, English relies on source domains like traveling on the road, by car, by train, and even on foot. Vietnamese, however, expands the metaphorical vividness, incorporating additional domains like orientation and general movement (beyond just vehicles) alongside those found in English.

Table 5

General Information About Types of ECONOMIC CHANGES ARE WAYS OF MOVING ON THE ROAD and Patterns of Modulation

Key concept	Conceptual metaphors		Number of Expressions	Metaphors Translation Procedure	Modulation pattern
ECONOMIC CHANGES ARE WAYS OF MOVING ON THE ROAD	ECONOMIC GROWTH IS WAYS OF MOVING ON THE ROAD	ECONOMIC GROWTH IS WAYS OF MOVING ON THE ROAD	8	M.M (x1)	F.M (x2)
		ECONOMIC GROWTH IS WAYS OF MOVING ON THE ROAD		M.MD (x1)	
		NON-M		M.NM(x6)	E.M (x6)
	ECONOMIC GROWTH IS MOVING BY CAR	ECONOMIC GROWTH IS MOVING FORWARD	2	M.M' (x2)	C.A (x2)
	ECONOMIC GROWTH IS MOVING BY RAIL	ECONOMIC GROWTH IS MOVING	2	M.M' (x2)	C.A (x2)
	FINANCIAL ALLOCATION IS MOVING BY RAIL	NON-M	3	M.NM (x3)	E.M (x3)
	FINANCIAL CONDITION CHANGES ARE MOVING ON ROAD	FINANCIAL CONDITION CHANGES ARE UP	4	M.M' (x1)	C.S (x1)
		FINANCIAL CONDITION CHANGES ARE MOVING		M.M' (x3)	C.A (x3)
POOR BUSINESS COMPETITIVENESS IS MOVING ON BUMPY ROAD	POOR BUSINESS COMPETITIVENESS IS SLOW MOVING	1	M.M' (x1)	C.A (x1)	
DEVELOPING HUMAN CAPITAL IS MOVING FORWARD ON ROAD	DEVELOPING HUMAN CAPITAL IS MOVING FORWARD ON ROAD	1	M.MD (x1)	F.M	
Total	7	7	21	M.M (x1) M.MD (x2) M.M' (x9) M.NM (x9)	F.M (x3) C.S (x1) C.A (x8) E.M (x9)

Consider some of the examples exemplifying the identified conceptual metaphors.

(5.11):

“Most economies in the Asia and Pacific region can expect a **difficult growth path** for the rest of 2020.”

*(Phần lớn các nền kinh tế ở khu vực Châu Á và Thái Bình Dương có thể mong đợi **con đường tăng trưởng khó khăn** trong thời gian còn lại của năm 2020) [ADB20.09.15EX05]*

(5.12):

“geopolitical uncertainty and new COVID-19 outbreaks and virus variants **could derail**

this momentum.”

(sự bất ổn về địa chính trị, các đợt bùng phát COVID-19 mới và các biến thể của vi-rút có thể làm chệch hướng đà tăng trưởng hiện nay.) [ADB2204.06AEX06]

(5.13):

“Yields of 10-year local currency government bonds dropped while yield curves flattened”

(Lãi suất trái phiếu chính phủ kỳ hạn 10 năm bằng đồng nội tệ giảm trong khi đường cong lãi suất đi ngang) [ADB22.09.14EX02]

The above examples employ the conceptual metaphor ECONOMIC CHANGES ARE WAYS OF MOVING ON ROAD using imagery associated with movement on a path to depict economic changes. They aid in creating a more accessible and concrete understanding of the complexities and dynamics involved in economic shifts, offering a concrete framework for conceptualizing the path of economic development. Specifically, in example (5.11), the phrase “difficult growth path” suggests a challenging growth journey of the Asia-Pacific economies, emphasizing the arduous nature of economic development. The metaphorical expression gives a visual representation of the obstacles and challenges these economies face. While the use of “derail” in (5.12) emphasizes the fragility of the growth momentum, likening it to a train veering off its tracks, the linguistic metaphor in (5.13) is nuanced with “yield curves flattened” portraying a more stable, level road.

5.1.5. Economic Changes Are Swing Moving, Moving Backward and Moving Downward

The last three moving conceptual keys that are identified in the corpus include ECONOMIC CHANGES ARE SWING MOVING, ECONOMIC CHANGES ARE WAYS OF MOVING BACKWARD and NEGATIVE ECONOMIC CHANGES ARE WAYS OF MOVING DOWNWARD. Despite their infrequent occurrence and limited representations, they mirror critical differences in the perception and in linguistic representation of economic events across the source and target languages. Table 6 presented herein, provides a collection of these three overarching conceptual metaphors, along with their respective sub-conceptual metaphors. These metaphors indicate nuanced distinctions in the linguistic framing of economic phenomena. Specifically, linguistic manifestations of ECONOMIC CHANGES ARE WAYS OF MOVING BACKWARD can be used to describe either positive or negative changes in economic discourse. In contrast, general economic fluctuations are mirrored through the lens of conceptual metaphor ECONOMIC CHANGES ARE SWING MOVING and its entailments. Meanwhile, negative economic changes tend to be articulated through expressions grounded in the conceptual metaphor NEGATIVE ECONOMIC CHANGES ARE WAYS OF MOVING DOWNWARD. Among the three conceptual keys, the first one stands out with comparatively higher frequency of 19 expressions in the STs, which fall into 6 distinct sub-conceptual metaphors. Meanwhile, the two others only account for 6 and 3 expressions respectively.

Regarding patterns, the three groups of conceptual metaphors in Table 6 primarily employ “moving backward”, “downward”, and “swinging motions”. These moving patterns portray economic changes like setbacks, decline, and volatility.

The first group highlights the economic changes in relation to moving backward domains. Notably, English relies on “bouncing back” and “moving backward” while Vietnamese employs a wider range. The Vietnamese domains include “moving backward on foot” (adding concreteness), “bomb” (representing sudden impact), “orientation” (signifying

progress), and even “state of health” (comparing economic state with personal well-being). This variety in Vietnamese metaphors highlights the different ways the culture perceives economic fluctuations.

Moving to the second group, it records only one conceptual metaphor **NEGATIVE ECONOMIC CHANGES ARE WAYS OF MOVING DOWNWARD**, utilizing a moving downward pattern. Contradictorily, apart from moving down, the Vietnamese counterparts showcase the utilization of moving back, sliding down a slope (more concrete), and orientation. This diversity signifies the nuanced ways Vietnamese culture perceives economic decline.

The last group reveals the use of swinging motion to understand changes in export, price and financial condition. Meanwhile, in TL, such economic changes are conceptualized in terms of a more general domain of moving, suggesting a potential difference of cognition patterns.

Table 6

General Information About Types of ECONOMIC CHANGES ARE SWING MOVING, ECONOMIC CHANGES ARE WAYS OF MOVING DOWNWARD, ECONOMIC CHANGES ARE WAYS OF MOVING BACKWARD and Patterns of Modulation

Key concept	Conceptual metaphors		Number of Expressions	Metaphors Translation Procedure	Modulation pattern	
ECONOMIC CHANGES ARE WAYS OF MOVING BACKWARD	IMPROVING ECONOMIC GROWTH IS BOUNCING-BACK	IMPROVING ECONOMIC GROWTH IS IMPROVING STATE OF HEALTH	9	M.M' (x9)	C.S (x9)	
		IMPROVING ECONOMIC GROWTH IS A BOMB				
	IMPROVING BUSINESS IS BOUNCING BACK	IMPROVING BUSINESS IS IMPROVING STATE OF HEALTH	4	M.M' (x4)	C.S (x4)	
		IMPROVING BUSINESS IS UP				
	IMPROVING ECONOMIC GROWTH IS MOVING BACKWARD	IMPROVING ECONOMIC GROWTH IS MOVING BACKWARD	3	M.M (x2)	F.M (x3)	
				M.MD (x1)		
	POOR ECONOMIC GROWTH IS MOVING BACKWARD	POOR ECONOMIC GROWTH IS MOVING BACKWARD ON FOOT	3	M.M' (x1)	A.C (x1)	
		NON-M		M.NM (x2)		E.M (x2)
	Total	4	6	19	M.M (x2)	F.M (x3)
					M.MD (x1)	
M.M' (x14)					C.S (x13)	
M.NM (x2)					A.C (x1)	
					E.M (x2)	

NEGATIVE ECONOMIC CHANGES ARE WAYS OF MOVING DOWNWARD	POOR ECONOMIC GROWTH IS MOVING DOWN	POOR ECONOMIC GROWTH IS MOVING DOWN	1	M.M (x1)	F.M (x1)
		POOR ECONOMIC GROWTH IS MOVING BACK	1	M.M' (x1)	C.S (x1)
		POOR ECONOMIC GROWTH IS SLIDING DOWN A SLOPE	1	M.M' (x1)	A.C (x1)
		POOR ECONOMIC GROWTH IS DOWN	1	M.M' (x1)	C.S (x1)
		NON-M	1	M.NM (x1)	E.M
	PRICE FLUCTUATION IS MOVING UP AND DOWN	PRICE FLUCTUATION IS UP AND DOWN	1	M.M' (x1)	C.A (x1)
Total	2	5	6	M.M (x1) M.M' (x4) M.NM (x1)	F.M (x1) C.S (x2) A.C (x1) C.A (x1) E.M (x1)
ECONOMIC CHANGES ARE SWING MOVING	EXPORT CHANGES ARE SWING MOVING	EXPORT CHANGES ARE WAYS OF MOVING	1	M.M' (x1)	C.A (x1)
	PRICE FLUCTUATION IS SWING MOVING	NON-M	1	M.NM (x1)	E.M (x1)
	ECONOMIC CHANGES ARE SWING MOVING	NON-M	1	M.NM (x1)	E.M (x1)
Total	3	1	3	M.M' (x1) M.NM (x2)	C.A (x1) E.M (x2)

Consider the following examples:

(5.14):

“Growth will **also rebound** in the Pacific from 0.9% in 2018 to 3.5% in 2019”

*(Tăng trưởng cũng sẽ **bùng nổ** ở khu vực Thái Bình Dương, từ 0,9% năm 2018 lên 3,5% năm 2019) [ADB19.04.03EX15]*

(5.15):

“Global Growth to Slow through 2023, **Adding to Risk of ‘Hard Landing’** in Developing Economies”

*(Tăng trưởng kinh tế chậm dự báo sẽ kéo dài tới năm 2023, **gia tăng nguy cơ “hạ cánh cứng”** ở các nền kinh tế đang phát triển) [WB22.01.11EX00]*

(5.16):

“Policies aimed at softening the blow of global food **price swings** can have unintended

consequences”

(Các chính sách nhằm mục đích kìm hãm biến động giá lương thực có thể mang lại những hậu quả không mong muốn) [WB19.01.18E212]

Examples (5.14), (5.15), (5.16) belong to three different conceptual metaphors ECONOMIC CHANGES ARE WAYS OF MOVING BACKWARD, DOWNWARD, and SWING MOVING. Each utilizes distinct images to depict various aspects of economic changes. In (5.14), the ST expression employs the image of a rebounding object to describe economic growth, using a combination of both backward and upward movement to signify a positive shift in the Pacific economy. Contrastingly and interestingly, in (5.15), the expression “hard landing” implies a downward movement, suggesting a contraction in global growth. The image here is one of economic regression or decline, linked to a journey by airplane moving in the unexpected direction. In (5.16), the employment of “swings” in the expression describing global food prices implies a back-and-forth motion. This swinging movement represents the oscillations and unpredictability of economic changes in the context of food prices.

5.1.6 How English and Vietnamese Map Movement Concepts onto Economic Changes

Figure 4 summarizes the findings of the study on how the two languages use metaphors of movement to understand economic changes. It compares English and Vietnamese by placing the target domain of economic changes in the center. On either side are the source domains of movement, divided into four key attributes: direction, speed, forces, effort, and means of transport. Arrows connect these attributes to the target domain, showing how each language maps movement concepts onto economic ideas. This helps to visually compare and contrast how English and Vietnamese conceptualize economic changes through the domain of movement.

Figure 4 presents the mappings of moving in English and in Vietnamese onto economic changes representing conceptual metaphor ECONOMIC CHANGES ARE WAYS OF MOVING. According to Klamer and Leonard (2010), the relevant attributes, which create no conflict, are mapped on target domain while leaving open to other attributes. In the figure, the main relevant conceptual attributes of moving, for example, direction, speed, forces, effort, and means of transport are mapped onto economic changes, economic progress, economic growth, forces driving economic change and manner of economic changes respectively. The data records the shared attributes of speed, forces and effort between the pair of investigated languages. The use of directional patterns like “moving forward, upward, backward, downward” are shared in the pair of languages for describing economic progress, suggesting a linear trajectory. The same literal meaning and same figurative meaning in such cases, according to Kövecses (2003), can lead to the same expression of the same conceptual metaphor. Nevertheless, there are differences in the specific moving attributes that are mapped, which can be observed in directionality, and the employment of means of transport for describing economic fluctuations.

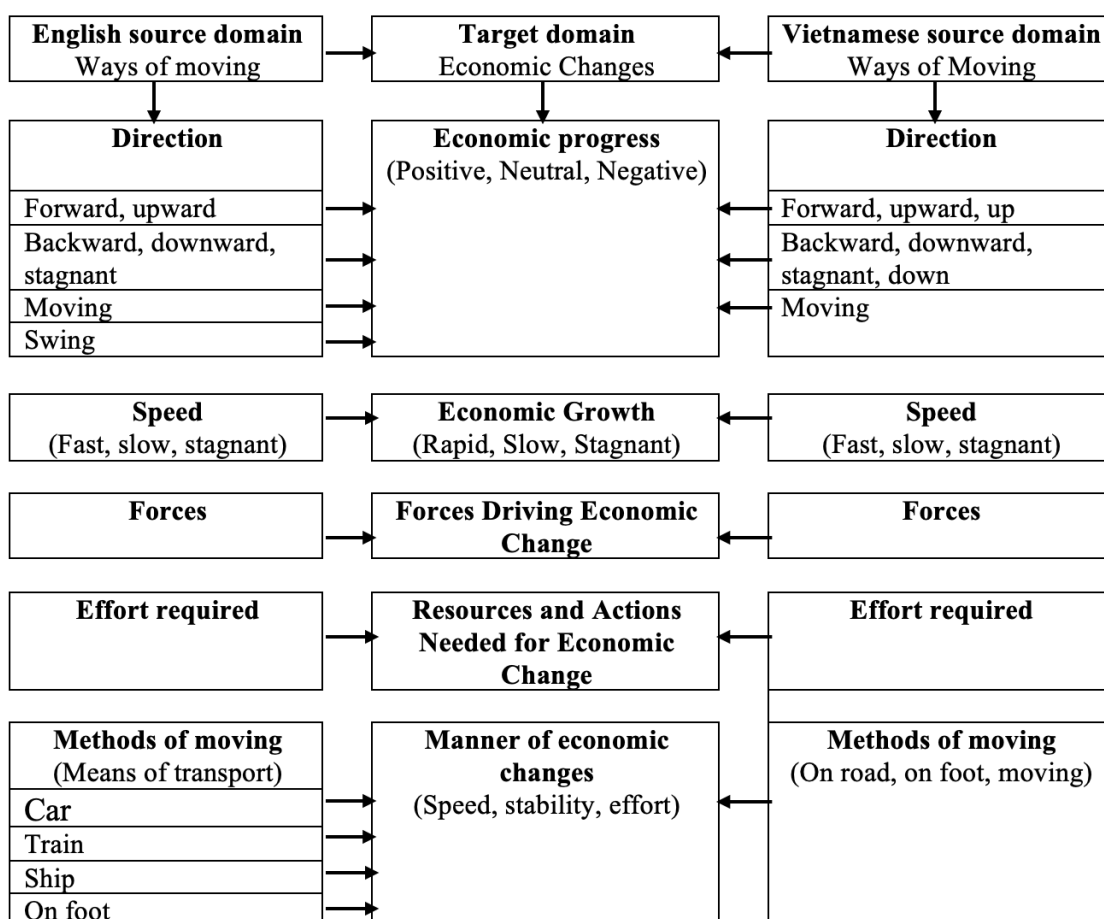
As regard directionality, along with the shared moving patterns between the languages, English incorporates “swing movement” for indicating a specific pattern of fluctuations or oscillations in economic conditions. This nuanced difference may reflect divergent perceptions of economic stability and dynamism. On the other side, the inclusion of “up and down” in Vietnamese to portray economic fluctuation highlights a vertical dimension to economic movement, suggesting changes in elevation or level. This differs from English, where such

vertical terms are less prevalent in portraying shifts in economic activities. This variation may reflect differing perceptions of economic stability and volatility, with Vietnamese possibly emphasizing vertical shifts in economic conditions more prominently compared to English.

Moving to the mapping of means of transport on to economic changes, the variety of means of transport utilized in English, such as “car, train, ship, plane, and on foot” to describe economic fluctuations suggests a multifaceted view of economic movement, encompassing various modes of transportation symbolizing different aspects of economic activity. In contrast, Vietnamese offers fewer choices, implying a potentially more simplified or localized understanding of economic change. This indicates a dichotomy in the perception of the complexity and interrelation of economic processes between the two languages, with English emphasizing a more diverse and globalized view while Vietnamese focuses on more localized or traditional modes of movement.

Figure 4

How English and Vietnamese Map Movement Concepts Onto Economic Changes



5.2. Translation Procedures

Table 7 provides information to answer the second research question about the translation procedures utilized to render English metaphoric expressions into Vietnamese. Translation procedure M.M is recorded to be the most frequent, accounting for approximately 38.8 %, with 106 times of all occurrences. As an approach to render a metaphoric expression into a different manifestation of the same conceptual metaphor in TT, M.MD lags far behind at

13.5 %. Whereas, M.M' ranks second in terms of occurrences. The procedure amounts to 38.1 % while M.NM accounts for 9.5%.

Table 7

Metaphor Translation Procedure Occurrences

No	Type of translation procedures	Number of occurrences	Frequency
1	M.M	106	38.8 %
2	M.MD	37	13.5 %
3	M.M'	104	38.1 %
4	M.NM	26	9.5 %
Total		273	100%

The results of the study reveal some tendencies in rendering metaphoric expressions of conceptual metaphor ECONOMIC CHANGES ARE WAYS OF MOVING.

First, in most cases, the metaphors are often rendered directly. Therefore, the original metaphorical concepts tend to be preserved in the TTs, which may stem from the share of conceptual metaphors between the languages and M.M procedures prove to effectively convey the intended meaning across languages.

Secondly, the relatively lower frequency of M.MD suggests that while some metaphors maintain the same, the slight modifications or additions are made to better align with the linguistic and cultural nuances of the target language. This can bring about a balance between staying faithful to the original metaphor and adapting it to suit the target audience.

Thirdly, the occurrence of M.M' as the second most common procedure suggests a veering in the employment of alternative expressions in TTs to make it natural to the audience.

Lastly, the presence of M.NM, although less frequent, indicates that translating metaphoric expressions into non-metaphorical ones can be a choice to ensure more straightforward communication or when there are linguistic constraints.

5.3. Modulation of Metaphors

Table 8 highlights the modulation patterns used in translating metaphors within the corpus. Over half (52.3%) of metaphors are translated using F.M, retaining the original metaphor's core meaning in the TT. This includes procedures M.M and M.MD, where metaphors are rendered directly or slightly differently, suggesting shared conceptual metaphors between the languages. Interestingly, when metaphors are translated to different metaphors, three modulation patterns emerge: C.S, C.A, and A.C. These account for 26.4%, 6.8%, and 4.0% of cases, respectively. The use of explicative modulation account for approximately 9.5%, totaling 26 times, aligning with M.NM. Additionally, lexical modulations contribute to the explanation of meaning the metaphor.

The findings of the study suggest that fixed modulation is the most common and reliable strategy for metaphor translation, effectively preserving the original message and impact. This popularity likely stems from shared conceptual metaphors within the economic community, even if expressed in different linguistic forms. This finding echoes Vinay and Darbelnet's (1995) view on fixed modulation for universal expressions.

However, this strategy is not always feasible especially when there is a difference in habit of using language or culture. In such cases, a different strategy, such as explicative modulation or changes of symbol of metaphor may be needed.

Table 8

Number and Frequency of Modulation Occurrences

No	Modulation	Number of occurrences	Frequency
1	Fixed Modulation	143	52.3%
2	Change of Symbol	72	26.4%
3	Concrete for Abstract	21	6.8%
4	Abstract for Concrete	11	4.0 %
5	Explicative Modulation	26	9.5 %
Total		273	100%

The observations highlight nuanced differences in the conceptualization of economic events between the two languages. While the most common type of modulation is C.S, accounting for 26.4% of all shifts, E.M makes up 9.5%, C.A is about 6.8%, and A.C only contributes 4.0%. F.M has a big share 52.3%.

The shifts in metaphoric expressions during translation underscore the subtle differences in the conceptualization of economic phenomena between English and Vietnamese. The high frequency of C.S pattern may reflect a difference in perceiving the same phenomenon between Vietnamese and English. Interestingly, the relatively low frequency of A.C and much higher frequency of C.A in the findings reflect a preference in English for using more direct language. On the other hand, in Vietnamese there exists a higher level of abstraction in representing economic events.

6. Discussion

This part of the paper is devoted to explaining the relevance of translation procedures, metaphor modulation, and subsequent interpretation of conceptual metaphors in target language. To illustrate the interrelation between translation procedures and modulation patterns used in rendering metaphoric expressions, examples will be given in tables for convenience.

6.1. Metaphor Into the Same Metaphor, Different Expression of the Same Conceptual Metaphor and Fixed Modulation

As can be seen from the analytical results in table 7 and 8 above, 106 metaphoric expressions out of 273 undergo direct translation in the TTs. The images in such cases are kept the same in Vietnamese. M.M translation procedure appears most frequently and coincides with the fixed modulation. The metaphoric expressions which are conventionalized and almost universal in economic communities are retained during translation. Thus, meaning is unchanged across the pair of languages. Fixed modulation leads to almost no changes in the conceptualization of the economic events and the formation of corresponding conceptual metaphor in TTs. This suggests that many economic metaphors have become standard and widely accepted within the economic community. These conventionalized metaphors likely represent shared conceptualizations that are familiar with both Vietnamese and English users

involved in economic discourse. This is understandable since economics as a subject, along with economic theories, is originally written by English and American economists. For example, theory of “Invisible hand” was developed by Adam Smith (in Sloman, 2006). “Comparative advantages” in international trade was initiated by Ricardo (1821). They are two English economists. Another instance is the “General theory of money” by Keynes (in Tily, 2007), an American economist, whose ideas have been developed into Keynesianism. These may contribute to the explanation why many metaphoric expressions are preserved during translation for consistency and clarity in communication. The use of metaphors in economic discourse often draws on economic activities, transactions, and relationships often governed by shared principles (D. N. McCloskey, 1995). In reality, when economic books, theories are translated into Vietnamese, many terms are imported, used recurrently by the press and economic experts and gradually become deep-rooted in economic communities. As a result, metaphors employed in economic contexts may have comparable meanings and interpretations in English and Vietnamese languages and economic community. Instances are seen in Table 9.

Table 9

Examples of Metaphoric Expressions With M.M, M.MD Translation Procedure and Their Modulations in Translation

Conceptual metaphor		Translation procedure	Modulation pattern
ST	TT		
HIGHER PRICE IS MOVING UP		M.M	F.M
(6.1): supply disruptions continue to push up food and fuel prices <i>ADB22.09.21EX19</i>	sự gián đoạn nguồn cung tiếp tục đẩy giá thực phẩm và nhiên liệu lên cao .		
ENACTING ECONOMIC POLICIES IS FOLLOWING PHYSICAL THINGS			
(6.2) Municipal leaders are uniquely placed to develop and pursue integrated food policies that respond to citizens’ needs and boost cities’ overall resilience. <i>WB21.03.03EX17</i>	Các nhà lãnh đạo thành phố đang ở vị trí thích hợp nhất để xây dựng và theo đuổi các chính sách lương thực tích hợp nhằm đáp ứng nhu cầu của người dân và tăng cường khả năng phục hồi chung của thành phố.		
POOR ECONOMIC GROWTH IS SLOW MOVING		M.MD	F.M
(6.3) Economic activity began to slow down <i>WB21.09.27EX02</i>	Hoạt động kinh tế bắt đầu bị chững lại		

(6.1) is the linguistic metaphor of HIGHER PRICE IS MOVING UP, which experiences F.M pattern in TT as the expression “push up food and fuel prices” is kept almost the same in Vietnamese as “đẩy giá thực phẩm và nhiên liệu lên cao”. Similarly, (6.2) is rendered the same in TT, employing M.M and F.M. In this case, the image of someone following something is preserved in the TT through the fixed modulation of “pursue integrated food policies” as “theo đuổi các chính sách lương thực tích hợp” in Vietnamese. Nonetheless, (6.3) undergoes M.MD

translation procedure with a little difference in meaning since “chững lại” evokes the image of stop moving and “slow down” invites contemplation of a reduced speed. It can be observed that in (6.3) both the expressions in the ST and TT are based on the same conceptual metaphor POOR ECONOMIC GROWTH IS SLOW MOVING. This suggests that when the conceptual metaphors are shared in English and Vietnamese, either M.M or M.MD is often employed.

The predominant presence of M.M, M.MD and therefore, F.M modulation pattern signifies a substantial degree of conceptual overlap between English and Vietnamese economic conceptual metaphors. It indicates a commonality in how individuals from these linguistic communities mentally frame and understand economic phenomena. This alignment in cognitive patterns may derive from shared human experiences and universal conceptual metaphors that underpin economic discourse across the languages.

6.2. Metaphor into a Different Metaphor and Change of Symbol Modulation, Abstract to Concrete and Vice Versa

Table 10 provides examples of metaphor translation procedure M.M and its related modulation pattern.

Table 10

Examples of Metaphoric Expressions With M.M’ Translation Procedure, and Modulation Patterns

Conceptual metaphor		Translation procedure	Modulation pattern
ST	TT		
POOR ECONOMIC GROWTH IS MOVING DOWNWARD	→ POOR ECONOMIC GROWTH IS MOVING BACKWARD	M.M’	C.S
(6.4): Lower Global Demand Pulls Down Developing Asia's Growth Prospects <i>ADB19.04.03EX00</i>	Nhu cầu giảm sút toàn cầu kéo lùi triển vọng tăng trưởng của châu Á đang phát triển		
ECONOMIC GROWTH IS MOVING BY RAIL	→ECONOMIC GROWTH IS MOVING		C.A
(6.5): geopolitical uncertainty and new COVID-19 outbreaks and virus variants could derail this momentum. <i>ADB2204.06AEX06</i>	sự bất ổn về địa chính trị, các đợt bùng phát COVID-19 mới và các biến thể của vi-rút có thể làm chệch hướng đà tăng trưởng hiện nay.		A.C
POOR ECONOMIC GROWTH IS MOVING DOWN	→ POOR ECONOMIC GROWTH IS SLIDING DOWN A SLOPE		
(6.6): Euro Area growth is projected to slip to a downwardly revised 1% in 2020 <i>WB20.01.08.EX09</i>	Tăng trưởng ở khu vực đồng Euro theo dự báo sẽ trượt dốc xuống mức thấp hơn là 1% vào năm 2020.		

Change of symbol is a prevalent modulation pattern seen in metaphor translation (Vinay & Darbelnet, 1995). This strategy, however, allows a dynamic alternation of image from the image of different categories, an abstract concept to a more specific concept and vice versa.

In (6.4), the ST expression belongs to conceptual metaphor POOR ECONOMIC GROWTH IS MOVING DOWNWARD but its Vietnamese equivalent can be categorized into POOR ECONOMIC GROWTH IS MOVING BACKWARD. This conversion is caused by the difference in the choice of lexical items in English and in Vietnamese. (6.4) undergoes M.M' since there is a change of symbol used in the conceptual metaphors in ST and TT. While the negative economic situation in English is perceived as moving down due to the use of “pulls down”, its Vietnamese version, “kéo lùi”, describes an image of moving backward. The change in image used in Vietnamese suggests that describing poor economic situation as moving backward may sound more familiar in Vietnamese.

An interesting illustration of C.A modulation can be observed in (6.5). The English expression conceptualizes economic growth more specifically as moving by train through the utilization of “derail this momentum”. However, its translation in TT “làm chệch hướng đà tăng trưởng”, only conveys moving in general. The loss of the vivid and memorable image of travelling by train can affect the conceptualization of economic changes in TT. However, the emphasis of the general concept of movement rather than a specific mode of transportation may ensure the metaphor resonates with a wider audience and remains relevant across different cultural and linguistic backgrounds like in Vietnam, where train is not frequently used as a means of transport.

Conversely, in (6.6), the expression “to slip to a downwardly revised 1%” is translated into “sẽ trượt dốc xuống mức thấp hơn là 1%”, introducing a more specific image of something descending a slope. This modification emphasizes the downward movement, providing a lively representation of the economic decline. The choice of a more specific image in the Vietnamese translation suggests a cultural or linguistic inclination towards a more tangible and visually descriptive representation of economic events.

The above analysis and examples reveal nuanced shifts in the conceptual modulation of metaphors. Instances of Changes of Symbol, Concrete for Abstract, and Abstract for Concrete modulation patterns showcase the intricacies involved in adapting metaphors for the target language audience. This indicates a dynamic process where metaphoric expressions are not merely transposed but undergo subtle adjustments to align with cultural and linguistic nuances. In other words, they highlight the fluidity and adaptability of conceptual metaphors in the translation process. These modulation patterns, therefore, underscore the importance of considering not only linguistic but also cultural variations in conveying metaphorical meaning.

6.3. Metaphor into Non-Metaphor and Explicative Modulation

Though M.NM, or explicative modulation rank third in terms of modulation pattern used, mounting to 9.0%. This approach contributes to the clarity of meaning in TT since the corresponding TT non-metaphoric expressions paraphrase/explain the metaphor in ST. Table 11 illustrates the modulation pattern with some examples.

Table 11

Examples of Metaphoric Expressions With M.M Translation Procedure, and Modulation Patterns

Conceptual metaphor		Translation procedure	Modulation pattern
ST	TT	M.NM	E.M
ECONOMIC CHANGES ARE SWING MOVING	→ NON-M		
(6.7): Past increases in public and private debt could heighten vulnerability to swings in financing conditions and market sentiment . <i>WB19.01.18EX12</i>	Nợ công và nợ tư nhân leo thang trong thời gian qua có thể làm tăng mức độ dễ bị tổn thương của những thay đổi trong điều kiện tài chính và tâm lý thị trường .		
POOR ECONOMIC GROWTH IS MOVING ON BUMPY ROAD	→NON-M		
(6.8): At the beginning of 2018 the global economy was firing on all cylinders, but it lost speed during the year and the ride could get even bumpier in the year ahead. <i>WB19.01.18EX06</i>	Đầu 2018, kinh tế toàn cầu có dấu hiệu khởi sắc, nhưng sau đó lại giảm tốc và triển vọng trong năm tới còn nhều khó khăn hơn nữa		
MONEY IS FLOWS OF LIQUID	→ NON-M		
(6.9): Portfolio outflows were also seen in most regional bond markets. <i>ADB22.11.25EX03</i>	Hầu hết các thị trường trái phiếu khu vực đều chứng kiến tình trạng rút vốn đầu tư gián tiếp .		

In excerpts (6.7), (6.8) and (6.9), the metaphoric expressions that articulate three interesting conceptual metaphors – ECONOMIC CHANGES ARE SWING MOVING, POOR ECONOMIC GROWTH IS MOVING ON ROAD, and MONEY IS FLOWS OF LIQUID respectively- are all rendered non-metaphorically. In these cases, a literal translation would sound odd in Vietnamese. Consequently, the choice of explicative modulation or non-metaphoric translation gets the message conveyed accurately in TT. However, the expressiveness of the metaphor is lost, and the original conceptualization of economic event in the TT is therefore affected.

Specifically, (6.7) undergoes M.NM or E.M pattern, where “swings” is modulated into “những thay đổi”. The use of non-metaphoric expression leads no metaphor to be attained in the TT. Similarly, one more example of M.NM can be seen in (6.8) as a linguistic manifestation of English conceptual metaphor POOR ECONOMIC GROWTH IS MOVING ON A BUMPY ROAD. In Vietnamese, the image of “bumpy” ride is not kept and “bumpier” is turned into “nhiều khó khăn hơn nữa”. No metaphor can be found in TT in this case. This modulation pattern fails to maintain economic growth as an arduous journey on the road in Vietnamese. In the same vein, in (6.9), the expression “Portfolio outflows” is transferred non-metaphorically into Vietnamese as “tình trạng rút vốn đầu tư gián tiếp”. This translation approach preserves no image of liquid flows in the TT.

Furthermore, analytical results also suggest that explicative modulation can be a useful strategy for translating metaphors, especially when the images of the ST metaphor may sound unfamiliar in the context of the TT. Nevertheless, this strategy may lead to a loss of the impressiveness. It hardly reflects in TT the way the economic event is conceptualized by native users. Consequently, audience of the TT barely imagine how vividly the same economic event is visualized with image in ST.

The choice of explicative modulation, therefore, puts forward the idea that sometimes, a literal translation of metaphoric expressions would sound odd in Vietnamese and certain metaphors, when directly translated, may not align well with the linguistic and cultural nuances of the target language like in the cases of (6.7), (6.8) and (6.9). As a result, explicative modulation is employed to convey the intended meaning more effectively and avoid linguistic awkwardness or confusion. The sacrifice of the images of metaphor in translation highlights the challenge of maintaining both accuracy and vividness in metaphor translation.

7. Conclusion

The investigation into the translation of moving metaphoric expressions in economic discourse reveals that the most common translation procedure used for metaphor translation in economic discourse is metaphor into the same metaphor, with fixed modulation being the most prevalent modulation pattern. Conversion of image, the second most frequent modulation pattern, involves the rendering of a metaphor into a different metaphor in the target language. Metaphor into a non-metaphoric expression is the third common procedure.

While fixed modulation does not alter the conceptual metaphors in the target text, the other two translation procedures, metaphor into a non-metaphoric expression and metaphor into a different metaphor, can affect the way economic events and situations are conceptualized in the target language. Even rendering a metaphor into a non-metaphoric expression can lead to the deletion of a symbol, affecting the expressiveness of the message and the conceptualization of economic events in the target language.

The intricate interrelation between cognition, culture, and the translation procedure showcases the multifaceted nature of conveying economic metaphors across the pair of languages. While shared cognitive structures among economic community facilitate understanding, cultural nuances necessitate nuanced adjustments for effective communication. The implications highlight the need for navigating this complexity, fostering clarity, cultural sensitivity, and dynamic adaptability in metaphor translation for optimal cross-language communication in economic discourse.

References

- Beekman, J., & Callow, J. (1975). *Translating the word of God with Scripture and Topical indexes* (2nd ed.). Zondervan Publishing house.
- Bowker, L., & Pearson, J. (2003). *Working with Specialized Language: A Practical Guide to Using Corpora*. Routledge Taylor & Francis group. <https://doi.org/10.1093/applin/24.4.553>
- Butcher, S. H. (1998). Poetics. In *Poetics*.
- Cabré, M. T. (1992). *Terminology: Theory, Methods, and Applications* (J. C. Sager (ed.)).
- Charteris-Black, J. (2004). *Corpus Approaches to Critical Metaphor Analysis*.
- Connor, U., & Upton, T. A. (2004). *Discourse in the professions: perspectives from corpus linguistics*. John Benjamins Publishing Company.
- Creswell, J. W. (2014). *Research design qualitative, quantitative and Mixed methods approaches* (4th ed.). Sage Publications, Inc.

- Dagut, M. (1976). Can “Metaphor” Be Translated? *Babel. Revue Internationale de La Traduction / International Journal of Translation*, 22(1), 21-33. <https://doi.org/10.1075/babel.22.1.05dag>
- Dagut, M. (1987). More About the Translatability of Metaphor. *Babel. Revue Internationale de La Traduction / International Journal of Translation*, 33(2), 77–83. <https://doi.org/10.1075/babel.33.2.06dag>
- Kittay, E., & Lehrer, A. (1981). Semantic Fields and the Structure of Metaphor. *Studies in Language*, 5(1), 31-63. <https://doi.org/10.1075/sl.5.1.03kit>
- Klamer, A., & Leonard, T. C. (2010). So what’s an economic metaphor? In P. Mirowski (Ed.), *Natural Images in Economic Thought* (pp. 20-52). Cambridge University Press. <https://doi.org/10.1017/cbo9780511572128.002>
- Kövecses, Z. (2003). Language, Figurative Thought, and Cross-Cultural Comparison. *Metaphor and Symbol*, 18(4), 311-320. https://doi.org/10.1207/s15327868ms1804_6
- Kövecses, Z. (2010). *Metaphor: A Practical Introduction* (2nd ed.). Oxford University Press Inc.
- Kövecses, Z. (2020). *Extended conceptual metaphor theory*. Cambridge University Press. <https://www.ptonline.com/articles/how-to-get-better-mfi-results>
- Lakoff, G., & Johnson, M. (1980). *Metaphors we live by*. The university of Chicago Press.
- Mason, K. (1982). Metaphor and Translation. *Babel. Revue Internationale de La Traduction / International Journal of Translation*, 28(3), 140-149. <https://doi.org/10.1075/babel.28.3.05mas>
- McCloskey, D. (1998). *The Rhetoric of Economics* (2nd ed.) (D. J. Depew, D. McCloskey, J. S. Nelson, & J. D. Peters (Eds.)). The university of Wisconsin Press.
- McCloskey, D. N. (1995). Metaphors Economists live by. *Social Research*, 62(2), 215-237.
- Newmark, P. (1988). *Textbook of Translation*. Longman.
- Nida, E. (1964). *Toward a Science of Translating: With Special Reference to Principles and Procedures Involved in Bible Translating*. Leiden E.J.Brill.
- Pragglejaz Group. (2007). MIP: A method for identifying metaphorically used words in discourse. *Metaphor and Symbol*, 22(1), 1-39. <https://doi.org/10.1080/10926480709336752>
- Putranti, A. (2018). Modulation: A Translation Method to Obtain Naturalness in Target Language Texts. *Journal of Language and Literature*, 18(1), 98-101. <https://doi.org/10.24071/joll.v18i1.1115>
- Reiss, K. (2014). *Translation Criticism- the potentials & limitations*. Routledge.
- Ricardo, D. (1821). *On the Principles of Political Economy and Taxation*. J. Murray. <http://socserv2.socsci.mcmaster.ca/~econ/ugcm/3ll3/michels/polipart.pdf>
- Richards, I. A. (1936). *The Philosophy of Rhetoric*. Oxford University Press Inc., London.
- Richardt, S. (2003). Metaphors in expert and common-sense reasoning. In C. Z. Wibbelt (Ed.), *Text, Context, Concepts* (pp. 243-298). De Gruyter Mouton. <https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1515/9783110899931.243>
- Schäffner, C. (2004). Metaphor and translation: Some implications of a cognitive approach. *Journal of Pragmatics*, 36(7), 1253-1269. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.pragma.2003.10.012>
- Sloman, J. (2006). *Economics* (6th ed.). Pearson.
- Snell-hornby, M. (1995). *Translation studies An integrated approach*. John Benjamins Publishing Company.
- Tily, G. (2007). *Keynes Betrayed: The General Theory, the Rate of Interest and “Keynesian” Economics*. Palgrave.
- Toury, G. (1995). *Descriptive Translation Studies - and beyond*. John Benjamins Publishing Company.
- Toury, G. (2012). *Descriptive Translation Studies and beyond: Revised edition*. John Benjamins Publishing Company. <https://books.google.com/books?hl=en&lr=&id=jX4weQT63rIC&pgis=1>
- van den Broeck, R. (1981). The Limits of Translatability Exemplified by Metaphor Translation. *Poetics Today*, 2(4), 73. <https://doi.org/10.2307/1772487>
- Vinay, J.-P., & Darbelnet, J. (1995). *Comparative Stylistics of French and English* (Y. Gambier, M. Shlesinger, & G. Toury (eds.)). John Benjamins Publishing Company.
- Wheatley, J. (1962). “Like.” *Proceedings of the Aristotelian Society*, 62(1), 99-116.

SỰ ĐIỀU BIẾN CỦA ẨN DỤ Ý NIỆM “NHỮNG THAY ĐỔI KINH TẾ LÀ CÁC CÁCH CHUYỂN ĐỘNG” TRONG BẢN DỊCH TIẾNG VIỆT DIỄN NGÔN KINH TẾ

Quản Thị Hoàng Anh¹, Huỳnh Anh Tuấn²

*¹Trường Đại học Tài chính - Quản trị kinh doanh,
Trung Trắc, Văn Lâm, Hưng Yên, Việt Nam*

*²Trường Đại học Ngoại ngữ, Đại học Quốc gia Hà Nội,
Đường Phạm Văn Đồng, Cầu Giấy, Hà Nội, Việt Nam*

Tóm tắt: Sự xuất hiện của Ngôn ngữ học Tri nhận và sự ra đời của Thuyết Ẩn dụ ý niệm của Lakoff và Johnson (1980) đã cung cấp một lăng kính mới để nghiên cứu dịch ẩn dụ. Việc truyền tải ý nghĩa và thông điệp một cách hiệu quả vẫn luôn là mối quan tâm trong nghiên cứu dịch thuật. Để đạt được mục tiêu này, có thể cần phải sử dụng các điều biến nhằm truyền đạt thông tin một cách hiệu quả. Nghiên cứu hỗn hợp này khảo sát việc dịch các biểu thức ẩn dụ của ẩn dụ ý niệm “THAY ĐỔI KINH TẾ LÀ CÁC CÁCH CHUYỂN ĐỘNG” trong các thông cáo báo chí kinh tế tiếng Anh và tiếng Việt. Kết quả nghiên cứu cho thấy một số lượng lớn các biểu thức ẩn dụ được giữ lại trong bản dịch mà gần như không có những thay đổi đáng kể. Điều này cho thấy mức độ tương đồng cao về ý niệm giữa hai ngôn ngữ liên quan đến những thay đổi kinh tế. Tuy nhiên, đôi khi cũng có những thay đổi ở bản dịch. Điều này cho thấy ảnh hưởng của sự điều biến đối với việc ý niệm hóa các sự kiện kinh tế và các ẩn dụ ý niệm trong diễn ngôn kinh tế trong tiếng Việt. Nghiên cứu này góp phần cung cấp cái nhìn sâu hơn về sự tương quan giữa ngôn ngữ và ý niệm hóa trong việc dịch tin tức kinh tế.

Từ khóa: nghiên cứu dịch thuật, điều biến, diễn ngôn kinh tế, ẩn dụ ý niệm, biểu thức ẩn dụ

INVESTIGATING VIETNAMESE TERTIARY EFL TEACHERS' LEVELS OF INFORMATION AND COMMUNICATION TECHNOLOGY INTEGRATION THROUGH THE LENS OF THE SAMR MODEL

Nguyen Huu Hoang*

*Academy of Journalism and Communication,
36 Xuan Thuy, Cau Giay, Hanoi, Vietnam*

Received 20 January 2024

Revised 12 February 2024; Accepted 28 February 2024

Abstract: This study investigated the integration of technology by Vietnamese tertiary EFL teachers, focusing on the SAMR model's levels: Substitution, Augmentation, Modification, and Redefinition. Involving seven teachers, each underwent three observations and a subsequent interview during the second semester of the academic year 2022-2023. The interviews, structured around open-ended questions aligned with the SAMR framework, aimed to elucidate the observed technology use. Findings indicated a predominant reliance on basic functionalities of tools like PowerPoint and Microsoft Word, with Information and Communication Technology (ICT) integration primarily at the substitution and augmentation levels. This suggests a foundational proficiency in ICT use among teachers, yet confined to basic applications with limited pedagogical innovation. The results highlight the imperative for targeted professional development to enhance EFL teachers' ICT skills and foster innovative teaching approaches, facilitating a paradigm shift in technology integration within educational practices.

Keywords: EFL teachers, ICT integration, levels, SAMR model

1. Introduction

In the era of the digital revolution, the pivotal role of Information and Communication Technology (ICT) in education is universally acknowledged, with a significant emphasis on its integration to cultivate key skills such as critical thinking and innovation (DeCoito & Richardson, 2018). The advent of the COVID-19 pandemic further accelerated the shift towards technology-enriched learning environments, underscoring the necessity of ICT competencies among educators (MOET, 2017; Prime Minister, 2022). Despite governmental efforts, challenges persist in the effective integration of ICT in teaching, primarily due to the rapid pace of technological evolution and educators' varying proficiency levels (Phan, 2020; Dang, 2013).

The SAMR model offers a comprehensive framework for evaluating the integration of ICT in educational practices (Puentedura, 2006). However, research focusing on the application of this model in assessing teachers' ICT integration skills, particularly in the context of English Language Teaching (ELT) in Vietnam, remains scant (Batiibwe et al., 2017; Jude et al., 2014). This study aims to bridge this gap by investigating Vietnamese EFL teachers' proficiency in employing ICT within ELT settings, specifically through the lens of the SAMR model's four

* Corresponding author.

Email address: huuhoang309@gmail.com

levels: Substitution, Augmentation, Modification, and Redefinition.

2. Literature Review

2.1. Information and Communication Technology (ICT)

The field of Information and Communications Technology (ICT) covers a wide array of technological tools and resources that enable the acquisition, storage, retrieval, manipulation, analysis, and transmission of information (Albugami, 2016). The definition of ICT has undergone modifications over time in response to the swift progression of technical breakthroughs, as seen by Albugami (2016).

According to Vandeyar (2013), the notion of ICT encompasses a wide range of tools and resources. The tools and resources encompass a wide range of communication equipment and services, including but not limited to radio, television, cellular phones, computers, networks, hardware, software, satellite systems, videoconferencing, and distance learning (Rajput et al., 2015). This definition emphasizes the diverse range of technologies encompassed by the field of ICT.

In the realm of foreign language instruction, Dang (2013) provides a precise definition of ICT as encompassing technologies that rely on computers and the Internet. The aforementioned category encompasses a wide range of software applications, including but not limited to web browsers, presentation software, email packages, word processors, search tools, and download tools. Additionally, it encompasses Computer-Assisted Language Learning (CALL) software applications and websites that are specifically tailored to facilitate the teaching of foreign languages (Dang, 2013).

In the context of this research investigation, the word ICT comprises a comprehensive range of applications that are pertinent and advantageous for the facilitation of language instruction and acquisition. This encompasses a wide range of technological components, including hardware, computer-assisted language learning (CALL) applications, software applications, websites, social networks, and communication networks.

2.2. ICT Integration in EFL Teaching

The integration of ICT in education, including English Language Teaching (ELT), is increasingly recognized for its potential to enhance instructional practices and learning environments (Lawrence & Tar, 2018; Gilakjani, 2013). The adoption of ICT in educational settings is influenced by a myriad of factors, ranging from the availability of technological resources to the attitudes and competencies of educators (Knezek & Christensen, 2016; Eger et al., 2018). Despite the acknowledged benefits, the effective incorporation of ICT remains a complex endeavor, often hindered by challenges such as insufficient infrastructure, lack of educator proficiency in technology, and resistance to pedagogical change (Dang, 2013; Pham et al., 2019).

The utilization of ICT in the context of ELT has achieved global recognition as a strategy to augment educational practices. The concept of technology integration pertains to how educators employ technology to enhance instructional practices and establish an optimal learning atmosphere (Gilakjani, 2013). The conviction on the promise of educational technology has resulted in significant global investments in technology (James, 1996). Within the field of ELT, scholars have identified technology devices, software, and infrastructure as valuable resources that can be utilized to augment the instructional process (Donnelly et al., 2011).

ICT is widely utilized in educational settings, particularly in Asian nations, to facilitate the dissemination of instructional materials (Nim Park & Son, 2009; Hassanzadeh et al., 2012). According to Keengwe and Kang (2013), commonly utilized software programs in educational and administrative contexts include web browsers, word processors, email packages, and presentation software. Nevertheless, the adoption of sophisticated software applications and internet-based platforms for facilitating interactive remote education is still constrained (Le, 2015).

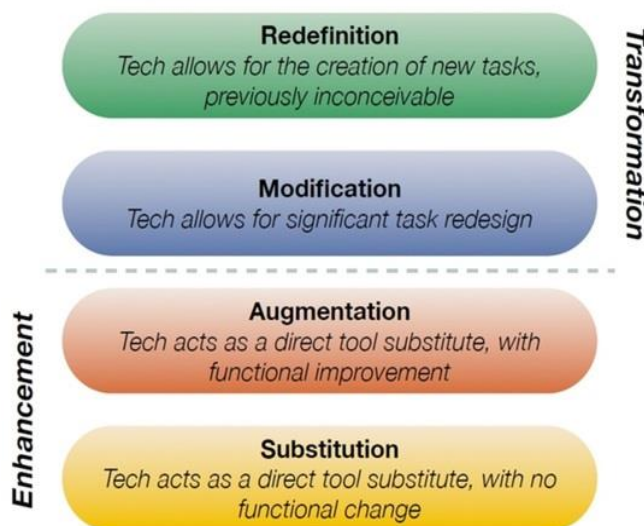
The significance of technology integration in education is recognized by Vietnam, as exemplified in Directive 55 issued by the Ministry of Education and Training (MOET) in 2008. The government has made substantial financial commitments towards the use of technology, leading to notable advancements in rankings related to the development of information and communication technology (Peeraer & Van Petegem, 2015). The primary objective of the National Foreign Language 2020 initiative is to provide English educators with essential ICT competencies via instructional programs (Le & Vo, 2015). Furthermore, educational institutions have been furnished with computer technology, and the provision of complimentary internet services has been facilitated (Dang, 2013).

Notwithstanding these endeavors, the incorporation of technology in ELT encounters obstacles in Vietnam. Insufficient financial resources pose a significant obstacle to the upkeep of technical gadgets within educational institutions (Pham et al., 2019). In addition, it has been observed that English educators frequently exhibit a deficiency in technological skills as a result of insufficient training provided during their educational programs (Pham et al., 2019). Pham et al. (2019) argue that development is hindered by resistance to change and a reluctance to embrace new teaching methodologies and technologies.

To maximize the benefits of technology in the field of ELT, educators must enhance their expertise and competencies beyond rudimentary utilization (Le, 2015). According to Stockwell (2007), teachers have the opportunity to choose appropriate software packages that cater to diverse English language skills. These products can be selected based on pedagogical objectives, user-friendliness, and cost-effectiveness.

2.3. SAMR Model

The SAMR model, conceptualized by Puentedura (2006), delineates a hierarchical framework for integrating technology into educational practices, progressing through Substitution, Augmentation, Modification, and Redefinition levels. This model aims to guide educators in transforming and enhancing learning experiences through technology (Tunjera & Chigona, 2020). It is particularly relevant in Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL), where technology integration is pivotal for enriching language learning through increased interaction and engagement (Budiman et al., 2018).

Figure 1*SAMR Model (Puentedura, 2006)*

At the Substitution level, technology acts as a direct replacement for traditional tools without functional change, while Augmentation enhances these tools with additional features. Modification and Redefinition involve a significant task redesign and the creation of new, previously inconceivable tasks, respectively, leveraging technology to foster higher-order cognitive skills and interactive learning (Wilson, 2021; Alivi, 2019).

Empirical studies, such as those by Jenkins (2021), and Cepeda-Moya and Argudo-Serrano (2022), reveal that while educators are integrating technology, its application often remains at the Substitution and Augmentation levels, highlighting a gap between potential and practice. These findings underscore the necessity for professional development that equips teachers with the skills to fully exploit the SAMR model's potential for enhancing language instruction.

3. Methods

3.1. Research Design

This study adopts a case study design within a qualitative research framework to examine the integration of ICT by EFL teachers at Vietnamese tertiary education institutions. Case study research, as advocated by Yin (2018), enables an in-depth exploration of complex phenomena within their real-life contexts, offering rich insights into the subjective experiences and perspectives of individuals. This approach is particularly suited to understanding the nuanced ways in which EFL teachers incorporate ICT into their teaching practices, as well as the challenges and opportunities they encounter.

Guided by this methodological orientation, the research is structured around the following questions:

1. In what ways do Vietnamese tertiary EFL teachers integrate ICT into their teaching practices?
2. How do these practices reflect the levels of the SAMR model?

3.2. Context and Participants

The study was conducted in the context of EFL instruction at Vietnamese higher education institutions, where ICT has been invested seriously in order to improve the teaching and learning experience. The MOET in Vietnam has recognized the importance of technology in the field of education, particularly in the context of language acquisition. To facilitate the incorporation of technology into the educational system, the MOET designated the academic year 2008-2009 as the period dedicated to the use of ICT. Additionally, MOET has taken steps to enhance teachers' proficiency in ICT by organizing training courses for English teachers nationwide. These initiatives demonstrate the commitment of MOET to leverage technology for educational purposes. (Peeraer & Van Petegem, 2015; Pham et al., 2019).

The study included a total of seven English instructors (referred to as P1-P7) who are now engaged in teaching at four distinct institutions located in the northern region of Vietnam. These universities are situated in three separate cities, including Hanoi (P1, P2, P3), Haiphong (P4, P5), and Thai Nguyen (P6, P7). The four universities comprise two public institutions, one private university, and one foreign institution. To uphold research ethics, the data collected from the participants will be provided in verbatim form, however, their names will be anonymized using symbols (P1, P2, P3, P4, P5, P6, and P7). All individuals involved in the study provided their informed consent to participate and allowed the researchers to collect their data. Based on the demographic data collected, the participants exhibited diverse backgrounds in English teaching, as illustrated in Table 1.

Table 1

Participants' Demographic

Participant	Gender	Age	University	Qualification	Teaching subject	Teaching experience
P1	Female	43	public	M.A. in TESOL	General English	20
P2	Female	34	public	Ph.D. in TESOL	Skill-specific course	13
P3	Male	25	foreign	M.A. in TESOL	General English	2
P4	Female	48	private	Ph.D. in TESOL	General English	23
P5	Female	29	private	M.A. in TESOL	General English	5
P6	Male	31	public	M.A. in TESOL	General English	7
P7	Female	46	public	Ph.D. in TESOL	English Language Theory course	22

3.3. Data Collection and Analysis

This study adopts a case study design, a methodology often aligned with qualitative research to provide an in-depth, holistic description of individual cases within their real-life context (Yin, 2018). Case studies are particularly effective when the research aim is to explore complex phenomena within their specific settings, offering rich, detailed insights (Creswell & Poth, 2018).

Participants were selected through purposive sampling, focusing on English teachers

actively integrating ICT in their instruction. This selection was predicated on the objective of delving into the nuances of ICT integration within EFL teaching environments.

Data collection employed a triangulated approach to enhance validity, consisting of observations and semi-structured interviews conducted throughout the second semester of the academic year 2022-2023. Observations were structured around the SAMR model (Puentedura, 2006), and conducted thrice to assess the levels of ICT integration across Substitution, Augmentation, Modification, and Redefinition. An observation tool, inspired by Jude et al. (2014), facilitated this structured capture of ICT use in teaching. Following the observations of each participant, semi-structured interviews provided further depth, with questions designed to elicit expansive responses, allowing teachers to elaborate on their experiences with ICT in teaching. Conducted in Vietnamese, these interviews ensured clarity and richness in the data collected.

Member checking was implemented as a means of validating the findings, inviting participants to review and confirm the accuracy of the observations and interview responses, thereby aligning with best practices in qualitative research for ensuring credibility and trustworthiness (Lincoln & Guba, 1985).

Data analysis was guided by the interactive model proposed by Miles, Huberman, and Saldaña (2014), encompassing data condensation, data display, and conclusion drawing/verification. This involved a meticulous process of data selection, simplification, and transformation, followed by the organization of the data into coherent displays that aligned with the SAMR model's levels. The analysis of semi-structured interview transcripts employed a thematic coding approach, aligning keywords with the SAMR model's four levels to elucidate the ICT integration's depth. For instance, terms such as “digital textbooks” and “online quizzes” were coded under 'Substitution', reflecting a direct technological replacement of traditional resources. 'Augmentation' was denoted by keywords like “interactive whiteboards” and “enhanced presentations”, indicating a functional enhancement of teaching methods through technology. 'Modification' encompassed terms such as “collaborative online platforms” and “educational blogging”, signifying a pedagogical redesign through ICT. Finally, 'Redefinition' was characterized by innovative terms like “virtual reality environments” and “international collaboration projects”, illustrating a transformative shift in teaching and learning paradigms. This strategic coding not only clarified the spectrum of ICT integration but also provided a structured framework for analyzing the qualitative data, thereby embedding the narrative within a quantifiable academic discourse.

The data from the three separate classroom observations were then aggregated, employing a method akin to that described by Johnson and Christensen (2014). Each teaching technique's frequency was normalized against the total observed behaviors to calculate its relative percentage, using Microsoft Excel for data processing. This normalization process is supported by the work of Miles et al. (2014), who emphasize the importance of converting raw observational data into a format that allows for meaningful comparison and analysis.

To synthesize the data from the three distinct observation sessions into a unified results table, the cumulative aggregation approach was employed, as recommended by Yin (2018). This approach ensures that the data reflects an integrated overview of instructional practices across multiple observations, enhancing the interpretive value of the findings. The integration of data into a single table for analysis and presentation purposes is further supported by the guidelines provided by Silverman (2017), who highlights the efficacy of such consolidation in qualitative and mixed-methods research.

4. Findings

4.1. Results of Observations

The results of observations of the EFL teachers integrating ICT into the classes are described in the figures below:

Figure 2

Observation Checklist of Substitution by EFL Teachers

No.	Activities	Mean						
		P1	P2	P3	P4	P5	P6	P7
1.	Utilizing ICTs (laptops, smartphones, Microsoft Word) for creating and organizing educational content	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%
2.	Replacing printed books with digital notes	0%	75%	100%	33.3%	100%	100%	33.3%
3.	Delivering lectures via PowerPoint presentations	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%
4.	Uploading educational materials to digital platforms (Facebook...) for easy student access	0%	100%	100%	0%	100%	100%	0%
5.	Directing students to electronic databases for reference materials	33.3%	100%	100%	0%	100%	100%	0%
6.	Communicating with students via cell phones for assistance	100%	100%	50%	100%	100%	100%	100%
7.	Providing student support through email communication	100%	50%	100%	0%	100%	100%	0%
8.	Engaging with students on social media platforms for academic assistance	50%	100%	100%	0%	100%	100%	0%
9.	Encouraging students to submit assignments via email	0%	50%	100%	100%	100%	100%	0%
10.	Organizing student assignments in distinct laptop directories	0%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	0%
11.	Recording lecture audio for student distribution	0%	0%	100%	0%	0%	0%	0%

12.	Capturing instructional sessions for future educational use	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%
Grand mean		40%	73%	88%	44%	83%	83%	28%

The Substitution level of ICT integration by Vietnamese tertiary EFL teachers showcases a spectrum of digital technology utilization in educational practices. The data reveals a mix of universal and selective adoption of ICT tools across various teaching activities.

All educators (P1-P7) consistently employed ICTs such as laptops, smartphones, and applications like Microsoft Word for creating and organizing educational content (100%), and similarly, the use of PowerPoint for lecture delivery was universally adopted (100%). This indicates a strong foundation in employing digital tools for basic instructional tasks.

However, the integration of digital notes, dissemination of resources through digital platforms, and directing students towards electronic databases showed variability. For instance, the use of digital notes ranged from 0% (P1) to 100% (P3, P5, P6), and the facilitation of resource access via digital platforms varied from 0% (P1, P4, P7) to 100% (P2, P3, P5, P6), highlighting differences in the extent to which educators leverage digital resources beyond traditional methods.

Communication with students through mobile devices and email was broadly adopted, with most participants showing high engagement, except for specific instances like P3's 50% adoption of mobile communication and P4's 0% use of email. The use of social media for academic assistance also varied, with a range from 0% (P4, P7) to 100% (P2, P3, P5, P6).

Notably, innovative practices such as capturing lectures in audio or video formats for future use were minimally adopted or not at all, with P3 being the exception at 100% for audio capture but no participants engaging in video recording.

The grand mean percentages, ranging from 28% (P7) to 88% (P3), underscore the diverse levels of ICT integration at the Substitution level among the educators. This range from foundational to more advanced ICT applications in teaching practices suggests areas for further development and support to enhance the comprehensive integration of ICT in EFL teaching methodologies.

Figure 3

Observation Checklist of Augmentation by EFL Teachers

No.	Activities	Mean						
		P1	P2	P3	P4	P5	P6	P7
1.	Enhancing text presentation with color and font size variations	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%
2.	Conducting scholarly searches via search engines like Google	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%
3.	Correcting grammatical errors using word processing software	0%	100%	100%	0%	50%	75%	0%

4.	Accessing vocabulary alternatives within word processing software	0%	75%	100%	0%	50%	0%	0%
5.	Accessing resources through digital libraries like Digilib	0%	33.3%	100%	0%	50%	50%	0%
6.	Communicating with students via online group lists	50%	75%	100%	100%	50%	100%	50%
7.	Organizing folders alphabetically for easy retrieval	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%
8.	Communicating academic information through mass messaging	0%	75%	50%	0%	33.3%	50%	0%
9.	Conducting plagiarism checks on student work	0%	100%	100%	100%	100%	50%	33.3%
10.	Providing feedback on student work via social media or email	50%	100%	100%	50%	100%	33.3%	0%
Grand mean		40%	86%	95%	55%	73%	66%	38%

The analysis of Augmentation-level ICT integration demonstrated a range of engagement with digital technologies to enhance teaching methodologies. All educators uniformly employed digital tools for visual enhancements and scholarly searches (100%), indicating a consensus on the value of basic ICT functionalities to enrich instructional content.

However, the adoption of advanced editorial features in word processing, utilization of digital libraries, and engagement with online communication tools varied significantly among the participants. For instance, P2, P3, and P5 showed higher engagement with word processing functionalities for grammar and vocabulary enhancement, with adoption rates of 100%, 100%, and 50% respectively, while P1, P4, and P7 did not utilize these features at all (0%). Similarly, the use of digital libraries ranged from 0% (P1, P4, P7) to 100% (P3), and online group communication saw a wide adoption range from 50% (P1, P7) to 100% (P3, P6).

The grand mean percentages further highlight this disparity, with P3 exhibiting the highest level of ICT augmentation integration at 95%, while P1 and P7 displayed the lowest at 40% and 38% respectively. This spread from 38% to 95% in ICT engagement levels underscores the varied depth of digital tool integration among educators.

In summary, the findings reveal a foundational yet uneven application of ICT augmentation across the participant group, suggesting a need for targeted development programs to enhance the consistent and comprehensive integration of advanced digital functionalities in EFL teaching practices.

Figure 4*Observation Checklist of Modification by EFL Teachers*

No.	Activities	Mean						
		P1	P2	P3	P4	P5	P6	P7
1.	Integrating multiple media formats using tools like "Movie Maker"	0%	33.3%	50%	0%	75%	0%	0%
2.	Providing URLs to online dictionaries and reputable sources	0%	100%	100%	0%	0%	0%	100%
3.	Administering assessments with Google Forms	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	0%
4.	Compiling academic materials using Google Drive	50%	100%	100%	50%	100%	100%	0%
5.	Delivering lectures through e-learning platforms like Edmodo	0%	75%	75%	0%	0%	0%	0%
6.	Facilitating discussions via platforms like Zalo groups	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%
7.	Evaluating academic performance with web-based tools	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%
8.	Organizing web sources with note-taking programs like Google Note	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%
9.	Facilitating remote instruction via video conferencing platforms like Google Meet	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%
Grand mean		28%	56.5%	58%	28%	42%	33%	33%

The observation checklist data on the Modification level reveals a nuanced approach to leveraging technology for enhancing and transforming educational practices. The data indicates the selective adoption of various digital tools and platforms to modify traditional teaching and assessment methods.

Notably, the use of Google Forms for administering assessments was universally adopted by all participants except P7, demonstrating a significant shift towards digital platforms for evaluations. Similarly, the utilization of open educational resources for facilitating group discussions was consistently applied across all educators (100%), indicating a recognition of the value these platforms bring to collaborative learning environments.

However, the integration of multimedia content through tools like "Movie Maker" and the organization of student materials using Google Drive exhibited variability among the teachers, with adoption rates ranging from 0% to 100%. This variability suggests differing levels of comfort and familiarity with multimedia integration and cloud-based organization

among the educators.

The adoption of e-learning platforms like Edmodo and web-based tools for academic performance evaluation was minimal or non-existent, with no participants utilizing web-based evaluation tools or note-taking programs. This lack of engagement with certain digital tools highlights potential areas for development in the educators' ICT competencies.

The grand mean percentages further underscore the diverse levels of ICT integration at the Modification level, with P3 showing the highest level of integration (58%) and P1 and P4 the lowest (28%). This range indicates a spectrum of engagement with modification-level ICT practices, from minimal to more advanced applications, suggesting a need for targeted professional development to enhance educators' abilities to effectively modify traditional teaching practices with digital technologies.

Figure 5

Observation Checklist of Redefinition by EFL Teachers

No.	Activity	Mean						
		P1	P2	P3	P4	P5	P6	P7
1.	Integrating multimodal digital platforms for instructional resources	0%	33.3%	100%	0%	100%	50%	0%
2.	Facilitating note-taking with digital notepad applications	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%
3.	Enhancing instructional activities with multimodal assignments	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%
4.	Employing MOOCs as study materials	0%	50%	33.3%	0%	0%	0%	0%
5.	Evaluating educational progress with electronic learning systems like MOOCs	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%
6.	Benefiting from augmented reality (AR) technology in education	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%
7.	Using electronic games for instructional purposes	0%	50%	70%	0%	33.3%	0%	0%
Grand mean		0%	19%	29%	0%	19%	7%	0%

The observation checklist data on the Redefinition level illustrates a nascent stage of employing advanced digital technologies to fundamentally transform educational practices. The data reflects a cautious exploration of redefinitional ICT tools and methodologies among EFL teachers.

A notable observation is the adoption of multimodal digital platforms by P3 and P5 (100% and 100%, respectively), indicating an innovative approach to instructional design that leverages auditory, visual, and interactive resources. Similarly, the use of electronic games as an instructional tool by P3 (70%) and to a lesser extent by P2 and P5, suggests an emerging recognition of gamification's potential in education.

However, the integration of digital notepads, the design of multimodal assignments, and the utilization of augmented reality technology in teaching were not adopted by any of the participants, highlighting significant gaps in the adoption of cutting-edge digital tools that could redefine educational experiences.

The use of MOOCs for study materials and student evaluation was minimally explored, with only P2 and P3 engaging with MOOCs to a limited extent. This cautious engagement with MOOCs reflects a broader hesitancy among educators to fully embrace the transformative potential of open educational resources.

The grand mean percentages, ranging from 0% to 29%, underscore the limited integration of Redefinition-level ICT practices among teachers. P3 exhibited the highest level of integration (29%), suggesting a more forward-thinking approach to ICT use, while P1, P4, and P7 showed no engagement at this level (0%).

In summary, the findings indicate that while there are instances of innovative ICT use among the educators, the overall integration at the Redefinition level remains limited. This highlights a need for enhanced support and professional development to encourage the adoption of advanced digital technologies that can fundamentally transform teaching and learning in EFL contexts.

5. Results of Interviews

5.1. Substitution Level

In the exploration of ICT integration at the Substitution level within EFL teaching at Vietnamese tertiary institutions, the synthesis of qualitative insights from educator interviews with observation data reveals a multifaceted view of digital technology adoption.

The consensus among educators on the utility of fundamental ICT tools, such as laptops and Microsoft Word, for streamlining the creation and organization of teaching materials is evident. Participant 1's reflection, "I find using ICT like laptops and Microsoft Word extremely beneficial in preparing my lectures", aligns with the observation findings where a 100% utilization rate of these tools was noted. This alignment underscores a foundational integration of ICT in enhancing traditional pedagogical approaches.

However, the interviews also revealed nuanced views on the adoption of specific ICT practices. For instance, Participant 1's reservation, "I have considered the option of recording lectures...but I feel that it may not be the most effective method", contrasts with the observation data, which indicated a lack of recorded lecture usage across participants. This divergence suggests a potential discrepancy between educators' perceived value of certain ICT practices and their actual implementation.

The widespread use of PowerPoint, as highlighted by Participant 4, "PowerPoint presentations have become my go-to method for delivering lectures", and corroborated by the observation data's 100% adoption rate, reinforces the tool's pivotal role in ICT integration at the Substitution level.

Diverse preferences for communication methods emerged from the interviews, reflecting a broad spectrum of ICT utilization for student engagement. Participant 7's preference for cell phone communication, "Communicating with students via cell phone has become an essential aspect of my teaching approach", and Participant 1's inclination towards email, "I always communicate with my students via email when offering support", were mirrored in the observation data, which showed varied adoption rates for different communication tools.

The interviews also touched upon the cautious adoption of innovative ICT practices, such as leveraging social media for academic support, with Participant 1 noting, “I find that using social media platforms like Facebook can be beneficial for supporting students”. This cautious approach is reflected in the observation data, where the use of social media for educational purposes varied significantly among participants.

By synthesizing educators’ qualitative reflections with observation data, a comprehensive narrative emerges, highlighting a general acknowledgment of the value of ICT in substituting traditional teaching elements. Yet, the depth and consistency of ICT integration exhibit considerable variability. This analysis not only illuminates the complexities and challenges inherent in fully leveraging ICT at the Substitution level but also underscores the necessity for enhanced professional development and support to harmonize educators’ perceptions with their practical application of ICT in teaching methodologies.

5.2. Augmentation Level

In examining the Augmentation level of ICT integration within the context of EFL instruction at Vietnamese tertiary institutions, the integration of teachers’ responses with the data from observation checklists reveals a nuanced approach to enhancing traditional teaching methods with digital technologies.

Educators demonstrated a selective yet progressive adoption of digital tools to augment their teaching practices. For instance, Participant 2’s utilization of digital platforms to enhance the visual presentation of content, “I enhance my lectures with color and varied font sizes using digital tools”, aligns with the observation data showing varied adoption rates for such practices. This selective integration suggests an evolving recognition of digital tools’ potential to enrich the instructional experience.

The incorporation of open educational resources and the use of Google Drive for organizing student materials were highlighted by some educators as key augmentative strategies. Participant 4 noted, “Google Drive is instrumental in compiling and organizing my students’ work”, reflecting a strategic approach to leveraging cloud-based solutions for educational management, as supported by the observation data.

However, the adoption of more sophisticated digital functionalities, such as e-learning platforms and web-based group discussion tools, was less consistent. Participant 6’s mention of using “Edmodo to deliver lecture modules” contrasts with the overall minimal engagement with such platforms observed across the participant group. This discrepancy underscores a gap between the potential of these digital tools to augment traditional teaching and their actual application in practice.

The grand mean percentages from the observation data, ranging from 28% to 58%, further illustrate the varied levels of digital tool integration at the Augmentation level. This range indicates a spectrum of engagement with digital augmentation practices, from minimal to more advanced applications, highlighting areas for further development and support.

In synthesizing the educators’ reflections with the observation data, a complex picture of ICT integration at the Augmentation level emerges. While there is evidence of digital tools being used to enhance traditional teaching methodologies, the depth and consistency of this integration vary considerably among educators. This analysis not only sheds light on the opportunities and challenges associated with augmenting teaching practices with digital technologies but also emphasizes the need for targeted professional development initiatives to encourage a more comprehensive and consistent application of ICT in EFL instruction.

5.3. Modification Level

In terms of the Modification level of ICT integration, the results reveal a strategic yet varied application of digital technologies to transform traditional educational practices.

The teachers exhibited a discerning approach to leveraging technology for instructional modification. For instance, Participant 1's innovative use of Google Forms for assessments, "I've shifted to using Google Forms for quizzes, making the process more interactive and efficient," mirrors the observation data that showed a high adoption rate for this tool among all participants except P7. This reflects a significant move towards integrating digital platforms for more dynamic and interactive evaluation methods.

The use of open educational resources and collaborative platforms like Zalo groups for group discussions was another area where educators, such as Participant 3, demonstrated a forward-thinking approach: "Leveraging Zalo groups has revolutionized how we conduct group discussions, making them more accessible and engaging." This aligns with the observation data, which indicated a universal (100%) adoption of such platforms, underscoring their perceived value in fostering collaborative learning environments.

However, the integration of more advanced digital functionalities, such as e-learning platforms like Edmodo and web-based tools for academic performance evaluation, was less uniformly embraced. The observation data revealed minimal engagement with these tools, highlighting a potential disconnect between the availability of advanced digital resources and their practical application in the educational setting.

The grand mean percentages from the observation data, ranging from 28% to 58%, illustrate the diverse levels of engagement with Modification-level digital practices among the teachers. This variability underscores the nuanced landscape of ICT integration at this level, where the adoption of digital tools to modify traditional teaching practices ranges from minimal to more advanced.

By weaving together the educators' responses with the observation data, a complex narrative of ICT integration at the Modification level emerges. While there are instances of educators effectively employing digital tools to transform and enhance pedagogical approaches, the consistency and depth of this integration vary significantly. This analysis highlights the transformative potential of digital technologies in EFL teaching, as well as the need for enhanced support and professional development to ensure educators can fully leverage these tools to modify and enrich the educational experience.

5.4. Redefinition Level

At the Redefinition level of ICT integration within the domain of EFL instruction, the amalgamation of educators' perspectives with observational findings elucidates a tentative yet evolving engagement with digital innovations poised to fundamentally alter educational paradigms.

Educators conveyed a measured approach to integrating sophisticated digital technologies. Notably, Participant 3's utilization of multimodal platforms, as articulated, "Incorporating diverse digital elements like 'Movie Maker' enriches the learning experience", mirrors the complete engagement (100%) observed for P3 and P5 in the dataset. This reflects a recognition of the capacity of digital tools to forge innovative instructional content and methodologies.

Conversely, the restrained use of technologies such as augmented reality (AR) and MOOCs was prominent. Observational data revealed scant engagement, underscoring a divergence between the theoretical potential of these technologies and their actual application in pedagogical contexts. Participant 2 voiced concerns regarding the adoption of such advanced tools, stating, “The prospect of integrating AR in teaching is compelling, yet the absence of requisite resources and support poses substantial implementation challenges”.

The observational data, marked by prevalent instances of non-engagement (0%) in advanced digital practices, accentuates the embryonic phase of integration at the Redefinition level. Participant 4 remarked, “The intricacies and demands associated with MOOCs constitute formidable obstacles to their assimilation into our existing syllabus”. Similarly, Participant 6 highlighted, “The infrastructural and expertise prerequisites for deploying avant-garde technologies like AR exceed our current capabilities”.

The grand mean percentages, spanning from 0% to 29%, depict a cautious foray into digital innovations by educators. While individuals such as P3 are pioneering transformative applications of ICT, the aggregate level of integration remains constrained, evidenced by the widespread instances of non-engagement in redefinitional practices.

The confluence of educators' introspections and empirical data offers a detailed portrayal of ICT integration at the Redefinition level. Despite instances of pioneering use of digital technologies, the pervasive non-engagement signals considerable impediments, encompassing resource deficits, technical hurdles, and the exigency for professional enhancement. This scrutiny accentuates the latent capacity of digital technologies to revolutionize education and underscores the critical need for focused initiatives to equip educators with the means to fully actualize the redefinitional potential of ICT in EFL pedagogy.

6. Discussion and Conclusion

The results of this research provide insight into the practical implementation of technological resources by EFL instructors in Vietnamese higher education settings. The findings are consistent with other research (Keengwe & Kang, 2013; Le, 2015; Dang, 2013; Pham et al., 2019), which suggests that educators commonly use technology into their instructional methods. Nevertheless, there was variation among participants in terms of the precise tools utilised and the quantity of tools employed. The aforementioned technologies fulfilled four primary objectives, namely: fostering student engagement, assessing comprehension, generating instructional materials, and evaluating student comprehension. The findings of Budiman et al. (2018) and Tseng (2019) align with the present results, indicating that educators commonly incorporate technology at the lower tiers of the SAMR model, including substitution and augmentation. Other reasons contribute to this inclination, encompassing the accessibility of resources, limitations on time, and educators' level of proficiency with technology resources.

The important aspect impacting the integration of technology in the classroom was discovered to be its availability. The scenario was demonstrated by T7's class, which was classed at the substitution level. If the use of cellphones were permitted for educational purposes, instructors would have the opportunity to develop more innovative learning activities by leveraging a broader selection of applications. Furthermore, EFL teachers encountered considerable challenges with time limits, which were exacerbated by their demanding workloads. Sufficient time is necessary for educators to adequately construct proficient lesson plans and successfully integrate technological resources at advanced stages of the SAMR

model. The utilization of technical tools was also influenced by the level of familiarity with them. The participants showed a preference for utilizing familiar technologies that were both user-friendly and readily accessible, suggesting a necessity for additional instruction on the functionalities and applications of technological tools. The findings shown in this study are consistent with the outcomes reported by Ranellucci et al. (2020), whereby they underscored the significant impact of factors such as ease of use and usefulness in shaping instructors' decision to adopt technology. Despite the fact that the participants were considered digital natives, their understanding of various applications was found to be restricted. This observation underscores the significance of providing training opportunities to enhance the utilisation of technological tools within educational settings. EFL teachers might endeavour to incorporate technology at the transformation level by expanding their knowledge and proficiency in a broader array of tools.

In contrast, Warsen and Vandermolen (2020) found that a high percentage of students in the United States used individual computing devices at the modification or redefinition levels of the SAMR model. This suggests that the availability of technology supports teaching and learning, enhancing efficiency and creating engagement in the classroom. When each student has their own device, it becomes easier for them to learn and complete tasks. Moreover, individual device usage can foster a competitive atmosphere when students are engaged in individual game-based activities. Jenkins (2021) also reported that teachers frequently integrate technology at the substitution and augmentation levels, with fewer instances of integration at the modification and redefinition levels. In this study, only one participant reached the modification stage, highlighting the need for further support and motivation among EFL teachers to integrate technology effectively. Encouragement from advisors and mentor teachers was mentioned as a significant motivating factor for participants. For teachers with limited experience, such guidance and support were crucial in facilitating effective technology integration. Therefore, providing ongoing support and encouragement to EFL teachers can significantly enhance their teaching practices.

Some of the participants in this study reached the modification stage, even despite being in a school with limited facilities. This finding aligns with Boonmoh et al. (2022), who found that teachers in smaller schools demonstrated greater effort and more positive attitudes toward technology use for educational purposes. Cepeda-Moya and Argudo-Serrano (2022) argued that integrating technology can increase teachers' motivation and enable them to be more creative in their teaching approaches. Moreover, motivation derived from students can further drive teachers to use technological tools more creatively. This indicates that when students enjoy learning in the classroom, teachers are more inclined to develop their teaching methods to make them more interesting and engaging. Ciampa and Gallagher (2013) similarly emphasized that technology usage can enhance student engagement and motivation to learn.

Lastly, while technology plays a significant role in teaching and learning, there are contexts where technological tools may not be readily available or students may not have smartphones. In such cases, tangible materials remain valuable and can capture students' attention. Participants P3 and P4 demonstrated the continued relevance and usefulness of tangible materials in certain situations. Therefore, EFL teachers should receive training in utilizing both technological tools and tangible materials effectively in their teaching practices.

In summary, this study, though based on a limited cohort of EFL instructors, reveals a primary focus on technology integration at the substitution and augmentation levels within a specific educational context. Factors such as teacher motivation, ICT resource availability, and

proficiency with technological tools significantly impact classroom technology integration. Stakeholder encouragement is crucial in bolstering EFL teachers' efforts towards effective technology use. Given the challenges of limited time and tool familiarity, it becomes imperative to implement structured professional development programs. Such initiatives should aim to enhance teachers' technological competencies and pedagogical strategies, enabling them to ascend beyond basic ICT usage to more advanced levels of the SAMR model. This approach promises to foster a more innovative and transformative educational environment, aligning with contemporary pedagogical demands.

References

- Albugami, S. (2016). *Developing a strategic approach to ICT implementation in Saudi secondary schools*. [Doctoral dissertation, University of Salford].
- Alivi, J. (2019, December 19). A review of TPACK and SAMR models: How should language teachers adopt technology? *Journal of English for Academic and Specific Purposes (JEASP)*, 2(2), 1-11. <https://doi.org/10.18860/jeasp.v2i2.7944>
- Batiiabwe, M. S., Bakkabulindi, F. E., & Mango, J. M. (2017, February 1). Application of the technological, pedagogical, and content knowledge framework in a positivist study on the use of ICT in pedagogy by teachers of mathematical disciplines at Makerere University: A conceptual paper. *Makerere Journal of Higher Education*, 8(2), 115. <https://doi.org/10.4314/majohe.v8i2.3>
- Boonmoh, A., Jumpakate, T., & Karpklon, S. (2022). A Close Look at the Use of Technology by Thai Teachers in Secondary EFL Classrooms. *CALL-EJ*, 23(1), 78–107.
- Budiman, A. B., Rahmawati, R., & Ulfa, R. A. (2018, September 21). EFL teacher's belief and practice on integrating ICT in the classroom: A case study on the implementation of SAMR Model in teaching reading descriptive text at MA Assalam, Sukoharjo. *Journal Penelitian Humaniora*, 19(2), 39-51. <https://doi.org/10.23917/humaniora.v19i2.6809>
- Cepeda-Moya, V. E., & Argudo-Serrano, J. C. (2022, June 30). Teachers' and students' perceptions on introducing the SAMR model into their classroom. *Revista Arbitrada Interdisciplinaria Koinonía*, 7(1), 65. <https://doi.org/10.35381/r.k.v7i1.1679>
- Ciampa, K., & Gallagher, T. L. (2013, October). Getting in Touch: Use of Mobile Devices in the Elementary Classroom. *Computers in the Schools*, 30(4), 309-328. <https://doi.org/10.1080/07380569.2013.846716>
- Creswell, J. W., & Poth, C. N. (2018, December 19). *Qualitative Inquiry and Research Design*. SAGE Publications.
- Dang, X. T. (2013, August 28). *ICT in Foreign Language Teaching in an innovative university in Vietnam: Current practices and factors affecting ICT use*. [Doctoral dissertation, La Trobe University].
- DeCoito, I., & Richardson, T. (2018). Teachers and Technology: Present Practice and Future Directions. *Contemporary Issues in Technology and Teacher Education (CITE Journal)*, 18(2), 362-378.
- Donnelly, D., McGarr, O., & O'Reilly, J. (2011, September). A framework for teachers' integration of ICT into their classroom practice. *Computers & Education*, 57(2), 1469-1483. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.compedu.2011.02.014>
- Eger, L., Klement, M., Tomczyk, U., PISOŇOVÁ, M., & Petrová, G. (2018, October 15). Different user groups of university students and their ICT competence: evidence from three countries in central Europe. *Journal of Baltic Science Education*, 17(5), 851-866. <https://doi.org/10.33225/jbse/18.17.851>
- Gilakjani, A. (2013, October). Factors Contributing to Teachers' Use of Computer Technology in the Classroom. *Universal Journal of Educational Research*, 1(3), 262–267. <https://doi.org/10.13189/ujer.2013.010317>
- Hassanzadeh, A., Kanaani, F., & Elahi, S. (2012, September). A model for measuring e-learning systems success in universities. *Expert Systems With Applications*, 39(12), 10959-10966. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.eswa.2012.03.028>
- James, R. (1996, March). CALL and the speaking skill. *System*, 24(1), 15-21. [https://doi.org/10.1016/0346-251x\(95\)00050-t](https://doi.org/10.1016/0346-251x(95)00050-t)
- Jenkins, C. (2021). *Elementary School Teachers' Implementation of the Substitution, Augmentation, Modification, and Redefinition Model in Their Instruction*. [Doctoral dissertation, Walden University].

- Johnson, R. B., & Christensen, L. (2014). *Educational Research*. SAGE Publications.
- Jude, L., Kajura, M., & Birevu, M. (2014). Adoption of the SAMR Model to Assess ICT Pedagogical Adoption: A Case of Makerere University. *International Journal of E-Education, e-Business, e-Management and e-Learning*, 4(2). <https://doi.org/10.7763/ijejee.2014.v4.312>
- Keengwe, J., & Kang, J. J. (2013). A review of empirical research on blended learning in teacher education programs. *Education and Information Technologies*, 18(3), 479-493. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10639-011-9182-8>
- Knezek, G., & Christensen, R. (2016, August 10). Extending the will, skill, tool model of technology integration: adding pedagogy as a new model construct. *Journal of Computing in Higher Education*, 28(3), 307-325. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s12528-016-9120-2>
- Lawrence, J. E., & Tar, U. A. (2018, January 2). Factors that influence teachers' adoption and integration of ICT in teaching/learning process. *Educational Media International*, 55(1), 79-105. <https://doi.org/10.1080/09523987.2018.1439712>
- Le, M. X. (2015). *Lecturers' Adoption and Integration of Information and Communication Technology in English Teacher Education at Two Universities in the Mekong Delta, Viet Nam*. [Doctoral dissertation, The University of Sydney].
- Le, X. M., & Vo, K. H. (2015, February 19). Factors Affecting Secondary-School English Teachers' Adoption of Technologies in Southwest Vietnam. *Language Education in Asia*, 5(2), 198-215. https://doi.org/10.5746/leia/14/v5/i2/a03/le_vo
- Lincoln, Y. S., & Guba, E. G. (1985, April 1). *Naturalistic Inquiry*. SAGE. http://books.google.ie/books?id=2oA9aWINeoC&printsec=frontcover&dq=Naturalistic+Inquiry&hl=&cd=1&source=gsbs_api
- Miles, M. B., Huberman, A. M., & Saldana, J. (2018, December 13). *Qualitative Data Analysis*. SAGE Publications.
- Miles, M. B., Huberman, A. M., & Saldana, J. (2018, December 13). *Qualitative Data Analysis*. SAGE Publications.
- MOET. (2017). *Directive No. 345/KH-BGDDT: Implementation of the Project "Increase the Application of Information Technology in Management and Support Teaching - Learning Activities, Scientific Research and Contribution to Increasing Education and Training Quality 2016 - 2020" in 2025*. <https://moet.gov.vn/content/vanban/Lists/VBDH/Attachments/2264/345-KH-BGDDT%2023-5-2017.pdf>
- Nim Park, C., & Son, J. B. (2009, January). Implementing Computer-Assisted Language Learning in the EFL Classroom: Teachers' Perceptions and Perspectives. *International Journal of Pedagogies and Learning*, 5(2), 80-101. <https://doi.org/10.5172/ijpl.5.2.80>
- Peeraer, J., & Van Petegem, P. (2015, February). Integration or transformation? Looking in the future of Information and Communication Technology in education in Vietnam. *Evaluation and Program Planning*, 48, 47-56. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.evalprogplan.2014.09.005>
- Pham, T. T. N, Tan, C. K., & Lee, K. W. (2019). Issues and Challenges in Using ICT for Teaching English in Vietnam. *Computer Assisted Language Learning-Electronic Journal*, 20(3), 140-155.
- Phan, L. K. (2020, October 22). Solutions to Improve the Quality of Higher Education in Vietnam in the Context of Industrial Revolution 4.0. *Proceedings of Fifth International Congress on Information and Communication Technology* (pp. 529-535). https://doi.org/10.1007/978-981-15-5856-6_52
- Puentedura, R. R. (2006). Transformation, technology, and education. *Hippasus*. <http://hippasus.com/resources/tte/>
- Rajput, A., Raghuwanshi, R., & Thakur, V. (2015). Innovative green ICT for environmental sustainability. *International Journal of Research in Computer Applications and Robotics*, 3(5), 115-120.
- Ranellucci, J., Rosenberg, J. M., & Poitras, E. G. (2020, June 19). Exploring pre-service teachers' use of technology: The technology acceptance model and expectancy-value theory. *Journal of Computer Assisted Learning*, 36(6), 810-824. <https://doi.org/10.1111/jcal.12459>
- Silverman, D. (2017). *Doing Qualitative Research*. SAGE.
- Stockwell, G. (2007, May). A review of technology choice for teaching language skills and areas in the CALL literature. *ReCALL*, 19(2), 105-120. <https://doi.org/10.1017/s0958344007000225>

- The Prime Minister (2022, January 25). *Decision No. 131/QĐ-TTg on Approving the Scheme "Strengthening application of information technology and digital transformation in education and training for the period of 2022-2025 with a vision towards 2030"*.
- Tseng, J. J. (2019, March 15). Do EFL teachers transform their teaching with iPads? A TPACK-SAMR approach. *Professional Development in CALL: A Selection of Papers* (pp. 71-85). <https://doi.org/10.14705/rpnet.2019.28.871>
- Tunjera, N., & Chigona, A. (2020, July). Teacher Educators' Appropriation of TPACK-SAMR Models for 21st Century Pre-Service Teacher Preparation. *International Journal of Information and Communication Technology Education*, 16(3), 126-140. <https://doi.org/10.4018/ijcte.2020070110>
- Vandeyar, T. (2013, November). Practice as policy in ICT for education: Catalysing communities of practice in education in South Africa. *Technology in Society*, 35(4), 248-257. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.techsoc.2013.10.002>
- Warsen, G., & Vanderمولen, R. (2020). When technology works: A case study using instructional rounds and SAMR model. *ICPEL Educational Leadership Review*, 21(1), 163-177.
- Wilson, K. (2021). *A Case Study Exploring Student Engagement With Technology As Measured by the ARCS and SAMR Models* [Doctoral dissertation, University of South Carolina].
- Yin, R. K. (2018, September 27). *Case Study Research and Applications*. SAGE Publications.

NGHIÊN CỨU MỨC ĐỘ TÍCH HỢP CÔNG NGHỆ THÔNG TIN VÀ TRUYỀN THÔNG CỦA GIẢNG VIÊN TIẾNG ANH TẠI VIỆT NAM THÔNG QUA MÔ HÌNH SAMR

Nguyễn Hữu Hoàng

*Học viện Báo chí và Tuyên truyền,
36 Xuân Thủy, Cầu Giấy, Hà Nội, Việt Nam*

Tóm tắt: Nghiên cứu này nhằm tìm hiểu mức độ tích hợp công nghệ thông tin và truyền thông (ICT) của giảng viên tiếng Anh tại Việt Nam vào việc giảng dạy, tập trung đặc biệt vào các cấp độ: thay thế, tăng cường, sửa đổi và tái định nghĩa (mô hình SAMR). Tác giả thu thập dữ liệu bằng cách dự giờ quan sát và phỏng vấn bảy giảng viên Tiếng Anh. Quá trình dự giờ quan sát được tiến hành ba lần trong suốt học kỳ thứ hai của năm học 2022-2023, trong khi đó, cuộc phỏng vấn bao gồm các câu hỏi mở theo khung SAMR. Kết quả nghiên cứu cho thấy các giảng viên chủ yếu sử dụng các chức năng cơ bản của phần mềm thuyết trình, như PowerPoint, cũng như các ứng dụng xử lý văn bản như Microsoft Word, kết hợp với các nguồn tài nguyên kỹ thuật số khác. Ngoài ra, kết quả cho thấy việc tích hợp công nghệ thông tin và truyền thông của các giảng viên chủ yếu ở cấp độ thay thế và tăng cường. Những kết quả này cho thấy sự thành thạo của các giảng viên trong việc tích hợp công nghệ thông tin (CNTT) vào việc giảng dạy; tuy nhiên, việc sử dụng của họ bị giới hạn trong các chức năng cơ bản trong một phạm vi hạn chế của các ứng dụng trên máy tính, với những thay đổi và cải tiến tối thiểu. Kết quả nhấn mạnh sự cần thiết của việc phát triển chuyên môn để nâng cao kỹ năng CNTT của giảng viên tiếng Anh và thúc đẩy các phương pháp giảng dạy mới, tạo điều kiện cho sự chuyển đổi trong việc tích hợp CNTT trong giảng dạy.

Từ khóa: giảng viên tiếng Anh, tích hợp công nghệ thông tin và truyền thông, mức độ, mô hình SAMR

STUDENT PERSISTENCE IN ONLINE LEARNING: A LITERATURE REVIEW

Ho Dinh Phuong Khanh^{1,*}, Phan Thi Ngoc Thanh²

¹*University of Economics Ho Chi Minh City,*

59C Nguyen Dinh Chieu, Ward 6, District 3, Ho Chi Minh City, Vietnam

²*Ho Chi Minh City Open University,*

97 Vo Van Tan, Ward 6, District 3, Ho Chi Minh City, Vietnam

Received 02 January 2024

Revised 30 January 2024; Accepted 28 February 2024

Abstract: The advantages of online learning have allowed learners to join courses that help them conveniently improve their knowledge and skills. One of the challenges facing online programs, however, is to retain students and address the issue of high dropout rates. This article reviews literature to determine factors influencing student persistence in online programs and explores solutions to reduce attrition rates. Ninety articles in peer-reviewed journals published between 2000 and 2022 were examined and included in the literature. The selection criteria consist of topic relevance, studies having empirical data and year of publication. Additional procedures involve searching databases, screening abstracts, analyzing full texts, and synthesizing. Factors contributing to student persistence in online learning include internal factors (i.e. motivation, satisfaction, and self-efficacy), external factors (i.e. financial aid, peer and family support), and student skills (i.e. time management and self-regulation skills). Several viable solutions are providing orientation programs, creating collaborative learning environments and enhancing faculty support. This critical review creates a foundation for further research on the issue of student retention in online programs.

Keywords: online learning, persistence, retention, attrition

1. Introduction

Online learning has created educational opportunities for students with ranging academic needs. Using a variety of platforms, online learning has now been incorporated into the curriculum of most schools and universities. Indeed, nowadays the growth of online programs can be found in every aspect of a student's academic career, from pre-enrolment to post-graduate (Floyd & Casey-Powell, 2004). Some of the commonly cited advantages include unrestricted access to study resources before exams, accommodation of various learning preferences, and scheduling flexibility (Butler, 2010). Additionally, students have an increased possibility to engage in the learning process or interact with their classmates when they attend classes online (Kuo et al., 2013). The emergence of online learning, however, also comes with significant challenges. High attrition rates are now a big concern for online educators and a problem for online learning as a whole (Carr, 2000; Clark, 2003).

According to Gaytan (2015), persistence is correlated with an institution's reputation, financial standing, program stability, and capacity to maintain degree programs. Despite the prevalence of online learning, attrition is a problem that many educational institutions have to

* Corresponding author.

Email address: khanhhdp@ueh.edu.vn

confront. Research has shown that online courses often have lower retention rates than traditional face-to-face settings (Liu, Gomez, & Yen, 2007; Herbert, 2006; Holder, 2007). Terry (2007) found that the attrition rates on campuses and in blended learning, which were respectively 3.83% and 4.04%, were considerably lower than the online rate of 7.69%. Furthermore, dropout rates in online classes can be up to 10-20% higher than face-to-face courses (Harris & Parrish, 2006; Xu & Jaggars, 2013).

On the basis of the aforementioned rationales, it is necessary to improve retention in online learning (Lee & Choi, 2011; Wuellner, 2013). The current literature review synthesizes the various factors influencing student persistence, as well as explores strategies and solutions to address the issue of attrition. The review's findings are very pertinent to studies addressing the issue of student persistence in online learning environments. The findings are also expected to contribute to the existing literature on online student persistence by providing an integrative summary of results based on a proposed model. The authors hope to encourage other researchers to reflect on the results and look into new research directions. The categorization provided in this review may inspire further study on the interplay among the various factors within and between the categories. The following research questions were formulated to guide this review:

1. What are the factors contributing to student persistence in online learning?
2. What strategies are recommended for increasing student retention in online learning?

2. Definitions of Terms

Online learning

What exactly constitutes online learning is still up for debate among practitioners and researchers. Given the inconsistency of definitions, online learning described in this review is a form of distance education made feasible by technological devices used by isolated learners in their own settings away from the main education source (Hartnett, 2016).

Persistence

According to Martinez (2003), persistence relates to “the act of continuing toward an educational goal” (p. 3).

3. Influential Models of Student Persistence in Online Learning

Several scholars have made prominent contributions by putting forth models to explain why students drop out. These theories and theoretical frameworks have guided subsequent studies on student persistence and attrition. Tinto (1975) developed the Student Integration Model (SIM), which highlighted the importance of student engagement and the equal responsibility shared by both individuals and institutions. The model emphasizes student-related factors (such as family background, personal characteristics, and pre-college education) and institutional factors (such as peer interactions, faculty interactions, and social integration). This model, however, does not have contributing values to the online learning environments as it is only applicable to traditional on-campus students (Ashar & Skenes, 1993; Rovai, 2003).

Bean and Metzner (1985) created the Student Attrition Mode (SAM) for nontraditional students in response to Tinto's SIM's limitations. Five variables that affect students' decisions to drop out were included in the model. The three predictor variables consist of student background, academic variables, and environmental variables; and two outcomes that can affect attrition include academic and psychological outcomes. In this model, the role of external

factors is emphasized. However, due to the substantial differences between the definitions of nontraditional students and distance learners, SAM is unlikely to be applied to distance learners (Kember, 1989).

Both SIM and SAM are for on-campus students whose characteristics are different from online learners. Kember (1989), therefore, developed a longitudinal process design which is specifically tailored to conditions in which learning takes place at a distance. Kember assumed that distance education learners were working adults with families. The model emphasizes the intricate relationships between variables like family, motivation, and capacity to finish school, as well as previous achievements, educational experiences, and institutional support. Building on Tinto's (1975) SIM and Bean and Metzner's (1985) SAM, Rovai (2003) suggested a Composite Persistence Model (CPM) that can be used for distance education students. In this model, the relevant variables before admission are distinguished from the relevant factors after admission. Three groups of variables are pre-entry factors (e.g. student characteristics and student skills), internal factors (e.g. social integration, and satisfaction), and external factors (e.g. finances and family factors). CPM has been widely used in recent studies on online dropout (Packham, Jones, Miller, & Thomas, 2004; Lee, Choi, & Kim, 2013). Rovai's model is adopted as the analysis framework for this review as it is the most up-to-date and helps disclose some of the factors that affect student persistence in online environments.

4. Methods

4.1. Selection Criteria

The criteria used to select the appropriate articles include topic relevance, empirical studies and publication time. To be specific, the eligible research must (a) discuss online learning and issues related to student persistence; (b) include theoretical/conceptual contributions, empirical data or data from experimentations; (c) appear in peer-reviewed, academic journals published after 2000.

4.2. Search Methods

The search was initially performed on relevant and popular databases such as ERIC (n=25), JSTOR (n=30), and ProQuest (n=18). Keywords used include: 'online learning', 'online courses', 'strategies', 'persistence', 'retention', 'attrition', 'withdrawal' and 'dropout'. 73 articles were retrieved in the first searching phase. To increase the number, the search was then done on Google Scholar using the same keywords, yielding 127 articles. Additionally, academic journals that were known to produce high-impact research articles on online learning, such as Distance Education, Computers & Education, Journal of Computer Assisted Learning, American Journal of Distance Education, and The Internet and Higher Education, were specially examined.

4.3. Search Outcomes

A total of 200 articles were identified for review. They were first scanned for eligibility by year of publication in peer-reviewed journals, leaving 156 articles. The articles then underwent a screening phase which was performed by reading titles and abstracts. Articles found to be inappropriate or not meeting the selection criteria were excluded, leaving 90 articles for the analysis phase.

4.4. Analysis Phase

All the relevant articles that can address the research questions were analyzed through full-text reading over the course of one and a half months. The following factors were examined: the theoretical frameworks which form the background for this review, student characteristics affecting persistence, student skills affecting persistence, internal factors, and external factors, as well as recommended strategies and recommendations for future research. Of the 90 articles that were chosen, 72 reported on empirical data and 18 on conceptual contributions. The majority of the empirical articles studied factors affecting learner persistence in online environments using quantitative methods. The conceptual publications were mostly concerned with strategies suggested for improving retention in online learning. The articles were published in the domains of Business, Education, Nursing and Engineering. Most of the reviewed studies were conducted in the US and some other countries. Table 1 presents a quantitative description of the reviewed articles.

Table 1

Quantitative Data Description of the Reviewed Articles

Variables	Details	Number of publications
Type of publication	Empirical	72
	Conceptual	18
Type of analysis	Quantitative	59
	Qualitative	10
	Mixed	3
	Others	18
Domain	Business	25
	Education	57
	Nursing	2
	Engineering	2
	Others	4
Country of study	USA	76
	Australia	3
	UK	2
	China	2
	Korea	3
	Others	4

5. Results

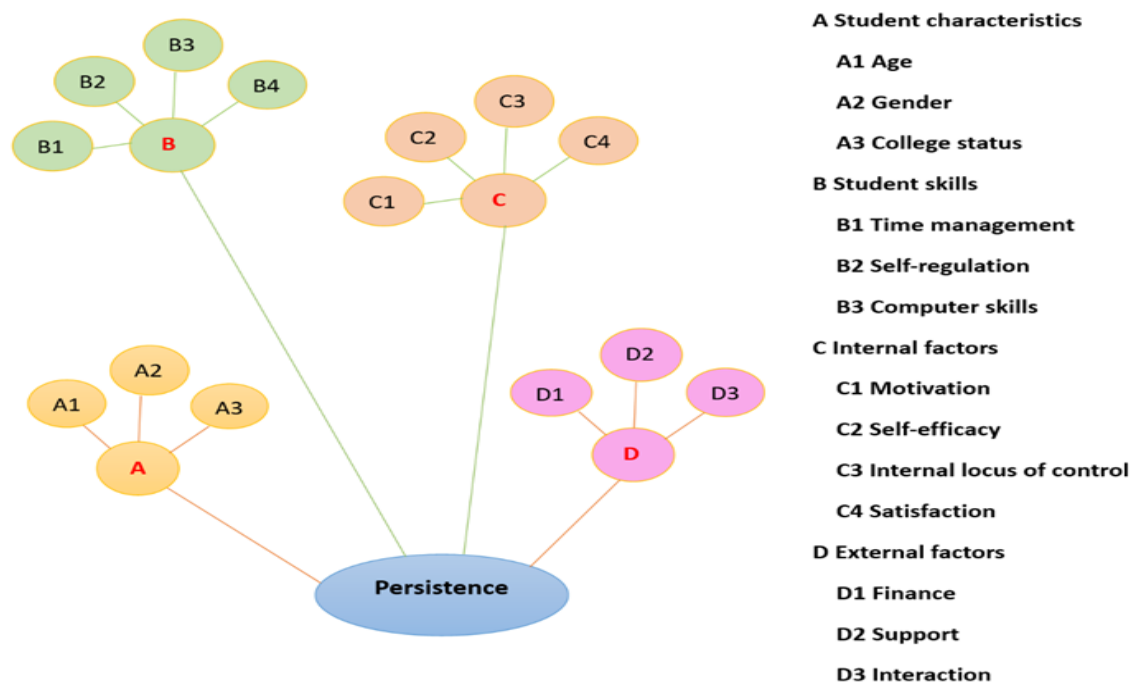
From the comprehensive analysis of 90 peer-reviewed articles, we have drawn several important findings on two main categories in accordance with the two research questions: (a) Factors affecting online student persistence and (b) Suggested strategies for improving student retention.

5.1. Factors Affecting Online Student Persistence

Based on Rovai's model, which comprises four factors including (A) learner characteristics, (B) student skills, (C) internal factors and (D) external factors, a summary of earlier studies is provided below.

Figure 1

Factors Affecting Online Student Persistence



5.2. Student Characteristics

5.2.1. Demographic Variables

Research on demographic variables affecting persistence has yielded mixed results. According to some researchers, there is no noteworthy difference in the age of students who drop out from online courses (Levy, 2007; Tello, 2007; Willging & Johnson, 2009), while others noted age as one of the most frequently cited factors relating to persistence. James, Swan, and Daston (2016) found that the persistence rate is higher among older online students than younger ones. This finds support in the claim that older students perform better and are more likely to persist (Wladis, Conway & Hachey, 2015). According to Rovai (2001), there are gender-related differences in social interactions and a feeling of community, and this may have an impact on how long students stick with online courses. On the contrary, according to Eliasquevici et al. (2017), gender differences in student retention in online learning environments were not always present. As mixed results were found in studies, Willging and Johnson (2004) claimed that demographic variables cannot be used as a predictor of dropouts.

5.2.2. College Status/Graduating Term

Levy's (2007) study included 108 participants who completed all 18 undergraduate and graduate e-learning courses and 25 dropouts at a large US state institution. The participants responded to a questionnaire on academic locus of control and a survey measuring motivation.

The findings suggest that lower-level college students are more likely to drop out than students at higher levels. According to Levy, students who are just beginning their degree feel less prepared to handle the demands of the classroom. On the other hand, students who have been in the program for an extended period of time might be more driven to finish the course because they have already put a lot of time and effort into it. This finding finds support in the claim that non-seniors were more likely to drop online courses than seniors (Cochran et al., 2014). However, Traver, Volchok, Bidjerano, and Shea (2014) pointed out that the year status could not be used as a precise predictor of retention.

5.3. Student Skills

5.3.1. Time Management

Leeds et al. (2013) asserted that time management can be a predictor of dropout. The decision of a student to drop out of an online course may be influenced by an inaccurate estimate or unrealistic expectation of the time required to finish the assignments. According to Holder (2007), in contrast to non-persisters, students who have good study habits and effective time management skills are more likely to persist. In a study conducted by Stanford-Bowers (2008), 39 participants from ten community colleges in Alabama were selected to answer open-ended questions related to factors contributing to persistence. It was found that administrators, academic staff, and students all agree on the significance of time management in persistence.

5.3.2. Self-regulation

Self-regulated learning (SRL) is regarded as essential to the success of online learning (Dillon & Greene, 2003; Hartley & Bendixen, 2001). Self-regulation is one of the key elements that can affect the academic achievement and persistence of online, nontraditional learners (Stephen, Rockinson-Szapkiw & Dubay, 2020). According to Barnard-Brak, Paton, and Lan (2008), online learners must continuously adapt their behaviors to persist when faced with challenges. These behaviors include goal setting, environment structuring, time management, task strategies, help-seeking, and self-evaluation. In many studies, self-regulation has been considered as correlated with persistence (Gomez, 2013; Lee, Choi, & Kim, 2013; O'Neill & Sai, 2014). According to Lee and Choi (2011), a major factor in the high dropout rates among online students is their inability to self-regulate their learning. Students who dropped out of online courses were found to have substantially lower self-regulation abilities than those who persisted (Lee et al., 2013).

5.3.3. Computer Skills

Bawa (2016) points out that online learners may be accustomed to technology and the digital world; however, this does not imply that they are similarly knowledgeable about e-learning environments or educational technology, which may cause them to drop the course. In distance education courses, computer confidence was found to be a useful means of differentiating successful completions from unsuccessful ones (Osborn, 2001). According to Harrell and Bower (2011), having basic computer skills will improve an online student's persistence, whereas having more advanced computer skills is linked to a rise in withdrawal rates. One possible reason proposed by the authors is Internet distraction, which could cause students with more advanced computer skills to lose concentration on the course content. On the contrary, Dupin-Bryant (2004) claims that improved computer abilities are unrelated to student retention. Further research on the relationship between computer skills and persistence is therefore recommended.

5.4. Internal Factors

5.4.1. Motivation

High attrition rates have led to motivational questions in distance education (Meşe & Sevilen, 2021). Indeed, high attrition and dropout rates have been attributed to lack of motivation (Artino, 2008; Keller, 2008; Muilenburg & Berge, 2005). Gredler (2005) presents the expectancy-value model in which persistence is one of the five achievement-related behaviors influenced by the motivational process. Brophy (2010) defined motivation as ‘a theoretical construct to explain the initiation, direction, intensity, persistence, and quality of behavior, especially goal-directed behavior’ (p.3). Motivation keeps students persistent in finishing online courses (Eliasquevici et al., 2017; Shaw et al., 2016). According to research, motivated students are more apt to be involved in demanding tasks, to show active engagement, and to be more persistent (Schunk et al., 2008). When faced with challenges, students who are more motivated may persist and seek out more challenging tasks (Hartnett & Hartnett, 2016).

5.4.2. Self-efficacy

Self-efficacy is another significant motivational element that influences students' task choices, effort, persistence, and achievement (Brophy, 2010). Research shows that there is a positive correlation between self-efficacy and persistence in online courses (Joo, Lim, & Kim, 2013; Hart, 2012). In Kemp's (2002) study, data were collected from 121 undergraduate online students at a university in Canada. The results indicated that a greater level of self-efficacy will enhance resiliency and have a positive impact on the effort put forth in studies. Similarly, self-efficacy is one of three factors identified by Holder (2007) as differentiating persistent students and non-completers in online environments.

5.4.3. Internal Locus of Control

Research has shown that the internal locus of control is closely related to course completion (Morris, Wu, & Finnegan, 2005). Learning success and determination to continue learning are more likely to occur for students having an internal locus of control (Joo, Joung & Sim, 2011). However, studies have shown mixed results and there has been no consensus on the correlation between internal locus of control and persistence. Academic locus of control was found to be significantly greater among online course participants when comparing those who completed the course and those who dropped out (Lee, Choi, & Kim, 2013). Levy (2007) conducted a study including 18 undergraduate and graduate e-learning courses at a major US state university. Data collected from a sample of 372 completers and 81 dropout students showed that academic locus of control had no impact on the choice of the students to withdraw from the online course.

5.4.4. Satisfaction

Previous studies claimed that dropout and persistence rates in online learning were correlated with students' satisfaction (Arbaugh, 2000; Billings, 2000; Thurmond, Wambach, Connors, & Frey, 2002). A high level of satisfaction may indicate that students are likely to continue their online education (Palmer & Holt, 2009), which contributes to lower attrition rates (Chute, Thompson, & Hancock, 1999). Müller's (2008) conducted a qualitative study with 20 online students at a US college and found that students who are dissatisfied with their teachers or their learning are more likely to have less success than their persistent peers. When compared to students who persevered and finished the online course, those who dropped out of the course reported being less satisfied (Levy, 2007) and participating significantly less, particularly at the

beginning of the semester (Nistor & Neubauer, 2010). Support for this finding can be found in the study of Park and Choi (2009), with results indicating that persistent students rate satisfaction higher than those who drop out.

5.5. External factors

The significance of external factors has been recognized by many researchers, and many suggested frameworks included them as part of their analysis (e.g., Bean & Metzner, 1985; Tinto, 1993; Rovai, 2003; Kember, 1989).

5.5.1. Finance

Considered an additional responsibility, finance was an issue affecting student persistence (Boston et al., 2011). In a study among 857 students at a US university, Qayyum, Zipf, Gungor and Dillon (2019) found that finance was crucial for encouraging online students to continue learning. Students having greater financial needs were more likely to persist if they were given scholarships as financial assistance. The findings imply that financial support may be important in assisting students who are at risk of dropping out to continue their studies.

5.5.2. Support

Emotional support may come from family, friends and peers. According to Park and Choi (2009), persistent students feel that their family and peers are supportive of their academic endeavors, in contrast to non-persistent students who report less support. Holder (2007) concludes that the comfort of understanding they are not alone in the learning process and knowing their friends and family are there to support them were key factors in the students' persistence. In addition, a sense of community within the classroom will greatly aid persistence. Müller (2008) also notes that social connections to peers will encourage students to persist.

Institutional support, including student support services, course orientation programs, and technological support, plays a crucial role in the successful completion of online programs (Heyman, 2010). Institutional support was ranked third among retention-influencing factors by faculty members, whereas students ranked it as the fifth most important element for online learning success (Gaytan, 2015). Students receiving tutoring assistance felt motivated to continue their academic path (Nichols, 2010). However, unlike earlier research suggesting that institutional support was a significant factor in learning persistence (Barefoot, 2004), Joo, Joung and Sim (2011) concluded that learning persistence was not directly influenced by institutional support.

5.5.3. Interaction

Social interactivity (student–student and student–instructor) may lead to a higher chance of online dropouts (Liu, Magjuka, Bonk, & Lee, 2007; Morris, Finnegan, & Wu, 2005; Tello, 2007). In particular, a student's choice to continue in an online course is significantly influenced by the instructor-student interaction in that course (Gaytan, 2015; Heyman, 2010). On the contrary, Grandzol and Grandzol (2010), in a study among 349 online community college students across six colleges, found that there was no positive correlation between student-student interaction and course completion rates.

5.6. Strategies for Improving Student Retention

The strategies suggested in the reviewed articles can be categorized into five groups. These recommendations for improving student retention in online environments are summarized in Table 2.

Table 2*Strategies for Improving Student Retention*

Strategies	Detailed strategies
Early student-focused initiatives	Analyzing student characteristics (Raju & Schumacker, 2015; Colorado & Eberle, 2010; Cochran et al., 2014; Xu & Jaggars, 2011) Offering orientation programs (Eliasquevici et al., 2017; Gaytan, 2015; Wuellner, 2013; Wojciechowski and Palmer, 2005). Organizing supportive activities (Kashif & Shahid, 2021; Li, Luo, Lei, Xu & Chen, 2022; Zheng, Liang, Yang & Tsai, 2016; Chou, 2004)
Student support	Maintaining ongoing communication with students (Clay et al., 2008); Smailes & Gannon-Leary, 2011; Dow, 2008) Technological support (Blau et al., 2016; Eliasquevici et al., 2017; Moore & Greenland, 2017; Nichols, 2010; Ludwig-Hardman and Dunlap, 2003)
Instructor-student interaction	Fostering interaction (Pittenger & Doering, 2010) Feedback (Gaytan, 2015; Heyman, 2010; Shaw et al., 2016; Hosler & Arend, 2012; Shea, Li & Pickett, 2006; Hodges & Cowan, 2012; Sheridan & Kelly, 2010; Muirhead, 2004)
Collaborative learning	Relationships with peers (Hegler, 2004; Smith et al., 2004) Building learning communities (Angelino et al., 2007; Beaulieu & Williams, 2006; Ancar et al., 2006; Reilly & Mcbrearty, 2007; Moallem, 2003)
Faculty training and support	Professional development activities (Blau, Mittal, Schirmer & Ozkan 2017; Gaytan, 2015; Parkes, Gregory, Fletcher, Adlington & Gromik, 2015; Harris, Larrier & Castano-Bishop, 2011)

5.6.1. Early Student-Focused Initiatives

Student-centered initiatives can improve student persistence and retention rates in online students (Brewer & Yucedag-Ozcan, 2013). As aforementioned, student characteristics have been found to be related to persistence. Therefore, it is useful to find and analyze pre-college and beginning-semester data so that students at risk of dropping out can be identified and predicted (Raju & Schumacker, 2015; Colorado & Eberle, 2010). Findings from the analysis can lead to decision-making actions regarding policies, student coaching, resources and procedure for online learning process (Cochran et al., 2014; Xu & Jaggars, 2011). It is also necessary to offer orientation programs that familiarize students with the challenges and particular requirements of online courses. Entrance orientations for learning strategies, self-discipline, time management, and technological skills should also be organized (Eliasquevici et al., 2017; Gaytan, 2015; Wuellner, 2013; Wojciechowski and Palmer, 2005). Furthermore, supportive activities must be arranged to help students develop self-regulation skills (Kashif & Shahid, 2021). In the early stages of online instruction, students should receive the appropriate guidance on self-regulated learning techniques, such as goal-setting and help-seeking (Li et al., 2022). It is recommended that teachers gain a better understanding of their students' online self-

regulation processes and give more appropriate and timely guidance in order to help students become effective online self-regulators (Zheng et.al, 2016). Chou (2004) concurred that learner-centered goals and activities improve the educational process, which is thereby beneficial to the students.

5.6.2. Student Support

It is necessary for institutions to maintain ongoing communication with students so that support can be provided in a timely manner. Activities such as faculty-initiated phone calls (Clay et al., 2008), communication through social media (Smailes & Gannon-Leary, 2011) and live chats (Dow, 2008) are expected to enhance student integration, as well as produce a stronger feeling of community and a lower chance of dropping out of the course. Student support resources may include study skills sessions, technological support and counseling for academic issues (Angelino et al., 2007). Technological support includes an effective course management system and easy access to technological resources (Blau et al., 2016; Eliasquevici et al., 2017). Such activities are believed to accommodate online learners (Moore & Greenland, 2017; Nichols, 2010) and minimize the feeling of isolation and, as a result, improve their relationship with the institution (Ludwig-Hardman and Dunlap, 2003).

5.6.3. Instructor-Student Interaction

It is suggested that instructor-student interaction be maintained on a weekly basis (Pittenger & Doering, 2010). Active instructor-student communication can also be fostered through instant and meaningful feedback (Gaytan, 2015; Heyman, 2010; Shaw et al., 2016). According to Hosler and Arend (2012), student engagement can be enhanced by prompt feedback. Shea, Li, and Pickett (2006) further noted the beneficial effects of teachers' questioning and feedback on students' perceptions of learning and connectedness. In order to create instructor presence, foster student engagement and facilitate higher levels of learning, instructors must be able to give prompt responses to questions and timely feedback on assignments (Hodges & Cowan, 2012; Sheridan & Kelly, 2010). To do this effectively, it is necessary to develop a specific feedback rubric and a carefully designed timeline for feedback (Muirhead, 2004).

5.6.4. Collaborative Learning

There have been a lot of studies on the use of learning communities, where peers can learn from one another and relationships between students can be enhanced (Hegler, 2004; Smith et al., 2004). By giving students a sense of belonging, learning communities can greatly lessen negative emotions of 'physical separation, feeling isolated, lack of support, and disconnection.' (Angelino et al., 2007). Such communities also create comfortable spaces for student cooperation (Beaulieu & Williams, 2006; Ancar et al., 2006) and provide opportunities for learners' self-direction and self-management (Reilly & Mcbrearty, 2007). Moallem (2003) investigated the results of employing a design model to create an online course that was better structured for group learning. In this model, the focus is on problem-solving tasks and fostered communication among group members, which may have a beneficial impact on student interaction in an online course.

5.6.5. Faculty Training and Support

Institutional support for faculty members emerged as a further solution for student retention. Institutions should actively encourage faculty members to take part in professional development activities like workshops and training sessions (Blau et al., 2017; Gaytan, 2015).

Training topics may include theoretical background on retention (Boston et al., 2011), understanding online learners' needs (Harris et al., 2011) and adopting suitable technology for teaching (Parkes et al., 2015), which will help instructors better prepare for their courses. Assistance with instructional materials and technology may also benefit faculty members as it gives them the opportunity to discuss issues and get support (Blau et al., 2017).

6. Discussion

This review of literature was conducted to ascertain fundamental factors influencing student persistence in online environments. We were able to categorize the identified factors into four major categories by using the CPM model proposed by Rovai (2003). Among the four types, internal factors are most discussed in the reviewed studies. Almost unanimous agreement exists in the literature that internal factors such as motivation, self-efficacy, locus of control and satisfaction are critical elements contributing to persistence (Eliasquevici et al., 2017; Holder, 2007; Levy, 2007; Park & Choi, 2009; Shaw et al., 2016). We also found that factors related to student characteristics and student skills have yielded mixed findings. Regarding external factors, the review of the existing literature has revealed mixed results regarding the correlation between interactivity and persistence. With its unique characteristics, online education differs significantly from traditional modes of learning, including the lack of direct physical contact between students and teachers (Gillett-Swan, 2017). Interactivity in online environments, which involves three core types, i.e. learner-teacher, learner-content, and learner-learner (Moore, 1989), is a complex element that needs in-depth investigation. Further research is necessary to confirm the effects of student characteristics, student skills and some external factors such as interactivity. Furthermore, from our review, we could point out that the factors are interrelated and can work together to help overcome barriers to persistence. While students' characteristics and skills may predict dropout decisions, we reiterate that internal and external factors together can help students perform better. Thus, more research could be carried out to examine the relationship of various factors within and between categories as well as the combined effects of the factors. Next, a large portion of the literature included in this review used a quantitative research approach. This will pose the need for future study to critically investigate the interplay among the factors and validate the results using a mixed-methods approach.

In addition, insights on suggested solutions for enhancing student retention in online learning were another thing we looked for. The strategies suggested in the reviewed studies were grouped into five main categories, most of which were found to focus on tackling the external factors affecting student persistence. The findings have also confirmed that joint efforts from the institution, the instructor and the student can contribute to student persistence. Moreover, our findings suggest that institutions play a critical role in the improvement of student retention. Online learners do not study on-campus and may encounter obstacles and barriers. Thus, there should always be room for improvements in institutional initiatives so that online learners can receive flexible and timely support. Administrators should be proactive in carrying out activities and programs to maintain and foster institution-student interactivity. Another important consideration is that institutions need to figure out how to improve faculty training for teaching online.

7. Conclusion

Persistence is a complex matter that can affect course completion. Guided by Rovai's framework, the current review has synthesized factors influencing student persistence, namely

student characteristics, student skills, internal factors and external factors. One limitation of the review is that the influential factors and strategies for online student retention are discussed from a comprehensive perspective. These factors, therefore, should be examined using bigger samples and analyzed in light of more real-world contexts in future studies. Furthermore, strategies for improvements require shared responsibilities among different entities. Further research is also recommended to develop and assess evidence-based strategies that can improve persistence for the online student.

References

- Ancar, L., Freeman, S. & Field, D. (2006). Professional connections through the technology learning community. *Journal of Learning Communities Research*, 1(2), 19-28.
- Angelino, L., Williams, F. & Natvig, D. (2007). Strategies to engage online students and reduce attrition rates. *The Journal of Educators Online*, 4(2), 1-14.
- Arbaugh, J. B. (2000). Virtual classroom versus physical classroom: An exploratory study of class discussion patterns and student learning in an asynchronous Internet-based MBA course. *Journal of Management Education*, 24, 213-233. <https://doi.org/10.1177/105256290002400206>
- Artino, A. R. (2008). Motivational beliefs and perceptions of instructional quality: Predicting satisfaction with online training. *Journal of Computer Assisted Learning*, 24(3), 260-270. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1365-2729.2007.00258.x>
- Ashar, H., & Skenes, R. (1993). Can Tinto's student departure model be applied to nontraditional students? *Adult Education Quarterly*, 43, 90-100. <https://doi.org/10.1177/074171369304300200>
- Eliasquevici, M. K., Seruffo, M. C. da R., & Resque, S. N. F. (2017). Persistence in distance education: A study case using Bayesian network to understand retention. *International Journal of Distance Education Technologies*, 15(4), 61-78. <https://doi.org/10.4018/IJDET.2017100104>
- Barefoot, B. (2004). Higher education's revolving door: Confronting the problem of student drop out in U.S. colleges and universities. *Open Learning*, 19(1), 9-18.
- Barnard-Brak, L., Lan, W., & Paton, V. (2010). Profiles in self-regulated learning in the online learning environment. *International Review of Research in Open and Distance Learning*, 11(1), 61-79. <https://doi.org/10.19173/irrodl.v11i1.769>
- Bawa, P. (2016). Retention in online courses: Exploring issues and solutions - A literature review. *SAGE Open*, 6(1). <https://doi.org/10.1177/2158244015621777>
- Bean, J. P., & Metzner, B. S. (1985). A conceptual model of nontraditional undergraduate student attrition. *Review of Educational Research*, 55, 485-540. <https://doi.org/10.3102/00346543055004485>
- Beaulieu, E. and Williams, L. (2006). Micro-strategies: Small steps toward improved retention. *Journal of Learning Communities*, 1(1), 19-27.
- Billings, D.M. (2000). A framework for assessing outcomes and practices in web-based courses in nursing. *Journal of Nursing Education*, 39, 60-67.
- Blau, G., Drennan, R. B., Hochner, A., & Kapanjie, D. (2016). Perceived learning and timely graduation for business undergraduates taking an online or hybrid course. *Journal of Education for Business*, 91(6), 347-353. <https://doi.org/10.1080/08832323.2016.1218319>
- Blau, G., Mittal, N., Schirmer, M., & Ozkan, B. (2017). Differences in business undergraduate perceptions by preferred classroom learning environment. *Journal of Education for Business*, 92(6), 280-287. <https://doi.org/10.1080/08832323.2017.1365679>
- Boston, W. E., Ice, P., & Gibson, A. M. (2011). Comprehensive assessment of student retention in online learning environments. *Online Journal of Distance Learning Administration*, 14(1).
- Brewer, S. A., & Yucedag-Ozcan, A. (2013). Educational persistence: Self-efficacy and topics in a college orientation course. *Journal of College Student Retention: Research, Theory & Practice*, 14(4), 451-465. <https://doi.org/10.2190/CS.14.4.b>
- Brophy, J. (2010). *Motivating students to learn* (3rd ed.). Abingdon-on-Thames: Routledge.
- Butler, J. (2010). 24/7 online learning: lessons learned. *Techniques: Connecting Education and Careers*, 85(6), 32-36.

- Carr, S. (2000). As distance education comes of age, the challenge is keeping the students. *Chronicle of Higher Education*, 46(23), 39-41.
- Chou, C. (2004). A model of learner-centred computer-mediated interaction for collaborative distance education. *International Journal of E-Learning*, 3(1), 11.
- Chute, A. G., Thompson, M. M., & Hancock, B. W. (1999). *The McGraw-Hill handbook of distance E-learning*. McGraw-Hill.
- Clark, R. E. (2003). Research on Web-based learning. In R. H. Bruning, C. A. Horn, & L. M. PytlikZillig (Eds.), *Web-based learning: What do we know? Where do we go?* (pp. 1-22). Greenwich, CT: Information Age.
- Clay, M., Rowland, S. & Packard, A. (2008). Improving undergraduate online retention through gated advisement and redundant communication. *Journal of College Student Retention*, 10(1), 93-102.
- Cochran, J. D., Campbell, S. M., Baker, H. M., & Leeds, E. M. (2014). The role of student characteristics in predicting retention in online courses. *Research in Higher Education*, 55(1), 27-48. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11162-013-9305-8>
- Colorado, J. T., & Eberle, J. (2010). Student demographics and success in online learning environments. *Emporia State Research Studies*, 46(1), 4-10.
- Dow, M. (2008). Implications of social presence for online learning: A case study of MLS students. *Journal of Education for Library and Information Science*, 49(4), 238-239.
- Dillon, C., & Greene, B. (2003). Learner differences in distance learning: Finding differences that matter. In M. G. Moore & W. G. Anderson (Eds.), *Handbook of distance education* (pp. 235-244). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Dupin-Bryant, P. A. (2004). Pre-entry variables related to retention in online distance education [electronic version]. *American Journal of Distance Education*, 18(4), 199-206. https://doi.org/10.1207/s15389286ajde1804_2
- Eliasquevici, M. K., Seruffo, M. C. da R., & Resque, S. N. F. (2017). Persistence in distance education: A study case using Bayesian network to understand retention. *International Journal of Distance Education Technologies*, 15(4), 61-78. <https://doi.org/10.4018/IJDET.2017100104>
- Floyd, D. L., & Casey-Powell, D. (2004). New roles for student support services in distance learning. *New Directions for Community Colleges*, 128, 55-64. <https://doi.org/10.1002/cc.175>
- Gaytan, J. (2015). Comparing faculty and student perceptions regarding factors that affect student retention in online education. *American Journal of Distance Education*, 29(1), 56-66. <https://doi.org/10.1080/08923647.2015.994365>
- Gillett-Swan, J. (2017). The Challenges of Online Learning Supporting and Engaging the Isolated Learner. *Journal of Learning Design*, 10(1), 20-30.
- Gomez, D. (2013). Leadership behavior and its impact on student success and retention in online graduate education. *Academy of Educational Leadership Journal*, 17(2), 13-37.
- Grandzol, C. J., & Grandzol, J. R. (2010). Interaction in online courses: More is not always better. *Online Journal of Distance Education Administration*, 13(2).
- Gredler, M. (2005). *Learning and Instruction: Theory into Practice* (5th ed.). Upper Saddle River N.J.: Pearson/Merrill Prentice Hall.
- Harrell, I. L. & Bower, B. L. (2011). Student characteristics that predict persistence in community college online courses. *American Journal of Distance Education*, 25(3), 178-191.
- Harris, S. M., Larrier, Y. I., & Castano-Bishop, M. (2011). Development of the student expectations of online learning survey (SEOLS): A pilot study. *Online Journal of Distance Learning Administration*, 14(4), 1-11.
- Harris, D. M., & Parrish, D. E. (2006). The art of online teaching: Online instruction versus in-class instruction. *Journal of Technology in Human Services*, 24(2-3), 105-117. https://doi.org/10.1300/j017v24n02_06
- Hartley, K., & Bendixen, L. D. (2001). Educational research in the Internet age: Examining the role of individual characteristics. *Educational Researcher*, 30(9), 22-26.
- Hartnett, M. (2016). The importance of motivation in online learning. In M. Harnett (Ed.), *Motivation in Online Education* (pp. 5-32). Springer. <https://doi.org/10.1007/978-981-10-0700-2>

- Hart, C. (2012). Factors associated with student persistence in an online program of study: A review of the literature. *Journal of Interactive Online Learning*, 11(1), 19-42.
- Hegler, K. (2004). Assessing learning communities. *Assessment Update*, 16(6), 1-2.
- Herbert, M. (2006). Staying the course: A study in online student satisfaction and retention. *Online Journal of Distance Learning Administration*, 9(4).
- Heyman, E. (2010). Overcoming student retention issues in higher education online programs. *Online Journal of Distance Learning Administration*, 13(4), 1-10.
- Hodges, C. B., & Forrest Cowan, S. (2012). Preservice teachers' views of instructor presence in online courses. *Journal of Digital Learning in Teacher Education*, 28(4), 139-145. <https://doi.org/10.1080/21532974.2012.10784694>
- Holder, B. (2007). An investigation of hope, academics, environment, and motivation as predictors of persistence in higher education online programs. *The Internet and Higher Education*, 10, 245-260. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.iheduc.2007.08.002>
- Hosler, K. A., & Arend, B. D. (2012). The importance of course design, feedback, and facilitation: student perceptions of the relationship between teaching presence and cognitive presence. *Educational Media International*, 49(3), 217-229. <https://doi.org/10.1080/09523987.2012.738014>
- James, S., Swan, K., & Daston, C. (2016). Retention, progression and the taking of online courses. *Online Learning*, 20(2), 75-96. <https://doi.org/10.24059/olj.v20i2.780>
- Joo, Y. & Joung, S. & Sim, W. (2011). Structural relationships among internal locus of control, institutional support, flow, and learner persistence in cyber universities. *Computers in Human Behavior*, 27, 714-722. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.chb.2010.09.007>
- Joo, Y. J., Lim, K. Y., & Kim, J. (2013). Locus of control, self-efficacy, and task value as predictors of learning outcome in an online university context. *Computers & Education*, 62, 149-158.
- Kashif, M. F., & Shahid, R. (2021). Students' self-regulation in online learning and its effect on their academic achievement. *Global Educational Studies Review*, 6(3), 11-20. [https://doi.org/10.31703/gesr.2021\(VI-III\).0](https://doi.org/10.31703/gesr.2021(VI-III).0)
- Keller, J. M. (2008). First principles of motivation to learn and e-learning. *Distance Education*, 29(2), 175-185. <https://doi.org/10.1080/01587910802154970>
- Kember, D. (1989). A longitudinal-process model of drop-out from distance education. *The Journal of Higher Education*, 60(3), 278-301. <https://doi.org/10.1080/00221546.1989.11775036>
- Kemp, W. C. (2002). Persistence of adult learners in distance education. *The American Journal of Distance Education*, 16(2), 65-81.
- Kuo, Y. C., Walker, A. E., Belland, B. R., & Schroder, K. E. E. (2013). A predictive study of student satisfaction in online education programs. *International Review of Research in Open and Distance Learning*, 14(1), 16-39. <https://doi.org/10.19173/irrodl.v14i1.1338>
- Lee, Y., & Choi, J. (2011). A review of online course dropout research: Implications for practice and future research. *Educational Technology Research and Development*, 59, 593-618. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11423-010-9177-y>
- Lee, Y., Choi, J., & Kim, T. (2013). Discriminating factors between completers of and dropouts from online learning courses. *British Journal of Educational Technology*, 44(2), 328-337.
- Leeds, E. M., Campbell, S., Baker, H., Ali, R., Brawley, D., & Crisp, J. (2013). The impact of student retention strategies: an empirical study. *International Journal of Management in Education*, 7(1/2), 22. <https://doi.org/10.1504/IJMIE.2013.050812>
- Levy, Y. (2007). Comparing dropouts and persistence in e-learning courses. *Computers & Education*, 48(2), 185-204.
- Li, G.; Luo, H.; Lei, J.; Xu, S.; & Chen, T. (2022). Effects of first-time experiences and self-regulation on college students' online learning motivation: Based on a national survey during COVID-19. *Education Sciences*, 12, 245. <https://doi.org/10.3390/educsci12040245>
- Liu, S., Gomez, J., Khan, B., & Yen, C.-J. (2007). Toward a learner-oriented community college online course dropout framework. *International Journal on E-Learning*, 6(4), 519-542.

- Ludwig-Hardman, S. & Dunlap, J. (2003). Learner support services for online students: scaffolding for success. *The International Review of Research in Open and Distance Learning*, 4(1), 1-15.
- Martinez, M. (2003). High attrition rates in e-learning: challenges, predictors, and solutions. *The E-Learning Developers' Journal*, 1-8.
- Meşe, E. & Sevilen, Ç. (2021). Factors influencing EFL students' motivation in online learning: A qualitative case study. *Journal of Educational Technology & Online Learning*, 4(1), 11-22.
- Moallem, M. (2003). An interactive online course: A collaborative design model. *Educational Technology Research & Development*, 51(4), 85-103.
- Moore, M. G. (1989). Three types of interaction. *The American Journal of Distance Education*, 3(2), 1-6.
- Moore, J. C., & Fetzner, M. J. (2009). The road to retention: A closer look at institutions that achieve high course completion rate. *Journal of Asynchronous Learning Networks*, 13(3), 3-22.
- Moore, C., & Greenland, S. (2017). Employment driven online student attrition and the assessment policy divide: An Australian open access higher education perspective. *Journal of Open, Flexible and Distance Learning*, 21(1), 52-62.
- Morris, L. V., Finnegan, C., & Wu, S.-S. (2005). Tracking student behavior, persistence, and achievement in online courses. *The Internet and Higher Education*, 8(3), 221-231. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.iheduc.2005.06.009>
- Muilenburg, L. Y., & Berge, Z. L. (2005). Student barriers to online learning: A factor analytic study. *Distance Education*, 26(1), 29-48. <https://doi.org/10.1080/01587910500081269>
- Muirhead, B. (2004). Encouraging interaction in online classes. *International Journal of Instructional Technology and Distance Learning*, 1(6).
- Müller, T. (2008). Persistence of women in online degree-completion programs. *International Review of Research in Open and Distance Learning*, 9(2), 1-18.
- Nichols, M. (2010). Student perceptions of support services and the influence of targeted interventions on retention in distance education. *Distance Education*, 31(1), 93-113. <https://doi.org/10.1080/01587911003725048>
- Nistor, N., & Neubauer, K. (2010). From participation to dropout: Quantitative participation patterns in online university courses. *Computers & Education*, 55(2), 663-672.
- O'Neill, D. K., & Sai, T. H. (2014). Why not? Examining college students' reasons for avoiding an online course. *Higher Education*, 68(1), 1-14. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10734-013-9663-3>
- Osborn, V. (2001). Identifying at-risk students in videoconferencing and Web-based distance education. *American Journal of Distance Education*, 15(1), 41-54.
- Packham, G., Jones, G., Miller, C., & Thomas, B. (2004). E-learning and retention: Key factors influencing student withdrawal. *Education & Training*, 46(6/7), 335-342.
- Palmer, S. R., & Holt, D. M. (2009). Examining student satisfaction with wholly online learning. *Journal of Computer Assisted Learning*, 25(2), 101-113.
- Park, J. H., & Choi, H. J. (2009). Factors Influencing Adult Learners' Decision to Drop Out or Persist in Online Learning. *Educational Technology and Society*, 12, 207-217.
- Parkes, M., Gregory, S., Fletcher, P., Adlington, R., & Gromik, N. (2015). Bringing people together while learning apart: Creating online learning environments to support the needs of rural and remote students. *Australian and International Journal of Rural Education*, 25(1), 65-78.
- Pittenger, A., & Doering, A. (2010). Influence of motivational design on completion rates in online self-study pharmacy-content courses. *Distance Education*, 31(3), 275-293. <https://doi.org/10.1080/01587919.2010.513953>
- Qayyum, A., Zipf, S., Gungor, R. & Dillon, J.M. (2019). Financial aid and student persistence in online education in the United States. *Distance Education*, 40(1), 20-31. <https://doi.org/10.1080/01587919.2018.1553561>
- Raju, D., & Schumacker, R. (2015). Exploring student characteristics of retention that lead to graduation in higher education using data mining models. *Journal of College Student Retention*, 16(4), 563-591. <https://doi.org/10.2190/CS.16.4.e>
- Reilly, R. & Mcbrearty, M. (2007). Well, it's messy sometimes...: Barriers to building a learning community and dynamic assessment as a system intervention. *Journal of Learning Communities Research*, 2(1), 21-43.
- Rovai, A. P. (2003). In search of higher persistence rates in distance education online programmes. *The Internet and Higher Education*, 6(1), 1-16. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S1096-7516\(02\)00158-6](https://doi.org/10.1016/S1096-7516(02)00158-6)

- Schunk, D. H., Pintrich, P. R., & Meece, J. L. (2008). *Motivation in education* (3rd ed.). Upper Saddle River, NJ: Pearson Merrill Prentice Hall.
- Shaw, M., Burrus, S., & Ferguson, K. (2016). Factors that influence student attrition in online courses. *Online Journal of Distance Learning Administration*, 19(3), 211-231.
- Shea, P. (2007). Bridges and barriers to teaching online college courses: A study of experienced online faculty in thirty-six colleges. *Journal of Asynchronous Learning Networks*, 11(2), 73-128.
- Sheridan, K., & Kelly, M. A. (2010). The indicators of instructor presence that are important to students in online courses. *MERLOT Journal of Online Learning and Teaching*, 6(4), 767-779.
- Smailes, J., & Gannon-Leary, P. (2011). Peer mentoring - Is a virtual form of support a viable alternative? *Research in Learning Technology*, 19(2), 129-142. <https://doi.org/10.1080/21567069.2011.586675>
- Smith, B., MacGregor, J., Matthews, R. & Gabelnick, F. (2004). *Learning Communities: Reforming Undergraduate Education*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Stanford-Bowers, D. E. (2008). Persistence in online classes: A study of perceptions among community college stakeholders. *Journal of Online Learning and Teaching*, 4(1).
- Stephen, J. S., Rockinson-Szapkiw, A.J., & Dubay, C. (2020). Persistence model of non-traditional online learners: Self-efficacy, self-regulation, and self-direction. *American Journal of Distance Education*, 34, 1-16. <https://doi.org/10.1080/08923647.2020.1745619>
- Tello, S. F. (2007). An analysis of student persistence in online education. *International Journal of Information and Communication Technology Education*, 3(3), 47-62. <https://doi.org/10.4018/jicte.2007070105>
- Terry, N. (2007). Assessing instruction modes for Master of Business Administration (MBA) courses. *Journal of Education for Business*, 82(4), 220-225.
- Thurmond, V. A., Wambach, K., Connors, H. R., & Frey, B. B. (2002). Evaluation of student satisfaction: Determining the impact of a web-based environment by controlling for student characteristics. *The American Journal of Distance Education*, 16, 169-189.
- Tinto, V. (1975). Dropout from higher education: A theoretical synthesis of recent research. *Review of Educational Research*, 45, 89-125. <https://doi.org/10.2307/1170024>
- Traver, A. E., Volchok, E., Bidjerano, T., & Shea, P. (2014). Correlating community college students' perceptions of community of inquiry presences with their completion of blended courses. *Internet and Higher Education*, 20, 1-9. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.iheduc.2013.09.001>
- Willging, P.A., & Johnson, S. D. (2004). Factors that influence students' decision to drop out of online courses. *Journal of Asynchronous Learning Network*, 8(4), 105-118.
- Wladis, C., Hachey, A. C., & Conway, K. M. (2014). An investigation of course-level factors as predictors of online STEM course outcomes. *Computers and Education*, 77, 145-150. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.compedu.2014.04.015>
- Wojciechowski, A. & Palmer, L. (2005). Individual student characteristics: can any be predictors of success in online classes? *Online Journal of Distance Learning Administration*, 8(2), 1-20.
- Wuellner, M. R. (2013). Student learning and instructor investment in online and face-to-face natural resources courses. *Natural Sciences Education*, 42(1), 14-23. <https://doi.org/10.4195/nse.2012.0023>
- Xu, D., & Jaggars, S. S. (2011). The effectiveness of distance education across Virginia's community colleges: Evidence from introductory college-level Math and English courses. *Educational Evaluation and Policy Analysis*, 33(3), 360-377. <https://doi.org/10.3102/01623737111413814>
- Xu, D., & Jaggars, S. S. (2013). The impact of online learning on students' course outcomes: Evidence from a large community and technical college system. *Economics of Education Review*, 37, 46-57. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.econedurev.2013.08>
- Zheng, C. & Liang, J.C., Yang, Y.F. & Tsai, C.C. (2016). The relationship between Chinese university students' conceptions of language learning and their online self-regulation. *System*, 57, 66-78. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2016.01.005>

Appendix

Summary of Reviewed Articles

Author, year	Title		Sample	Instrument(s)
	Research question(s)/Purpose			
Ancar (2006)	Professional Connections through the Technology Learning Community		Nearly 500 students in the College of Engineering, and approximately 60 peer mentors, have participated in the TLC since fall semester 1999.	Artifacts and a group discussion
	The purpose of this study was to determine how the TLC initiative affected students' development of professional networks and relationships with technology faculty, staff, and industry professionals.			
Angelino, Williams & Natvig (2007)	Strategies to engage online students and reduce attrition rates.		(Conceptual contributions)	
	This article presents key concepts in online learning and a review of different methods of engaging students with the goals of enhancing the learning process and reducing attrition rates.			
Arbaugh (2000)	Virtual classroom versus physical classroom: An exploratory study of class discussion patterns and student learning in an asynchronous Internet-based MBA course.		62 students in an MBA program at a Midwestern US university	The instrument was developed by the university to assess student attitudes towards distance education via compressed video
	This exploratory study reports the results of comparing a classroom-based and an Internet-based MBA class section at a Midwestern U.S. university.			
Artino (2008)	Motivational beliefs and perceptions of instructional quality: predicting satisfaction with online training		780 students from a U.S. service academy were invited to participate in the present study. A total of 646 students completed the survey (response rate = 83%)	The instrument used in the present study was composed of 48 items on motivation beliefs
	The objective of the study was to investigate the relations between students' motivational beliefs, their perceptions of the learning environment and their satisfaction with a self-paced, online course.			
Barnard-Brak, Lan & Paton (2010)	Profiles in self-regulated learning in the online learning environment		Students enrolled in online degree programs at a large, public university located in the Southwestern United States	Online Self-Regulated Learning Questionnaire (OLSQ), a 24-item scale with a 5-point Likert-type response format
	The purpose of the current study was to examine whether profiles for self-regulated learning skills and strategies exist among learners.			
Barefoot (2004)	Higher education's revolving door: Confronting the problem of student drop out in U.S. colleges and universities.		(Conceptual contributions)	
	While we will never be able to predict or control dropout with 100% certainty, the dynamic nature of entering students requires that we take a hard look at our cherished structures, especially the ways in which we deliver instruction.			
Bawa (2016)	Retention in online courses: Exploring issues and solutions - A literature review.		(Conceptual contributions)	
	This article reviews literature to ascertain critical reasons for high attrition rates in online classes, as well as explore solutions to boost retention rates.			
Beaulieu & Williams (2006)	Micro-strategies: Small steps toward improved retention.		(Conceptual contributions)	
	Building micro-strategies into the structure of learning communities can help an institution attain a valuable uptick in retention.			
Billings (2000)	A framework for assessing outcomes and practices in web-based courses in nursing		(Conceptual contributions)	
	This article presents a framework to assess the dynamic interaction of technology used to offer Web-based courses, the teaching-learning practices in these courses, and the outcomes enabled by the technology. Concepts of the model include outcomes, educational practices, faculty support, learner support, and use of technology.			

Blau et al. (2016)	Perceived learning and timely graduation for business undergraduates taking an online or hybrid course	263 business undergraduates taking at least one online or hybrid course in the fall of 2015	Online survey
	This study tests the impact of background, technological, and course-related variables on perceived learning and timely graduation		
Blau et al. (2017)	Perceived learning and timely graduation for business undergraduates taking an online or hybrid course	A sample of 263 business undergraduates	Survey content was developed primarily based on a literature review by Gary Blau
	The purpose of this study was to test the impact of background, technological, and course-related variables on perceived learning and timely graduation		
Boston, Ice & Gibson (2011)	Comprehensive assessment of student retention in online learning environments	Data included enrollment and academic achievement data through December 31, 2009 with a total of 20,569.	The predictor variables were all of the various student background data downloaded from the APUS data warehouse. The data sets were regressed on the variable, using suggestions from Cohen, Cohen, West, and Aiken (2002).
	The purpose of the study was to determine which factors were most relevant in determining retention.		
Brewer & Yucedag-Ozcan (2013).	Educational persistence: Self-efficacy and topics in a college orientation course	The sample consisted of 512 students	The General Self-Efficacy Scale (GSE)
	The study explores whether self-efficacy is related to enrollment persistence		
Chou (2004)	A model of learner-centred computer-mediated interaction for collaborative distance education	Upper level undergraduates	Conference transcripts from both synchronous and asynchronous communication and student surveys
	This study examines interaction patterns at both interpersonal and system levels in a learner-centered distance collaborative learning environment.		
Clay, Rowland & Packard (2008)	Improving undergraduate online retention through gated advisement and redundant communication	Fifty-seven students University of Western Georgia (UWG)	Existing retention data in UWG eCore courses and their face-to-face counterparts offered at UWG as well as telephone survey with students who enrolled in eCore courses in Fall 2006 and later withdrew.
	This article highlights the results of a telephone survey conducted to determine the causes of eCore attrition, and the retention improvement data following the implementation of a comprehensive orientation and advisement program and redundant communications to students		
Cochran, Campbell, Baker, & Leeds (2014)	The role of student characteristics in predicting retention in online courses	Undergraduate students (n = 2,314) from a large state university	Questionnaire
	This study examines previous research literature on traditional face-to-face classes to determine how individual characteristics of students may be associated with the likelihood of withdrawal from online classes		
Colorado & Eberle (2010)	Student demographics and success in online learning environments	170 graduate students enrolled in online courses at a US Midwestern university during the spring 2005 and summer 2005 semesters	The MSLQ
	This article discusses the relationship between student demographics and success in online learning environments		
Dillion & Greene (2003)	Learner differences in distance learning: Finding differences that matter	(Conceptual contributions)	
	This article reviews the relationship between three influential ID factors, namely age, aptitude, and motivation, and L2 learning.		
Dow (2008)	Implications of social presence for online learning: A case study of MLS students	102 library and information science graduate students at Emporia State University	Focus group interviews
	This study explores factors that influence students' interpersonal awareness of others while learning online		

Dupin-Bryant, 2004	Pre-entry variables related to retention in online distance education	Four hundred and sixty-four students who were enrolled in online distance education courses participated in the study	The study research questionnaire was developed, tested, and reviewed by a panel of distance education professionals. A pilot study was conducted.
	Are there pre-entry variables that distinguish individuals who complete university online distance education courses from those who do not?		
Eliasquevici, Seruffo, & Resque (2017)	Persistence in distance education: A study case using Bayesian network to understand retention	90 students, who were about to graduate, filled out a computer questionnaire on their skills and characteristics prior to course admission, as well as on the internal and external factors after admission which may have influenced their permanence	A research instrument with open- and close-ended questions based on Rovai's (2003) Composite Model was developed to investigate which variables facilitate student persistence.
	This study aims to identify the main factors which may influence student retention in distance undergraduate programs		
Floyd & Casey-Powell (2004)	New roles for student support services in distance learning	(Conceptual contributions)	
	This chapter discusses ways in which community colleges can strengthen the delivery of online courses to ensure that programs such as admissions, advising, and financial aid, as well as career and academic counseling, and library and registration services, are meeting the needs of distance learners.		
Gaytan (2005)	Comparing Faculty and Student Perceptions Regarding Factors That Affect Student Retention in Online Education	15 online students were identified and interviewed to determine their perceptions related to critical factors affecting student retention in online courses.	A grounded study method was used to interview students taking online courses, analyze their responses related to the critical factors that affect student retention, and compare them with those given by expert online faculty.
	The purpose of this qualitative study was to compare faculty and student perceptions regarding factors that affect student retention in online courses		
Gomez (2013)	Leadership behavior and its impact on student success and retention in online graduate education	A total sample size of 303 doctoral students who enrolled in a multi-disciplinary online doctoral program in organizational and in strategic leadership at a private graduate university.	Secondary and program specific data
	This study examines the predictive impact of student characteristics on persistence in an online doctoral leadership program.		
Grandzol & Grandzol (2010)	Interaction in Online Courses: More Is NOT Always Better	359 lower-level students taking online, undergraduate business courses	
	The author investigated course enrollments, student and faculty time spent in interaction, and course completion rates, all drivers of resource consumption.		
Harris et al. (2011)	Development of the student expectations of online learning survey (SEOLS): A pilot study	17 students enrolled in online courses of a master's level counseling program at a mid-sized Midwestern University in the United States.	The Student Expectations of Online Learning Survey (SEOLS)
	This study investigated the reliability of the Student Expectations of Online Learning Survey (SEOLS) as a tool for assessing student expectations for elements of online courses.		
Harris & Parrish (2006)	The art of online teaching: Online instruction versus in-class instruction	Students who were participating in online instruction and in traditional in-class instruction.	The Internal Control Index (ICI) developed by Duttweiler (1984) was used to measure student locus of control.
	This article examines objective data regarding learning outcomes of students who participated in asynchronous online (web-based) instruction versus in-class (traditional) instruction.		
Harrell & Bower (2011)	Student characteristics that predict persistence	225 online students from five Florida community colleges	The questionnaire was created based on Rotter's (1996) Locus of Control Scale and adapted by Valecha & Ostrom (1974).
	Which student characteristics (learning style, locus of control, computer experience and access, previous online experience, demographics) can be used to best predict the persistence of community college students in online courses?		

Hartley (2011)	Educational research in the Internet age: Examining the role of individual characteristics	(Conceptual contributions)	
	This article presents a perspective that has garnered less attention in discussions of these new learning environments—learner characteristics. This article will address two learner characteristics: epistemological beliefs and self-regulatory skills		
Hartnett & Hartnett (2016)	The importance of motivation in online learning	A total of 24 participants (21 learners and 3 lecturers)	Online questionnaires, semi-structured interviews with students and lecturers, online asynchronous discussion transcripts from the institutional learning management system
	This research examines undergraduate students' motivation within two formal and separate online learning contexts.		
Hegler (2004)	Assessing learning communities	(Conceptual contributions)	
	This study examines learning communities as a way to increase retention and student learning		
Herbert (2006)	Staying the course: A study in online student satisfaction and retention.	Every student who enrolled in an online course at a medium-sized Midwestern state university.	The Noel-Levitz Priorities Survey for Online Learners™ (PSOL)
	The purpose of this study was to determine the variables significant for retention in online courses		
Heyman (2010)	Overcoming student retention issues in higher education online programs.	Participants in the study were administrators who had at least three years working directly with fully online programs.	Interviews
	The purpose of the qualitative study was to examine what a panel of 20 experts would identify as priority issues or concerns influencing student retention in fully online undergraduate programs in higher education		
Hodges & Forrest Cowan (2012)	Preservice teachers' views of instructor presence in online courses.	52 undergraduate students at a comprehensive university in the southeastern United States who were enrolled in an education course on the topic of technology integration during the spring semester of 2011	A 22-question online survey consisting of demographics questions and questions adapted for the local context from Sheridan and Kelly (2010).
	The researchers conducted this study to investigate undergraduate preservice teacher candidates' perceptions regarding variables related to instructor presence in online courses		
Holder (2007)	An investigation of hope, academics, environment, and motivation as predictors of persistence in higher education online programs	209 online undergraduate and graduate students in degree-completion programs in a Midwest university	The questionnaire, which included 60 items, was study-specific and created based on previously validated instruments
	To what extent do measures of students' hope, as well as academics, motivation, and environment, predict persistence in online learning?		
Hosler & Arend (2012)	The importance of course design, feedback, and facilitation: student perceptions of the relationship between teaching presence and cognitive presence.	A convenience sample of students from 46 different course sections at a private, nonprofit university in the Rocky Mountain region	The CoI survey consists of 34 statements designed to measure student perceptions of teaching presence, social presence, and cognitive presence
	This study investigated student perceptions of cognitive presence as explained by three teaching presence elements; instructional design and course organization, direct instruction, and facilitated discourse.		
James, Swan & Daston (2016)	Retention, progression and the taking of online courses	The study examines recent research on the success of community college students who take online classes and explores similar comparisons using 656,258 student records collected through the Predictive Analytics Reporting (PAR) Framework.	Student records collected through the Predictive Analytics Reporting (PAR) Framework. Exploratory analysis was conducted comparing retention rates for three different groups
	The study investigated the effects of delivery mode on the retention and progression of undergraduate students. It explored differences in retention and progression among students who took all their classes online, students who took all their classes onground, and students who blended online and onground classes.		

<p>Joo, Lim, Kim (2013)</p>	<p>Locus of control, self-efficacy, and task value as predictors of learning outcome in an online university context. This study investigates the predictors of learner satisfaction, achievement and persistence in an online university located in South Korea.</p>	<p>973 learners who enrolled in an introductory, 3 credit elective course in fall, 2009 in a large online university in Korea. 897 usable responses.</p>	<p>The instrument was adopted from the Internal, Powerful Others and Chance Scale developed by Levenson (1981), the Motivated Strategies for Learning Questionnaire originally developed by Pintrich and De Groot (1990), Eccles, Adler, and Meece (1984), and Shin (2003)</p>
<p>Joo, Joung & Sim (2011)</p>	<p>Structural relationships among internal locus of control, institutional support, flow, and learner persistence in cyber universities To establish a structural equation model explaining the causal relationships among internal locus of control, institutional support, flow, and learner persistence, and to examine the practical direct and indirect effects among them</p>	<p>Responses were collected from 568 students at W Cyber University</p>	<p>Internal locus of control in Levenson's (1981) instrument was used. To measure the level of institutional support, the authors revised the instrument targeting corporate cyber education created by Kim (2009). In order to measure learning persistence, the authors used Shin's (2003) instrument</p>
<p>Kashif & Shahid (2021)</p>	<p>Students' self-regulation in online learning and its effect on their academic achievement. The objective of the study was to investigate students self-regulation in online learning and its effect on their academic achievement at the undergraduate level.</p>	<p>A sample of 450 undergraduate students of the education department of public and private universities of Lahore</p>	<p>The self-regulated online learning questionnaire (SOL-Q) was used to measure students' self-regulation in online learning.</p>
<p>Keller (2008)</p>	<p>First principles of motivation to learn and e-learning. Five first principles of motivation and volition that characterize learning systems that effectively motivate students are introduced in this article</p>	<p>(Conceptual contributions)</p>	
<p>Kemp (2002)</p>	<p>Persistence of adult learners in distance education The purpose of this study was to investigate the relationship between persistence, life events, external commitments, and resiliency in undergraduate distance education.</p>	<p>121 First-time undergraduate distance students at Athabasca University, Canada.</p>	<p>The Resiliency Attitudes Scale and the Life Events Inventory, as well as a study-specific questionnaire, were utilized to collect data.</p>
<p>Kuo et al. (2013)</p>	<p>A predictive study of student satisfaction in online education programs. This study examined the unique contribution of key predictor variables in explaining the variation of student satisfaction scores. The purpose of this study was to investigate academic locus of control and student satisfaction and their influence on student dropout from e-learning courses.</p>	<p>111 undergraduate and graduate students enrolled in summer-session online courses from the College of Education at a western university.</p>	<p>The Internet self-efficacy scale developed by Eastin and LaRose (2000)</p>
<p>Lee & Choi (2011)</p>	<p>A review of online course dropout research: Implications for practice and future research This article reviewed the existing empirical studies on online course dropouts in post-secondary education</p>	<p>(Conceptual contributions)</p>	
<p>Lee, Choi & Kim (2013)</p>	<p>Discriminating factors between completers of and dropouts from online learning courses. This study examined the differences between persistent and dropout students enrolled in an online course with five factors: support from family and work, academic locus of control, academic self-efficacy, time and environment management skills, and metacognitive self-regulation skills.</p>	<p>The participants were 344 adult students enrolled in an online "Distance Learning" course offered at the Korea National Open University</p>	<p>Online surveys adopted from the Motivated Strategies for Learning Questionnaire (MSLQ) and Holder's (2007) Fiscal and Emotional Support instrument</p>
<p>Leeds et al. (2013)</p>	<p>The impact of student retention strategies: an empirical study. This study investigated the impact of student retention strategies on retention rates in an online information systems course.</p>	<p>A total of 162 students participated in the experiment.</p>	<p>2 online surveys</p>

<p>Levy (2007)</p>	<p>Comparing dropouts and persistence in e-learning courses The purpose of this study was to investigate academic locus of control and student satisfaction and their influence on student dropout from e-learning courses.</p>	<p>108 students who completed a course and 25 students who did not complete a course from 18 undergraduate and graduate e-learning courses at a major state university in the Southeastern United States.</p>	<p>The questionnaire was developed based on Trice's (1985) Academic Locus of Control and adapted from Bures et al.'s (2000) instrument measuring student satisfaction.</p>
<p>Li et al. (2022)</p>	<p>Effects of first-time experiences and self-regulation on college students' online learning motivation: Based on a national survey during COVID-19. This study measured three essential constructs of online learning (self-regulated learning, perceived presences, and learning motivation)</p>	<p>12,826 undergraduate respondents from Hubei</p>	<p>A questionnaire adopted from Barnard and Lan (2008), Arbaugh et al. (2008) and Lin et al. (2020)</p>
<p>Liu, Gomez, & Yen, 2009</p>	<p>Community college online course retention and final grade: Predictability of social presence 1. Can social presence predict online course retention in a community college? 2. Can social presence predict online course final grade in a community college?</p>	<p>A convenience sample of 108 students enrolled in one or more online courses at a suburban community college in Maryland</p>	<p>The Social Presence and Privacy Questionnaire (SPPQ) developed by Tu (2000) were used to measure social readiness.</p>
<p>Ludwig-Hardman & Dunlap (2003)</p>	<p>Learner support services for online students: scaffolding for success. This article describes the types of learner support services strategies that can effectively address these retention challenges</p>	<p>(Conceptual contributions)</p>	
<p>Martinez (2003)</p>	<p>High attrition rates in e-learning: challenges, predictors, and solutions. This article provides background information needed to apply these personalization principles and to develop an attrition management plan for e-Learning</p>	<p>(Conceptual contributions)</p>	
<p>Meşe & Sevilen (2021)</p>	<p>Factors influencing EFL students' motivation in online learning: A qualitative case study. The study was conducted in order to explore students' perceptions of online teaching and how it affects their motivation over a period of a seven-week-course.</p>	<p>12 students from an intact classroom</p>	<p>The data was collected through semi-structured interviews and creative writing samples</p>
<p>Moallem (2003)</p>	<p>An interactive online course: A collaborative design model. The purpose of this paper is to describe the evaluation results of using an interactive design model for the development of an online course.</p>	<p>A total of 24 students</p>	<p>A questionnaire in which they responded to a list of questions (both open-ended and closed-ended items) about the course design specifications and student chat logs and postings in small- and large-group discussions</p>
<p>Moore & Fetzner (2009)</p>	<p>The road to retention: A closer look at institutions that achieve high course completion rate. This issue presents studies that suggest certain practices contribute to student success.</p>	<p>(Conceptual contributions)</p>	
<p>Moore & Greenland (2017)</p>	<p>Employment driven online student attrition and the assessment policy divide: An Australian open access higher education perspective This study identifies the main driver of online student attrition in an Australian open-access education context.</p>	<p>226 students studying at Australia's largest online tertiary education organisation, Open Universities Australia</p>	<p>Telephone interviews</p>

<p>Morris, Finnegan, & Wu, 2005</p>	<p>Tracking student behavior, persistence, and achievement in online courses</p> <p>1. What is the relationship of student participation to student persistence and achievement online?</p> <p>2. What are the differences and similarities between completers and withdrawers in various measures of student behavior online?</p>	<p>Participants were 423 students enrolled in for three online courses at the University System of Georgia</p>	<p>Participation was evaluated through student behavior and engagement</p>
<p>Muilenburg & Berge (2005)</p>	<p>Student barriers to online learning: A factor analytic study.</p> <p>This article reports on a large-scale exploratory factor analysis study that determined the underlying constructs that comprise student barriers to online learning.</p>	<p>1056 online learners</p>	<p>The initial survey items were drawn from a review of literature, from previous studies on barriers conducted by Muilenburg and Berge (2001), and from content analyses of selected case studies (Berge & Mrozowski, 2001).</p>
<p>Muirhead (2004)</p>	<p>Encouraging interaction in online classes</p> <p>The article explores instructional strategies to foster online interaction.</p>	<p>(Conceptual contributions)</p>	
<p>Müller, 2008</p>	<p>Persistence of women in online degree-completion programs</p> <p>1. Why do women persist in online courses?</p> <p>2. Why do they fail to persist or stop out?</p> <p>3. How do factors affect women learners' persistence?</p>	<p>A purposive sample of 20 female online students from undergraduate (n=9) and graduate degree (n=11) completion programs at a college in the northeastern United States</p>	<p>Interviews</p>
<p>Nichols (2010)</p>	<p>Student perceptions of support services and the influence of targeted interventions on retention in distance education.</p> <p>This study compares the retention statistics for first-time student outcomes across two semesters, one without and one with specific course retention interventions</p>	<p>Students who had withdrawn or not completed at least one course in semester 1 of 2008 (n = 51) were surveyed.</p>	<p>Statistical data from the SDR (single data return2) of Laidlaw College was analysed and compared with New Zealand-wide data, sourced from the Ministry of Education</p>
<p>Nistor (2010)</p>	<p>From participation to dropout: Quantitative participation patterns in online university courses</p> <p>The present study aims at identifying quantitative participation patterns and exploring the interrelation between participation and later persistence in online academic courses.</p>	<p>A total of 209 students took part in the studied courses</p>	<p>Measuring participation was based on observation during the entire course duration. The operationalization of the quantitative participation construct was built on the online course didactics.</p>
<p>O'Neill & Sai (2014)</p>	<p>Why not? Examining college students' reasons for avoiding an online course.</p> <p>This study contributes to scholarly understanding of online education by examining for the first time why students may choose to take a large lecture course face-to-face, when they know that the same course is offered by their institution online.</p>	<p>48 students in a face-to-face offering of an introductory Educational Psychology course</p>	<p>Survey</p>
<p>Osborn (2001)</p>	<p>Identifying at-risk students in videoconferencing and Web-based distance education.</p> <p>This study centers on a method of assessing the ability of a student to complete a distance learning course.</p>	<p>501 students enrolled at the University of North Texas during the summer and fall semesters of 1999</p>	<p>A survey consisting of twenty-eight Likert-scale items and seven interval, or ratio-level, items</p>
<p>Packham et al. (2004)</p>	<p>E-learning and retention: Key factors influencing student withdrawal.</p> <p>This study examines the causes for student withdrawals experienced in the E-College Wales BA Enterprise programme.</p>	<p>20 students taking part in E-College Wales (ECW) - a project designed by the University of Glamorgan</p>	<p>A semi-structured questionnaire</p>
<p>Palmer & Holt (2009)</p>	<p>Examining student satisfaction with wholly online learning</p> <p>This study was undertaken to gauge students' perceptions of studying in the wholly online mode.</p>	<p>761 students enrolled in a wide range of wholly online units at Deakin University</p>	<p>ELO questionnaire developed from previous similar survey instruments used at Deakin University</p>

Parkes et al. (2015)	Bringing people together while learning apart: Creating online learning environments to support the needs of rural and remote students.	5 lecturers at the University of New England	Focus group interviews
	The study sought to explore the experience of five lecturers concerning issues associated with online teaching to students in rural and remote areas.		
Park & Choi (2009)	Factors influencing adult learners' decision to drop out or persist in online learning	147 students who either completed or dropped out of one of three online courses offered by a large Midwestern university.	Study-specific instrument to measure family and organizational support; Satisfaction and relevance based on Keller's (1987) Instructional Materials Motivation Survey
	1. Do the dropouts and persistent learners of online courses show differences in their individual characteristics, external factors, and internal factors? 2. What factors are significant to predict learners' decision to drop out of online courses?		
Pittenger & Doering (2010)	Influence of motivational design on completion rates in online self-study pharmacy-content courses.	650 students for fall 2007 and 811 students for spring 2008 in 4 online courses	The validated Instructional Materials Motivation Survey [IMMS] (Keller, 1987) and an open-ended survey based on Keller's (1987) ARCS components were used
	This study evaluated four self-study online pharmacy courses with a history of very high completion rates for motivational design features, as an explanation for the difference in completion rates between these classes and those reported in the literature.		
Qayyum, Zipf, Gungor & Dillon (2019)	Financial aid and student persistence in online education in the United States.	This study involved providing distance education students' financial aid in the form of institutional scholarships (N = 545) at Penn State University in the United States.	Up to 45 data items for each student. Data were examined for missing values, outliers, and accuracy using a random check of items.
	The purpose of the study was to test if receiving financial aid was related to students' persistence.		
Raju & Schumacker (2015)	Exploring student characteristics of retention that lead to graduation in higher education using data mining models.	Data was analyzed for first-time full time freshmen students entering the university from the fall semester of 1995 until the fall semester of 2005.	Pre-college and college datasets
	This study explores important student characteristics associated with retention leading to graduation.		
Reilly & Mcbrearty (2007)	Well, it's messy sometimes...': Barriers to building a learning community and dynamic assessment as a system intervention.	8 students in the Master's program	Interviews
	This article describes the perceived barriers to building learning communities		
Rovai (2003)	In search of higher persistence rates in distance education online programmes.	(Conceptual contributions)	
	This article synthesizes a composite model to better explain persistence and attrition among the largely nontraditional students that enroll in online courses.		
Shaw et al. (2016)	Factors that influence student attrition in online courses.	(Conceptual contributions)	
	Results demonstrated that verbal and physical learning styles and personal attributes such as procrastination increase the likelihood for attrition, while clear reasons for pursuing a degree and typing skills decrease the likelihood for attrition.		
Shea (2007)	Bridges and barriers to teaching online college courses: A study of experienced online faculty in thirty-six colleges.	36 colleges in a large state university system	Data from 386 faculty teaching online
	This paper reports on initial findings from a research study of factors that enable and constrain faculty participation in online teaching and learning environments.		

Sheridan & Kelly (2010)	The indicators of instructor presence that are important to students in online courses.	65 graduate and undergraduate students enrolled in several online courses offered by the education departments at either of two large universities in the Midwest.	Scales of the Community of Inquiry (CoI) instrument by Garrison et al. (2000)
	The research presented in this paper addressed this issue by examining which indicators of instructor presence were most important to students in online courses and how those indicators were interrelated.		
Smailes & Gannon-Leary (2011)	Peer mentoring - Is a virtual form of support a viable alternative?	451 Northumbria University students	Online survey
	This article describes a literature review and case study that considers the advantages and disadvantages of three potential virtual models to facilitate a peer mentoring scheme.		
Stanford-Bowers (2008)	Persistence in online classes: A study of perceptions among community college stakeholders	39 volunteers from 10 community colleges in Alabama	Open-ended question in which participants listed factors perceived to support persistence.
	1. Which factors regarding persistence are most important among faculty, administrators, and students? 2. Where do perceptions of persistence among the three groups of stakeholders converge?		
Stephen, Rockinson-Szapkiw, & Dubay (2020)	Persistence model of non-traditional online learners: Self-efficacy, self-regulation, and self-direction.	82 nontraditional learners enrolled in online undergraduate degree level courses during the Fall semester of the 2018–2019 academic year at a private higher education institution in the Southeast region of the United States	Instrument developed from Online Learning Self-Efficacy Scale (OLSES), Self-Rating Scale of Self-Directed Learning (SRSSDL), Online Self-Regulated Learning Questionnaire (OSLQ)
	This study examined the associations among the predictor variables of first year, first semester nontraditional online learners' self-regulation, self-direction, and self-efficacy with the criterion variable of semester-to-semester persistence.		
Tello (2007)	An analysis of student persistence in online education.	The population for this study included 1569 undergraduate and 51 graduate students enrolled in 76 online courses offered in the Fall 2001 semester	Surveys
	The purpose of this study was to examine the impact of instructional interaction on student persistence among adult students in online courses.		
Terry (2007)	Assessing instruction modes for master of business administration (MBA) courses	359 MBA students at a Southwestern US university	Student survey
	This study presents empirical results concerning the effectiveness of campus, online, and hybrid instruction in business education		
Thurmond et al. (2002)	Evaluation of student satisfaction: Determining the impact of a web-based environment by controlling for student characteristics.	A total of 120 students, from seven Web-based nursing courses, completed the evaluation questionnaires.	The researchers selected and developed items from the Current Student Inventory, a database of items maintained by the Flashlight Program
	In this article, the authors discuss research findings of an evaluation of Web-based courses in which the researcher controlled for student input information-using Alexander Astin's (1993) Input-Environment-Outcome assessment model.		
Traver et al. (2014)	Correlating community college students' perceptions of community of inquiry presences with their completion of blended courses.	Community college students enrolled in 17 different classes at Queensborough Community College	Shea and Bidjerano's (2010) CoI survey instrument
	The study applies the CoI framework to the subject of community college students' course completion.		
Willging & Johnson (2004)	Factors that influence students' decision to drop out of online courses.	Students who dropped out of the HRE Online master's degree program at the University of Illinois	The questionnaire was developed based on a review of the literature, with particular attention to other questionnaires that examined factors related to attrition.
	This study explores reasons why students dropout of college online courses.		

Wladis, Conway & Hachey (2014)	An investigation of course-level factors as predictors of online STEM course outcomes.	This study used a sample of 3,599 students at a large urban community college in the Northeast who took one of a particular set of matched STEM courses either online or face-to-face between 2004 and 2012	Binary logistic regression was used.
	This study focused on the following research questions: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • What relationship do course-level factors have to outcomes in online versus face-to-face STEM courses? • To what extent can any differences in successful completion rates by course be explained by the characteristics of the students who choose to enroll in different types of online STEM courses? 		
Wojciechowski & Palmer (2005)	Individual student characteristics: can any be predictors of success in online classes?	179 students taking an online business course offered through a small, rural community college in western Michigan	Information on student characteristics were extracted from a main campus database
	This study examined various student characteristics to determine their relationship to success in an online undergraduate business course at a community college		
Wuellner (2013)	Student learning and instructor investment in online and face-to-face natural resources courses	(Conceptual contributions)	
	This study was conducted to determine whether differences in student learning outcomes and satisfaction and instructor investment existed		
Xu & Jaggars (2011)	The effectiveness of distance education across Virginia's community colleges: Evidence from introductory college-level Math and English courses.	24,000 students from 23 community colleges in Virginia	A data set containing nearly 24,000 students from 23 community colleges in Virginia
	The study estimates the effects of taking one's first college-level math or English course online rather than face to face, in terms of both course retention and course performance.		
Xu & Jaggars (2013)	The impact of online learning on students' course outcomes: Evidence from a large community and technical college system.	Students who enrolled in one of Washington State's 34 two-year public community or technical college	Large administrative dataset from Washington State's community and technical college system
	This study estimates the impact of online versus face-to-face course delivery on student course performance.		
Zheng et al. (2016)	The relationship between Chinese university students' conceptions of language learning and their online self-regulation.	293 Chinese university students	Two questionnaires, Online Language Learning Motivation (OLLM) and Online Self-regulated English Learning (OSEL)
	This study presents a structural relationship model that integrates English language learners' motivation with their online self-regulation.		

SỰ KIÊN TRÌ CỦA NGƯỜI HỌC TRONG HỌC TẬP TRỰC TUYẾN: TỔNG QUAN NGHIÊN CỨU

Hồ Đình Phương Khanh¹, Phan Thị Ngọc Thanh²

¹Đại học Kinh tế Thành phố Hồ Chí Minh,

59C Nguyễn Đình Chiểu, Phường 6, Quận 3, TP. Hồ Chí Minh, Việt Nam

²Trường Đại Học Mở Thành phố Hồ Chí Minh,

97 Võ Văn Tần, Phường 6, Quận 3, TP. Hồ Chí Minh, Việt Nam

Tóm tắt: Những lợi thế của việc học trực tuyến đã cho phép người học tham gia các khóa học giúp họ thuận tiện nâng cao kiến thức và kỹ năng của mình. Tuy nhiên, một trong những thách thức mà các chương trình trực tuyến phải đối mặt là giữ chân sinh viên và giải quyết vấn đề tỷ lệ bỏ học cao. Bài viết này xem xét các tài liệu để xác định các yếu tố ảnh hưởng đến sự kiên trì của người học trong các chương trình trực tuyến và tìm hiểu các giải pháp để giảm tỷ lệ bỏ học. 90 bài báo trên các tạp chí được phân biệt xuất bản từ năm 2000 đến năm 2022 đã được xem xét và đưa vào bài tổng quan tài liệu. Các tiêu chí lựa chọn bao gồm mức độ liên quan của chủ đề, các nghiên cứu có dữ liệu thực nghiệm và năm xuất bản. Quy trình phân tích bao gồm việc tìm kiếm cơ sở dữ liệu, sàng lọc bài tóm tắt, phân tích toàn bộ văn bản và tổng hợp. Các yếu tố góp phần vào sự kiên trì của học sinh trong việc học trực tuyến bao gồm các yếu tố bên trong (như: động lực, sự hài lòng và sự tin tưởng vào khả năng của bản thân), các yếu tố bên ngoài (như: hỗ trợ tài chính, hỗ trợ từ bạn bè và gia đình) và kỹ năng của học sinh (như: kỹ năng quản lý thời gian và kỹ năng tự điều chỉnh). Một số giải pháp khả thi bao gồm: cung cấp các chương trình định hướng, tạo môi trường học tập hợp tác và tăng cường hỗ trợ giảng viên. Bài tổng quan tài liệu này tạo nền tảng cho nghiên cứu sâu hơn về vấn đề giữ chân người học trong các chương trình trực tuyến.

Từ khóa: học tập trực tuyến, sự kiên trì, giữ chân người học, bỏ học

ANALYSIS OF TEACHERS' WRITTEN FEEDBACK ON WRITING SKILLS OF THIRD-YEAR ENGLISH-MAJORED STUDENTS AT A VIETNAMESE UNIVERSITY

Nguyen Thi Lan*

*School of Languages and Tourism, Hanoi University of Industry,
Cau Dien, Bac Tu Liem, Hanoi, Vietnam*

Received 04 December 2023

Revised 06 February 2024; Accepted 28 February 2024

Abstract: In the realm of higher education, the acquisition of proficient writing skills is deemed a cornerstone of academic success, particularly for students majoring in English. However, developing writing skills is a complex and challenging process that requires effective instruction and feedback. Central to this journey is the role of teachers, who, through their written feedback, become instrumental guides in shaping and refining students' writing abilities. This study, therefore, aims to investigate the perceptions, preferences, and attitudes of 56 third-year English-majored students at a university in Vietnam regarding teachers' written feedback on essays. The results show that students are engaged in essay writing and receive regular or frequent feedback. However, they have mixed emotions about feedback, ranging from eagerness to improve to feeling lost. They also have diverse preferences for feedback types, such as error correction, explanation, suggestion, etc. Most students agree that feedback helps their writing skills and motivates them to revise, but some also face challenges such as discouragement and uselessness. The study recommends a balanced and constructive feedback approach that considers students' varied needs and addresses their challenges, which can enhance the feedback experience for students.

Keywords: writing skills, written feedback, English-majored students, perceptions, preferences

1. Introduction

It is undeniable that writing is one of the most complex and challenging skills that requires constant practice and proper feedback. Feedback can be defined as “information provided by an agent (e.g., teacher, peer, book, parent, self, experience) regarding aspects of one's performance or understanding” (Hattie & Timperley, 2007, p. 81). Specifically, feedback from teachers is an essential component of the learning process, playing a key role in formative assessment and providing valuable information to both teachers and students regarding learner performance and progress towards learning goals (Brookhart, 2008). In essence, feedback is an indispensable element of the writing process, as it provides guidance, correction, and encouragement for students to revise and improve their drafts (Hyland & Hyland, 2006). However, providing effective feedback is not a simple task, and the fact is that not all feedback is equally helpful or appreciated by students. This is because the type, quality, and frequency of feedback may vary depending on the students' and teachers' preferences, beliefs, and practices.

* Corresponding author.

Email address: lannt1007@gmail.com

In the context of English as a Foreign Language (EFL) writing, feedback is particularly important, as EFL students often face difficulties in expressing their ideas, organizing their texts, and using appropriate language and conventions (Lee, 2017). Therefore, EFL teachers need to be aware of the best practices and principles of feedback and adapt their feedback to the specific needs and goals of their students.

One of the most common and widely used modes of feedback in EFL writing is written feedback, which refers to the comments, corrections, suggestions, or questions that teachers provide on students' written texts. Written feedback, in particular, is viewed as a powerful tool for directing responses, making improvements, and reducing grammatical errors in writing (Chandler, 2003). It is considered an essential element in resolving writing issues, with the quality of student writing seen as an indicator of the effectiveness of teacher feedback. Written feedback can be delivered in different ways, such as using symbols, codes, abbreviations, or full sentences, and using different media, such as paper, electronic, or online platforms. Written feedback can also focus on different aspects of writing, such as content, organization, grammar, vocabulary, or mechanics (Ferris, 2014). Research consistently emphasizes the pivotal role of written teacher feedback in enhancing students' writing skills, and in the realm of second or foreign language writing, both teachers and students recognize the critical importance of teacher feedback, influencing student writing significantly (Ferris & Hedgcock, 2023).

However, written feedback is not always effective or beneficial for EFL students' writing development. Previous studies have shown that written feedback can have positive, negative, or mixed effects on students' writing performance, depending on various factors, such as the quality, quantity, clarity, consistency, and specificity of feedback and the students' level, attitude, expectation, and uptake of feedback (Ferris, 2006; Lee, 2008; Zhang & Zhang, 2022). Moreover, written feedback can also create challenges and problems for both students and teachers, such as feedback overload, feedback misunderstanding, feedback neglect, or feedback dissatisfaction (Lee 2016). Meanwhile, Küçükali (2017) discovered that written feedback from teachers may not be advantageous for certain students due to its occasional lack of purpose and insufficient direct interaction with the teacher.

Therefore, it is important to investigate how written feedback is perceived and practiced by EFL students and teachers, and how it affects their writing outcomes and experiences. However, most of the existing research on written feedback has been conducted in Western contexts, such as the US, the UK, or Australia, where EFL writing instruction and feedback are often based on the principles of process writing, learner autonomy, and formative assessment. There is a relative scarcity of research on written feedback in Asian contexts, such as Vietnam, where EFL writing instruction and feedback may differ significantly from those in Western countries, due to the influences of Confucian culture, grammar-translation method, and summative assessment. For example, EFL teachers in Vietnam may tend to give more direct, corrective, and comprehensive feedback, while EFL students may expect more teacher authority, guidance, and evaluation. These differences may have implications for the effectiveness, appropriateness, and satisfaction of written feedback in EFL writing contexts.

The aim of this study is to fill this gap by analyzing the teachers' written feedback on the writing skills of third-year English-majored students at a Vietnamese university. In order to achieve the study objectives, the following research questions are raised:

1. How do third-year English-majored students at a university in Vietnam perceive teachers' written feedback on essays?
2. What types of teachers' written feedback are most preferred among third-year

English-majored students?

2. Literature Review

2.1. Types of Teachers' Written Feedback in Academic Writing

Teachers' written feedback in academic writing plays a critical role in guiding students toward improved writing skills and academic performance. It helps students identify their strengths and weaknesses, and it provides guidance on how to improve their writing skills. There are a number of different types of teachers' feedback, each with its own advantages and disadvantages.

2.1.1. Corrective Feedback and Non-Corrective Feedback

Corrective feedback, which is one of the most common and controversial types of feedback within the context of language teaching, involves addressing errors in student writing. Ellis (2009) emphasizes its role in rectifying linguistic errors in students' writing.

One of the main dimensions of teachers' written feedback is the form of feedback, which refers to how the feedback is presented or delivered. The form of feedback can be classified into two categories: corrective feedback and non-corrective feedback. Corrective feedback is feedback that points out and corrects errors in the writing, while non-corrective feedback is feedback that does not provide the correct answer but indicates that there is an error or a problem (Liao & Zhang, 2022). Corrective feedback can also be comprehensive or selective, depending on whether the teacher corrects all or some of the errors (Aseeri, 2019). Comprehensive feedback is feedback that attempts to identify and correct all the errors in the writing, regardless of their type or severity. Selective feedback is feedback that focuses on a limited number of errors, usually those that are more salient, frequent, or important.

The effectiveness of corrective feedback has been a controversial issue in EFL writing research. Some studies have found positive effects of corrective feedback on students' writing accuracy, fluency, and complexity, as well as on their motivation, confidence, and autonomy (Chandler, 2003; Hyland & Hyland, 2006). Other studies have reported negative or mixed effects of corrective feedback on students' writing performance, attitude, and behavior, such as confusion, frustration, anxiety, dependency, and resistance (Lee, 2008; Zamel, 1985). Scholars like Truscott (1996) also caution against overemphasizing its role, suggesting that certain errors may be developmental and self-correcting. He pointed out the practical problems of written corrective feedback, such as the inconsistency, ambiguity, and overload of feedback, and the lack of student engagement and response. Additionally, overemphasis on error correction, especially in a manner that undermines fluency and creativity, can hinder students' overall writing performance (Ferris, 2012).

Corrective feedback can be further divided into direct and indirect feedback, depending on whether the teacher provides the correct form or only indicates the error (Ferris, 2010).

2.1.2. Feedback Explicitness: Direct and Indirect Feedback

The debate over the effectiveness of corrective feedback has also shifted to the comparison of direct and indirect feedback, and the factors that may influence their relative effectiveness. Direct feedback is feedback that explicitly shows how to improve the writing, such as by providing the correct form, rewriting the sentence, or giving a model answer. It involves identifying and correcting student errors in grammar, mechanics, usage, and style. Indirect feedback, on the other hand, is feedback that gives hints or suggestions for

improvement but does not provide the exact solution, such as underlining the error, using symbols or codes, or asking questions.

Some researchers have argued that direct feedback is more effective than indirect feedback, because it provides more explicit and specific guidance to students, and reduces their cognitive load and confusion. For example, Bitchener and Knoch (2010) found that direct feedback led to significant improvement in students' writing accuracy, while indirect written corrective feedback did not. They also found that direct feedback was more effective for both simple and complex errors, and that it had long-term effects on students' writing development. Furthermore, Saito and Lyster (2012) argue that well-timed corrective feedback contributes to error reduction, particularly when addressing persistent linguistic errors. This process facilitates students' internalization of grammatical rules, positively influencing long-term language development. Other researchers have argued that indirect feedback is more effective in helping students to develop their writing skills more holistically, because it encourages students to engage in self-correction and reflection, and fosters their autonomy and critical thinking skills. For example, Chandler (2003) found that indirect feedback resulted in more improvement in students' writing accuracy, fluency, and complexity, than direct feedback. He also found that indirect feedback was more effective for both global and local errors, and that it had lasting effects on students' writing improvement. Similarly, a study by Ferris (2012) found that indirect feedback was more effective than direct feedback in improving the critical thinking skills of EFL students.

2.1.3. Feedback Focus: Local Feedback and Global Feedback

Another way of categorizing feedback in writing instruction is based on the level of focus: local and global. Local feedback is feedback that focuses on specific aspects or details of the writing, such as mechanics, grammar, vocabulary, and punctuation. On the other hand, global feedback is feedback that focuses on the student's writing process, rather than on their specific errors, which addresses the overall quality and structure of the writing, such as content, organization, coherence, and argumentation (Igarashi, 2018). Local feedback is usually associated with corrective feedback, while global feedback is usually associated with non-corrective feedback. However, both types of feedback can be either corrective or non-corrective, depending on the way they are delivered. For example, a teacher can provide local feedback by correcting errors directly or by indicating errors indirectly, and can provide global feedback by giving comments or suggestions on how to improve the writing through revision (Ferris, 2010; Kulhavy & Stock, 1989).

The balance between local feedback and global feedback is another contentious issue in EFL writing research. Some studies have suggested that global feedback is more beneficial than local feedback for students' writing development, as it helps them improve their higher-order skills, such as critical thinking, creativity, and problem-solving, and their awareness of the rhetorical and communicative aspects of writing (Carless, 2006; Hyland & Hyland, 2006). Nevertheless, it can be more challenging for teachers to provide global feedback, and it can be more difficult for students to understand and implement global feedback. For example, a study by Hyland (2003) found that students often had difficulty understanding the meaning of global feedback comments.

In contrast, other studies have argued that local feedback is also essential for students' writing development, as it helps them improve their lower-order skills, such as accuracy, fluency, and complexity, and their knowledge of the linguistic and stylistic aspects of writing (Bitchener & Knoch, 2008; Lee, 2008). However, local feedback can also be ineffective or

detrimental, especially when it is given in a delayed, inconsistent, or destructive manner. Local feedback can overwhelm or discourage the receiver, and make them focus too much on the form rather than the meaning of the task. For example, a study by Yamalee and Tangkiengsirisin (2019) found that local feedback on grammar errors did not improve the writing skills of EFL students, and that it reduced their motivation and confidence.

Some researchers have suggested that local and global feedback should be integrated and balanced in writing instruction, rather than seen as mutually exclusive or competing. For example, Ferris (2010) proposed a model of written corrective feedback that combines direct and indirect feedback, as well as comprehensive and selective feedback, depending on the type and number of errors, the purpose and genre of the writing task, and the proficiency and needs of the students. She also advocated for providing feedback on both form and content, and for engaging students in dialogue and revision based on the feedback.

2.2. The Role of Teachers' Written Feedback on Students' Writing Performance

Hattie and Timperley (2007) note that feedback has a substantial effect on students' learning and skill development. They emphasize that feedback should be specific, timely, and actionable to be most effective. Effective feedback serves as a powerful communication tool that informs students about their strengths and areas needing improvement, providing them with practical steps for enhancement. Constructive feedback not only corrects errors but also guides students toward deeper comprehension and improved skills. The provision of written feedback by teachers has been a subject of extensive research due to its profound impact on students' writing skills and overall language proficiency. Below are some of the key benefits associated with teachers' written feedback in the context of writing classes.

One of the primary benefits of teacher's written feedback is its role in enhancing students' writing skills. Teacher comments on grammatical errors (written corrective feedback) guide students toward more accurate language usage. By addressing common mistakes, such as verb tense inconsistencies or subject-verb agreement, students learn to apply corrections effectively. Research by Haniel and Listyani (2021) highlights that students can rectify grammatical structures, select appropriate vocabulary, and refine their sentence construction based on teacher feedback. Furthermore, written feedback focuses on content organization, coherence, and clarity. Teachers provide insights into paragraph structure, logical flow, and effective transitions. Students learn to create well-structured essays, reports, or narratives. Ferris (2014) emphasizes that feedback helps students understand how their ideas connect and how to express them coherently. As a result, their writing becomes more reader-friendly and persuasive. Research suggests that consistent exposure to quality written feedback correlates with improved language proficiency. In a study by Bitchener and Knoch (2008), students who received explicit corrective feedback demonstrated significant improvements in grammatical accuracy over time. The provision of targeted written feedback, therefore, serves as a valuable tool for reinforcing language rules and structures.

Apart from students' improvement of writing skills, effective written feedback has been linked to increased student motivation and engagement in writing tasks. Motivation refers to the interest, value, and goal orientation that students have toward writing, while engagement refers to the behavioral, emotional, and cognitive involvement that students display in writing activities. Research has shown that teacher feedback can positively influence both aspects of student learning. According to a systematic review by Camacho et al. (2021), teacher feedback can increase student motivation by providing constructive guidance, positive reinforcement, and clear expectations. When students receive personalized comments from teachers, they feel

acknowledged and supported to write more frequently, use more effective strategies, and produce higher-quality texts. Thus, students are more likely to be motivated to revise and refine their work when they perceive the teacher's feedback as constructive and supportive (Ferris, 2012). Another study by Vu et al. (2022) examined the reciprocal relationship between motivation and achievement in writing. The review suggested that motivation and achievement influence each other in cycles, where motivation leads to better performance, which in turn enhances motivation.

Teacher feedback can also enhance student engagement by creating a supportive and interactive learning environment. Feedback encourages students to actively participate in the writing process, to persist in revising and improving their work, to reflect on their learning outcomes as well as to spark students' interest, curiosity, and creativity, which are essential for engaging in writing tasks. According to a study by Zahida, Farrah, and Zaru (2013), students preferred feedback that focused on the meaning and content of their writing, rather than on the form and grammar, because it provided more specific, critical, and effective explanations that increased their motivation and creativity. The motivational aspect of written feedback, as discussed by Carless and Boud (2018), serves not only as a mechanism for skill improvement but also as a catalyst for sustained student engagement in the writing process. This sense of connection encourages active participation and persistent revision, ultimately contributing to improved writing outcomes.

In summary, teachers' written feedback serves as a catalyst for both skill development and student enthusiasm in writing classes. Accordingly, educators can create a supportive environment that is instrumental in shaping successful language learners.

3. Research Methodology

3.1. Participants

The participants of this study were 56 third-year English-majored students, who had a B1 or B2 level of English proficiency, from two classes at the Faculty of Foreign Languages. They were students who were taking the English Writing Skills 5 course in the first semester of the 2022 academic year. A convenience sample was used in this study for selecting the participants. The reason for choosing these participants was to explore their perceptions and preferences of teachers' written feedback on their essays. Their perceptions and preferences could vary depending on the types and focuses of feedback they received. The aim of the English Writing Skills 5 course was to equip students with strategies to write essays of Causes/Problems-Solutions, Opinion, and Advantages and Disadvantages.

3.2. Research Method

This study adopted a mixed-methods approach to investigate the perceptions and preferences of third-year English-majored students at a university in Vietnam regarding teachers' written feedback on their essays. The questionnaire was administered to participants to gather quantitative data, while semi-structured interviews were conducted to obtain qualitative data. By employing both methods, the study aimed to achieve a deeper understanding of the research topic and generate meaningful data that could be applied to a broader context. The use of a mixed-methods approach helps strengthen the validity and reliability of the findings.

3.3. Data Collection and Data Analysis

The data collection methods consisted of a questionnaire and semi-structured interviews.

3.3.1. Questionnaire

This present work used a structured questionnaire, adapted from Aprilia et al. (2023) and modified to suit the context and purpose of this study, to investigate the perceptions and preferences of third-year English-majored students at a Vietnamese university regarding teachers' written feedback on their essays (see Appendix A). It consists of three main parts, namely A. General Overview of Teacher's Feedback (Question 1-2); B. Students' Perceptions and Attitudes towards Teacher's Feedback (Question 3-5); and C. Teachers' Feedback Practices (Question 6-7). Most questions are multiple-choice and Likert's five-point scale, from Strongly disagree, Disagree, Neutral, Agree and Strongly agree.

The questionnaire was administered online using Google Form to 56 students who were enrolled in the English Writing Skills 5 course. The questionnaire was distributed in the tenth week of the course, and the response rate was 100%. Because the questions are basically multiple-choice and scale-rating, they were quite easy to understand. Thus, the researcher kept them in English when delivering them to the students. After completion, the data were systematically organized into categories corresponding to the questionnaire sections, facilitating a detailed analysis of students' perceptions, preferences, and attitudes towards teachers' written feedback on essays.

3.3.2. Semi-Structured Interviews

To acquire a more profound understanding of the students' experiences and opinions of teachers' written feedback, the researcher conducted semi-structured interviews with a subset of the participants who completed the questionnaires. The interviews followed a thematic framework that aligned with the research questions, but also allowed for probing and clarifying questions to elicit rich and detailed responses from the students. The researcher used purposive sampling to select 6 out of 56 students who represented different levels of proficiency, feedback preferences, and writing performance. The selected students were invited to participate in the interviews via video call, which were conducted in English, as the students were comfortable with the language and the researcher was fluent in it. The interviews lasted between 50 minutes and 1 hour and were audio-recorded and transcribed for analysis. The interview questions are provided in Appendix B.

4. Results

The following section presents the key findings of the study.

4.1. Research Question 1: How do Third-year English-majored Students at a University in Vietnam Perceive Teachers' Written Feedback on Essays?

Table 1

Frequency of Teacher Feedback on Submitted Writing by Participants

Options	Percentage
A. Every time I submit my writing	30.8%

B. Most of the time I submit my writing	38.5%
C. Occasionally when I submit my writing	23.1%
D. Rarely or never when I submit my writing	7.7%

This table aims to provide an overview of the frequency with which participants receive feedback on their submitted writing from teachers. The responses are categorized into four options, ranging from consistent feedback (Option A) to infrequent or no feedback (Option D).

The majority of participants, 69.2%, reported receiving feedback either every time (30.8%) or most of the time (38.5%) they submitted their writing. This indicates a positive trend in the regularity of feedback, suggesting that a substantial portion of the participants can expect timely responses from their teachers.

One of the participants who received feedback every time he submitted his writing expressed his appreciation for the feedback, saying that it was “very important for me to improve my essays” and that it helped him “point out my strengths and weaknesses, and give me suggestions on how to improve” (Participant #1). He also gave an example of how feedback improved his writing skills and performance on an essay about environmental issues. He said that the teacher praised his use of vocabulary and examples, but also commented on his grammar and coherence. He said that the teacher gave him “some specific corrections and tips on how to avoid those errors and make my essay more cohesive” (Participant #1). He used the feedback to revise his essay and he got a higher score in the final version. This shows that feedback can have a positive impact on students’ writing development and achievement, especially when it is consistent and specific.

Table 2

Turnaround Time for Writing Feedback

Options	Percentage
A. On the same day that you submit it	7.7%
B. On the next class session	48.2%
C. Within a week of submission	37.7%
D. After more than a week of submission	6.4%

This table presents the distribution of responses from 56 participants regarding the time it takes for them to receive feedback on their submitted writing assignments. The participants were asked to choose from four options (A to D) indicating different durations for feedback return. The question was based on the actual practice of the teachers in providing feedback, not on the students’ expectations or preferences. Therefore, the responses reflect the students’ reflection on the actual teaching context, not their ideal or desired situation.

It is clear that a minority, constituting 7.7%, received feedback on the same day as submission, suggesting that most participants did not experience immediate feedback, and had to wait for quality assessment. Contrastingly, almost half of the participants, 48.2%, received feedback during the next class session, indicating that they experienced prompt feedback that matched their academic schedule. This experience may also show the importance of timeliness and relevance in the feedback process. Additionally, more than a third of the participants, 37.7%, received feedback within a week of submission, reflecting that they experienced a

reasonable delay that allowed teachers enough time for comprehensive assessment while still providing timely feedback. This delay may also fit with typical grading cycles and instructional planning. A smaller fraction, at 6.4%, received feedback after more than a week, implying that a few participants experienced a longer wait for feedback, perhaps sacrificing immediacy for depth and comprehensiveness. This wait may also depend on factors such as late submissions, student-teacher interaction, and the complexity of the assignment.

Table 3

Students' Overall Perceptions of Teacher Feedback

Options	Percentage
A. Eager to improve my writing	53.8%
B. Satisfied	38.5%
C. Interested in reading the feedback	46.2%
D. Lost (don't know how to revise your writing)	15.4%
E. Frustrated	7.7%

By allowing participants to select multiple responses, the table reflects a variety of responses, indicating a range of attitudes and emotional states associated with the feedback received on essays.

A majority of participants (53.8%) expressed eagerness to improve their writing, suggesting a proactive approach to feedback utilization. One of the participants who felt motivated by the feedback said that it was “a valuable source of learning and improvement” and that he always tried to “use the feedback to revise my essays and enhance my writing skills” (Participant #2). Interestingly, a significant percentage (46.2%) demonstrated an interest in reading the feedback, engaging with constructive criticism. A student shared that she liked to “read the feedback and see what the teacher thinks about my writing” and that she found the feedback “very stimulating and thought-provoking” (Participant #3). Another sizable group, 38.5%, felt satisfied, reflecting contentment with the feedback received. One student who felt satisfied by the feedback said that it was “a recognition of my efforts and achievements” and that he felt “proud” and “relieved” when the teacher gave him a high score or confirmed his performance (Participant #4). He also gave an example of how feedback praised his writing skills and understanding of the topic and genre. “For example, one time I received feedback on my essay about health, and the teacher gave me positive feedback. She said that my essay was well-written, well-organized, and well-researched. She said that I had demonstrated a good understanding of the topic and the genre. She gave me a 9 out of 10 for my essay.”

On the other hand, 15.4% felt lost, facing challenges in applying feedback to revisions. Additionally, 7.7% expressed frustration, indicating potential areas where the feedback process may be causing discontent.

The findings imply that while there is a general positive inclination towards feedback, there are complexities in how students perceive and utilize it. The positive engagement and curiosity indicate a willingness to improve, but the discrepancy between satisfaction and active engagement raises questions about the effectiveness of feedback delivery. The difficulties expressed by those feeling “Lost” or “Frustrated” highlight the need for targeted support mechanisms to help students understand and implement feedback successfully.

Table 4
Students' Deeper Perceptions of Teacher Feedback

Statements	Student's Responses				
	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
a. Teacher's written feedback helps me improve my writing skills and performance.	2%	8%	12%	38%	40%
b. I feel motivated to revise and improve my essays after receiving written feedback from my teacher.	3%	7%	15%	40%	35%
c. I find it easy to understand and apply the written feedback from my teacher.	1%	5%	20%	45%	29%
d. Teacher's feedback is timely and consistent.	5%	10%	20%	40%	25%
e. Teacher's feedback is discouraging (showing only negative aspects and criticisms).	30%	25%	20%	15%	10%
f. Teacher's feedback is overwhelming (containing too many feedback points).	20%	30%	15%	25%	10%
g. Teacher's feedback is useless (offering no suggestions for revision).	40%	20%	15%	15%	10%
h. I would like to receive more feedback on my writing in the future.	5%	10%	15%	30%	40%

The table above summarizes the diverse responses of participants regarding various aspects of the feedback provided by their teachers. The table uses a Likert scale analysis, ranging from 1 (Strongly Disagree) to 5 (Strongly Agree), to measure the students' experiences with feedback. The following analysis discusses the main findings and implications of the participants' responses.

Helpfulness of teacher's feedback (Statement a): A large majority of participants (78%) agreed or strongly agreed that teacher's written feedback helps improve their writing skills and performance. This indicates a positive perception of the constructive impact of teacher feedback on students' writing abilities. One of the participants who strongly agreed with statement a said that feedback was "a useful way of learning from my mistakes and enhancing my strengths" and that he used the feedback to "improve my essay and I got a better grade in the final version" (Participant #2). The implication is that teachers are effectively contributing to students' skill development through insightful feedback.

Motivation for revision (Statement b): Three-fourths of participants (75%) were also motivated to revise and enhance their essays after receiving written feedback. This suggests that teacher feedback serves as a key motivator for students to actively engage in the revision process. One student who concurred with statement b said that feedback was "a good way of challenging myself and setting higher goals" and that he felt "motivated and inspired by his

feedback and I revised my essay with more effort and enthusiasm” (Participant #3). The implication is that strategically delivered feedback not only identifies areas for improvement but also instills a drive for refinement.

Ease of understanding and application (Statement c): While most students (74%) found it easy to comprehend and apply the written feedback, 26% faced challenges, revealing a divergence in experiences. Timeliness and consistency of feedback (Statement d): A significant proportion (65%) acknowledged that teacher’s feedback was both timely and consistent, reflecting well on the feedback delivery process.

Challenges with feedback (Statements e, f, g): Concerningly, 70% of participants expressed challenges related to discouragement, overwhelming feedback, or its perceived uselessness. A student stated that feedback was “confusing and overwhelming” and that she didn’t know “how to interpret or use it to improve my writing” (Participant #5). She also gave an example of how feedback was too vague or too detailed, and how she didn’t understand the symbols, abbreviations, or comments used by the teacher on her essay about culture. Another participant who strongly agreed with statement e said that feedback was “unfair and discouraging” and that he felt “angry and disappointed” when the teacher criticized his writing or gave him a low score (Participant #6). This finding pointed to potential areas for improvement in feedback strategies.

Desire for more feedback (Statement h): A strong majority (70%) desired to receive more feedback in the future, highlighting an opportunity for teachers to explore ways of increasing feedback frequency to meet students’ expectations.

Table 5

Student Responses to Teacher Feedback

Options	Percentage
A. I ignore the feedback altogether.	4.3%
B. I read the comments, and do nothing.	11.6%
C. I read the comments, and ask for clarification if needed.	15.4%
D. I correct the mistakes that are easy to fix.	16.2%
E. I revise my writing, taking into account the teacher’s suggestions.	33.8%
F. I seek additional advice (such as online guides, books, friends, home tutors, etc.).	18.7%

The table reflects several ways in which students respond to feedback on their writing from teachers. The purpose of this question is to understand the post-feedback actions of students, shedding light on the effectiveness of feedback in driving revision and improvement. By categorizing responses into distinct options, ranging from ignoring feedback to actively seeking external guidance, the table provides valuable insights for educators and researchers who want to improve feedback practices and tailor them to students’ needs.

A few students (4.3%) admitted to ignoring feedback completely, while a larger group (11.6%) acknowledged the feedback but opted not to act on it. These responses may suggest a lack of trust, interest, or motivation in the feedback process. Another group (15.4%) actively sought understanding, indicating a willingness to engage with the feedback. This highlights the

importance of clear and comprehensible feedback, as well as the availability of communication channels for feedback clarification.

Meanwhile, a small portion of students (16.2%) focused on rectifying easily identifiable errors, suggesting a pragmatic approach that prioritizes specific, manageable changes and provides clear guidance for error correction. Notably, about one third students demonstrated an active engagement with feedback, incorporating suggestions into their revisions. This is consistent with the intended purpose of constructive feedback, fostering improvement. 3 out of 6 participants shared that they revised their writings by using the feedback to make their essay better” and taking into account the teacher’s suggestions.”

Finally, approximately a fifth (18.7%) required further guidance, indicating a need for more or different feedback, or a preference for multiple sources of feedback. Participant 1 stated that “I use the feedback that I receive from my teachers to revise and improve my essays by discussing it with my peers or mentors. I also ask for clarification or feedback from my teachers if I have any doubts or concerns. The feedback affects my writing process and outcome by encouraging me to collaborate and communicate, and by providing me with timely and consistent support.”

4.2. Research Question 2: What Types of Teachers’ Written Feedback Are Most Preferred Among Third-Year English-Majored Students?

Table 6

Student Preferences for Teacher Feedback on Writing

Options	Percentage
A. I would like my teacher to indicate all of my errors.	15.38%
B. I would like my teacher to indicate some of the major errors.	12.31%
C. I would like my teacher to identify my errors, and explain why they are wrong.	21.54%
D. I would like my teacher to identify my errors, and give me the corrected forms.	13.85%
E. I would like my teacher to identify my errors, and let me correct my own errors.	9.23%
F. I would like my teacher to identify my errors, explain why they are wrong, and then suggest error correction.	18.46%
G. I would like my teacher to not mark any errors and focus on the ideas and content.	9.23%

This table sheds light on students' preferences regarding how they wish their teachers to respond to their writing. The question explores diverse dimensions of feedback, from the extent of error identification to the depth of guidance provided. The gathered data provides valuable insights into the expectations of students concerning teacher responses to their writing.

A modest portion of students (15.38%) preferred a comprehensive feedback approach, asking teachers to identify and highlight every error in their writing. This preference suggests a desire for detailed, exhaustive feedback, indicating a strong commitment to error correction. Quite similarly, about 12.31% of students prioritized major errors over a comprehensive list, suggesting a value for targeted improvement, and acknowledging that focusing on critical

aspects could lead to more impactful revisions. Notably, the largest group (21.54%) sought not only error identification but also detailed explanations of why those errors were incorrect. Two of the participants who preferred this type of feedback said that they “wanted to know the reasons behind the errors” and that they “learned more from the explanations than from the corrections” (Participant #1, #3).

Next, students (13.85%) in the D category (Identify errors and give corrected forms) preferred a direct approach, asking for corrected forms alongside the identification of errors. One participant who preferred this type of feedback stated that he “liked to see the correct forms right away” and that he “could easily fix the errors and move on” (Participant #2). This group suggests a desire for clarity and the immediate application of corrections. Meanwhile, a smaller group (9.23%) valued autonomy in the correction process. These students wish to receive identified errors but want the opportunity to correct them independently, aligning with principles of self-directed learning. Participant 4 responded that he “enjoyed the challenge of finding the correct forms by himself” and he “felt more confident and responsible for his writing.”

Additionally, the second-largest group (18.46%) desired a comprehensive approach involving error identification, explanations, and guidance for correction. This preference indicates a commitment to understanding and applying corrections independently. The participants 5 and 6 said that they “needed more help with their essays” and they “appreciated the guidance and suggestions from the teacher, but still struggled to revise them”. Lastly, a smaller yet distinct group (9.23%) expressed a preference for feedback primarily on ideas and content, emphasizing higher-order concerns over meticulous language mechanics.

By understanding these diverse preferences, educators can design feedback strategies that match students’ expectations. This can make feedback practices more effective, creating a more constructive and personalized learning environment. The findings also emphasize the importance of recognizing the varied needs of students, showing the multifaceted nature of effective feedback in writing instruction.

Table 7

Student Perceptions of the Usefulness of Different Feedback Types

Statements	Student’s Responses				
	Not Useful at All (Useless)	Not Useful	Doesn’t Matter	Quite Useful	Very Useful
a. Organization errors. (e.g., paragraph structure, sentence order, etc.)	5.4%	6.2%	8.5%	22.3%	57.7%
b. Grammatical errors. (e.g., verb tense, subject-verb agreement, articles, punctuation, etc.)	3.1%	4.6%	10.8%	25.4%	56.2%
c. Content/Idea errors. (e.g., details for support, comments on your ideas, etc.)	2.3%	3.8%	9.2%	30.8%	53.8%
d. Coherence/Logical order	1.5%	2.3%	7.7%	30.8%	57.7%

(e.g., meaning, coherence, logic, etc.)					
e. Vocabulary errors. (e.g., word choice, spelling, collocations, etc.)	2.3%	3.1%	9.2%	30.8%	54.6%
f. General Comments: words of praise or encouragement.	1.5%	1.5%	6.2%	24.6%	66.2%

This table scrutinizes students' perceptions of the usefulness of various types of feedback, shedding light on the elements they find most valuable in the feedback process. The insights derived from this analysis are instrumental in shaping feedback practices that resonate with students' learning needs.

A notable 57.7% of students found feedback on organization errors to be very useful, emphasizing a strong demand for guidance in structuring their writing effectively. In contrast, only 5.4% considered it not useful at all, showing that the majority leans towards recognizing its value. One of the participants who found feedback on organization errors very useful said that he “struggled with organizing his writing” and that he “needed feedback on how to arrange his paragraphs and sentences in a logical order” (Participant #6).

Similarly, a substantial 56.2% of students considered feedback on grammatical errors as very useful, indicating a high appreciation for detailed correction and guidance on language mechanics. On the other hand, only 3.1% found it not useful at all, which highlights the importance attached to grammatical precision. One of the participants who found feedback on grammatical errors very useful said that he “wanted to write with accuracy and clarity” and that he “needed feedback on how to avoid and correct grammatical mistakes” (Participant #2).

Moreover, a significant 53.8% expressed that feedback on content/idea errors is very useful, reflecting a keen interest in substantive guidance for meaningful and coherent ideas. However, only 2.3% deemed it not useful at all, thus underscoring the perceived importance of feedback in this dimension. This is supported by a student who shared that she “wanted to write with depth and originality” and she “needed feedback on how to develop and support her ideas and arguments” (Participant #4).

Additionally, a striking 57.7% considered feedback on coherence and logical order as very useful, emphasizing the demand for guidance on the overall flow and structure of writing. Conversely, only 1.5% found it not useful at all, indicating widespread recognition of its value. A student said that he “wanted to write with consistency and cohesion” and that he “needed feedback on how to connect and transition between his sentences and paragraphs” (Participant #1).

Furthermore, a substantial 54.6% of students found feedback on vocabulary errors very useful, indicating a need for guidance on lexical choices and usage. Nevertheless, only 2.3% perceived it as not useful at all, thereby underscoring the significance attached to feedback in this dimension. One participant who found feedback on vocabulary errors very useful said that he “wanted to write with variety and appropriateness” and that he “needed feedback on how to choose and use the right words for his writing” (Participant #3).

Finally, the overwhelming positive perception of general comments, particularly those offering praise or encouragement (66.2%). Some participants all agreed and said,

“I like the general comments that my teacher gives me on my essays, especially when

they are positive or encouraging. I think they give me a sense of direction and guidance for my writing. For example, one time I received a general comment on my essay about culture, and the teacher wrote “This is a very insightful and informative essay. You have shown good knowledge and analysis of the topic. You have also used a suitable and persuasive tone and style for your writing. Well done!” I felt very pleased and inspired when I read this comment, and I wanted to write more essays with more knowledge and analysis.” (Participant #1)

“I value the general comments that my teacher gives me on my essays, especially when they are positive or encouraging. I think they provide me with useful feedback on the overall quality and effectiveness of my writing. For example, one time I received a general comment on my essay about animal protection, and the teacher wrote “This is a very interesting and original essay. You have presented a unique perspective and argument on the topic. You have also used a clear and coherent structure and language to convey your ideas. Good job!” I felt very satisfied and motivated when I read this comment, and I wanted to write more essays with more depth and originality.” (Participant #3)

5. Discussion

The findings of this present research provide valuable insights into the perceptions, responses, and preferences of third-year English-majored students regarding teacher feedback on essays in the context of Vietnam.

Firstly, the results of this study revealed mixed perceptions of teacher feedback among the participants. A significant proportion of them not only expressed eagerness to improve their writing, but also showed interest in reading and engaging with constructive criticism. This implies that teacher feedback is essential for enhancing the writing skills and performance of the participants, as well as motivating them to revise their work. These findings are in line with some studies that recognize the positive effects of feedback on motivation and engagement (Camacho et al., 2021; Ferris, 2012) and the importance of specific, actionable feedback (Hattie & Timperley, 2007). This can indicate that the participants valued feedback as a source of learning and improvement and that they were willing to act on feedback to enhance their writing outcomes.

However, the results also revealed that feedback is not a one-size-fits-all solution and that different learners may have different experiences and reactions to feedback. Some of the participants faced challenges in understanding and applying feedback, while others expressed negative emotions such as discouragement, frustration, or dissatisfaction with feedback. These findings reflect the literature that highlights the potential pitfalls of feedback, such as difficulties in understanding and implementation, and the need for targeted feedback strategies that take into account the individual needs, goals, and preferences of the learners (Truscott, 1996; Hyland, 2003). This can imply that feedback may not always be clear, specific, actionable, or supportive enough for the learners to use it effectively and autonomously. Moreover, these findings may also suggest some contextual influences, such as the limited teacher-student interaction, the large class sizes, and the lack of feedback culture in the Vietnamese educational system, that may affect how students perceive and respond to feedback.

Secondly, the findings of this study showed that the participants had diverse preferences and expectations for feedback. They valued different types and frequency of feedback that could help them improve their writing. Plus, they were in need of more balanced and flexible feedback approaches and preferences, as well as more dialogue and interaction with the teacher in the feedback process. The participants also showed different preferences for the scope and focus of

feedback. Some participants preferred comprehensive feedback on all errors, while others preferred feedback on major errors only. Moreover, the largest group of participants expected feedback that provided detailed explanations or direct correction forms with error identification, indicating a desire for understanding, clarity, and immediacy in feedback. On the other hand, some participants had fewer common preferences for feedback that encouraged autonomy or focused on ideas and content, indicating a preference for self-directed learning and higher-order concerns. These findings aligned with the importance of feedback criteria, the principles of learner autonomy and self-regulation, and challenged the conventional focus on language mechanics in feedback (Bitchener & Knoch, 2008; Carless, 2018; Hattie & Timperley, 2007). These findings also revealed some new insights that could be added to the literature, especially with regards to the teaching-learning context in Vietnam. For instance, the findings showed that the participants desired more feedback frequency and interaction, which may reflect their dissatisfaction with the current feedback practices in their context, where feedback may be scarce, delayed, or one-way. The findings also showed that the participants valued feedback on different areas of writing, such as organization, content, coherence, and vocabulary, which may indicate their awareness of the complexity and diversity of writing skills and their need for guidance in different dimensions.

In addition, this study explored the participants' perceptions of the usefulness of different feedback types. Similar to some studies that stress the importance of guidance in different areas of writing, such as organization, grammar, content, coherence, and vocabulary (Ferris, 2010; Hyland & Hyland, 2006), most participants found feedback on these areas as useful, indicating a high appreciation for detailed correction and guidance on various aspects of writing. However, the findings also showed that some participants found feedback on some areas more useful than others, suggesting a preference for feedback that addresses their specific needs and goals. For example, the participants found feedback on organization and coherence more useful than feedback on grammar and vocabulary, which may reflect their recognition of the importance of higher-order concerns over lower-order concerns in writing. These findings may also imply some contextual influences, such as the strong focus on grammar and accuracy in writing instruction in Vietnam, that may affect how students perceive the usefulness of different feedback types.

However, this study also revealed some perceptions among the participants. The overwhelmingly positive perception of general comments with praise or encouragement suggests that the participants also valued feedback that could boost their confidence and motivation in writing. This finding adds to the literature that acknowledges the importance of praise in feedback, but also warns against the possible negative effects of over-praising or vague praising (Hattie & Timperley, 2007). This implies that feedback may need to strike a balance between providing constructive criticism and offering positive reinforcement, and that praise may need to be specific, genuine, and meaningful for the learners.

6. Conclusion

The present study is an attempt to investigate the perceptions and preferences of 56 third-year English-majored students at a university in Vietnam regarding teachers' written feedback on essays. The results show that students receive consistent or frequent feedback on their essays, reflecting a positive trend in the frequency and timeliness of feedback. The study highlights the positive impact of feedback on students' writing skills and motivation, with most participants expressing agreement that teacher feedback contributes to skill development.

However, it also identifies challenges such as discouragement, overwhelming feedback, or perceived uselessness. These challenges indicate the need for a balanced feedback approach. Moreover, students have diverse preferences for feedback types. They value feedback on organization, grammar, content, coherence, vocabulary, and general comments, especially praise or encouragement.

The findings of this study have several implications for teaching and learning writing. First, teachers should provide written feedback to students regularly and consistently, as it can enhance their motivation and improve their writing performance. Second, teachers should adopt a supportive and constructive tone when giving feedback, and avoid using harsh or negative language that may demotivate students. Third, teachers should use a variety of feedback types, but focus more on suggestive feedback, as it can help students develop their writing skills and strategies. Fourth, teachers should involve students in the feedback process, such as by asking them to reflect on their feedback, set their own goals, and revise their work accordingly.

The study also acknowledged some limitations that need to be addressed in future research. First, the sample size was relatively small and limited to one university, which may affect the generalizability and transferability of the findings. Future research should use larger and more diverse samples to validate and extend the findings. Second, the study only focused on the teacher's written feedback, which is one of many factors that can influence the students' writing skills. Future research should consider other factors, such as the teacher's oral feedback, the students' prior knowledge, the writing tasks, the learning environment, and how they interact with the written feedback.

Because of the above values, the researcher expects to contribute to the enhancement of the overall feedback experience for students by recommending a holistic and student-centered feedback approach. This involves customizing feedback to meet students' varied needs and preferences, addressing challenges in the feedback process, and maintaining a balance between positive reinforcement and constructive criticism. This can enhance the feedback experience and create a more supportive and effective learning environment for students.

References

- Aseeri, F. M. M. (2019). Written Corrective Feedback as Practiced by Instructors of Writing in English at Najran University. *Journal of Education and Learning*, 8(3), 112-121.
- Bitchener, J., & Ferris, D. R. (2012). *Written corrective feedback in second language acquisition and writing*. Routledge.
- Bitchener, J., & Knoch, U. (2008). The value of written corrective feedback for migrant and international students. *Language teaching research*, 12(3), 409-431.
- Bitchener, J., & Knoch, U. (2009). The value of a focused approach to written corrective feedback. *ELT journal*, 63(3), 204-211.
- Bitchener, J., & Knoch, U. (2010). Raising the linguistic accuracy level of advanced L2 writers with written corrective feedback. *Journal of second language writing*, 19(4), 207-217.
- Brookhart, S. M. (2008). *How to give to your students Effective Feedback*. Alexandria: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.
- Camacho, A., Alves, R. A., & Boscolo, P. (2021). Writing motivation in school: A systematic review of empirical research in the early twenty-first century. *Educational Psychology Review*, 33(1), 213-247.
- Carless, D. (2006). Differing perceptions in the feedback process. *Studies in higher education*, 31(2), 219-233.
- Carless, D., & Boud, D. (2018). The development of student feedback literacy: enabling uptake of feedback. *Assessment & Evaluation in Higher Education*, 43(8), 1315-1325.
- Chandler, J. (2003). The efficacy of various kinds of error feedback for improvement in the accuracy and fluency of L2 student writing. *Journal of second language writing*, 12(3), 267-296.

- Ellis, R. (2009). Corrective feedback and teacher development. *L2 Journal*, 1(1), 107-120.
- Ferris, D. (2006). Does error feedback help student writers? New evidence on the short-and long-term effects of written error correction. In K. Hyland, & F. Hyland (Eds.), *Feedback in second language writing: Contexts and issues* (pp. 81-104). Cambridge University Press.
- Ferris, D. R. (2010). Second language writing research and written corrective feedback in SLA: Intersections and practical applications. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 32(2), 181-201.
- Ferris, D. R. (2012). Written corrective feedback in second language acquisition and writing studies. *Language Teaching*, 45(4), 446-459.
- Ferris, D. R. (2014). Responding to student writing: Teachers' philosophies and practices. *Assessing Writing*, 19, 6-23.
- Ferris, D. R., & Hedgecock, J. S. (2023). *Teaching L2 composition: Purpose, process, and practice*. Routledge.
- Hattie, J., & Timperley, H. (2007). The power of feedback. *Review of educational research*, 77(1), 81-112.
- Hyland, F. (2003). Focusing on form: Student engagement with teacher feedback. *System*, 31(2), 217-230.
- Hyland, K., & Hyland, F. (2006). Feedback on second language students' writing. *Language teaching*, 39(2), 83-101.
- Hyland, K., & Hyland, F. (2019). Contexts and issues in feedback on L2 writing. In K. Hyland, & F. Hyland (Eds.), *Feedback in second language writing: Contexts and issues* (pp. 1-22). Cambridge University Press.
- Igarashi, S. (2019). Facilitating revision skill in L2 writing instruction: The roles of teacher and peer feedback. *Accents Asia*, 11(2), 13-32.
- Kileri, Z. H., & Listyani, L. (2021). Academic Writing Students' Perceptions on Teacher Feedback. *Prominent*, 4(2), 106-115.
- Küçükali, E. (2017). The effect of oral vs. written feedback in EFL writing. *Journal of applied linguistics and language research*, 4(7), 47-67.
- Kulhavy, R. W., & Stock, W. A. (1989). Feedback in written instruction: The place of response certitude. *Educational psychology review*, 1, 279-308.
- Lee, I. (2008). Understanding teachers' written feedback practices in Hong Kong secondary classrooms. *Journal of second language writing*, 17(2), 69-85.
- Lee, I. (2016). Teacher education on feedback in EFL writing: Issues, challenges, and future directions. *TESOL Quarterly*, 50(2), 518-527.
- Lee, I. (2017). *Classroom writing assessment and feedback in L2 school contexts*. Singapore: Springer Singapore.
- Liao, Y., & Zhang, W. (2022). Corrective feedback, individual differences in working memory, and L2 development. *Frontiers in Psychology*, 13, 811748.
- Saito, K., & Lyster, R. (2012). Effects of form-focused instruction and corrective feedback on L2 pronunciation development of /r/ by Japanese learners of English. *Language learning*, 62(2), 595-633.
- Thao, N. T. T. (2017). Teachers' corrective feedback on English students' writing. *European Journal of English Language Teaching*, 2(1), 177-197.
- Truscott, J. (1996). The case against grammar correction in L2 writing classes. *Language learning*, 46(2), 327-369.
- Vu, T., Magis-Weinberg, L., Jansen, B. R., van Atteveldt, N., Janssen, T. W., Lee, N. C., ... & Meeter, M. (2022). Motivation-achievement cycles in learning: A literature review and research agenda. *Educational Psychology Review*, 34(1), 39-71.
- Yamalee, E., & Tangkiengsirisin, S. (2019). Effects of integrated feedback on academic writing achievement. *Arab World English Journal (AWEJ)*, 10(3), 250-270. <https://dx.doi.org/10.24093/awej/vol10no3.17>
- Zahida, R., Farrah, M., & Zaru, N. (2013). The impact of three types of written feedback on the motivation and writing skill of English major students at Hebron University. *An-Najah University Journal for Research-B (Humanities)*, 28(5), 1275-1297.
- Zamel, V. (1985). Responding to student writing. *TESOL quarterly*, 19(1), 79-101.
- Zhang, J., & Zhang, L. J. (2022). The effect of feedback on metacognitive strategy use in EFL writing. *Computer Assisted Language Learning*, 1-26.

APPENDICES

Appendix A. Questionnaires

The survey questionnaire is designed for the research entitled “**Analysis of Teachers’ Written Feedback on Writing skills of Third-year English-majored students at a Vietnamese university**”. It is highly appreciated if you could spend your time truthfully completing the questions. Please be assured that you will not be identified in any discussions of the data and all the personal information will be kept confidential!

Please tick the appropriate answers for the following questions.

A. General Overview of Teacher’s Feedback

1. How often do you receive feedback on your writing from the teacher?

- A. Every time I submit my writing
- B. Most of the time I submit my writing
- C. Occasionally when I submit my writing
- D. Rarely or never when I submit my writing

2. How soon do you usually receive your writing back from the teacher?

- A. On the same day that you submit it
- B. On the next class session
- C. Within a week of submission
- D. After more than a week of submission

B. Students’ Perceptions and Attitudes towards Teacher's Feedback

3. How would you describe your overall perception of the feedback you receive on your essays?
(You can select more than one response.)

- A. Eager to improve my writing
- B. Satisfied
- C. Interested in reading the feedback
- D. Lost (don’t know how to revise your writing)
- E. Frustrated

4. Do you agree or disagree with the following statements?

(1) Strongly disagree (2) Disagree (3) Neutral (4) Agree (5) Strongly agree

No	Statements	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
a.	Teacher's written feedback helps me improve my writing skills and performance.					
b.	I feel motivated to revise and improve my essays after receiving written feedback from my teacher.					
c.	I find it easy to understand and apply the written feedback from my teacher.					
d.	Teacher’s feedback is timely and consistent.					
e.	Teacher’s feedback is discouraging (showing only negative					

aspects and criticisms).

f. Teacher’s feedback is overwhelming (containing too many feedback points).

g. Teacher’s feedback is useless (offering no suggestions for revision).

h. I would like to receive more feedback on my writing in the future.

5. When you receive feedback on your writing from your teacher, what do you typically do?

- A. I ignore the feedback altogether.
- B. I read the comments, and do nothing.
- C. I read the comments, and ask for clarification if needed.
- D. I correct the mistakes that are easy to fix.
- E. I revise my writing, taking into account the teacher’s suggestions.
- F. I seek additional advice (such as online guides, books, friends, home tutors).

C. Teachers’ Feedback Practices

6. How would you like your teacher to respond to your writing?

- A. I would like my teacher to indicate all of my errors.
- B. I would like my teacher to indicate some of the major errors.
- C. I would like my teacher to identify my errors, and explain why they are wrong.
- D. I would like my teacher to identify my errors, and give me the corrected forms.
- E. I would like my teacher to identify my errors, and let me correct my own errors.
- F. I would like my teacher to identify my errors, explain why they are wrong, and then suggest error correction.
- G. I would like my teacher to not mark any errors and focus on the ideas and content.

7. If there are many different errors in your essay, which type(s) of error do you want your teacher to point out most?

(1) not useful at all (useless); (2) not useful; (3) doesn’t matter; (4) quite useful; (5) very useful

No	Statements	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
a.	Organization errors. (e.g., paragraph structure, sentence order, etc.)					
b.	Grammatical errors. (e.g., verb tense, subject-verb agreement, articles, punctuation, etc.)					
c.	Content/Idea errors. (e.g., details for support, comments on your ideas, etc.)					
d.	Coherence/Logical order. (e.g., meaning, coherence, logic, etc.)					
e.	Vocabulary errors. (e.g., word choice, spelling, collocations, etc.)					
f.	General Comments: words of praise or encouragement.					

(Adapted from Aprilia et al., 2023)

Appendix B. Semi-structured Interviews

1. How important is feedback for you to improve your essays? Can you give an example of how feedback helped you improve your writing skills or performance?
2. How do you feel when you receive written feedback from your teachers on your essays? Do you feel motivated, satisfied, interested, lost, or frustrated? Why?
3. What are the benefits and challenges of receiving written feedback from your teachers?
4. How do you use the feedback that you receive from your teachers to revise and improve your essays? How does the feedback affect your writing process and outcome?
5. What kind of feedback do you usually receive from your teachers on your essays? Is it mostly about form, content, organization, or coherence? Is it direct, indirect, local or global?
6. What are your preferences for the type and focus of feedback that you receive from your teachers? Why do you prefer those types and focuses of feedback?

PHÂN TÍCH PHẢN HỒI DẠNG VĂN BẢN TỪ GIÁO VIÊN VỀ KỸ NĂNG VIẾT CỦA SINH VIÊN CHUYÊN NGÀNH TIẾNG ANH NĂM THỨ BA TẠI MỘT TRƯỜNG ĐẠI HỌC Ở VIỆT NAM

Nguyễn Thị Lan

*Trường Ngoại ngữ - Du lịch, Trường Đại học Công nghiệp Hà Nội,
Cầu Diễn, Bắc Từ Liêm, Hà Nội, Việt Nam*

Tóm tắt: Đề thành công trong giáo dục đại học, việc sở hữu kỹ năng viết tốt là một yếu tố then chốt, đặc biệt là đối với những sinh viên chuyên ngành tiếng Anh. Tuy nhiên, việc phát triển kỹ năng viết là một quá trình phức tạp và đầy thách thức, đòi hỏi sự hướng dẫn và phản hồi hiệu quả. Trong cuộc hành trình này, giáo viên có vai trò đưa ra những phản hồi bằng văn bản để hoàn thiện khả năng viết của sinh viên. Do đó, bài nghiên cứu này khảo sát nhận thức, sở thích và thái độ của 56 sinh viên năm thứ ba chuyên ngành tiếng Anh tại một trường đại học ở Việt Nam về phản hồi bằng văn bản của giáo viên cho bài luận. Kết quả nghiên cứu cho thấy sinh viên thể hiện sự tham gia tích cực vào việc viết luận và nhận được phản hồi thường xuyên hoặc thỉnh thoảng. Tuy nhiên, họ bày tỏ những quan điểm khác nhau về phản hồi, từ sự mong muốn cải thiện đến sự bối rối. Họ cũng có những sở thích khác nhau về loại phản hồi như: sửa lỗi, giải thích, đề xuất, v.v. Đa số sinh viên cho rằng phản hồi giúp họ nâng cao kỹ năng viết và khuyến khích họ sửa bài, nhưng một số cũng gặp phải những thách thức như nản chí và không thấy hữu ích. Từ đó, nghiên cứu này đề xuất một cách tiếp cận phản hồi cân bằng và mang tính xây dựng, xem xét nhu cầu đa dạng của sinh viên và giải quyết những thách thức của họ, nhằm nâng cao trải nghiệm phản hồi cho sinh viên.

Từ khóa: kỹ năng viết, phản hồi bằng văn bản, sinh viên chuyên ngành tiếng Anh, nhận thức, sở thích

NARRATIVES OF SELF-AUTHORSHIP: HOW A GRADUATE FROM AN EFL TEACHER EDUCATION PROGRAMME BECAME A BUSINESS WOMAN AND A WEDDING HOST

Tran Thi Long^{1,*}, Mai Ngoc Khoi²

¹VNU University of Languages and International Studies, Pham Van Dong, Cau Giay, Ha Noi, Vietnam

²True North School, Mo Lao, Ha Dong, Ha Noi, Vietnam

Received 22 December 2023

Revised 16 February 2024; Accepted 28 February 2024

Abstract: Self-authorship is the capacity to define one's beliefs, identity, and social relations, which forms a developmental foundation for twenty-first-century learning outcomes and is often reported in the stories of college graduates (Baxter Magolda, 2007). This narrative study explores self-authorship manifested in career pathways and experiences of an alumna from an EFL teacher training programme of a prestigious training institution. Narrative interviews were conducted to collect the participant's stories. Adopting the three dimensions of self-authorship and the four-phase framework of self-authorship development for analyzing in-depth narratives of the participant, the researchers constructed two mini-stories to present two main themes, namely the first job experience and the final career choice. The themes illustrate the development of self-authorship, and the study calls for education institutions to provide students with more opportunities to develop self-authorship.

Keywords: alumni research, self-authorship, career paths, narratives

1. Introduction

EFL teacher education programmes have recently been under scrutiny for the career outcomes of their graduates (Burke & Ceo-DiFrancesco, 2022). Both pre- and in-service teachers in Vietnam are facing increasing challenges in the context of the country's recent implementation of teacher professional standards as well as the uncertainty of the labor market (Canh, 2022). There are several reasons for their struggling, but a crucial one is the lack of certainty in their career choice, as evident in a research published in 2001 which stated that many college students are unclear about their own beliefs, identities, and values (Baxter Magolda, 2001). As a result, many graduates lack employability skills and obvious awareness of career orientation (Bouilheres, 2016; Tuyet, 2016).

College outcomes necessary for successful practice in twenty-first-century life include knowledge of human cultures and the physical and natural world, intellectual and practical skills, personal and social responsibility, and integrative learning (the Association of American Colleges and Universities, 2007). To achieve these outcomes, college students must shift from uncritical acceptance of external authority to critical analysis of authority in order to establish their own internal authority or self-authorship. The linkage between self-authorship and college learning outcomes is clearly depicted in the stories of college graduates who are now managing their adult lives (Baxter Magolda, 2007). Participants in Baxter Magolda's longitudinal study

* Corresponding author.

Email address: longtran@vnu.edu.vn

of young adult development and learning study (2001) expressed that college learning focused on knowledge and intellect is insufficient for mature adult functioning because college classrooms are a much more controlled environment than what is actually going on outside. However, little is known about how self-authorship manifests in the career paths of college graduates and its linkages to college learning experience. Indeed, there is research on self-awareness of secondary students in Vietnam (Tu, 2019) but it is hard to find research on self-authorship of college students. Besides, qualitative methods are recognized as an essential contributor to career development research (Blustein, 2006; Koegel, Donin, Ponterotto, & Spitz, 1995). Thus, this study aims to explore the development of self-authorship in career paths of 10 college graduates from an EFL teacher training programme through a qualitative approach. This paper presents the development of self-authorship of only one participant.

2. Self-Authorship Dimensions

The concept of self-authorship comes from Kegan's (1994) theory of evolving self which suggests that the primary developmental task in adulthood is the achievement of self-authorship which is a shift of meaning-making capacity from outside the self to inside the self.

This new whole is an ideology, an internal identity, a self-authorship that can coordinate, integrate, act upon, or invent values, beliefs, convictions, generalizations, ideals, abstractions, interpersonal loyalties, and intrapersonal states. It is no longer authored by them, it authors them and thereby achieves personal authority. (Kegan, 1994, p. 185)

Baxter Magolda's longitudinal study of self-authorship noted that Kegan's concept of self-authorship captured much of what the participants experienced in the years following their graduation and this complicated phenomenon could be regarded as both "an ability to construct an internal identity separated from external influences without a loss of one's internal identity" (1998, p.12).

According to these authors, self-authorship is achieved when the integration of three dimensions occurs: epistemological, intrapersonal, and interpersonal. The epistemological dimension is defined in terms of an individual's ability to seek out and construct new knowledge (Kegan, 1994) and make meaning (Pizzolato & Ozaki, 2007). This is when individuals answer the question "How do I know?" and consider 'the nature of knowledge' and realise that 'what was right or wrong was not an absolute' (Pizzolato & Ozaki, 2007, p. 196). The intrapersonal dimension of self-authorship is the ability to have a degree of autonomy and be freed from an external authority (Kegan, 1994). This is when individuals craft a sense of self that regulates their interpretation of experience and choices. Finally, interpersonal construct is the "capacity to engage in authentic, interdependent relationships with diverse others in which self is not overshadowed by need for others' approval (Baxter Magolda, 2004, p. 8). In other words, it is when individuals maintain "healthy relationships" with others (Pizzolato & Ozaki, 2007, p. 8).

Baxter Magolda's (2001) longitudinal qualitative study of young adults expressed concerns around three central questions, namely "How do I know?", "Who am I?", and "What relationships do I want?". The questions represent three distinct yet interrelated elements of self-authorship: trusting the internal voice, building an internal foundation, and securing internal commitments. They correspond to three dimensions, epistemological (what to believe), intrapersonal (how to view one's self), and interpersonal (how to manage relationships), which constitute the basic components of self-authorship theory as stated above.

Magolda's study also produced the most popular framework for understanding the evolution of self-authorship, which includes four phases: following external formulas, the

crossroads, becoming the author of one’s life, and internal foundations. The following table summarizes the main characteristics of these four phases.

Stage	Description & Characteristics
Following External Formulas	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Accept beliefs and plans from authority figures • Define self through external roles and relationships with others • Act to acquire approval from others
The Crossroads	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Question accepted beliefs; see need for own vision • Sense dissonance between external roles and internal identity • Realize need for more balance in relationships
Becoming the Author of One’s Life	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Grow trust in own belief system and internal voice • Begin formulating coherent personal identity • Reframe relationships with others to achieve mutuality
Internal Foundations	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Rely on internal belief system and chosen values • Achieve personally defined, stable, and congruent identity and sense of self • Construct interdependent relationships with others

(Adapted from Baxter Magolda, 2001)

Individuals in the first phase behave and make decisions based on the perspectives they have uncritically accepted from others (Hodge, Baxter Magolda, & Haynes, 2009). In this way, the individuals are just an “audience” to their own experiences and only begin the journey to self- authorship by entering the next phase: the crossroads. This phase is referred to as a “snapping point” (Baxter Magolda, 2001, p. 116), a “provocative moment” (Pizzolato, 2005, p. 625), and a “catalyzing” experience (Pizzolato, p. 625). In Magolda’s study (2001), the participants trusted their internal voices, which heightened their ability to take ownership of how they made meaning of external events when they stood at “the crossroads”, suffering provocative experiences and becoming dissatisfied with their future plans or lack of success. The movement to the crossroads phase was often triggered by a change in environments (Torres, Hernandez, & De Sawal, 2007). When individuals begin to exercise personal authority and breach the threshold of self-authorship, they enter the next phase of their development: becoming the author of one’s life. The move from the previous to this life phase is often triggered by a personal crisis that causes them to better recognize their own decision-making and meaning-making abilities (Torres, Hernandez, & De Sawal, 2007). In the last phase, individuals find stability in their self-concept and in mutual relationships, they discover that their life decisions are based on their own beliefs (internal foundation). This foundation becomes the basis of one’s self-authored orientation.

This study adopts Kegan & Baxter Magolda’s self-authorship concept and Baxter Magolda’s (2001) four phase framework of self-authorship development to understand the development of self-authorship depicted in the participant’s narratives of her career.

3. Methods

This research used narrative inquiry methodology with the epistemological assumptions that knowledge is co-constructed (Clandinin & Connelly, 2000). Narrative inquiry involves the examination of experiences and stories lived and told (Creswell, 2007). Narrative inquiry framework embraces three dimensions (time, space and interaction), thereby being parallel with the concept of self-authorship. The space or situation dimension relates to geographical places of the narration. The “time” or the temporality dimension focuses on exploring participants’ previous experiences, present engagement, and future plans. This dimension requires participants to look backward and forward to see the continuity of critical incidents, connecting earlier experiences with current happenings and looking forward to the future and experiences that might be anticipated, which reveals how participants shifted meaning making from external formulas into internal ones. The interactional dimension also resonates with the interpersonal dimension of self-authorship, in which inward emotions, hopes, and desires and outward interaction and existential environment can be emerged. Moreover, this approach is “best for capturing the detailed stories or life experiences of a single life or the lives of a small number of individuals” (Creswell, 2007, p. 55). Hence, the researchers were able to delve deeply into the participant’s stories of career paths, with the hope of better understanding of how self-authorship was shaped and its linkage with the college experiences.

Unstructured interviews were used as the main method of data collection as meaning of behaviors and events in people’s lives were conveyed in the natural flow of a conversation (Patton, 2002). Chronological narrative form was used to tell the story from beginning to end, make sense of it as a whole before participants are comfortable with taking it apart to provide further details (Weick, 1995). The researchers let the participant choose the beginning and ending of her story and tie them together to make their point. The researchers’ role then was to follow up and ask questions. In this way the interviews appeared in both chronology and theme.

4. Context and the Participant

This study belongs to a broader project involving alumni of a prestigious teacher training institution in Hanoi. Purposive sampling was first used to target the participants of certain criteria (Creswell, 2007). Here the alumni aged 22 to 35 with various career paths were identified and selected from the school alumni list of the EFL teacher education programme. Those aged 22 to 35 were chosen because at these ages people tend to change careers (Dorsett & Lucchino, 2018). The information of the project was sent to all alumni with the above criteria. Only ten people finally contacted us and voluntarily participated in the study. Consequently, they were chosen as participants of this study.

The participant reported in this article, Lam (pseudonym), graduated from an EFL teacher education program of a prestigious training organization in 2007. She taught English for both major and non-major students at a state tertiary institution for about a year before stopping teaching completely. Then she worked as a project assistant for an environment project for about two and a half years while studying MBA. After the project had finished, she decided not to apply for a position in another project, but started a business on her own. Her business on making wedding dresses has run quite well since then. Recently, she also works as a wedding host. Lam’s in-depth narratives were chosen for this study because her diverse career pathways and her ability to articulate her innermost thoughts offered a clear view of the process of self-authorship (Baxter Magolda, 1998).

5. Data Collection and Analysis

Unstructured interviews including four interview sessions were carried out throughout two years. Each interview lasted between one and two hours. The language of the interview chosen by the participant was Vietnamese. After each interview, the researchers transcribed the session and sent the documents to the participant for verification and further clarification. Narrative analysis is both inductive and deductive (Creswell, 2007). Inductively, the researchers searched for recurring themes related to the participant's occupational experiences. Deductively, the researchers looked for themes related to self-authorship development. Finally, the researchers began to "re-story" or reorganize participants' narratives into mini-stories with a focus on the specific time, space, and characters involved. A sequence of narratives was made, which fits Clandinin and Connelly's (2000) three-dimensional narrative inquiry space: the personal and social (the interaction); the past, present, and future (continuity); and the place (situation) and is based on the developmental phases of self-authorship theory (e.g., the crossroads).

The constructed narratives were shared with the participant for further data additions, amendments, and clarifications. In this way, the narratives can be described as being co-constructed by the participants and researchers. Full involvement with the participants in this way yielded close rapport and deep understanding. Clandinin and Connelly emphasized that researchers "must also step back and see their own stories in the inquiry, the stories of the participants, as well as the larger landscape on which they all live" (2000, p. 81). Therefore, perspectives of the researchers were brought to the interpretation yet simultaneously worked to be true to participants' narratives, which ensured the trustworthiness of the data analysis.

6. Findings and Discussion

Following the three dimensions of self-authorship and the four-phase framework of self-authorship development, two themes in the participants' narratives were identified, which corresponds to the development framework of self-authorship. The themes are presented below in two stories featuring her choice of the first job, and her success in the wedding business.

6.1. *Provocative Experiences in the First Job*

This story of Lam's early career reveals her development of self-authorship from her tendency to "follow external formulas" to her reconstruction of self-perception leading to reactions in difficult circumstances. After graduation Lam applied for a teaching position in a state tertiary school and got her first job here. She taught English for both major and non-major students. She quitted the job after a year.

The participant decided to apply for a teaching position in a state tertiary institution right after her graduation because EFL teaching is her major and teaching was said to be a good job. "I didn't think much. I graduated with a bachelor degree in EFL teaching. I thought I liked it. My parents and friends also thought it was a good job. They were really happy for me when I got this position" (interview 1, hour 1, minute 30). In the third interview, when Lam went back to the stories around the time she just graduated, she insisted that she had never thought about other career than teaching mainly because teaching was supposed to be a "proper job" for her. Apparently, the participant was likely to be at the first phase of self-authorship construct "following external formulas" as she took "the form of prescribed plans or predetermined scripts for success in adult life" that she learnt from others around her (Baxter Magolda, 2001).

However, “the stance of being shaped by our surroundings is actually insufficient to handle modern life”, an individual should be able to provide insight into why he/she reacts to certain situations (Kegan, 1994, p.132). To accomplish this task, individuals begin the journey to self- authorship by entering the next phase: the crossroads, which is often triggered by a change in environment and provocative experiences. Actually, a number of provocative experiences in the first job stimulated the development of self-authorship of the participant, which could be defined as developmental crises that challenged the participant’s current ways of knowing and conceptions of self. This can be considered one “crossroads” in becoming self-authored. This is when she could not make decisions based on perspectives she had “uncritically accepted from others” (Hodge, Baxter Magolda, & Haynes, 2009, p. 16). The following narrative excerpt exemplifies dissatisfied experiences of the participant in her first job, a teaching position in a tertiary institution.

I think my working environment wasn’t healthy enough. I didn’t align with the school regulations which were somehow out-of-date. I need more autonomy in my teaching. Moreover, I think my effort and devotion I put in class were not recognized. The salary was not adequate, either. However, I couldn’t change the system and it was worth nothing going around blaming everything. (Interview 1, hour 1, minute 10)

These experiences were coded as provocative which stimulated the participant to reconsider her goals and conceptions of self. In fact, language teachers in their early career stage are likely to suffer identity struggles and professional burnout (Huang & Yip, 2021). In Vietnam, the salary of EFL teachers is still low while they are simultaneously in charge of many tasks, both academic and non-academic such as doing research, proctoring, organizing faculty extra activities (Gross, 2016). Lam also reflected that:

I know I loved teaching. I found joy in inspiring students. My students also expressed their gratitude and some of them still keep in contact with me until now. Teaching in an institution is a stable job. Everyone told me that. But I didn’t want to compromise anymore. When I realised that the working environment didn’t fit me, I opted out of it although I still loved teaching. As I said earlier, the salary at school was not adequate so many teachers had to work after school-hours, taking advantage of the reputation of the school to apply for other jobs. I didn’t feel it was right and didn’t want to work and live like that. After all, I decided to drop the teaching job at school. (Interview 1, hour 2, minute 20)

Lam added that she gradually grew to love teaching after she started her first teaching job. However, when she arrived at the time of dissonant experiences, she had to reconsider what was important to her and what working environment she wanted. She realized the love for teaching was not enough and it was not as “wonderful” as she was informed by others. She finally realized such a working environment is not for her. She believed that she needed more autonomy in teaching and teachers deserved better salary with their effort and contribution. She strongly believed that changes must take place and decided to act accordingly.

According to Kegan (1994), development occurred as individuals achieved the capability to recognize different aspects of themselves and their surroundings as objects (rather than them being the subjects) and thus came to exercise conscious control over those elements.

When I quit the teaching job at school, I had to think carefully about what was important, what was the essence of me. I asked myself what I wanted and didn’t want. I started to think about the essence of myself and how I could step out of my comfort zone. After leaving the job, I worked several jobs, including being a free-lance interpreter, a television host, and a project assistant. I even signed up for an MBA course of project management while working for an environment project as a project assistant. (Interview 1, hour 2, minute 20)

Trusting one's internal voice meant knowing herself deeply enough to determine when to make things happen versus when to let them happen to live life on her own terms (Baxter Magolda, 2008). Lam's characters developed during her college but not until graduation did she start to reflect on her own inner self and construct her own formulas. She became more flexible and open when she was accepted into the fast-track programmer during her pre-service teacher training. Her self-efficacy was improved by her participation in diverse school activities such as art and dance club. However, she was never in such a provocative crisis which forced her to reconstruct her belief and her "framework around a new, internally defined sense of self" (Pizzolato, 2005, p.635). Most participants in similar studies (e.g., Alkathiri, 2019; Amechi, 2015; Magolda, 2001) were found to negotiate this crossroads in their 20s. Such negotiations focused on finding and listening to their internal voice, gaining confidence in expressing it, and letting go of external noise in their life. However, none of them had begun to move beyond the external formulas phase in college before they graduated and spent their early years after graduation at this phase. This is similar to the participant in this study. Other empirical studies have also linked a range of different collegiate environments or experiences to propel students toward self-authorship at the provocation of the crossroads phase. These include students' experiences in activities such as service-learning (Jones & Abes, 2004); students' choice of majors and careers (Creamer & Laughlin, 2005); students' negotiation of social and personal identities (Abes, 2003).

6.2. Defining Her Own Path in Life

The second story features the participant's decisions on job change as she stepped out of her comfort zone and her discovery of other passions could be considered as her transformation in self-authorship. After Lam stopped teaching completely, she found the jobs in which she could use her major knowledge and skills. She worked as an interpreter, a television host, and a project assistant. These jobs gave her diverse work experience. She even took an MBA course on project management. In those days, apart from working, her interest in wedding dresses gradually rekindled, motivating her to open her first wedding dress store after about two years working for an environmental project. Although there were ups and downs, her store has been run quite well. Then it was not only about wedding dresses but also Ao dai for engagement ceremonies and for other occasions. She even tried her hand at hosting weddings, especially bilingual ones and has been rather successful at it.

The participant's internal voice of authority grew strong enough to begin overcoming external influences, which led to her decision to drop the teaching job. This could be considered as the third phase of self-authorship evolution. The participant continued to display a high degree of self-authorship when she decided to start her own business after two years working in an environmental project. She recollected that unlike the first job she had no provocative experiences in this job. However, she did not want to follow others' system, as she wanted to create her own one. Moreover, she began to think more long-term, and turned her focus toward creating both an internal and physical foundation for her life.

After the project work had ended, I apparently could apply for other projects. However, I decided to create my own one. I realized my passion for making wedding dresses, and I told myself it was time for me to pursue my dream. Starting a business of making wedding dresses was extremely challenging to a newbie like me. I believed I could do it, though. I also had the whole-hearted support of my parents and friends in this exploration. (Interview 2, hour 1, minute 15)

Her internal desire and wisdom provided her with self-confidence necessary to structure

her external environment in a way that best fits her needs and interests. This decision could be seen as stemming from internal wisdom.

“I spent hours reading fashion magazines and wedding dress collections. I couldn’t forget the stunning look I saw on every model. I think I also know quite a lot about fabric because my mom owned a small clothing repair shop”, Lam recollected (Interview 2, hour 1, minute 20). Indeed, she unconsciously equipped herself with general knowledge of wedding dress design and fashion trends as her interest in such things gradually grew. In this way, individuals come to live with the knowledge base of their respective fields, merging it with their internal sense of themselves and their social relations (Baxter Magolda, 2008).

Lam’s internal foundation was also constructed by acknowledging her giftedness in creativity and communication. She said that her major was not fashion design, so when she started her business of making dresses, she did not take designing dresses as her main strength. The selling point of her business, instead, lies in the pleasant communication with customers, the comfortable atmosphere she has provided to customers. When the business grew better, she had time to take free-lance jobs as a wedding host, especially for international weddings. She described it as “opening the door” to using her talents in her professional and personal life. She reflected,

“I know I’m not a kind of “college-trained” wedding dress designer. I started this business because of my passion with wedding dress. But I know what I’m good at. I’m a good presenter and a good listener at the same time. I also know what value I want to bring to my customers.... The good relationship between me and my customers gave me the opportunity to be a wedding host, especially to be a bilingual wedding host because of my advantages in foreign languages.” (Interview 2, hour 1, minute 30)

This well-developed internal foundation phase allows her the freedom to act, watch what happens, and be confident that she can make something positive take place (Baxter Magolda, 2001).

Self-authorship involves each person determining for himself or herself how to construct mutually beneficial relationships. Thus, self-authoring individuals do not separate from others but rather reconstruct their relationships to be more authentic. As mentioned above, the participant enjoyed the support from her parents and friends along the way she was exploring her career paths. When starting her own business, she was always certain about the ways she communicated with customers and the bond she would build. She always made sure that customers would feel like being at home and talking to a best friend.

Lam’s conscious quest for more meaning of success helped her continually build her internal foundation. She demonstrated a personalized sense of value and meaning. As for her, success means daring to do what you want and being able to live on it. She also values relationships which she has continuously been building, relationships with people around her (parents and friends), relationships with her staff and customers. Though, she believes that the fore and foremost element of her success is relying on herself, her endurance, love and passion. Although this foundation was internal, personal, and subjective, it was not “selfish or self-centered; it involves careful consideration of external perspective and others’ needs, but this consideration occurs in the context of one’s internal foundation” (Baxter Magolda, 2001, p.19). The participant understood her internal commitments to living them. She trusted that she could make the most of what she could control.

7. Conclusion

This study explores how self-authorship shapes one's career paths of an alumnus from an EFL teacher education programme, which could be illustrated through two mini-stories: having provocative experiences in the first job and defining her own path in life. Three dimensions of self-authorship (epistemology, intrapersonal, interpersonal) and four phases of self-authorship development (following external formulas, the crossroads, becoming the author of one's life, internal foundations) emerged from participants' stories and were intertwined within these stories. The participant still followed external formulas when she decided to take her first job and started to reflect on her internal foundation (what she believes and how she views herself) when she encountered provocative experiences in her first job. It grew strong enough to create a drastic change in her career paths, from an EFL teacher to a successful business woman and a wedding host. The way she trusted herself and built relationships with other people also led to the success in her business and her life. It parallels with Baxter Magolda's study (2001) that young adults' life after college graduation requires self-authorship when they face provocative situations at which they start to develop their self-authorship. Self-authorship development also enhanced the success of the participants in terms of their academic self-efficacy, and their ability to cope effectively with and respond to adversity.

This study cannot be generalized to others, but people can find the resonance. Understanding these nuances also helps educators' abilities to conceptualize how to support young adults in becoming self-authoring. College is a prime context in which to illustrate accurately the complexity of adult life and introduce provocative experiences or dissonant situations which cause students to reconsider their previously taken-for-granted ideas (Torres, Hernandez, & De Sawal, 2007). These include students' experiences in activities such as service-learning (Jones & Abes, 2004); students' choice of majors and careers (Creamer & Laughlin, 2005); students' negotiation of social and personal identities (Abes, 2003). Introducing college students to complexity and enabling them to deal with it meaningfully promotes self-authorship that leads toward inner wisdom. Moreover, it shows how students' initial perspectives and ways of engaging in these experiences are valuable in helping them make sense of their experiences, and how their interpretation of their experiences reflects growth in their career paths.

Acknowledgments

This research has been completed under the sponsorship of University of Languages & International Studies (ULIS, VNU) under the Project No. N.21.16.

References

- Abes, E. S. (2003). The dynamics of multiple dimensions of identity for lesbian women. *Dissertation Abstracts International*, 64(12), 4378 (Publication No. AAT 3115720; ProQuest Document ID 765198421).
- Alkathiri, M.S. (2019). Assessing doctoral student development of self-authorship: the epistemological, intrapersonal, and interpersonal growths. *International Journal of International Studies*, 14, 597-611.
- Amechi, M.H. (2015). "There's no autonomy": Narratives of Self-Authorship from Black Male Foster Care Alumni in Higher Education. *Journal of African American Males in Education*, 7(2), 18-35.
- Baxter Magolda, M. B. (1998). Developing self-authorship in young adult life. *Journal of College Student Development*, 39(2), 143-156.
- Baxter Magolda, M. B. (2001). *Making their own way: Narratives for transforming higher education to promote self-development*. Stylus Publishing, LLC.

- Baxter Magolda, M. B., & King, P. M. (2007). Interview strategies for assessing self-authorship: Constructing conversation to assess meaning making. *Journal of College Student Development*, 48, 491–508.
- Blustein, D. L. (2006). *The psychology of working: A new perspective for career development, counseling, and public policy*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.
- Bouilheres, F. (2016). 21st Century life and career skills: building an employability pathway in an international University in Vietnam. *Towards Excellence in Leadership and Management in Higher Education* (pp. 103-111).
- Burke, B.M., & Ceo-DiFrancesco, D. (2022). Recruitment and retention of world language teacher education majors: Perspectives of teacher candidates and alumni to remedy a global shortage. *Foreign Language Annals*, 55(2), 333-360.
- Canh, L. V. (2022). Language Teacher Education in Vietnam: Looking Back and Looking Forward. In M. S. Khine, & Y. Liu (Eds), *Handbook of Research on Teacher Education: Innovations and Practices in Asia* (pp. 333–350). Springer.
- Clandinin, D. J. & Connelly, F. M. (2000). *Narrative inquiry: Experience and story in qualitative research*. Jossey-Bass.
- Cohen L., Manion, L., & Morrison, K. (2007). *Research methods in education*. (6th ed.). Routledge-Falmer.
- Creamer, E. G. & Laughlin, A. (2005). Self-authorship and women's career decision making. *Journal of College Student Development*, 46, 13-27.
- Creswell, J. (2007). *Qualitative inquiry and research design: Choosing among five approaches* (2nd ed.). SAGE Publication, Inc.
- Dorsett, R., & Lucchino, P. (2018). Young people's labour market transitions: The role of early experiences. *Labour Economics*, 54, 29-46. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.labeco.2018.06.002>
- Gross, S. (2016). The development of English as an ASEAN lingua franca and its impact on teaching English in Vietnam. *Journal of English as an International Language*, 11(1), 1-18.
- Huang, J. & Yip J. W. C. (2021). Understanding ESL teachers 'agency in their early years of Professional Development: A Three-Layered Triadic Reciprocity Framework. *Frontier Psychology*, 12. <https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2021.739271>
- Hodge, D. C., Baxter Magolda, M. B., & Haynes, C. A. (2009). Engaged learning: Enabling self-authorship and effective practice. *Liberal Education*, 95(4), 16-23.
- Jones, S. R. & Abes, E. S. (2004). Enduring influences of service-learning on college students' identity development. *Journal of College Student Development*, 45, 149- 166.
- Kegan, R. (1994). *In over our heads: The mental demands of modern life*. Harvard University Press.
- Koegel, H. M., Donin, I., Ponterotto, J. G., & Spitz, S. (1995). Multicultural career development: A methodological critique of eight years of research in three leading career journals. *Journal of Employment Counseling*, 32, 50-63.
- Paton, M.Q. (2002). *Qualitative Research and Evaluation Methods*. SAGE Publication, Inc.
- Pizzolato, J. E. (2003). Developing self-authorship: Exploring the experiences of high-risk college students. *Journal of College Student Development*, 44, 797–812.
- Pizzolato, J. E. (2004). Coping with conflict: self-authorship, coping, and adaptation to college in first- year, high-risk students. *Journal of College Student Development*, 45, 425–442.
- Pizzolato, J. E. (2005). Creating the crossroads for self-authorship: Investigating the provocative moment. *Journal of College Student Development*, 46, 625-641.
- Pizzolato, J. E. & Ozaki, C. C. (2007). Moving toward self-authorship: Investigating outcomes of learning partnerships. *Journal of College Student Development*, 48, 196- 214.
- Torres, V., Hernandez, E. & De Sawal, D. (2007). *The influence of ethnic identity on self-authorship: A longitudinal study of Latino/a college students*. Presentation at the Joint Meeting of ACPA-College Student Educators International and NASPA- National Association of Student Personnel Administrators, Orlando, Florida.
- Tu, N.T. (2019). Thực trạng tự nhận thức bản thân và nhận thức người khác của học sinh trung học cơ sở. *Journal of Education Science*, 16(4), 114-124.

Tuyet, T. T. (2016). Building a close connection between higher education and industry for a better education outcome for Vietnam. *VNU Journal of Science: Education Research*, 32(4), 36-43.

Weick, K. (1996). Enactment and the Boundaryless Career: Organizing as we work. In M. Arthur, & D. Rousseau (Eds.), *The Boundaryless Career: A New Employment Principle for a New Organizational Era* (pp. 146-160). Oxford University Press.

NGHIÊN CỨU TƯỜNG THUẬT VỀ NHẬN THỨC TỰ CHỦ: CÂU CHUYỆN CỦA MỘT CỤU SINH VIÊN NGÀNH SƯ PHẠM TIẾNG ANH TRỞ THÀNH MỘT DOANH NHÂN VÀ MỘT NGƯỜI DẪN CHƯƠNG TRÌNH LỄ CƯỚI

Trần Thị Long¹, Mai Ngọc Khôi²

¹*Trường Đại học Ngoại ngữ, Đại học Quốc gia Hà Nội,
Đường Phạm Văn Đồng, Cầu Giấy, Hà Nội, Việt Nam*

²*Trường Quốc tế True North, Mỗ Lao, Hà Đông, Hà Nội, Việt Nam*

Tóm tắt: Nhận thức tự chủ là khả năng xác định niềm tin, bản sắc và các mối quan hệ xã hội của một người, tạo thành nền tảng phát triển cho các mục tiêu học tập của thế kỷ 21 và thường được các nghiên cứu tìm thấy khi phân tích câu chuyện của những sinh viên đã tốt nghiệp đại học (Baxter Magolda, 2007). Nghiên cứu tự sự này tìm hiểu nhận thức tự chủ được thể hiện trong con đường sự nghiệp và trải nghiệm của một cựu sinh viên ngành Sư phạm tiếng Anh. Dữ liệu nghiên cứu được thu thập từ những buổi phỏng vấn theo phương pháp tường thuật. Hai câu chuyện được xây dựng qua quá trình phân tích dữ liệu, thể hiện hai chủ đề chính. Đó là câu chuyện về những trải nghiệm đầy thử thách trong công việc đầu tiên và câu chuyện về quyết định lựa chọn nghề nghiệp. Những câu chuyện này minh họa cho sự phát triển của nhận thức tự chủ, từ đó, nghiên cứu đưa ra khuyến nghị rằng các cơ sở giáo dục nên cung cấp cho sinh viên nhiều cơ hội hơn để phát triển nhận thức tự chủ.

Từ khóa: nghiên cứu cựu sinh viên, nhận thức tự chủ, con đường sự nghiệp, tự sự

THE CURRENT STATUS OF HISTORY SUBJECT LEARNING: CASE STUDY OF ULIS MIDDLE SCHOOL

Dao Thi Tuyet Nhung*, Nguyen Hoang Giang, Nguyen Huong Ly, Vuong Thi Ha,
Nguyen Thi Linh Phuong, Pham Thi Minh Tam

VNU University of Languages and International Studies, Pham Van Dong, Cau Giay, Ha Noi, Vietnam

Received 30 December 2023

Revised 05 January 2024; Accepted 26 February 2024

Abstract: History holds a significant role in the identity of every nation. Nevertheless, in Vietnam, the study of History encounters numerous challenges, particularly when students exhibit a lack of genuine interest in the subject, perceiving it as dry and uninteresting. This predicament is not exclusive to the study of History at Middle School, University of Languages and International Studies, Vietnam National University, Hanoi (ULIS Middle School), as it grapples with similar issues. Specifically, the survey reveals that 56% of the students find the teaching methods to be less effective, and in some cases, entirely ineffective. Furthermore, the study indicates that the allure of the History subject is lacking, failing to ignite curiosity among learners. In response to these challenges, various solutions and recommendations have emerged from the study. These include initiatives such as investing in teacher training, curriculum development, integrating game-based learning into education, and enhancing extracurricular activities. These measures aim to address the identified issues and improve the effectiveness of History education at ULIS Middle School.

Keywords: history, education, improvement, boring, learning effectively

1. Introduction

Discussing the crucial role of the nation's history, President Ho Chi Minh articulated, “Our people must be acquainted with our history, understanding the precise origins of the Vietnamese nation, which spans over four thousand years. Our illustrious ancestors and brethren coexisted harmoniously, with Hong Bang recognized as the father of our country. In that era, our nation was known as Van Lang”. Affirming this perspective, the resolution of the Second Conference of the Party Central Committee, term VIII (1997), emphasized the heightened significance of social sciences and humanities, particularly Vietnamese and national history.

History plays an important role in preserving the values of each country and each people. Every person must understand their own origins, learn from the past so that they can appreciate the present life, and follow in the footsteps of their ancestors to build a more developed country. In the contemporary context, the efficacy of studying History appears to be compromised, as a considerable number of students express a dislike for the subject. They perceive History as unimportant and often find it tedious, uninteresting, and challenging to retain information. Reality shows that History is often hated by students, and at the peak point, from the high school graduation exam in Vietnam in 2011, there were thousands of zero points, this result was truly surprising for society (Ha, 2022). In the years from 2016 to 2021, History

* Corresponding author.

Email address: nhungdaotuyet159@gmail.com

subjects are still the subjects with the most failing scores (Scores below 1 are called failing scores) (Ha, 2022). So, this situation is really considered a sad thing for society, when a subject that helps people understand their origins, arouses national pride, and patriotism is being taken so lightly.

With a society as strongly developed as today, the introduction of culture from abroad has never been so fast. If we do not develop a full understanding of our nation's history, will we be harmed and gradually forget our origins? The consequences would be truly perilous if this scenario were to unfold.

Students at ULIS Middle School, which has deep expertise in foreign languages, will probably also be the first generation of students to have a lot of exposure to the cultures of different countries. Therefore, studying History seriously becomes even more important so that students are not influenced or forget their origins before receiving information about the history and culture of other countries. At the same time, learning History well also helps students promote the image of the country to friends in many different countries through the language they are studying.

Because of these realities, this research was conducted to examine the current status of learning the subject of History of ULIS Middle School students. To consider whether students are having any difficulties in the process of studying History, and from there come up with more effective solutions in improving the quality of learning this subject.

2. Literature Review

2.1. The Subject of History

Regarding the concept of history, Peabody (1996) in the book “There Are No Slaves in France: The Political Culture of Race and Slavery in the Ancien Régime”, briefly summarized the meaning of History, he said “History is the story we tell it”, this implies that history is not just a list of events and dates, but it is also a living story that is a part of our lives. Victor Hugo in the book “Les Misérables”, originally published in 1862, gave a philosophical perspective on History when he said that “History is the echo of the past and the future, and the future is a reflection of the past”. Accordingly, history is not only the study of the past but also how we understand the present and the future. The past has created our present and will influence the future. Philosopher C. Marx in his book “The Communist Manifesto” published in 1848 provided a different perspective on history when he said that “History is a social existence from past to present”. He implies that history is not just a list of facts but also the struggles of social classes in the past, and it can help us gain a deeper understanding of society and politics. In short, History is a subject that studies the past of humanity, including human activities and human society. When we talk about history, we often explore and unearth events, incidents, and developments related to human life and society in the past. This means that history has a broad meaning and covers every aspect and aspect of society, and that is why an accurate and complete definition of history is often not easy.

According to Chi (2015), she pointed out that “students' attitudes toward learning History are expressed in three aspects: cognition, emotions and behavior”. In this study, students' attitudes toward learning History are often affected by a series of factors, but the most important factor is the content of the curriculum, followed by the teaching style of the teacher, learning motivation, habits, and self-study ability of students. These factors play an important role in forming and changing learning attitudes, and then the impact of other factors.

History is an important subject at the secondary school level in Vietnam, taking students on a journey to discover the past of humanity and society. The basic concept of History is the study and understanding of important events, and developments in History, from ancient to modern times. The content of the History curriculum at the secondary school level in Vietnam includes many important historical periods of the world and Vietnam, such as ancient History, Feudal History and Modern History. Students learn about important events such as the Russian October Revolution, World War II, and the Vietnam War. Students are also introduced to important historical figures.

2.2. The Current Situation of Learning History in Vietnam

Expressing opinions on the morning of August 18, 2012 in Da Nang, the Ministry of Education and Training coordinated with the Vietnam Association of Historical Sciences to organize a National Scientific Conference on teaching History in Vietnamese high schools, Professor Phan Huy Le said “for Vietnam in particular, History plays an extremely important role associated with the survival of the nation. The young generation grows up through general education without loving the nation's history, without a necessary understanding of the history and culture of the nation and humanity, without a national confidence, without inheriting the national traditions, how can we adjust the qualities of Vietnamese citizens. From that characteristic, History must be placed in its correct position and function in the general education system” (Hieu, 2015). It can be seen that studying History, knowing about History will help future generations better understand the nation's history and inherit the good virtues and traditions left by our ancestors, thereby strengthening the spirit, improving good qualities, and contributing to build a stronger country in the future. As Professor of History Do Thanh Binh, Hanoi National University of Education, said in Dan Tri newspaper dated May 24, 2022 “No one can abandon nation's history, no country can abandon its national history. Therefore, in my opinion, History should be a mandatory subject” (Lien, 2022).

Currently, History is considered a mandatory subject in the general education curriculum and has its own advantages in human training. Because every Vietnamese citizen needs to understand the country's history, especially in the current context of modernization and globalization, Vietnam as well as other countries must always have an economic development strategy, culture, and education to “integrate” but not “dissolve” and study History to understand the past and better prepare for future life.

According to survey results of the research on the current status of teaching and learning History in schools across the country. According to Liem et al. (2018), 31.78% of students are indifferent when studying History, 13.17% of teachers are not willing to invest in their lessons, showing a sad situation that most students do not like studying History. Causes are found as the theory of History is dry with too many contents, numbers, milestones, and events to memorize. The unattractiveness of teaching method in class makes students gradually lose motivation to study History. Over time, History has gradually lost its advantage, even becoming the “obsession” of students in every class or learning only comes from the students' desire to study for exams. The challenge becomes evident when considering the obstacles posed by dry knowledge and tedious teaching methods in fostering students' love for history and facilitating effective learning.

Reflecting on the History learning of ULIS Middle School, effective History learning becomes even more urgent when students are early exposed to the languages and cultures of many countries and regions. By comparing and contrasting the culture and history of Vietnam with that of other countries, students can serve as a bridge to promote and introduce Vietnamese

culture and history in the foreign language they are learning to friends in other countries.

2.3. Innovation in Teaching Methods

Innovation is a very popular term today, innovation is the way that we create something new and different from what we have done in both quantity and quality, thereby creating significant changes and improved efficiency of the matter. Brewer and Tierney (2012) and Evans (1970) said that innovation is success in applying a method or creating new value. Innovation requires steps from starting an idea, then implementing the idea and evaluating the results achieved. For education, when we apply innovation to education, the innovation can be a new pedagogical theory, new teaching methods, equipping new teaching support tools, or innovating the learning process. The desired result is to improve the quality of training and improve student learning efficiency (Serdyukov, 2017). So how can efficiency be measured, it can be measured by time and cost. Specifically, if the same results are achieved in less time and at less cost, it is considered effective. On the other hand, efficiency is when we can achieve more with less effort (Serdyukov, 2017). The US Department of Education (2004) also mentioned the use of new technology in the classroom to improve the quality of education. According to Serdyukov (2017), innovation can be tangible such as the application of technology, but can also be intangible such as teaching methods, teaching strategies or teaching techniques. In fact, educational innovation requires active combination and coordination from many stakeholders including learners, parents, teachers, educational managers, researchers and policy makers (Serdyukov, 2017).

In the study on research overview on teaching innovation, Sivarajah et al. (2019) mentioned many innovative methods in education such as learner initiative in learning, and group work. Accordingly, innovating education to increase learner initiative and interaction between learners through group activities is considered to increase effectiveness in education.

With discussed evidence, it is clear to see the important role of improving History subjects. The improvement should include updating curriculum content, promoting innovative teaching styles, encouraging positive learning motivation, and supporting students to develop study habits. Therefore, the implementation of the topic “The current status of learning History subject: case study at ULIS Middle School” is extremely necessary.

3. Methodology

3.1. Research Objective and Data Collection

The topic is implemented with three main goals including, first, an overview of the current state of learning the subject History in general. The second is to show the current status of learning History of students at ULIS Middle School through a survey. From there, find out the reasons why students do not like studying this subject. Next is to point out the advantages and disadvantages of students in the process of studying History at ULIS Middle School. Finally, we propose effective solutions to improve the effectiveness of learning History at ULIS Middle School.

The specific scope is to research on 400 students studying History at ULIS Middle School. The research was conducted in April 2023. The final number of valid responses collected was 365 out of 400.

3.2. Research Methodology

To conduct an overview of the current state of teaching and learning History in general and the specific state of research at ULIS Middle School, the research used specific methods including document research methods, personal questionnaire survey method, and in-depth interview method to conduct the research. These are considered suitable methods for the topic.

The document research method helps provide an overview of previous studies on the status of learning History in general at different levels as well as in different environments. To have a complete and objective view of the problem. The personal questionnaire survey method helps to learn more about the current situation as reflected by many specific individuals. And the in-depth interview method helps to learn more about each aspect of the research, which is reflected in specific detail through direct interviewees.

4. Analyze the Results of the Investigation at ULIS Middle School

4.1. Analyzing the Advantages of Studying History at ULIS Middle School

Through interviews with teachers teaching at the school, the research lists the advantages of learning History for students as follows. Firstly, in terms of facilities, the learning environment is often well invested and equipped, including libraries, modern classrooms, and modern teaching equipment. This facilitates research and grasping historical knowledge through images, drawings, and reference materials. The system of classrooms and function rooms has adequate lighting conditions, projectors, air conditioning, central speaker system, age-appropriate tables and chairs, and a reading room. Secondly, regarding the teaching staff, a team of professional and experienced teachers in teaching History plays an important role in imparting knowledge and skills to students. Thirdly, in terms of learning environment, the learning environment is often very diverse and international, allowing students to be exposed to cultural diversity and communicate in many different languages. This makes learning History richer and more interesting as they have the opportunity to compare and grasp a global perspective of History.

4.2. Analyzing the Difficulties in Learning History at ULIS Middle School

Students at secondary schools nationwide in general and students at ULIS Middle School in particular are facing many challenges and difficulties in learning History. History requires students to master a large amount of knowledge, including memorizing historical events, important people, and date details. In addition, teaching methods are not creative, making students uninterested. To clarify the students' current difficulties in studying History, this study conducted a survey at ULIS Middle School. The first survey question is as follows:

“What difficulties do middle school students studying History encounter?”

Here are some key points from our research results, first, in question 1, when evaluating the effectiveness of the teaching methods that teachers are using in class, only 11% and 8% of students rated it as very effective and effective, 25% of students rated it as quite effective, 33% of students rated it as less effective and up to 23% of students rated it as ineffective.

Table 1*Evaluating the Effectiveness of Teaching Methods That Teachers Are Using in Class*

No.	Question	1	2	3	4	5
1	The level of effectiveness of the teaching methods according to students' assessments	23%	33%	25%	8%	11%
2	The level of memorization of knowledge based on the teaching methods according to students' assessments	34%	24%	19%	11%	12%
3	The level of attractiveness of the teaching method that according to students' assessments	39%	29%	20%	7%	12%

** Note: Level 1: Very effective; Level 2: Effective; Level 3: Quite effective; Level 4: Effective; Level 5: Not effective*

Second, in question 2, when evaluating their level of knowledge retention through the teaching method, only 12% of students think it is very effective, 11% of students think it is effective, 19% of students found it quite effective, while 24% and 34% of students thought it was less effective and ineffective.

Third, in question 3, when evaluating the attractiveness of the teaching method, up to 32% and 29% of students think it is ineffective and less effective, respectively. 20% of students thought it was quite effective and only 7% and 12% of students thought it was effective and very effective.

The above results clearly show the difficulties in the process of learning History at ULIS Middle School. It seems that most students are losing interest in this subject due to the hindrance of knowledge that is dry, boring, and cannot be applied to everyday life.

4.3. The Current Status of Teaching History at ULIS Middle School

Concerning the personnel in the History department, ULIS Middle School currently employs three teachers, comprising one regular teacher and two contract teachers. All History teachers hold master's degrees in History Pedagogy and have been recipients of national excellent student awards at the high school level. ULIS Middle School encompasses four grades: 6, 7, 8, and 9. Grades 6-7-8 are following the new 2018 general education program, utilizing the Kite textbook set, while grade 9 adheres to the old program for the History subject.

In grades 6-7-8, History is integrated into History and Geography, with different teachers responsible for each subject. Student assessment methods in History are diverse, encompassing regular and periodic assessments. Regular assessments involve various individual or group methods such as questions and answers, presentations, 15-minute tests, and project files. Periodic assessments consist of one midterm test and one final exam, conducted as written in-class assessments with a duration of 60 minutes for grades 6-7-8 and 45 minutes for grade 9. For the new curriculum in grades 6-7-8, History and Geography teachers collaborate to develop examination questions.

The quality of History teachers at ULIS Middle School is currently evaluated through professional lesson observations by the Team Leader and the Board of Directors. Additionally, student feedback is collected through a link form at the end of each semester.

In this way, it can be seen that the quality of the teachers currently teaching history is very good. However, in terms of teaching methods, there doesn't seem to be any notable

innovation, and the approach remains quite traditional.

4.4. In-depth Interview Analysis

In direct interviews with students, most shared that History requires them to remember a lot of knowledge and events, while also having to deal with limited study time. In addition, most teachers are relying on textbooks as their main materials, and most teaching methods focus on copying information mechanically. Testing and assessment also focuses on memorizing many details about historical events, which makes the subject dry and unattractive.

The problem lies in stimulating thinking and creativity, as well as connecting historical knowledge with students’ daily lives. To improve this situation, teachers may need to consider more flexible teaching methods, including using diverse learning materials and developing more diverse assessment methods to ensure excitement and continuity. Collect more effectively from students.

On the other hand, our research conducted direct interviews with teachers teaching History at ULIS Middle School. According to the survey results, it can be seen that the general situation in teaching History today is that teachers mainly teach History through textbooks (a few teachers use electronic lectures or illustrative videos). At the same time, there are two common difficulties that teachers encounter: one is that the distribution of the History curriculum is too heavy on theoretical knowledge, leading to frequent “burned lesson plans”; Second, it is difficult to design lively, attractive lessons that attract the interest of students.

4.5. Causes of the Current Situation of Studying History Subject at ULIS Middle School

To find out the causes of difficulties while studying History, we designed the question as follows:

“What factors affect the learning of History for middle school students?”

Table 2

Objective Causes Causing Difficulties in Learning History for Students

No.	Causes	Much effect		Less effect		No effect	
		Obs.	%	Obs.	%	Obs.	%
1	Teaching methods are not appropriate	301	82%	50	14%	14	4%
2	The subject content is abstract and complex	215	59%	125	34%	25	7%
3	Interest and vision of History	204	56%	102	28%	59	16%
4	Lack of documents and rich resources	182	50%	108	30%	75	20%
5	Curriculum and textbooks lack creativity and are boring	255	70%	82	22%	28	8%

From the results of this question, we find that the objective cause is inappropriate teaching methods that cause the most difficulties in learning History for middle school students. The majority of students, i.e., 82% of the total students, said that this cause greatly affects their learning activities. This means that they feel the current method of teaching History is inappropriate or does not meet their learning needs. 14% of the total number of students said

that this cause had little impact on their learning activities, possibly because they found some teaching methods still partly useful but lacking in perfection. Only 4% of the total number of students said that this cause did not affect their learning activities. This may be because they have a unique learning style or feel that the History teaching method being applied is appropriate.

Another external reason is that “the curriculum and textbooks lack creativity and are boring” which also affects the learning activities of middle school students. This reason also plays an important role in causing difficulties in studying History for middle school students. One of the weaknesses of History curriculum and textbooks is the lack of creativity in presenting information. Frequently, they tend to present the content in a monotonous and rather theoretical manner, unable to imagine the actual connection of History with current life. This makes the learning process boring and difficult to attract students’ interest. Lack of integration between images, maps, charts, and text is also an issue. When relying solely on historical texts and figures, students may feel lost and have difficulty understanding and visualizing historical events and concepts. This can lead to studying History becoming quite dry and uninteresting.

Other reasons such as abstract and complex subject content, interest and vision about History also affect students' learning activities. History subject often involves abstract concepts and events, sometimes very complex, making it difficult for students to understand and absorb information. Having to grasp historical events, and historical thinking can be a challenge for middle school students. To solve this problem, appropriate teaching methods are needed to help students visualize and better understand historical concepts and events. In addition, students' "Interest and vision about history" is also an important factor. If students lack interest and vision in History, they may not seek out further information, do their own research, or participate in extracurricular activities related to History. This can lead to studying History becoming a forced and uninteresting task. To overcome this problem, teachers and schools can create opportunities to explore and promote students' vision of History through hands-on, discussion, and interesting history-related activities.

In addition, we also found subjective causes causing psychological difficulties in the learning activities of history for middle school students, including 7 basic causes with uneven levels of influence.

Table 3

Subjective Causes of Difficulties in Learning History for Students at ULIS Middle School

No.	Causes	Much effect		Less effect		No effect	
		<i>Obs.</i>	%	<i>Obs.</i>	%	<i>Obs.</i>	%
1	Due to timidity, lack of confidence, lack of personal motivation	106	29%	217	59%	42	12%
2	Due to lack of time for self-study and research	231	63%	81	22%	53	15%
3	Because I haven't found a suitable learning method yet	286	78%	68	19%	11	3%
4	Due to lack of encouragement and care from family	53	15%	74	20%	238	65%

5	Due to the pressure of studying and taking exams	272	75%	56	10%	37	10%
6	Due to lack of interest in studying	248	68%	63	17%	54	15%
7	Due to being attracted to social relationships/other activities	46	12%	72	20%	247	68%

For the reason “Because I haven't found a suitable learning method yet”, 78% of students said they had difficulty finding a suitable learning method for History. This may indicate that many students are having difficulty self-managing their studies and determining how to study History effectively. 19% of students think this problem has little impact on their learning activities. This may reflect some students' confidence in finding appropriate learning methods, or it may be that they had support from teachers or additional learning resources. Only 3% of the total number of students said that this cause did not affect their learning activities. This may be because they have found a suitable learning method and are able to manage their time and study materials well.

Besides, reasons such as “Due to the pressure of studying and taking exams”, “Due to timidity, lack of confidence, lack of personal motivation” also greatly affect students' learning activities. Middle school students often face pressure from important exams such as the 10th grade entrance exam or the middle school graduation exam. Part of the reason is that favoring other subjects such as Math, Science, or English can help them achieve higher scores and is considered more important for the future career. Furthermore, if the way History is taught is not attractive and lacks connection to modern life, students may lose interest and find this subject unnecessary. History can be intimidating for some students, especially those who feel they do not have the ability or knowledge to succeed in the subject. Lack of self-confidence and personal motivation can make them feel uninterested or unconfident in their ability to learn History. This poses a challenge for teachers and education systems to create conditions for students to feel confident and motivate them to develop interest and motivation in the subject.

In addition, the reasons “Due to lack of interest in learning” and “Due to lack of time for self-study and research” also more or less affect the learning status. The reason “Due to lack of interest in learning” is often an important obstacle in learning History. History often involves learning a fair number of events, dates, and names, and if students don't find the topic interesting or relevant, they can easily lose interest and pay attention to the subject. This can make studying effectively more difficult. Besides, the reason “Lack of time for self-study and research” can also be a cause of difficulty in learning History. Students are often faced with many subjects and extracurricular activities, which can limit the time they have for independent research and study of History. This is especially important when it comes to learning about specific topics in depth or preparing for tests and exams.

The reason that least affects students' history learning activities is “Due to being attracted to social relationships/other activities” with 12% saying it has a lot of influence, 20% saying it has a little influence, and 68% said it had no effect.

5. Propose Solutions to Improve the Learning Situation of History Subject

Regarding proposed solutions, the research conducted in-depth interviews with teachers who are teaching History and students at ULIS Middle School about “What solutions should be applied to secondary school students, to improve the effectiveness of teaching and learning

at school?”, the interview results showed a number of suggested solutions from the interviewer, literature review such as the studies of Serdyukov (2017), Sivarajah et al. (2019), Brewer and Tierney (2012) and Evans (1970), and at the same time from the perspective of the researchers are as follows:

5.1. On the Social Side

The Ministry of Education and Training needs to invest in educational equipment, pedagogical equipment and regularly train and foster History teachers.

To promote effective learning of History, the education sector at all levels needs to: (i) increase investment in pedagogical equipment and regularly train, foster History teachers, and support active teaching methods; (ii) create a favorable environment for teachers to boldly innovate pedagogical methods; (iii) pay attention to and improve the working conditions of teachers, and have reasonable remuneration policies so that they can constantly improve the quality of teaching History. Besides, salary is always a topic that causes a lot of negative feedback in the education sector today when the basic salary of a history teacher does not meet their basic living needs. Because of low income, many teachers have to choose to quit their profession to find other jobs with higher salaries. It is the current situation of teachers' salaries that causes students to think a lot when choosing a major as history teacher education and the number of History teachers has decreased.

5.2. On the School Side

To improve the quality of teaching History for students at ULIS Middle School, it is proposed a series of specific and comprehensive solutions as follows. The school should review and update the History curriculum to ensure that it reflects trends and developments in the field. The program needs to be designed to be interesting and relevant to students' modern lives, while also enabling them to grasp basic and in-depth historical knowledge. It is recommended using educational technology such as computers, electronic whiteboards, and online materials to enrich lectures and help students interact with historical information. Technology can create engaging learning environments and encourage students to research and self-study. The school should encourage organizing extracurricular activities such as visiting museums, historical sites or even organizing historical competitions or exhibitions. These activities help students experience reality and apply historical knowledge to everyday life. The school encourages students to participate in competitions, research projects, or write essays on important historical topics. This helps them develop their research and creative skills and fosters a passion for History.

5.3. On the Teacher's Side

The first suggestion is that teachers should focus on consolidating and optimizing the curriculum to reduce the load of knowledge, focusing on the most important and interesting aspects. This makes it easier for lecturers to analyze and convey historical knowledge. Important aspects such as the development of society, culture and important historical events should be given priority. Teachers should also use a variety of teaching methods such as games, discussions, practice, or reference materials outside of textbooks. This helps students find the subject more interesting and they have the opportunity to apply knowledge in practice. For example, teachers use role-playing games to teach about the August Revolution of 1945. Students can assign roles to historical figures and participate in a fictional meeting at the Congress that founded the Socialist Republic of Vietnam. Through this game, students not only

gain a deeper understanding of historical events but also find it interesting and actively participate. Invest time in designing lively and engaging lessons. Teachers, in addition, can use photos, videos, actual historical documents such as notes, paintings, or interesting stories. This helps students visualize and connect more easily with events and people in History. Furthermore, teachers should proactively create an environment for students to participate in discussions about historical events and ask exploratory questions. Besides, they should encourage students to self-reflect and criticize to build awareness and critical thinking. Finally, today, the application of technology in teaching is no longer strange, so teachers should use more technology in teaching including electronic lessons, social media, and online resources. Technology can actually make studying History more interesting and help students access information more easily.

5.4 On the Student's Side

To improve History learning without causing boredom for ULIS Middle School students, the following solutions are proposed. Firstly, students should proactively apply and exploit information and technology media such as videos, documentaries, and related applications to learn about historical events. Students should be more active in learning History through some outdoor activities or combine history with culture and language subjects to promote multidimensional understanding. Students should create discussion groups, participate in games, and ask questions together to stimulate thinking and curiosity. Next, students can use interesting materials such as historical maps or play historical games to create fun, helping to better understand events and battles in Vietnamese History.

6. Conclusion

The Ministry of Education has promoted updating History teaching content and made History a mandatory subject in the curriculum. These changes have significantly affected the process of teaching and learning History for students at all levels. The main goal of this study is to provide detailed information about the current situation of learning History in general and specifically at ULIS Middle School. Furthermore, this study also analyzes and evaluates the current status of learning History and propose methods to improve the quality of learning and teaching.

Regarding the current situation, the study has tried to fully describe the current situation of learning History of students at ULIS Middle School. Based on theoretical and practical research, the authors have proposed a series of specific measures to improve the effectiveness of historical learning at ULIS Middle School. These solutions include improving facilities, pedagogical equipment, teaching methods, promoting learning motivation, changing learning attitudes and proposing different specific measures to ensure that students have the opportunity to learn History effectively and that their learning performance is improved.

The findings of this study are expected to be applied and implemented at ULIS Middle School for the sake of improving the quality of learning History. However, this research also has some limitations and shortcomings such as lack of in-dept research into each research subject group. Those shortcomings are expected to be improved in another research in the near future.

Acknowledgments

This research was funded by VNU University of Languages and International Studies (VNU-ULIS) in the project No. N.23.07.

References

- Brewer, D. J., & Tierney, W. G. (2011). Barriers to innovation in US higher education. *Reinventing higher education: The promise of innovation*, 11-40.
- Chi, T. Q. H. (2015). *Attitude to learning History of Hanoi High School students*. Hanoi National University. https://repository.vnu.edu.vn/flowpaper/simple_document.php?subfolder=13/30/94/&doc=133094686971485739541216349310604712246&bitsid=b9e1e32a-bafd-4dc0-9a44-4df1a4158579&uid=
- Evans, R., & Leppmann, P. (1970). *Resistance to Innovation in Higher Education*. Jossey-Bass Publishers Inc.
- Ha T. (2022). *The consequences are unpredictable if we leave History subjects*.
<https://www.qdnd.vn/giao-duc-khoa-hoc/cac-van-de/he-luy-kho-luong-neu-xa-roi-mon-lich-su-692646>
- Hieu T. T. (2015). *If the subject of History were to be "killed", it would be a great disaster*.
<https://giaoduc.net.vn/neu-khai-tu-mon-su-se-la-mot-tham-hoa-lon-post162219.gd>
- Liem et al. (2018). *Improving the quality of teaching and learning History at the junior high school level of Binh Duong province - Current situation and solutions*. <http://sokhcn.binhduong.gov.vn/New/a-ten-nhiem-vu-nang-cao-chat-luong-giang-day-va-hoc-tap-mon-lich-su-o-bac-trung-hoc-co-so-tinh-binh-duong-thuc-trang-va-giai-phap-1748>
- Lien, N. (2022). *Professor of Analytical History: Why should History be a compulsory subject?*
<https://giaoduc.net.vn/neu-khai-tu-mon-su-se-la-mot-tham-hoa-lon-post162219.gd>
- Marx, K., & Engels, F. (2002). *The Communist Manifesto*, Gareth Stedman Jones (Ed.). Penguin.
- Peabody, S. (1996). *There are no slaves in France: The political culture of race and slavery in the Ancien Régime*. Oxford University Press.
- Resolution of the Second Conference of the Party Central Committee (term VIII) (1996). <https://tulieuvankien.dangcongsan.vn/van-kien-tu-lieu-ve-dang/hoi-nghi-bch-trung-uong/khoa-viii/nghi-quyet-hoi-nghi-lan-thu-hai-ban-chap-hanh-trung-uong-dang-khoa-viii-ve-dinh-huong-chien-luoc-phat-trien-giao-duc-666>
- Serdyukov, P. (2017). Innovation in education: what works, what doesn't, and what to do about it? *Journal of research in innovative teaching & learning*, 10(1), 4-33.
- Sivarajah, R. T., Curci, N. E., Johnson, E. M., Lam, D. L., Lee, J. T., & Richardson, M. L. (2019). A review of innovative teaching methods. *Academic radiology*, 26(1), 101-113.
- US Department of Education (2004). *What do we mean by 'innovation'?*
www2.ed.gov/about/offices/list/oii/about/definition.html
- Hugo, V. (2019). *Les Miserables*. Tre Publishing House.
- Wildavsky, B., Kelly, A. P., & Carey, K. (Eds.) (2011). *Reinventing higher education: The promise of innovation*. Harvard Education Press.

**THỰC TRẠNG HỌC TẬP MÔN LỊCH SỬ:
TRƯỜNG HỢP NGHIÊN CỨU TRƯỜNG THCS NGOẠI NGỮ,
TRƯỜNG ĐẠI HỌC NGOẠI NGỮ,
ĐẠI HỌC QUỐC GIA HÀ NỘI**

Đào Thị Tuyết Nhung, Nguyễn Hoàng Giang, Nguyễn Hương Ly, Vương Thị Hà,
Nguyễn Thị Linh Phương, Phạm Thị Minh Tâm

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

Tóm tắt: Lịch sử luôn là một phần quan trọng của mỗi quốc gia. Tuy nhiên, tại Việt Nam, việc học Lịch sử dường như vẫn còn gặp nhiều khó khăn khi học sinh chưa thực sự hứng thú với môn học và cảm thấy môn học khô khan, nhàm chán. Học Lịch sử tại Trường THCS Ngoại ngữ, Trường Đại học Ngoại ngữ, Đại học Quốc gia Hà Nội cũng không nằm ngoài thực tế đó khi đang gặp phải những khó khăn nhất định. Cụ thể, 56% học sinh được khảo sát đều đánh giá phương pháp giảng dạy ít hiệu quả, thậm chí không hiệu quả. Nghiên cứu cũng cho thấy, tính hấp dẫn của môn Lịch sử chưa cao và chưa tạo được hứng thú cho người học. Từ đó, nghiên cứu đã đề xuất một số giải pháp như: đầu tư bồi dưỡng đội ngũ giáo viên, phát triển chương trình, sử dụng công nghệ trong giáo dục, tăng cường hoạt động ngoại khóa, nhằm nâng cao hiệu quả giáo dục trong học Lịch sử.

Từ khóa: Lịch sử, giáo dục, cải thiện, nhàm chán, học tập hiệu quả

A CRITICAL DISCOURSE ANALYSIS OF RISHI SUNAK'S FIRST SPEECH AS PRIME MINISTER OF THE UNITED KINGDOM

Pham Thi Quyen*, Nguyen Ngoc Khanh An, Nguyen Thai Ha Anh, Nguyen Duc Kien

Diplomatic Academy of Vietnam, 69 Chua Lang, Lang Thuong, Dong Da, Hanoi, Vietnam

Received 23 December 2023

Revised 27 January 2024; Accepted 26 February 2024

Abstract: This research analyzes Rishi Sunak's first speech as the Prime Minister of the United Kingdom on October 25, 2022, through the lens of critical discourse analysis (CDA). Applying Norman Fairclough's three-dimensional framework, the researchers explore Sunak's speech in text, discourse practice, and social levels to unveil the underlying meanings and intentions behind his words. Through a micro and macro-level analysis of Sunak's use of linguistic devices, along with investigations into the discourse practice and social context of the speech, the researchers discover Sunak's commitment to: (1) addressing the UK's pressing issues, prioritizing economic stability, and strengthening key policy areas; (2) acknowledging past mistakes and emphasizing a willingness to learn from them; and (3) bridging the gap between the government and the British public and uniting the country during the challenging time.

Keywords: critical discourse analysis, political discourse, political speech, Rishi Sunak, the UK Prime Minister

1. Introduction

In recent years, critical discourse analysis (CDA) has emerged as a powerful tool for unveiling the layers of meaning embedded in political speeches. However, despite the growing prominence of CDA in the study of discourse, there remains a notable gap in the investigation of discursive and social dimensions within a number of Vietnamese scholars when critically analyzing political speeches. This study aims to fill the gap by bringing the lens of CDA to the inaugural speech of Rishi Sunak, the incumbent Prime Minister of the United Kingdom.

Regarding this speech, existing research has primarily focused on specific linguistic aspects such as speech acts, politeness strategies, and rhetorical triangles. While these analyses contribute valuable insights into Sunak's persuasive strategies, a lack of emphasis on the power relations imposed between Sunak and his audience, as well as the social implications and some other political intentions embedded in the speech, still exists. This study seeks to complement and extend the existing research by providing additional examination on vocabulary analysis, modality, logical connectors, textual structure, and social determinants of the speech, which could be done by applying Norman Fairclough's three-dimensional framework of CDA.

Recognizing the socio-political significance of Sunak's leadership, particularly as the first person of color, born to immigrant parents, and practicing Hindu to assume the role of Prime Minister, this study aims to explore the linguistic devices employed in his inaugural

* Corresponding author.

Email address: phamthiquyen.dav@gmail.com

speech to discern his ideologies and political intentions. The research primarily focuses on Sunak's inauguration speech on October 25, 2022, analyzing his use of language, grammar, text structures, and metaphor to convey ideology and political goals within the framework of CDA, especially Norman Fairclough's three-dimensional model.

2. Literature Review

2.1. Discourse and Political Discourse

Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA) is a specialized Discourse Analysis (DA) branch that focuses on understanding how language use in social and political contexts reflects and perpetuates social power dynamics, abuse, dominance, and inequality. Unlike approaches centered only on description, CDA seeks to explain discourse structures by examining social interactions and structures. Its primary focus is to unravel how discourse structures play a role in enacting, confirming, legitimating, reproducing, or challenging relations of power abuse and dominance in society. Van Dijk (1997) categorizes a discourse as "political" based on two criteria. First, if politicians or political actors produce the discourse, and second, if the nature of political text and talk is to accomplish political activities or practices.

CDA operates based on a set of core principles, including addressing social problems, recognizing the discursive nature of power relations, understanding the constitutive role of discourse in society and culture, acknowledging the ideological function of discourse, recognizing its historical dimension, and highlighting the mediated link between text and society. This interpretative and explanatory nature of discourse analysis is crucial to its effectiveness. CDA provides a potent analytical tool within DA, illuminating the intricate interplay between language and society. By examining language use in diverse contexts, CDA contributes to a deeper understanding of power dynamics, ideologies, and social problems embedded in discourse, thereby facilitating a nuanced exploration of the relationship between language and society.

2.2. Critical Discourse Analysis

2.2.1. Components of Critical Discourse Analysis

Discourse analysis (DA), as defined by Yule (1996), is "the study of language use with reference to the social and psychological factors that influence communication" (p. 129). Distinct from the traditional DA, **critical discourse analysis** is known as "an interdisciplinary approach to the study of discourse that aims to uncover and challenge power relations, ideologies, and social inequalities embedded in language use and social practices" (Fairclough & Wodak, 1997, p. 258). It goes beyond the analysis of language structures and focuses on how discourse reflects and reinforces dominant ideologies, social hierarchies, and power imbalances. CDA explicitly adopts a **critical** approach which is described by Wade and Tavis (2017) as "questioning, critiquing, and challenging assumptions, beliefs, and practices" (p. 20). While DA examines language use and social interactions, CDA emphasizes the analysis of power relations, social structures, and ideologies that shape discourse. CDA seeks to expose hidden power dynamics and challenge dominant discourses that contribute to social inequality (Van Dijk, 2009).

2.2.1.1. Power

In CDA, power refers to the ability of individuals, groups, or institutions to exert influence, control, or dominance over others. Here, power is not viewed as a neutral or fixed

concept but rather as something that is dynamic and contested. CDA aims to uncover how power is enacted, maintained, and challenged through language use and discourse, shedding light on how linguistic choices and communication strategies can perpetuate or challenge power imbalances (Fairclough & Wodak, 1997).

The types of power employed can vary depending on available resources, such as military or violent groups using coercive force, wealthy individuals with financial resources, or individuals like parents, professors, or journalists using their expertise or authority to exert more persuasive influence. Power is rarely absolute and may only be exercised in certain situations or domains. Subordinate groups may resist or accept power to varying degrees.

Reisigl & Wodak (2001) view language as not inherently powerful but acquires power through its usage by those in positions of power. Language plays a significant role in power relations, indexing, expressing, and challenging power. Although power does not originate from language, it can be subverted and altered by it in both the short and long term. CDA focuses on how linguistic forms are used to express and manipulate power, not only through grammatical forms within a text but also through the control of social occasions utilizing the genre of a text.

2.2.1.2. Ideology

Ideology plays a crucial role in establishing and maintaining unequal power dynamics, and studying it entails analyzing how symbolic forms convey meaning and how they are utilized in different social settings. In CDA, ideology refers to beliefs, values, and ideas that underpin and legitimize particular social, political, or economic structures. CDA emphasizes that ideologies are not simply reflections of objective reality but are often constructed to serve the interests of dominant groups and institutions. These ideologies can be present in various forms of discourse, including media representations, political speeches, and everyday communication. CDA aims to reveal how ideologies are embedded in language, shaping people's perceptions and influencing their actions. As it exposes dominant ideologies and their role in reinforcing social inequalities, CDA seeks to challenge and deconstruct these structures, fostering social awareness and promoting alternative perspectives (Fairclough, 2001). CDA analysts must be aware of hidden ideological positions in using words, such as when an act of war is defined as “peacekeeping”.

2.3. CDA's Approach to the Study

CDA encompasses various methods and approaches developed by prominent linguists like Ruth Wodak, van Dijk, Norman Fairclough, etc. They have brought to the study of CDA a rich diversity of analytical tools used to unveil the intricacies of language in social interaction. The researchers primarily employ Norman Fairclough's three-dimensional framework as it provides a holistic analysis of discourse, considering linguistic, social, and cultural dimensions simultaneously and its three-step approach is adaptable and flexible, allowing researchers at undergraduate levels to apply it to a wide range of discourses and contexts, including political speeches like Sunak's. Introduced by Norman Fairclough in his book “Language and Power” (2001), the framework consists of three dimensions:

(1) Textual Analysis (Description): The first dimension involves a detailed analysis of the linguistic features and structures present in the discourse. Fairclough suggests a set of 10 questions for analysts to work on when discovering linguistic elements (see **Appendix 2**). In the analysis of vocabulary and grammar, Fairclough questions their experiential, relational, and expressive values. Experiential values reflect the producer's knowledge, beliefs, and experiences; relational values pertain to the participants' social interactions and power

dynamics, and expressive values are associated with the producer's attitudes, emotions, and evaluations.

(2) Discursive Practice (Interpretation): The second dimension broadens the analysis to consider discursive practices in specific social contexts. This second step of the study examines how discourse is produced and consumed within institutions and social settings.

(3) Social Practice (Explanation): The third dimension expands the analysis further to explore the broader social context in which discourse is situated. This last step of the study considers the social effects of discourse and how language contributes to reinforcing or challenging social structures.

2.4. Review of Previous Studies

2.4.1. CDA Studies in Vietnam

In Vietnam, critical discourse analysis gained its unique position relatively later than those in the world. CDA became increasingly popular among Vietnamese scholars in the last decades, thanks to H. Nguyen's revolutionary publication (2006) "Phân tích diễn ngôn phê phán: Lý luận và Phương pháp" (Critical Discourse Analysis: Theory and Methodology). The book has been a major source of inspiration and the go-to resource for anyone interested in discourse analysis approaches, along with the studies that he has shown in his lectures, especially in postgraduate courses at ULIS, one of the greatest institutions for studies of foreign languages in Vietnam (Ton Nu & Hoang, 2023).

Since the 2010s decade, it has witnessed a trend of CDA and CDA-related studies for post-graduate scholars. However, preoccupied CDA studies only directed their focus on the first dimension of the CDA which is text analysis while not deeply analyzing or completely ignoring the two other dimensions which are discourse practice and social analysis (Nhat & Hien, 2023).

For instance, the study "A Critical Discourse Analysis of President Obama's 9/11 Memorial Address" published in TNU Journal of Science and Technology by Nguyen Duong Ha and Tran Thi Phuong (2022) applied the Three-dimensional framework by Fairclough in their paper. The study has identified and analyzed power and ideologies through lexical and grammatical devices as well as the macrostructure of the speech. Yet, their study did not conduct further to the other two dimensions, which are discursive practice (interpretation) and social analysis (explanation) which restrained the capability of the research to figure out the background context of the speech to the ideologies and power implemented in the speech. Moreover, as the dimension of explanation was not utilized, it was unknown whether or not the ideologies and power found in the speech affected society and vice versa. The authors are well aware of the previous studies' drawbacks and endeavor to overcome these by providing a more comprehensive analysis of the other two dimensions.

2.4.2. Studies Relating to Sunak's First Speech as the PM of the UK

Until this paper was conducted, only one research paper chose Rishi Sunak's speech for linguistic analysis. In the study "Speech act-based legitimation in selected inaugural speeches of British Prime Ministers" conducted by Buczowski and Strukowska (2022), the researchers analyzed and compared the pragmatic components of Liz Truss' and Rishi Sunak's inaugural addresses as UK Prime Ministers. Buczowski and Strukowska's paper's approach to CDA focused on significant pragmatic aspects of the discourses, such as Speech Acts and Grice's politeness strategies, as well as the theory of the rhetorical triangle in the inaugural speeches by

Rishi Sunak and Liz Truss, respectively.

Regarding the first speech by Sunak, Buczowski and Strukowska figured out that the speech mainly used commissive and representative acts. The two authors also analyzed the use of promises through the maxims from Grice's politeness strategies. Furthermore, the usage of pathos, logos, and ethos (key elements of the rhetorical triangle) from Sunak's speech were then identified and analyzed. The lexical density of the two speeches was also analyzed; however, not all key lexical items in Sunak's speech have been discussed, simply because the authors' goal here was only to compare to find out the similarities and different patterns between the two speeches.

Although key findings of the study have contributed greatly to uncovering Sunak's persuasive strategies, the power relations existing between Sunak and his audience have yet to be underscored. Thus, the authors believe Norman Fairclough's framework of CDA, which provides a closer investigation into other aspects such as modality, textual structure, the connection and interaction within the text, as well as the discourse practice and social aspects, could enlighten the unknown field of the relations between power, ideologies and the audience, the social structures that consume the discourse.

Besides, though their study did reveal primitive political ideologies from the speeches as parts of the results from analyzing linguistic acts and rhetorical triangles, certain aspects of them in Sunak's speech have yet been dissected. Hence, our study endeavors to generate the political messages, intentions, and ideologies implemented from the speech with a more complete and thorough approach.

3. Database and Data Analysis Procedure

3.1. Database of the Study

The paper intends to examine the political speech that Rishi Sunak delivered to the UK's citizens during his first appearance as Britain's Prime Minister at Downing Street on October 25, 2022. The full recording of the 6-minute speech can be found on Rishi Sunak's official YouTube channel¹, and the speech's transcript uploaded on the UK government's website² is utilized for examination in this study.

3.2. Data Analysis Procedure

The analysis of Rishi Sunak's speech follows an approach that integrates both qualitative and quantitative measures, primarily guided by Fairclough's 3D framework for CDA. The qualitative method is the major approach of the study. This is where a meticulous examination of the speech is conducted based on Norman Fairclough's dimensions of description, interpretation, and explanation. This procedure includes identifying linguistic elements, interpreting their meanings, and explaining the socio-political implications embedded in the discourse.

Simultaneously, a quantitative viewpoint is employed as a complementary measure which provides statistical information on the occurrence of specific linguistic features. This involves utilizing AntConc to conduct a frequency analysis of key thematic words and pronouns

¹ "My First Downing Street Speech" uploaded on Rishi Sunak's official YouTube channel: <https://youtu.be/870cznYcdX0?si=StpshXFCDg5pqwyg>

² Full transcript of Rishi Sunak's first speech as Prime Minister on 25 October 2022 uploaded on the UK government's official website: <https://shorturl.at/asSU5>

within the speech. In this step, a complete and accurate transcript of the speech is collected, uploaded on AntConc, preprocessed (by removing unnecessary characters, converting to lowercase, and handling punctuation) before a Word List that contains the frequency of the words in the corpus is generated.

4. Findings and Discussion

4.1. Text Analysis (Description)

4.1.1. Analysis of Vocabulary

4.1.1.1. Experiential Values

In his first speech as the Prime Minister of the UK, Rishi Sunak highlights a sense of urgency, accountability, and commitment as the new Prime Minister of the UK. The speech's main theme is Sunak's promises and measures in the work of policy-making that he is planning to conduct during his term. Regarding the central theme, specific words are used to demonstrate the willingness and commitment to fulfilling his promises and measures in the policy-making of the PM, such as "integrity", "professionalism", "mandate", "leveling up", and "embraces".

Sunak's speech also contains two sub-themes. The first sub-theme is the ongoing threats that his government is dealing with and endeavoring to resolve during his term. Particularly, they are economics, healthcare, welfare, and other relevant threats to the UK, namely the environment and security and defense issues. The second sub-theme of the discourse is about building trust, paying tribute to the predecessor, and uniting the general public and other political entities to overcome the struggles as a whole.

4.1.1.2. Relational Values

Regarding the relational values, the vocabulary choice of the speech also fosters the two relationships. The first relationship is between Sunak and the general UK public, which is shown through his commitment and willingness to bear the responsibility of the Prime Minister to fulfill the hopes and expectations of the public. The second relationship is between Sunak and his party, government, and other opposing political parties and entities. In this relation, it seems that Sunak is trying to erase the divisions and oppositions within his party and between political entities and parties to unite as a whole and together overcome the difficult times. The mention of Boris Johnson in the speech exemplifies the relation:

"I will always be grateful to Boris Johnson for his incredible achievements as Prime Minister, and I treasure his warmth and generosity of spirit."

Sunak expresses gratitude to the former UK Prime Minister, who oversaw the final stages of Brexit negotiations and the implementation of Brexit. This appears as Sunak's attempt to bridge the gap between different factions within the Conservative Party and the wider public, emphasizing that the mandate earned by the party in the 2019 election belongs to and unites all of them, regardless of individual differences.

4.1.1.3. Expressive Values

Firstly, in terms of the main theme's vocabulary, nouns like "integrity," "professionalism," and the verb "mandate" demonstrate the will and commitment of Sunak's government. The mention of "integrity" implies the government's commitment to honesty, transparency, and trustworthiness. Meanwhile, "professionalism" shows the government's commitment to a high level of competence, expertise, and adherence to professional standards.

The triple repetition of the word “mandate” throughout the text highlights the speaker's acknowledgment of the electoral mandate given to their party and their commitment to fulfilling the promises made in the party manifesto. “Leveling up” and “embraces” describes vividly how Sunak’s government was going to tackle their promises. The phrase “leveling up” refers to the objective of reducing regional disparities and ensuring equal opportunities and prosperity across different parts of the country, indicating a focus on addressing inequality. “Embraces” suggests a positive and proactive approach to Brexit, indicating a willingness to seize and take advantage of the opportunities it presents.

Regarding the sub-theme of challenging issues, he mentions the economic crisis, “energy markets and supply chain” destabilization, as well as the revitalization of economic growth. The word “profound” is used in the phrase “facing a profound economic crisis”, emphasizing the seriousness and depth of the crisis and indicating its significant impact and far-reaching consequences. Meanwhile, “lingers” in the phrase “The aftermath of COVID still lingers” suggests that the effects of COVID are persisting or remaining present, implying that they have not yet completely dissipated.

The term “destabilized” used in the phrase “Putin’s war in Ukraine has destabilized energy markets and supply chains” conveys that the war has disrupted or unsettled the stability of energy markets and supply chains, highlighting the negative consequences. Other issues such as environmental issues, migrations, social welfare, schools, and healthcare. Additionally, the word “mistakes” is used two times in “But some mistakes were made” and “But mistakes nonetheless” emphasizing Sunak’s realization of past errors and miscalculations in decision and policy makings of the past years, though they are inevitable.

In terms of the second sub-theme, the new Prime Minister of the UK uses “tribute”, and “restlessness” to pay homage to the predecessor, building trust as well as uniting the general public and other political stakeholders to overcome the current hardship together. Notably, Sunak shows commitment and willingness for the responsibility he is taking charge of as well as acknowledging the predecessor’s effort. Particularly, the word “tribute” in the sentence “I want to pay tribute to my predecessor Liz Truss” indicates a show of respect, admiration, and acknowledgment for the previous Prime Minister's efforts. Furthermore, “restlessness” in “I admired her restlessness for creating change” suggests a sense of eagerness, drive, and determination to bring about change, portraying it in a positive light. In addition, the double usage of “trust” in “Trust is earned.” and in “I have work to do to restore trust after all that has happened” both show his values to the faith that the party and the people supporting him have in Sunak while acknowledging the responsibility to regain trust from British people.

Secondly, the phrase “I will” appears with the highest repetition in the speech, with 7 times being mentioned by the PM and mostly when he wants to emphasize his dedication and determination to fulfill the goals outlined:

“**I will** work day in and day out to deliver for you.”

“**I will** deliver on its promise.”

Also regularly showing up in the speech is the phrase “I understand”:

“**I understand** how difficult this moment is.”

“(…) And **I understand** too that I have work to do to restore trust after all that has happened.”

Here, Sunak acknowledges the hardships experienced by the public, particularly during the aftermath of the COVID-19 pandemic, the war in Ukraine, and the mistakes of his predecessor, which resulted in the faded trust in the government of the UK citizens. The

repetition of “I understand” reflects Sunak's willingness to listen to the concerns and experiences of the people he represents, signaling a sense of accountability and empathy. Through this strategic implementation of repetition, Sunak effectively establishes his credibility, appeals to the audience's emotions, and conveys a compelling vision for the future, thereby strengthening his message and encouraging support for his proposed agenda.

4.1.1.4. Metaphors

Given his previous role as the finance minister guiding Britain during the COVID-19 pandemic, it is probable that Sunak's main focus will be on reviving the UK's struggling economy and restoring the country's reputation within the investment community. When mentioning the country's economic stability and credibility of the government, Sunak refers to them as the “heart” of the agenda, implying that these aspects are the core values and priorities of Sunak's government: “I will place economic stability and confidence at the **heart** of this government's agenda.”

The metaphor “heart” is once again employed in the statement: “And the **heart** of that mandate is our manifesto”. In the political context, the manifesto represents the core principles and promises of the party. Sunak attempts to uphold the Conservative Party's manifesto and refers to it as the essence that keeps the political body alive and functioning.

4.1.2. Analysis of Grammar

4.1.2.1. Experiential Values

The SVO sentence structure is most frequently used in Sunak's speech, emphasizing the author's experiences and responsibilities and the actions they are advocating for. This structure positions Sunak as an active agent, taking charge of addressing challenges and priorities and addressing the citizens as “patients” who will benefit from his actions. The active voice is also regularly used in Sunak's speech, emphasizing the subject as the doer of the action. Accordingly, only 6 out of 47 sentences are in passive form, which accounts for nearly 12,8%. Meanwhile, the number of active voice sentences in the text is 29 out of 47 sentences, constituting approximately 61,7%. Sentences like “I will place economic stability and confidence at the heart of this government's agenda” and “I will unite our country” all follow the SVO structure and have an active voice, which conveys a sense of responsibility and proactivity.

4.1.2.2. Relational Values

Firstly, regarding his choice of modes, Sunak predominantly uses declarative sentences to communicate his commitments, intentions, and policy priorities throughout the speech. The declarative mode is characterized by making statements or assertions and presenting information as facts or beliefs. e.g., when the PM states: “I will place economic stability and confidence at the heart of this government's agenda”, or “The government I lead will not leave the next generation with a debt to settle”, clear assertions about his government's priorities and goals are shown. In political speeches, the declarative mode is effective as it can lend an air of authority and credibility to the speakers and influence public opinion.

Similarly, the declarative statements in Sunak's speech enhance his role as the new leader of the government, allowing him to present his plans, commitments, and promises with confidence and conviction.

Secondly, Sunak's use of pronouns is also notable:

Table 1

Frequency of Personal and Possessive Pronouns in Rishi Sunak’s Speech

Pronouns	Personal Pronouns	Times Appeared	Relative Frequency	Possessive Pronouns	Times Appeared	Relative Frequency
First-person	I	27	65.8%	My	4	17.4%
	We	4	9.7%	Our	7	30.4%
Second-person	You	6	14.6%	Your	5	21.7%
Third-person	He	0	0%	His	4	17.4%
	She	0	0%	Her	0	0%
	They	0	0%	Their	0	0%
	It	4	9.7%	Its	3	13%
Total		41	100%	Total	23	100%

The substantial usage of first-person personal pronouns, with “I” at 65.8% and “we” at 9.7%, reflects Sunak's focus on asserting his own role and the collective responsibility of the government. The frequent use of “I” highlights his personal involvement, determination, and leadership as the Prime Minister. It reinforces his agency and positions him as an active agent of change, while the use of the inclusive pronoun “we” suggests a sense of shared responsibility and unity, emphasizing collaboration within the government and potentially appealing to collective action from the audience.

The regular use of the second-person personal pronoun “you” at 14.6% and possessive pronoun “your” at 21.7% in addressing the audience reflects Sunak's intention to engage and connect with them on a personal level. By directly involving the listeners through “you” and “your”, Sunak seeks to establish a sense of inclusion, making the audience feel personally addressed, involved in his message, and in his government’s service. This strategy aims to create a stronger connection and elicit a more receptive response from the audience. This can also be seen as an attempt to establish a sense of accountability and trust. By addressing the audience directly, the PM takes on the responsibility of making promises and commitments to the listeners.

Moreover, speaking in front of the people as the new PM, Sunak holds a position of authority and influence. As the pronoun “you” is used to address the audience, Sunak establishes a power dynamic where he assumes the role of the communicator, and the audience assumes the role of the recipient. This dynamic can shape the interpretation of Sunak’s political intentions and the perceived relationship between the national leader and the citizens.

4.1.2.3. Expressive Values

To commence with, the use of modal auxiliary verbs in Sunak's speech serves to convey a range of expressive values and rhetorical effects. Modal verbs express possibility, necessity, obligation, or intention, adding depth to Sunak's statements and shaping the audience's perception of his political intentions. The modal verb “will” is used frequently throughout the

speech, with a total of 12 occurrences (accounting for 85.7% of the modal verbs used in the speech) showcasing Sunak's strong intention and determination to take action. Phrases like “I **will** work day in and day out to deliver for you” convey his unwavering commitment and drive to bring about positive change. The modal verb “can” accounts for the remaining 14.3% of the speech’s modal verbs, implying possibility and capability. Sunak uses this modal verb to emphasize what is achievable, particularly in the face of challenges: “I can bring that same compassion to the challenges we face today”.

Furthermore, the use of parallelism, where similar grammatical structures are repeated, reinforces Sunak's statements and adds a persuasive quality to his discourse. This is exemplified in the sequence:

“A stronger NHS. Better schools. Safer streets. Control of our borders. Protecting our environment. Supporting our armed forces.”

Apparently, parallelism used in the sequence highlights a series of policy priorities, amplifying their significance and reinforcing the author’s vision. It is notable that all the subjects have been elided in these sentences, and before uttering them, Sunak was referring to the promises of the Conservative Party’s manifesto. This leads to the alignment of Sunak’s speech with the core values and principles of the Conservative Party, which effectively showcases the party's focus on issues that resonate with their conservative ideology, emphasizing their dedication to strengthening essential sectors and ensuring societal well-being.

4.1.2.4. Connective Values of the Text

Connective values refer to the role of formal features in establishing connections between different parts of a text, providing cohesion to the discourse (Fairclough, 2001). In the case of Sunak’s speech, the researchers focus on the role of the logical connectors in helping Sunak establish his ideologies in the speech.

Firstly, the connector "but" is employed to acknowledge past mistakes or challenges while highlighting his determination to address them:

“**But** some mistakes were made. Not born of ill will or bad intentions. Quite the opposite, in fact. **But** mistakes nonetheless.”

Through the phrase “Quite the opposite, in fact”, Sunak contrasts the notion of “ill will” and “bad intentions” with a more positive perspective, highlighting his intent to distance himself from assigning blame. The conjunction "but" serves as a pivotal linguistic device here, signaling a shift that allows Sunak to underscore his willingness to address these mistakes constructively and demonstrates a pragmatic and balanced approach to his role as the new PM. The careful arrangement of these sentences enables Sunak to position himself as a leader who acknowledges past missteps, refrains from casting blame and instead focuses on the importance of learning from these errors for the betterment of the UK. Aside from “but,” the connector "and" are also used by Sunak in various sentences to suggest that economic stability, national unity, and dedicated work of the government are all interconnected and essential components of his approach:

“**And** I have been elected as leader of my party, and your Prime Minister, in part, to fix them.”

“**And** that work begins immediately.”

“Trust is earned. **And** I will earn yours.”

4.1.3. Textual Structures

The text's macro-structure focuses on the speech's broader organization and arrangement of content. Sunak's speech is organized around clear sections addressing specific topics or policy areas, accordingly, his government is shown as prioritizing economic stability and confidence, followed by other key policy areas like healthcare, security, education, and environment. The sub-themes focus on acknowledging past challenges, paying tribute to the predecessors, and uniting the country, consolidating his approach to governance. The sections at the same time follow a logical progression (e.g. starting with the challenges faced by the UK and then proposing solutions and policy measures; starting with acknowledging past mistakes and then outlining the corrective moves.) Thus, the speech becomes coherent and persuasive, guiding the audience through all existing issues and the government's intended responses.

The opening and conclusion of the speech are also noteworthy. Sunak begins with a powerful introduction where he mentions the King's invitation to form a government:

“I have just been to Buckingham Palace and accepted His Majesty The King's invitation to form a government in his name.”

This sets the tone for the speech, implying that Sunak now officially takes on the role of the leader. The speech later concludes with the same power as the opening, as the Conservative Party's core policies and values, as well as their commitments to lead the country forward, are reiterated by the new PM:

“We will create a future worthy of the sacrifices so many have made and fill tomorrow, and everyday thereafter with hope.”

4.2. Discourse Practice (*Interpretation*)

4.2.1. Situational Context

4.2.1.1. Contents

The question of “What's going on?” is proposed by Fairclough (2001) as one of the dimensions of a situation and can be answered by considering the contents, including activity, topic, and purpose of the discourse.

Firstly, the activity here is the act of delivering an official political speech that includes establishing a new Prime Minister's presence, outlining his policy direction, fostering unity and optimism, and encouraging public engagement in his government's agenda.

Secondly, Sunak's speech's primary topics revolve around (1) the UK's ongoing challenges (including the need for economic stability; the policies toward key sectors including healthcare, national defense, environment, and education), (2) his government's credibility, (3) the tribute to his predecessors, and (4) the unity of the country. This choice of topics can be explained by considering the social context of Sunak's speech:

Sunak's first speech was delivered amid a severe economic crisis in the UK, influenced by COVID-19 and the Russia-Ukraine war. Liz Truss's resignation as Prime Minister resulted from her policies, which caused financial market disruptions and a party rebellion. Her economic policies, centered around low-tax and low-regulation measures, proved adverse amidst soaring inflation and weak economic growth. Sunak acknowledges these mistakes and refers to himself as the one to fix them.

At the same time, the UK's National Health Service (NHS) was facing challenges such as high waiting rates and potential strikes by healthcare workers over pay and working conditions. The new Prime Minister bears the responsibility to address these issues and find

solutions to improve NHS functioning.

Regarding assistance to Ukraine and the country's defense spending, while running for leadership in the summer, Sunak said he would maintain the support of the UK and would visit Kyiv soon if he won the election ("Rishi Sunak: The Most Urgent Problems Facing the New Prime Minister," 2022). However, with rising energy costs aggravating the lives of Britons, Sunak needs to do much to convince voters to accept the reality that their financial hardship is the price to pay for the defense of Ukraine. In other key areas, the UK was also facing challenges such as illegal immigration, strikes over pay, and climate change.

Before Sunak, the credibility of Tory leaders had been tarnished. Aside from Liz Truss and her failed financial policies, her predecessor - Boris Johnson's handling of the Chris Pincher scandal was the final straw. Surviving a party vote of no confidence and being fined for violating COVID-19 restrictions during the lockdown weakened his standing. Now assuming the role of Prime Minister, Sunak shoulders the responsibility of rebuilding public trust in the Conservative Party's leadership and addressing Brexit-related concerns and grievances, not to mention the credibility the new PM has to build as he became the leader of the UK without a national vote, at the age of 42, and after only seven years serving as an MP.

Regarding Brexit, the UK's economic woes cannot be entirely attributed to the exit, but its effects were becoming clearer as the country struggled in indicators such as business investment and trade recovery. The economy was lagging behind other G7 nations, and predictions suggested a significant GDP loss due to Brexit (Partington, 2023). Moreover, as the new PM, Sunak must find a solution to the Northern Ireland protocol, a complex issue that has escalated beyond technicalities due to his predecessors' actions.

Amid the social context mentioned above, the purposes of Sunak's speech are multifaceted. It aims to (1) outline Sunak's government's policy priorities and promises, (2) gain the support of diverse groups present in the audience, including voters, party members, and various social sectors of the UK, (3) inspire trust and confidence in the government's ability to deliver on its promises, and (4) emphasize the collective responsibility and shared mandate of the government and the public in building a prosperous future for all citizens.

4.2.1.2. Subjects

In the case of Sunak's speech, the primary individuals involved in the speech are Rishi Sunak himself as the newly appointed Prime Minister of the UK and the audience consisting of the UK's general public, political stakeholders, and decision-makers who are incredibly crucial for being the recipients of Sunak's message and playing a role in shaping the reception and impact of the speech.

Additionally, while not explicitly mentioned in the speech, there are implied actors such as political advisors, Conservative Party members, and other government officials who contribute to the formulation and support of Sunak's position as Prime Minister.

4.2.1.3. Relations

As discussed in section 4.1.1.2 of the paper, the relationships incorporated in the speech are (1) between the government and the public, and (2) between the leader of a party and his party, government, and opposing political entities.

Regarding the first relationship, the speech demonstrates Sunak as a national leader outlining his government's priorities; the audience, on the other hand, as the recipient and evaluator of the speech. Embracing the role of the leader, Sunak highlights his accountability

while trying to bridge the natural gap between a leader and his people by the use of inclusive pronouns like "we" and "our" (as analyzed in section 4.1.2). Regarding the second relationship, Sunak's speech portrays him as a leader who values party unity, prioritizes governmental responsibilities, and potentially seeks opportunities for cross-party collaboration (the speech does not explicitly mention specific cross-party collaboration or engagement with opposing political entities, the phrase "I will unite our country" suggests Sunak's intention to foster a sense of unity that goes beyond party lines.)

4.2.2. Intertextual Context

Intertextuality refers to the impact of discourse on history and vice versa. It is utilized in political speeches to influence opinions and promote acceptability among the populace (van Dijk, 1997b). Sunak's first speech demonstrates compassion, determination, and focus on the future, aiming to restore trust and prioritize people's needs.

4.2.2.1. Historical Context

Sunak strategically infused historical context into his speech among the complex global scene, where COVID-19's persistent influence and the destabilizing effects of Putin's conflict in Ukraine continue to echo. The Prime Minister states, "Right now our country is facing a profound economic crisis... The aftermath of COVID still lingers... Putin's war in Ukraine has destabilized energy markets and supply chains the world over." These references demonstrate Sunak's awareness of historical events that have impacted the current challenges faced by the country.

4.2.2.2. Influence of Earlier Texts and Conservative Party Manifesto

Sunak's speech is based on the Conservative Party's manifesto, emphasizing unity, shared responsibility, and commitment to delivering on promises, also highlighting the party's policy goals and commitments. David Cameron and Boris Johnson's speeches share common themes of addressing economic challenges, emphasizing unity, and expressing a commitment to delivering on promises.

In his first speech as Prime Minister, David Cameron emphasized the importance of unity and shared responsibility. He stated, "I want to talk about our shared future, about the good we can do together, about the days when we can build a society and an economy that really works for everyone." In comparison, Boris Johnson focused his remarks on Brexit and the commitment to implementing the referendum decision in the phase that Brexit was nearly at the forefront of news coverage. He declared, "I will take personal responsibility for the change I want to see." Johnson emphasized hope for the future in his speech, which was marked by confidence and decisiveness. He said, "I will make sure that we leave the European Union on October 31st, no ifs, no buts."

4.3. Social analysis (Explanation)

In this stage, the researchers shall examine the potential social effects of Sunak's speech.

On the one hand, the PM's speech reproduces social determinants, and persuades and maintains influence, power, and relations between Sunak, the political leader of the Conservative party, and political actors, entities, the media and the general public of the United Kingdom.

The general public of the UK seemed to have reacted positively after his speech as well as the assumption to be the Prime Minister of the UK of Rishi Sunak. Particularly, a political

poll result conducted by Red & Wilton Strategies (a well-known British polling and strategic consulting company) on October 26th, 2022 (1 day after the speech) showed that the net approval ratings of Rishi Sunak and the Conservative party increased by 2% (Redfield and Wilton Strategies, 2022). Meanwhile, Omnisis (a well-known market research company in the UK) conducted a political poll on October 27th, 2022 (2 days after the speech). Its result showed that the net approval ratings of Rishi Sunak increased by 12%. Moreover, his party's net approval rating also grew by 2% compared to the statistics before the assumption of Rishi Sunak as the Prime Minister of the UK (Omnisis, 2022).

On the other hand, it also creates burdens, responsibilities, and duties back to Sunak. Particularly, it establishes responsibilities and duties for Sunak to repair ongoing issues and recover trust between the government and the general republic. Ten months after the first speech, the new Prime Minister of the United Kingdom's effort in his work seems to have achieved success or resulted in failures in various fields. Yet, one could clearly see that the PM has endeavored to fulfill many of the promises he made in the speech. In other words, the promises he made in the discourse have transformed into responsibilities, duties, and a compass for Sunak to keep him exercising his executive powers in the trajectory that he showed the public before. Additionally, it could be fathomed that it is the result of the two-way relations, powers and impacts between the discourse producer (Rishi Sunak) and the discourse receivers (political actors and entities, media and general public of the UK), which are also the social organizations, institutions, and structure in this case.

5. Conclusion

5.1. Summary of Major Findings

The researchers have identified several linguistic devices used by Rishi Sunak in his first speech as the UK's Prime Minister on October 25, 2022.

In terms of vocabulary, the author employs (1) words and phrases conveying urgency, accountability, and commitment to policy-making along with words expressing emotions and attitudes; (2) rhetorical devices including metaphor and repetition. In terms of grammar, the author frequently uses (1) the SVO (Subject-Verb-Object) sentence structure, (2) active voice, (3) the declarative mode; (4) first-person and second-person pronouns, (5) modal auxiliary verbs, (6) parallelism, and (7) logical connectors. Moreover, the broader organization of the speech also helps display the author's political intentions.

The use of the aforementioned linguistic devices, coupled with the discursive and social analysis, have clearly displayed Sunak's ideologies and political intentions:

Firstly, Sunak has shown his commitment, awareness, and willingness to bear the role and responsibility of the UK's PM as well as the new leader of his government and political party by addressing the speech to numerous ongoing issues that the UK has been facing up with. The lexical choices and rhetorical devices used throughout the speech evidently put economic stability, which is expected to embrace the opportunities of Brexit, as the top priority of Sunak's agenda. Following it are promises in other key policy areas, including strengthening the NHS, supporting the armed forces, controlling the borders, protecting the environment, and improving education.

Secondly, it is shown that Sunak has endeavored to reduce aggressions and divisions within his political party by gratefully paying homage to the previous PMs and emphasizing the core values of the Conservative Party. Sunak acknowledges that mistakes were made, and

simultaneously affirms a great extent of willingness to learn from past errors and take corrective action.

Thirdly, by making promises and utilizing rhetorical and grammatical features flexibly in the discourse, it is demonstrated that Sunak has been trying to erase the distance and cynicism of the British general public and media on the government. Moreover, Sunak's aim to unite the country to overcome the UK's hard times and head toward a brighter future is also conveyed through the use of linguistic devices.

In the end, the research sheds light on some initial, primitive ideas and thoughts about the two-way relations, power, and impacts between the discourse and the society, the discourse producers, and the discourse receivers.

5.2. Implications

The CDA of Rishi Sunak's inaugural speech has far-reaching implications, in that:

(1) It enriches the analyzed database of political speeches, ideologies, biases; discursive and rhetorical strategies used to influence public opinion and shape decision-making and political agendas;

(2) It could contribute to political and social criticism, enable discerning consumption of political discourse, and provide the public with an effective tool to consider their political decisions;

(3) It could hold policymakers accountable by highlighting potential discrepancies between words and actions.

5.3. Suggestions for Future Studies

This paper provides a foundation for future investigations into political discourse and leadership communication, the relations, and the two-way impacts of discourse on macro social structures, organizations, and institutions. On the aspect of Linguistics and Political science, more diverse comparative studies of inaugural speeches from different countries and exploring multimodal dimensions of political communication could provide a broader perspective on language's role in shaping national identity and political agendas. On the aspect of Sociology, more studies should be conducted to further analyze the relations and the impact of political discourse on social structures, hierarchies, institutions, organizations, and vice versa.

References

- Buczowski, M., & Strukowska, M. E. (2022). Speech act-based legitimisation in selected inaugural speeches of British Prime Ministers. *Scripta Neophilologica Posnaniensia*, 22, 25-37. <https://doi.org/10.14746/snp2022.22.02>
- European Parliamentary Research Service. (2022, October). *United Kingdom climate change policies State of play ahead of COP27*. European Parliamentary Research Service. <https://shorturl.at/uDOR9>
- Fairclough, N. (2001). *Language and power* (2nd ed.). Pearson Education.
- Fairclough, N., & Wodak, R. (1997). Critical discourse analysis. In T. A. van Dijk (Ed.), *Discourse studies: A multidisciplinary introduction* (Vol. 2, pp. 258-284). Sage.
- Nguyen, D. H., & Tran Thi, P. (2022). A critical discourse analysis of president Obama's 9/11 memorial address. *TNU Journal of Science and Technology*, 227(4), 195-202. <https://doi.org/10.34238/tnu-jst.5694>
- Ton Nu, M. N., & Hoang, T. T. H. (2023). Construction of roles, obligations and values in politicians' discourses on anti-corruption. *Cogent Arts & Humanities*, 10(1), 2249286, 1-20. <https://doi.org/10.1080/23311983.2023.2249286>
- Nguyen, H. (2006). *Critical discourse analysis - Theory and Methodology*. VNU Publishing house.

- Omnisis (2022, October 27). *VI-7 ready for Rishi*. https://www.omnisis.co.uk/poll-results/VI-7-results-28-10-2022?fbclid=IwAR20Bhz4S3c1HMGtEEEnXROJy6V4o_MS0Yr9HdkbL5jCfZb-LYd_6lq6vjWk
- Redfield & Wilton Strategies (2022, October 28). *Magnified Issue 54 – by Redfield & Wilton Strategies*. Redfield & Wilton Strategies. <https://redfieldandwiltonstrategies.com/magnified-email/issue-54/>
- Partington, R. (2023, January 31). Why is the UK economy doing worse than the rest of the G7? *The Guardian*. <https://rb.gy/hau0em>
- Reisigl, M., & Wodak, R. (2001). *Discourse and discrimination: Rhetorics of racism and antisemitism*. Routledge.
- Rishi Sunak's first speech as Prime Minister (2022, October 25). *GOV.UK*. <https://shorturl.at/byVW8>
- Rishi Sunak: The most urgent problems facing the new Prime Minister (2022, October 24). *BBC News*. <https://rb.gy/2sooq7>
- Sunak, R. (2022, October 25). *My First Downing Street Speech* [Video]. YouTube. https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=870cznYcdX0&list=PLz_B7q7BptAY0nWm7vsjFvJ7wBqN0UiNn&index=7
- Van Dijk, T. A. (1997). What is Political Discourse Analysis? *Belgian Journal of Linguistics*, 11, 11-52. <https://doi.org/10.1075/bjl.11.03dij>
- Van Dijk, T. A. (2009). *Society and discourse: How social contexts influence text and talk*. Cambridge University Press.
- Wade, C., & Tavis, C. (2017). *Critical Thinking: The Nature of Critical and Creative Thought*. Pearson.

Appendix 1

The entirety of Rishi Sunak's first speech as the Prime Minister of the United Kingdom (addressed on 25th October 2022)

Due to word count and length limitations, the authors utilize a QR code to access Appendix 1 of this study.



(Please scan the QR code for the entire PDF version of the speech)

Appendix 2

Fairclough's 10 suggestive questions for textual analysis in the Three-dimensional framework

Fairclough, N. (2001). *Language and power* (2nd ed.) (pp. 92-93). Pearson Education.

A. Vocabulary

1. *What experiential values do words have?*

What classification schemes are drawn upon?

Are there words which are ideologically contested?

Is there rewording or overwording?

What ideologically significant meaning relations (synonymy, hyponymy, antonymy) are there between words?

2. *What relational values do words have?*

Are there euphemistic expressions?

Are there markedly formal or informal words?

3. *What expressive values do words have?*

4. *What metaphors are used?*

B. Grammar

5. *What experiential values do grammatical features have?*

What types of processes and participants predominate?

Is agency unclear?

Are processes what they seem?

Are nominalizations used?

Are sentences active or passive?

Are sentences positive or negative?

6. *What relational values do grammatical features have?*

What modes (declarative, grammatical question, imperative) are used?

Are there important features of relational modality?

Are the pronouns *we* and *you* used, and if so, how?

7. *What expressive values do grammatical features have?*

Are there important features of expressive modality?

8. *How are (simple) sentences linked together?*

What logical connectors are used?

Are complex sentences characterized by coordination or subordination?

What means are used for referring inside and outside the text?

C. Textual Structures

9. *What interactional conventions are used?*

Are there ways in which one participant controls the turns of others?

10. *What larger-scale structures does the text have?*

PHÂN TÍCH DIỄN NGÔN PHÊ PHÁN BÀI PHÁT BIỂU ĐẦU TIÊN CỦA RISHI SUNAK TRÊN CƯƠNG VỊ THỦ TƯỚNG VƯƠNG QUỐC ANH

Phạm Thị Quyên, Nguyễn Ngọc Khánh An, Nguyễn Thái Hà Anh, Nguyễn Đức Kiên

Học viện Ngoại giao Việt Nam,

69 Chùa Láng, Láng Thượng, Đống Đa, Hà Nội, Việt Nam

Tóm tắt: Bài viết phân tích bài phát biểu đầu tiên của Rishi Sunak trên cương vị Thủ tướng Vương quốc Anh vào ngày 25 tháng 10 năm 2022, qua góc nhìn phân tích diễn ngôn phê phán (CDA). Áp dụng khung lý thuyết ba chiều của Norman Fairclough, nhóm khám phá bài phát biểu của Thủ tướng Sunak ở các cấp độ văn bản, thực hành diễn ngôn và xã hội để tìm ra các thông điệp và ý định đằng sau lời nói của ông. Thông qua các phân tích ở cấp độ vi mô và vĩ mô về cách Thủ tướng Sunak sử dụng các công cụ ngôn ngữ, cùng với việc phân tích thực hành diễn ngôn và bối cảnh xã hội của bài phát biểu, nhóm tác giả chỉ ra cam kết của Thủ tướng Sunak trong việc: (1) giải quyết các vấn đề cấp bách của Vương quốc Anh, ưu tiên ổn định kinh tế và tăng cường các lĩnh vực chính sách quan trọng; (2) thừa nhận những sai lầm trong quá khứ và nhấn mạnh sự sẵn sàng học hỏi từ những sai lầm đó; (3) thu hẹp khoảng cách giữa chính phủ và công chúng Anh cũng như gắn kết đất nước trong một thời kỳ đầy rẫy những thử thách.

Từ khóa: phân tích diễn ngôn phê phán, diễn ngôn chính trị, bài phát biểu chính trị, Rishi Sunak, Thủ tướng Vương quốc Anh

EXPLORING THE SOCIAL AND EMOTIONAL ASPECTS OF TEACHING AND LEARNING ENGLISH AS A FOREIGN LANGUAGE

Tran Thi Yen^{1,*}, Nguyen Thi Mai Huong², Huynh Anh Tuan²

¹*Faculty of Foreign Languages Education, Thai Nguyen University of Education,
Luong Ngoc Quyen street, Quang Trung ward, Thai Nguyen city, Thai Nguyen province, Vietnam*

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

Received 02 December 2023

Revised 24 December 2023; Accepted 26 February 2024

Abstract: Social-emotional learning has become crucial in fostering well-rounded individuals who possess not only academic knowledge but also essential skills such as self-awareness, empathy, and effective communication. Through prioritizing the development of social and emotional competencies, we equip individuals with the tools to navigate complex social dynamics, build meaningful relationships, and contribute positively to both their personal and professional communities. This journal article aims to explore the critical yet often underinvestigated social and emotional aspects inherent in the teaching and learning of English as a Foreign Language (EFL). Recognizing the multifaceted nature of language teaching and learning, this article aims to emphasize the importance of integrating Social and Emotional Learning (SEL) strategies into EFL pedagogy. The study conducted a comprehensive observation of Social-Emotional Learning practices which were used in a Grade 10 English classroom, utilizing the Social-Emotional Learning Classroom Observation Sheet adapted from the Rubric for 10 Teaching Practices that Support SEL, developed by Yoder and Gurke (2017). The observation spanned three weeks, covering eight periods of 45 minutes each, with a focus on ten common practices for promoting SEL. The findings reveal the teacher's strengths in student-centered disciplines, teacher language, warmth and support, showcasing positive classroom environment. However, areas for improvement are identified, including inconsistent implementation of responsibility and choice, self-assessment and balanced instruction. Implications include the need for consistent positive practices, explicit SEL incorporation, and a balanced approach for a dynamic learning environment in EFL classrooms.

Keywords: social-emotional learning, language learning, English language teaching, cognitive factors, non-cognitive factors

1. Introduction

Learning is a complex combination of cognitive and social interactions, individual beliefs and behaviors, physical and emotional responses, and the integration of prior knowledge (Blake & Pope, 2008). Unfortunately, in educational settings, there is often an overemphasis on cognitive development at the expense of other important domains such as social dynamics, emotional intelligence, personal beliefs and behaviors. This imbalance not only hinders the holistic nature of learning but also fails to recognize the complex interconnectedness of various

* Corresponding author.

Email address: yentt@tnue.edu.vn

dimensions that contribute to a comprehensive and well-rounded educational experience, as highlighted by Smagorinsky (2013). Therefore, the call to address this imbalance is not just about broadening the scope of education; it is about fostering an environment that holistically nurtures individuals, recognizing the interconnectedness between cognitive, social, emotional, and individual dimensions (Johnson et al., 2009). In this manner, educational institutions can create a more inclusive, adaptive, and effective learning environment that prepares students not only for academic success but also for the diverse challenges and opportunities of work and life (Durlak et al., 2011; Taylor et al., 2017).

One prominent framework for non-cognitive competencies is Social and Emotional Learning (SEL), which is increasingly acknowledged as a vital element of education. This recognition has prompted the integration of SEL into various education policies, curricula, and initiatives at both national and local levels. SEL is now considered a strategy to enhance students' academic achievements, addressing challenges stemming from non-academic issues, specifically social and emotional concerns. Extensive research affirms that the infusion of SEL within the school community improves students' social and emotional skills (Elias, 2006; Goleman, 2005; Zins et al., 2006). These refined skills contribute to academic performance, fostering positive social behaviors, goal orientations, emotion management, and social relationship-building skills (Elias & Arnold, 2006). Additionally, SEL helps mitigate behavior problems and psychological distress (Durlak et al., 2011; Taylor et al., 2017). Therefore, these skills are crucial for student success across various domains, including academics, personal life, work, relationships with family and friends, and broader societal engagement (Mahoney et al., 2018).

Learning languages such as English differs from learning other subjects due to its strong reliance on social interactions and emotional sensitivity, involving not only individual processes but also the dynamics between people in the classroom (Stevick, 1980). This unique nature of language acquisition emphasizes the importance of a comprehensive Social and Emotional Learning model. Such a model recognizes that success in language learning extends beyond cognitive aspects, incorporating social interactions and emotional experiences. In essence, the argument suggests that an effective language learning environment should embrace SEL, addressing both social and emotional dimensions for a holistic and successful language learning experience.

In the ever-changing field of language learning and teaching, there is a growing emphasis on the social and emotional dimensions. Therefore, in this article, we advocate for the incorporation of SEL strategies to foster a well-rounded language learning experience for students, emphasizing the interrelation between social-emotional competence and language proficiency.

1.1. Definition of Social Emotional Learning (SEL)

The term “Social and Emotional Learning” was coined by CASEL in the 1990s and is defined as the process by which individuals, both children and adults, acquire and apply knowledge, attitudes, and skills necessary to understand and manage emotions, set and achieve positive goals, demonstrate empathy, establish positive relationships, and make responsible decisions (CASEL, 2020). While the concept of SEL has gained popularity recently, it has been conceptualized for an extended period. According to Weissberg et al. (2015), SEL is an approach that can enhance intrapersonal, interpersonal, and cognitive competencies in students. Denham and Brown (2010) identified SEL as a significant influence on the quality of the

learning environment and a substantial factor impacting students' academic performance. Payton et al. (2008) described SEL competencies as skills that enable children to regulate their emotions, form friendships, resolve conflicts respectfully, make ethical and safe choices, and contribute constructively to their community. CASEL (2020) outlined five essential social and emotional competencies, namely

Self-awareness involves understanding one's emotions, strengths, and weaknesses, fostering self-confidence. *Self-management* focuses on regulating emotions, thoughts, and behaviors, emphasizing goal-setting, self-discipline, and impulse control. *Social awareness* entails empathy and understanding others' feelings, needs, and perspectives. *Relationship skills* involve effective communication, active listening, cooperation, teamwork, and conflict resolution, vital for building and maintaining healthy connections. *Responsible decision-making* involves making ethical, well-considered choices, taking into account potential consequences, considering others' well-being, and incorporating diverse perspectives into the decision-making process. These competencies collectively contribute to individuals' holistic development, enhancing their ability to navigate personal and social challenges.

Figure 1.

CASEL's 2020 framework of five core social and emotional competencies



1.2. Benefits of Social Emotional Learning (SEL)

A growing body of literature highlights the association between social and emotional competencies and subsequent success for students across various settings, including both school and the workplace. Durlak et al. (2011) conducted a meta-analysis of 213 school-based SEL programs, revealing notable positive effects. These included improvements in social-emotional competencies, enhanced behavioral adjustments, reduced mental stress, and better academic performance. Sklad et al.'s (2012) meta-analysis similarly indicated that SEL programs were effective in significantly reducing antisocial behavior and substance abuse. Focusing on core SEL competencies such as attitudes toward self, pro-social behavior, conduct problems, and emotional distress, Wigelsworth et al. (2016) confirmed the success of SEL programs in achieving intended outcomes in these areas. Taylor et al.'s (2017) meta-analysis, encompassing 75 reports from 69 SEL programs, demonstrated significant enhancements in academic and school performance. Recent findings from Corcoran et al.'s (2018) meta-analysis, specifically centered on academic achievement-oriented school SEL programs, highlighted that students in SEL-based classes exhibited more substantial improvements in reading and mathematics compared to those in traditionally teacher-centered classes. These meta-analytic studies collectively contribute to the compelling evidence supporting the positive impact of SEL on

various aspects of students' well-being and success.

1.3. Relevance of SEL in the English Classroom

In the field of EFL learning, Stevick (1980) persisted that success in foreign language learning depends on what goes on inside and between the people in the classroom. Arnold and Brown (1999) further explained what goes on inside people is related to personal emotional factors such as motivation, self-efficacy, self-esteem, inhibition, and anxiety; what goes on between people is related to group dynamics and classroom interactions. On the one hand, language learning is believed to be “inherently socially situated” (Vygotsky, 1978). Smagorinsky (2013) also argued that the social aspect of languages is important in teaching, for languages are used for establishing and developing social relations. Through these interactions, learners practice their language skills, receive feedback, and gain confidence in using the language. These skills allow individuals to express their thoughts and ideas, engage in productive conversations, and understand the nuances of different social interactions.

On the other hand, emotions are the heart of language learning and teaching, and there are various emotional or affective aspects involved in language learning such as motivation, frustration, confidence, anxiety, satisfaction, cultural appreciation, perseverance, resilience, enjoyment, and passion (MacIntyre & Gregersen, 2012a; Shao et al., 2013). Understanding and addressing these emotions can contribute to more effective and enjoyable English language acquisition. Therefore, it is vital for EFL students to be equipped with essential social-emotional competences. Being able to use emotional strategies, learners can lower anxiety, increase motivation, promote positive thinking and enhance self-esteem, thus achieving more effective language learning (Wang, G., 2005). Social strategies are also crucial as languages are social phenomena and are learned to communicate with others. Social strategies involve interacting with the speakers of the target language to improve the language, developing cultural understanding, cooperating with other people, understanding others' thoughts and feelings, and empathizing with them. (Oxford, 1990).

Although several frameworks have been built to guide research into the social and emotional aspects of learning, the field of EFL learning still requires a more comprehensive model so that these interdependent aspects can be approached interactively and holistically for a more comprehensive picture of students' learning (Hawkins, et al., 2004). Based on research findings (Durlak et al., 2011; Sklad et al., 2012; Weissberg et al., 2015), it is reasonable to believe that the Social-emotional learning framework developed by CASEL (2020) would play a significant role in English language learning outcomes. Findings from previous related studies (eg. MacIntyre & Gregersen, 2012; Shao, et al., 2013) have implied that each of the five social-emotional competences, i.e. self-awareness, self-management, social awareness, relationship skills and responsive decision-making, may all well predict EFL learning achievements.

1.4. The Framework for Positive Social Emotional Learning Practices

A review of the literature shows three general approaches that educators can take to implement SEL, i.e. explicit instruction, integration with academic subjects, and general practices that promote a positive learning environment (Dusenbury et al., 2015). Combining these approaches allows teachers to optimize their student learning by promoting authentic experiences that support the ways in which students engage emotionally and socially within the academic context.

When it comes to more specific instructional practices at the classroom level that

address social-emotional issues in their EFL classroom, teachers can refer to the Social and Emotional Learning Coaching Toolkit: Keeping SEL at the Center developed by the researchers from the American Institutes for Research (Yoder & Gurke, 2017). These researchers reviewed existing evidence-based SEL programs that focus on promoting students' academic, social, and emotional competencies, and eventually established ten instructional practices most frequently referenced across the SEL programs. These ten instructional practices can be categorized into the third approach, which is a general approach to creating authentic learning experiences. Although not an exhaustive list, these 10 practices are representative of general instructional practices that can be used in classrooms to promote a positive, engaging, and inclusive classroom experience for students and teachers.

Student-centered discipline involves employing disciplinary strategies that nurture student agency, allowing them to manage their actions, have a voice in classroom decisions, and regulate their behaviors and emotions independently.

Teacher language encompasses how educators communicate with students, emphasizing the importance of encouraging effort, acknowledging achievements, and providing specific affirmation to convey the potential for positive outcomes; such practices result in students using positive language, fostering motivation, task persistence, and the continuation or modification of positive behaviors based on the teacher's communication in the classroom.

Responsibility and choice in education involve instructional practices where teachers empower students to have a voice, make decisions, and take responsibility for their actions; teachers foster a learning environment by allowing meaningful student input into group practices, procedures, and content development, offering choices within the curriculum to instill a sense of ownership, autonomy, and intrinsic motivation, and utilizing strategies like peer tutoring or community service programs to enhance students' responsibility and contributions to the community.

Warmth and support in education pertain to the provision of academic and social support from both teachers and peers, fostering positive relationships and a sense of value within the learning community; educators employ strategies such as creating an inclusive environment, setting clear behavior expectations, promoting empathy, respect, and open communication, encouraging collaboration, and providing opportunities for feedback and encouragement, all aimed at cultivating comfort, security, and positive relationships among students and between students and teachers.

Cooperative learning involves students collaborating on tasks to create shared learning experiences, fostering positive interdependence, individual accountability, mutual success, interpersonal skills, and group processing. Effective implementation requires teaching communication and active listening through activities like group discussions and role plays, ensuring every student's participation while emphasizing respectful language and diverse perspectives.

Classroom discussions involve teacher-student conversations on course material, fostering open-ended questions and encouraging students to express opinions. Students, reflecting on their identities, actively participate when discussions are relevant, cultivating authentic interactions. This process enhances communication skills, consideration of diverse perspectives, and boosts confidence, as students deepen their understanding of content through meaningful engagement with peers.

Self-assessment and self-reflection are integral teaching methods that empower students

to evaluate their work, ponder the effectiveness of learning activities, and identify gaps between current and desired knowledge. Reflecting on progress, strategies, and adapting for future improvement fosters metacognition, self-awareness, and social-emotional growth. These practices, including journaling and group debriefing, cultivate students' self-awareness, agency, and social awareness, promoting responsibility in a supportive learning environment (Costa & Kallick, 2008).

Balanced instruction involves teachers employing diverse teaching methods to maintain student engagement, combining active and direct instruction as well as individual and collaborative learning. This approach fosters opportunities for extended learning, diverse content interaction, and enjoyable engagement. Encouraging active student participation through hands-on activities, group discussions, and project-based learning enhances critical thinking and develops essential skills like self-efficacy and collaboration (Hawkins et al., 2004).

Academic press involves teachers assigning challenging tasks to students who have mastered easier content, fostering a belief in students' ability to succeed (Rubie-Davies et al., 2006). It requires analyzing students' academic capabilities and emotional responses to challenging coursework. High academic expectations nurture students' socio-emotional competencies, promoting self-awareness, resilience, a growth mindset, and self-management skills.

SEL competence-building instruction involves strategically fostering social and emotional competencies like active listening and conflict resolution in students. The instructional cycle consists of goal setting, material introduction, group and individual practices, and conclusion/reflection (Muhammad, 2020). Integration of social and emotional competencies in each step reinforces targeted skills, with real-life scenarios and role plays aiding skill practice in a supportive environment.

2. The Study

The study aimed to observe and evaluate the integration of SEL practices within the specific context of English language teaching and learning. The overarching research question guiding this investigation can be articulated as follows: ***“How do EFL teachers effectively integrate and consistently implement Social and Emotional Learning strategies to enhance the social and emotional aspects of EFL teaching and learning?”*** This research question serves as the central focus for the comprehensive exploration of the varied strategies employed by EFL teachers to incorporate SEL principles into their lessons, thereby providing a more detailed understanding of the social and emotional aspects of EFL teaching and learning.

The participants in this study were selected using convenience sampling from a Grade 10 class, including both the teacher (n=1) and the students (n=47). Convenience sampling was adopted thanks to its accessibility to the researchers, considering the constraints of both time and resources. In other words, the participants, in this case, were conveniently selected based on their availability and proximity to the researchers. The selected class is considered regular, which means that it is a typical or standard classroom without any extraordinary circumstances or specialized characteristics. In this regular classroom, the teacher and students follow conventional educational practices. The rationale behind selecting such a regular class is to gain understanding into how SEL practices manifest in a typical learning environment. Ethical considerations, including confidentiality and informed consent, were prioritized throughout the study to safeguard the rights and well-being of the participants.

The data collection instrument used for this observation is the Social-Emotional

Learning Classroom Observation Sheet (see the Appendix). This tool is an adapted version of the Rubric for 10 Teaching Practices That Support SEL, developed by Yoder, N. & Gurke, D. (2017), as part of the Social and Emotional Learning Coaching Toolkit published by the American Institutes for Research. These practices encompass Student-Centered Discipline, Teacher Language, Responsibility and Choice, Warmth and Support, Cooperative Learning, Group Discussions, Self-Reflection and Self-Assessment, Balanced Instruction, Academic Press and Expectations, and SEL Competence-Building. The rubric was developed to observe and record the implementation of each teaching practice by teachers. The left column outlines indicators that signify high-quality execution of each practice. These indicators encompass both teacher behaviors and the expected corresponding student behaviors when the practices are implemented effectively. The right column contains discussion questions with the teachers associated with each practice, serving as valuable tools for planning, feedback, and reflection. However, due to time and resources constraints, the discussion section (the right column of the original rubric) was omitted and replaced by the column of fieldnotes, allowing the observers to take notes on various aspects of the observed practices during the study.

The middle column of the rubric allows for assessing the implementation of the targeted SEL practices, ranging from "Not Yet Present" to "Fully Present". A score of 1 indicates that the SEL practice is entirely absent, with neither the teacher nor the students displaying associated behaviors. A score of 2 suggests minimal presence, where some behaviors are demonstrated but infrequently throughout the lesson. A score of 3 signifies moderate presence, with the teacher and students inconsistently displaying associated behaviors. Finally, a score of 4 indicates full presence, where both the teacher and students consistently demonstrate the expected behaviors associated with the SEL practice throughout the entire lesson. After each of the observation sessions ($n=8$), a score (ranging from 1 to 4) was assigned to each of the SEL practices ($n=10$). Then, the overall score for each of the SEL practices during the whole unit was calculated by averaging the scores across all observed lessons.

The rubric was chosen as the data collection instrument for several reasons. Firstly, the rubric stands out for its specificity, focusing on ten essential teaching practices, which can ensure a thorough and detailed assessment of various dimensions of SEL implementation. Moreover, this rubric is known to be a well-established and validated instrument within the field of SEL. Its adaptation for this study ensures that the observations align with recognized and respected principles in SEL research. Therefore, the rubric serves as a comprehensive tool for assessing the integration of SEL within the Grade 10 English classroom, focusing on ten key practices to foster SEL, aligning with the principles established by Yoder and Gurke (2017).

Observations were conducted unobtrusively to minimize disruption to the natural classroom environment. The researchers observed both the teacher and students and at the same time captured the verbal and non-verbal interactions, emotional expressions, and engagement levels during EFL instruction. The observation period extended for three weeks, encompassing a total of eight periods, with each period lasting 45 minutes. This duration allowed for the comprehensive coverage of all eight lessons within Unit 2 (Entertainment and Leisure) of the Grade 10 English textbook. The focus on Unit 2 of the Grade 10 English curriculum aligned with the convenience sampling strategy regarding accessibility and time of observation. The deliberate inclusion of each lesson provided a thorough examination of the integration of SEL practices throughout the entirety of Unit 2. The extended duration was intended to grasp a detailed comprehension of how SEL principles were put into practice and demonstrated throughout different facets of the Grade 10 English curriculum throughout the period of observation. The study employs a qualitative approach to analyze data collected through

classroom observations. The process involves documentation of observed behaviors, with a subsequent coding and categorization phase based on the ten predefined SEL practices.

The study centered on the evaluation of SEL practices in a Grade 10 English classroom. The observation is limited to a three-week period, capturing a snapshot without aiming to discern long-term trends. Employing the SEL Classroom Observation Sheet, adapted from Yoder and Gurke's framework, the study emphasizes qualitative data from classroom observations to understand SEL practices. It examines the teacher-student dynamics, intending to provide constructive feedback and recommendations for professional development. The study intentionally restricts exploration of external factors, maintaining a single methodology with a focus on the defined educational setting.

3. Findings and Discussions

The observations carried out in the Grade 10 English classroom during the eight lessons of Unit 2 revealed a complex incorporation of social and emotional dimensions into the EFL learning atmosphere. The findings are discussed in relation to the selected ten practices outlined in the Classroom Observation Worksheet, including student-centered discipline, teacher language, responsibility and choice, warmth and support, cooperative learning, group discussions, self-reflection and self-assessment, balanced instruction, academic press and expectations, and SEL competence-building through modeling, practicing, feedback, and coaching.

Table 1 summarizes the major quantitative and qualitative findings regarding the assessment of the integration of SEL practices within the context of a specific English language classroom.

Table 1

Overview of the Quantitative and Qualitative Findings

SEL Practice	Overall Score (Average)	
Student-Centered Discipline	2.75	The implementation of student-centered discipline was moderately present but inconsistently applied.
Teacher Language	3.00	Throughout the unit, the teacher consistently used clear and affirming language, offering concise instructions and positive reinforcement.
Responsibility and Choice	1.38	Responsibility and choice were minimally present in the classroom, with decisions mainly made by the teacher.
Warmth and Support	3.38	The teacher consistently displayed warmth and support in the Grade 10 English classroom, checking in with students and appreciating their contributions.
Cooperative Learning	3.00	Cooperative learning in the Grade 10 English classroom, particularly during Unit 2, predominantly focused on individual and paired activities, with minimal inclusion of group work.

Group Discussions	2.25	Group discussions in the classroom were present but lacked sufficient teacher guidance, leading to potential uneven participation among students.
Self-Reflection & Self-Assessment	1.38	Self-reflection and self-assessment were rarely integrated into lessons, with teacher and peer assessments prevailing.
Balanced Instruction	2.12	Balanced instruction, combining active and direct teaching along with individual and collaborative learning, was inconsistently implemented in the Grade 10 English class during Unit 2.
Academic Press and Expectations	3.38	The teacher effectively communicated academic expectations, set high standards, and provided a well-rounded learning environment.
SEL Competence-Building	2.88	The teacher demonstrated effective modeling of social and emotional competencies, creating a supportive classroom environment. However, there's potential for further expansion, emphasizing ongoing, explicit SEL practices to enhance academic and socio-emotional outcomes systematically.

The subsequent sections offer a comprehensive exploration of the actual implementation of each of the ten SEL practices within the EFL classroom with detailed analysis, discussion, and presentation of evidence.

3.1. Student-Centered Discipline

The study indicates that the implementation of student-centered discipline was moderately present and inconsistently applied throughout the lesson and the whole unit. For instance, in the speaking and writing lessons, the teacher initiated a conversation with students about optimizing the classroom environment based on their preferences for seating arrangements. Students participated actively, suggesting ideas and engaging in collaborative discussions facilitated by the teacher. This approach empowered students to contribute to their learning space. Clear rules were established, including respecting others' opinions and meeting assignment deadlines.

Students actively participated in group activities, demonstrating engagement, attentive listening, and respectful contributions to discussions. They fostered a positive learning environment by supporting peers and promoting collaboration. Some of the students effectively self-regulated during a challenging task, managing frustration through deep breaths and positive self-talk. Some other students, after a reminder about classroom rules, acknowledged their mistake, accepted consequences, and returned to the task with a heightened awareness of guidelines. In a disagreement between two students, they independently resolved the issue through calm discussion, identifying the root cause and collaboratively finding a compromise for the smooth continuation of the group project.

However, the results suggest that the practice of student-centered discipline was inconsistently implemented. For instance, in the grammar lesson that focused on infinitives and gerunds, the teacher's instructional approach deviated from student-centered learning experiences. Instead of encouraging interactive discussions or incorporating students into group

activities to explore the form, meaning and uses of infinitives and gerunds, the teacher chose a conventional approach by delivering a teacher-centered lecture. In this lesson, the teacher carefully explained the detailed rules and usage of the infinitives and gerunds without actively involving students in discovering the rules and applying the newly introduced concepts. This failure to foster interactive and collaborative learning could potentially hinder students from gaining a deeper understanding of infinitives and gerunds and limit their ability to apply the knowledge in practical situations.

Additionally, when dealing with behavioral issues, there was a tendency for the teacher to rely on traditional disciplinary measures instead of using meaningful restorative dialogues. During the lessons, when students behaved disruptively, the teacher would immediately give verbal warnings such as *“Stop that behavior right now! If you don't, I will send you out of the class”*. In the reading lesson, for example, when one student used a mobile phone in the class, the teacher said: *“Put away your phones now. Mobile devices are not allowed during class. I've mentioned this before. If I catch anyone using them again, I will take your phone and talk to your parents.”* During the grammar lesson, when one student kept making noise, the teacher said: *“Please stop the noise. We need to focus on the lesson. If it continues, I'll have to take further action.”* In response to a student using bad words during a writing lesson, the teacher said *“We don't use bad words in this class. Remember our classroom rules. If it happens again, there will be disciplinary action.”* This reactive approach contrasts with a restorative practice where the teacher could have initiated a conversation with the student to address the root causes of the behaviors and actively involved them in finding solutions.

The described findings highlight the importance of implementing student-centered discipline in classroom management, emphasizing teacher practices and resulting student behaviors. This approach involves collaborative discussions, integrating student input into classroom rules, and empowering students with self-regulation strategies. The emphasis on teacher-student discussions aligns with collaborative and democratic classroom management principles, as advocated by Kagan (1994), fostering a sense of ownership and responsibility among students. Incorporating student voice in rule establishment resonates with restorative practices, supported by Morrison (2007) and Thorsborne and Blood (2013), emphasizing student input in conflict resolution and norm shaping.

3.2. Teacher Language

Throughout the unit, the teacher's language was clear and affirming, providing concise instructions. Positive reinforcement was observed, contributing to a supportive and respectful classroom atmosphere. In the observed Grade 10 English classroom, the teacher consistently practiced acknowledging specific positive behaviors among students. For instance, after a group activity, the teacher took a moment to commend a team for their effective collaboration, praising their use of language and respectful communication. The teacher also employed specific affirmation and reflective prompts to create a positive and motivating environment. Phrases such as *“Great to hear!”* and *“Excellent! That's a fantastic example”* were used to reinforce positive student contributions, fostering a sense of accomplishment and motivation. The use of affirming language, as exemplified by *“You guys did a wonderful job”* established a supportive atmosphere that encouraged active participation. When a student expressed difficulty, the teacher responded empathetically, stating, *“That was completely okay! Remember, every challenge is an opportunity to learn and grow”*. This quote highlighted the teacher's belief in the students' capabilities and framed challenges as valuable learning experiences. The instruction to *“take your time, and if you have any questions, don't hesitate to*

ask” reflected a reflective prompt that reinforced a sense of security and openness in the classroom.

In response to the teacher's affirmative language, students actively engaged in positive interactions with both the teacher and their peers. During class discussions, students utilized appropriate language, contributing thoughtfully to conversations. The observed teacher language, characterized by specific affirmation and reflective prompts, plays a pivotal role in shaping a positive and motivated classroom environment. The impact is evident in student behaviors, with increased use of positive language, heightened motivation, and a demonstrated willingness to modify behaviors based on the teacher's cues. For instance, a student who initially struggled to participate in group discussions began to adjust their approach, incorporating more collaborative language and actively seeking input from peers. In another instance, a student, who previously encountered difficulties maintaining focus during independent work, experienced a notable shift in behavior following specific affirmation from the teacher. The teacher's encouraging words, *“I saw that you stayed concentrated on your work today, Nam. Your hard work is clear, and it shows that you have good habits”* act as a motivating force for positive transformation.

The observed positive reinforcement and intentional use of language contribute to an environment where students feel recognized, motivated, and actively engaged in their learning. Extensive studies support the impact of teacher language on student behavior and learning environments, echoing observed practices. Deci and Ryan's (2000) Self-Determination Theory emphasizes the link between teacher affirmation and student motivation, meeting psychological needs for autonomy, competence, and relatedness. Positive teacher-student interactions, crucial for academic and social development (Pianta, 1999), are evident, reflecting Skinner's operant conditioning theory. The connection between teacher language and academic achievement, supported by Rowe (1974) and Rosenthal and Jacobson (1968), highlights its positive influence on a supportive learning environment, enhancing student engagement and achievement.

3.3. Responsibility and Choice

The practice of responsibility and choice is minimally present in the classroom. This is evident in the way decisions are mainly made by the teacher while students have limited freedom in their learning. For example, in an effort to integrate a more interactive element into the English class, the teacher decided to divide the students into small groups with the task of writing a blog post about their hobbies. However, instead of allowing the students the freedom to choose their own hobbies and collaboratively explore various interests, the teacher assigned specific hobbies to each group. The teacher also closely supervised each group, providing detailed guidance and a fixed format for the post. This deviation from a collaborative, student-led approach had unfavorable consequences. The initial excitement among students, who were eager to share their interests, decreased. The assignment, which was meant to be creative and self-expressive, eventually became more structured and controlled. Students, who might have been passionate about their own hobbies, ended up working on topics that might not necessarily interest them personally. The close supervision and specific guidance, even if well-intended, unintentionally limited the students' creativity and independence. Instead of encouraging a sense of ownership and enthusiasm, the assignment felt more like following instructions of the teacher.

The findings indicate a need for improvement in the consistent application of responsibility and choice practices. Despite instances of student engagement in decision-making, achieving consistent application poses challenges, impeding a complete embrace of a

student-centered approach. Strategies for increasing the frequency of opportunities for student decision-making and responsibility-taking should be explored.

3.4. Warmth and Support

The teacher frequently displayed warmth and support through interactions with students. The teacher occasionally went beyond academic concerns, expressing some interest in students' well-being and personal growth. The classroom environment was structured with an attempt to foster inclusivity and appreciation, creating a space that aimed to be safe where students were expected to make mistakes. For example, at the beginning of every lesson, the teacher took a few minutes to check in with individual students, asking about their well-being, both academically and personally. The teacher's remarks during these check-ins varied, with statements like *"How are you feeling about the lesson today? Any questions or difficulties?"* or *"Is everything okay with you? Anything you want to share?"* However, this check-in occurs irregularly and is not consistently integrated into the daily routine. The teacher could enhance this practice by incorporating a regular check-in routine, perhaps at the start or end of each class. This consistent practice would provide students with dedicated opportunities to share academic and nonacademic concerns, fostering a more sustained sense of warmth and support.

During a class discussion, the teacher acknowledged and appreciated some students' contributions, expressing enthusiasm for their ideas and answers. During the lessons, we could hear phrases like *"Good job! I like how you explained your point—it helps everyone understand."*; *"Thanks for sharing that idea. It shows you've thought a lot about the topic."*; *"Well done!"*; *"Great idea!"* However, this positive reinforcement was inconsistent, and not all students received equal recognition for their contributions. To address this, the teacher could implement a strategy for systematically acknowledging and appreciating a diverse range of student contributions. This might involve rotating the focus on different students during discussions or providing specific positive feedback to various individuals, contributing to a more equitable distribution of warmth and support.

In addition, the teacher encouraged students to take academic risks and share their thoughts openly by saying *"Don't hesitate to share your thoughts; there are no wrong answers in this class."*; *"Feel free to express your thoughts; every opinion is valued here."*; *"Share your ideas openly; we're here to learn from each other."*; and *"No need to be shy."* However, this encouragement was inconsistently applied, with only few students feeling comfortable in expressing their ideas without fear of judgment. To address this, the teacher could implement activities that explicitly promote a culture of academic risk-taking. This might involve incorporating structured discussions, where every student has an opportunity to contribute, and emphasizing the value of diverse perspectives.

Students occasionally reciprocated some warmth and support demonstrated by the teacher. They expressed academic and emotional support for both their peers and the teacher. Students showed some awareness of each other's interests and backgrounds, attempting to foster a sense of community. This was reflected in communication among students, where they occasionally considered each other's perspectives and emotions. The classroom culture tried to encourage students to feel comfortable taking academic risks, contributing to an environment that aimed to be positive and supportive.

In summary, while the Grade 10 English classroom exhibited positive instances of warmth and support, the findings highlight the importance of enhancing the consistency and depth of these practices. Research by Roeser and Eccles (1998) emphasizes that a positive

classroom climate, characterized by warmth and support, is crucial for students' emotional well-being. A classroom that acknowledges and addresses students' nonacademic concerns contributes to a nurturing environment, supporting students both academically and emotionally. Addressing this challenge requires intentional efforts, potential adjustments in classroom dynamics, and a collaborative approach to reinforcing a positive and supportive learning environment.

3.5. Cooperative Learning

In the Grade 10 English classroom, specifically during Unit 2, the instructional approach predominantly centered around individual and paired activities, with minimal incorporation of group work. Throughout this unit, students engaged in tasks and assignments that were designed to be completed independently or in collaboration with a single partner. This format implies that students were primarily responsible for their own learning or were working closely with one peer. The decision to structure Unit 2 in this manner may be influenced by the nature of the tasks presented in the textbook.

Individual activities can provide students with focused opportunities to develop and showcase their personal understanding of the subject matter. This format allows each student to work at their own pace, emphasizing independent thinking and problem-solving skills. Similarly, paired activities foster a collaborative learning environment but limit the scope to interactions between two individuals. This arrangement may be conducive to fostering peer-to-peer discussion, cooperative problem-solving, and the sharing of ideas between partners. Pair work can encourage active participation and engagement while maintaining a manageable level of interaction.

However, the limited incorporation of group work suggests a particular pedagogical choice. Group activities typically involve a larger number of students working together towards a common goal. They promote skills such as teamwork, communication, and the ability to consider diverse perspectives. While individual and paired activities can have valuable merits, a more frequent infusion of group work might offer a complementary dimension, providing students with a holistic learning experience that encompasses both independent and collaborative skill development (Johnson and Johnson, 2009).

3.6. Group Discussions

The findings revealed that, while group discussions were present in the classroom, there were opportunities for enhancement. One notable area of concern was the limited direction given by the teacher to guide the discussions. This lack of direction likely contributed to discussions that may have been unfocused or lacked depth, preventing students from engaging in a more profound exploration of the subject matter. Moreover, there seemed to be a dearth of strategies employed by the teacher to ensure equitable participation among all students. Effective group discussions require active involvement from each participant, yet it appears that some students may not have had equal opportunities to contribute or may have felt marginalized during these sessions.

For instance, the EFL teacher initiated a group brainstorming activity centered around leisure activities. While the intention to engage students in a collaborative discussion was evident, the execution of the group discussion was not very well-facilitated. The teacher introduced the topic of leisure activities and divided the students into groups, fostering an environment for collective idea generation. However, the facilitation of the group discussion seemed to encounter challenges. There were indications that the structure or guidance provided

during the activity may have been insufficient, leading to less effective group interactions.

Students participated in group discussions with varying levels of engagement, occasionally showcasing attentive listening and the ability to paraphrase and analyze speakers' main points. Some attempted to extend their own thinking in response to their peers, but this was not consistently demonstrated. Occasionally, students asked clarifying questions, displaying a basic understanding of the content, and used communication skills to present their viewpoints. Limited reflection on their peers' perspectives was evident, with occasional contributions to the overall depth of the discussion.

The findings revealed that, while group discussions were present in the classroom, there were opportunities for enhancement. The teacher and students occasionally demonstrated behaviors associated with effective group discussions throughout the lesson. By further cultivating these practices, we can contribute to an even more dynamic and intellectually engaging classroom environment. This positive step forward encourages students to actively participate in meaningful conversations about the content, fostering a rich learning experience (Bonwell & Eison, 1991).

3.7. Self-Reflection and Self-Assessment

Self-reflection and self-assessment conducted by the students themselves were seldomly integrated into the lessons. Instead, the predominant methods employed by the teacher was teacher-assessment, and sometimes, peer-assessment, which marginalized the role of self-assessment and self-reflection in most instances. This infrequent incorporation implies that opportunities for students to critically assess their own progress, comprehension, and learning strategies were not consistently embedded in the lesson structure.

The infrequent occurrence of these reflective practices indicated a missed chance for students to actively participate in evaluating their own learning journey, identifying areas of achievements and at the same time recognizing areas for improvement. In summary, the analysis of fieldnotes emphasizes that the incorporation of self-reflection and self-assessment into the instructional approach was both infrequent and lacked systematic implementation, thereby diminishing their potential impact on student learning and holistic development. This gap in incorporating reflective practices suggests a need for a more intentional and regular integration to enhance the overall learning experience for students.

To enhance self-assessment practices in the classroom, a more regular and integrated approach is crucial (Andrade & Valtcheva, 2009). Strategies should prioritize regularizing reflection opportunities, offering guidance on self-assessment techniques, and seamlessly integrating these practices into the daily routine. This comprehensive approach fosters meaningful and continuous self-assessment, empowering students as critical thinkers and enhancing the impact of formative assessment strategies (Black & Wiliam, 2009).

3.8. Balanced Instruction

Balanced instruction, involving a harmony between active and direct instruction, as well as individual and collaborative learning, was notably infrequent in the Grade 10 English classroom during Unit 2 - Leisure activities and entertainment. Although the teacher occasionally demonstrated an understanding of when to use direct instruction and when to engage students actively, this balance was not consistently maintained. The encouragement for students to extend their learning beyond simple answers lacked regular emphasis. Real-world projects, deemed enjoyable and effective for learning, were integrated into the curriculum, but their incorporation was sporadic. The deficiency in consistently implementing such projects

impacted the frequency of engaging and practical learning scenarios.

As for student behaviors, while there were instances of active problem-solving and independent as well as collaborative work, these positive engagements were not the norm. Students, at times, identified challenges and sought solutions, but these behaviors were not consistently observed. The creation of products for different audiences and the development of an understanding of varied communication strategies were also sporadic in student practices, indicating an irregular application of key instructional components.

To address this, the teacher can diversify learning activities by incorporating a mix of direct instruction, group work, discussions, and hands-on projects throughout the lesson. This ensures that students engage with content in various ways, catering to different learning preferences and fostering a dynamic classroom environment (Tomlinson, 2001).

3.9. Academic Press and Expectations

In the 10th-grade English class, the teacher communicated academic expectations, such as specifying learning goals at the start of each lesson. High standards were set through challenging assignments, like a complex survey project, motivating students to strive for excellence. A gradual increase in task difficulty was observed in each of the lesson, transitioning from less challenging tasks to more demanding ones, fostering active participation. The teacher emphasized the connection between effort and results during discussions on blog post writing, offering detailed feedback to instill a sense of responsibility for both achievements and setbacks in writing. Social and emotional support were evident during group projects, where collaborative efforts were encouraged, and students were prompted to share not only academic but also personal aspects. This comprehensive approach contributed to a well-rounded learning environment, addressing both academic challenges and emotional well-being.

It is advisable to engage in these practices on a more regular basis and with clearer and more explicit guidance. Increasing the frequency of these activities ensures that they become ingrained in the routine of the classroom, allowing students to consistently benefit from their impact. Explicit communication and instruction provide a clearer understanding of expectations and methods, reducing ambiguity and promoting more effective implementation (Brown & Johnson, 2019).

3.10. Social English Learning Competence-Building

The teacher demonstrated efforts in modelling as well as building specific social and emotional competencies for students. For example, during class discussions and one-on-one interactions, the teacher displayed a genuine attentiveness to students' thoughts and feelings, creating an environment where students felt heard and understood. The teacher often said "*Great ideas! Great jobs! I like your ideas! Excellent! Feel free to share your thoughts and feelings; we're here to learn from each other.*" Instances were also noted where the teacher demonstrated empathy in response to students' emotional expressions. For example, during a discussion on likes and dislikes that touched upon personal experiences, the teacher skillfully acknowledged and validated the diverse range of emotions expressed by the students. This approach contributed to an atmosphere of trust and openness, fostering a sense of psychological safety within the classroom. Moreover, the teacher incorporated effective communication strategies that considered both academic and emotional aspects. Providing constructive feedback involved not only addressing the technical aspects of assignments but also recognizing the emotional effort students invested in their work. This holistic approach to feedback not only

supported academic growth but also contributed to the students' emotional well-being and resilience in the face of academic challenges.

While these examples highlight the teacher's initial steps in integrating SEL principles, it is evident that there is potential for further expansion and refinement. The ongoing incorporation of explicit SEL practices, such as targeted lessons on emotional intelligence, conflict resolution, and self-awareness, could contribute to a more comprehensive and consistent application of SEL within the Grade 10 English classroom. This aligns with research suggesting that sustained and intentional SEL implementation positively impacts both academic and socioemotional outcomes for students (Payton et al., 2008; Taylor et al., 2017).

4. Conclusion

The assessment of the Grade 10 English classroom reveals how social and emotional dimensions are incorporated in teaching and learning English as a foreign language. Positive elements include the incorporation of student-centered discipline, affirming teacher language, and warmth and support, contributing to a somewhat positive and supportive learning environment. However, challenges exist, such as inconsistent application of student-centered discipline, infrequent opportunities for responsibility and choice, and a need for more regular and systematic integration of warmth and support practices. Additionally, cooperative learning primarily focuses on individual and paired activities, indicating potential missed opportunities for enhancing teamwork, communication, and diverse perspective considerations. Group discussions, while present, lack clear direction and strategies for equitable participation, pointing to areas for improvement in fostering collaborative and meaningful conversations. Self-reflection and self-assessment practices are noted as rare, suggesting a missed opportunity for students to actively engage with their learning process and develop a clear understanding of their development journey. Balanced instruction and academic press are recognized positively but could benefit from more regular and explicit engagement. The teacher's efforts in social and emotional competence-building are acknowledged, with potential for further expansion through sustained and more explicit practices.

The findings from the assessment of SEL practices in the Grade 10 English classroom have several implications for teaching and learning in English as a foreign language. First, the findings highlight the need for more consistent implementation of positive teaching practices. This involves ensuring that student-centered discipline, affirming teacher language, warmth and support, cooperative learning, and other beneficial practices are applied uniformly across lessons. Consistency contributes to the establishment of a predictable and supportive learning environment. Moreover, while there are positive steps in integrating SEL principles, the report suggests further expansion and refinement. Ongoing incorporation of explicit SEL practices, such as targeted lessons on emotional intelligence and conflict resolution, can contribute to a more comprehensive and consistent application of SEL in the EFL classroom. Finally, to create a truly enriching and dynamic learning environment, teachers should aim for a balanced approach that incorporates diverse teaching strategies, provides clear academic expectations, and fosters both academic and socio-emotional development.

References

- Andrade, H. L., & Valtcheva, A. (2009). Promoting learning and achievement through self-assessment. *Theory into Practice, 48*(1), 12–19. <https://doi.org/10.1080/00405840802577544>
- Arnold, J., & Brown, D. (1999). A map of the terrain. In Arnold, J. (Ed.), *Affect in language learning* (pp. 1–24). Cambridge University Press.

- Black, P., & Wiliam, D. (2009). Developing the theory of formative assessment. *Educational Assessment, Evaluation and Accountability*, 21(1), 5–31. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11092-008-9068-5>
- Blake, B. & Pope, T. (2008). Developmental psychology: Incorporating Piaget's and Vygotsky's theories in classrooms. *Journal of Cross-Disciplinary Perspectives in Education* 1(1), 59-67.
- Bonwell, C. C., & Eison, J. A. (1991). *Active learning: Creating excitement in the classroom (ASHE-ERIC Higher Education Report No. 1)*. George Washington University, School of Education and Human Development.
- Brown, N. C., & Johnson, L. A. (2019). *Explicit instruction in the classroom: A framework for enhancing teaching and learning*. Routledge.
- Collaborative for Academic, Social, and Emotional Learning (CASEL). (2020). *CASEL's SEL Framework: What Are the Core Competence Areas and Where Are They Promoted?* Collaborative for Academic, Social, and Emotional Learning (CASEL). <https://casel.org/casel-sel-framework-11-2020>
- Costa, A. L., & Kallick, B. (2008). Learning through reflection. In A. L. Costa & B. Kallick (Eds.), *Learning and leading with habits of mind: 16 essential characteristics for success* (Chapter 12).
- Deci, E. L., & Ryan, R. M. (2000). The "what" and "why" of goal pursuits: Human needs and the self-determination of behavior. *Psychological Inquiry*, 11(4), 227-268.
- Denham, S., & Brown, C. (2010). Plays nice with others. In Social-emotional learning and academic success. *Early Education and Development*, 21(5), 652-680. <https://www.tandfonline.com/doi/abs/10.1080/10409289.2010.497450>
- Durlak, A. L., Weissberg, R. P., Dymnicki, A. B., & Schellinger, K. B. (2011). The Impact of Enhancing Students' Social and Emotional Learning: A Meta-Analysis of School-Based Universal Interventions. *Child Development*, 82, 405-432.
- Dusenbury, L., Calin, S., Domitrovich, C., & Weissberg, R. (2015). *What does evidence-based instruction in social and emotional learning actually look like in practice?* A brief on findings from CASEL's program reviews. Collaborative for Academic, Social and Emotional Learning.
- Elias, M. J. (2006). The connection between academic and social-emotional learning. In M. J. Elias & H. Arnold (Eds.), *The educator's guide to emotional intelligence and academic achievement: Social emotional learning in the classroom* (pp. 4–14). Thousand Oaks, Corwin Press.
- Elias, M., & Arnold, H. (2006). *The educator's guide to emotional intelligence and Academic achievement*. Thousand Oaks, Corwin Press.
- Goleman, D. (2005). *Emotional Intelligence: Why It Can Matter More Than IQ*. Bantam Books.
- Hawkins, J. D., Smith, B. H., & Catalano, R. F. (2004). Social development and social and emotional learning. In J. E. Zins, R. W. Weissberg, M. C. Wang, & H. J. Walberg (Eds.), *Building academic success on social and emotional learning: What does the research say?* (pp. 135–150). Teachers College Press.
- Johnson, D. W., & Johnson, R. T. (2009). An educational psychology success story: Social interdependence theory and cooperative learning. *Educational Researcher*, 38(5), 365-379. <https://doi.org/10.3102/0013189X09339057>
- Kagan, S. (1994). *Cooperative learning*. San Clemente, Kagan Publishing.
- MacIntyre, P.D., & Gregersen, T. (2012). Affect: The role of language anxiety and other emotions in language learning. In Mercer, S., Ryan, S., & M. Williams (Eds.), *Language learning psychology: Research, Theory and Pedagogy* (pp. 103–118). Palgrave.
- Mahoney, J. L., Durlak, J. A., & Weissberg, R. P. (2018). An update on social and emotional learning outcome research. *Phi Delta Kappan*, 100(4), 18-23.
- Morrison, B. (2007). *Restoring Safe School Communities: A Whole School Response to Bullying, Violence and Alienation*. Thousand Oaks, Corwin Press.
- Muhammad, G. (2020). *Cultivating genius: An equity framework for culturally and historically responsive literacy*. Scholastic.
- Oxford, R.L. (1990). *Language learning strategies: What every teacher should know*. Newbury House.
- Payton, J., Weissberg, R. P., Durlak, J., Dymnicki, A., Taylor, R., & Schellinger, K. (2008). *The positive impact of social and emotional learning for kindergarten to eighth-grade students: Findings from three scientific reviews*. CASEL – Collaborative for Academic, Social, and Emotional Learning.

- Pianta, R. C. (1999). Enhancing relationships between children and teachers. *American Psychological Society*, 8(6), 298-303.
- Roeser, R. W., & Eccles, J. S. (1998). Adolescents' perceptions of middle school: Relation to longitudinal changes in academic and psychological adjustment. *Journal of Research on Adolescence*, 8(1), 123-158. https://doi.org/10.1207/s15327795jra0801_5
- Rosenthal, R., & Jacobson, L. (1968). Pygmalion in the classroom. *The Urban Review*, 3(1), 16-20.
- Rowe, M. B. (1974). Wait time and rewards as instructional variables, their influence on language, logic, and fate control. In *Proceedings of the 1973 Invitational Conference on Testing Problems (Vol. 1)*, pp. 111-116.
- Shao, K.Q., Yu, W.H., & Ji, Z.M. (2013). An exploration of Chinese EFL students' emotional intelligence and foreign language anxiety. *The Modern Language Journal*, 97, 917-929.
- Sklad, M., Diekstra, R., Ritter, M. D., Ben, J., & Gravesteyn, C. (2012). Effectiveness of school-based universal social, emotional, and behavioral programs: Do they enhance students' development in the area of skill, behavior, and adjustment? *Psychology in the Schools*, 49(9), 892-909.
- Smagorinsky, P. (2013). What does Vygotsky provide for the 21st-century language arts teacher? *Language Arts*, 90(3), p. 192-204.
- Stevick, E. (1980). *Teaching languages: A way and ways*. New York: Newbury House.
- Taylor, R. D., Oberle, E., Durlak, J. A., & Weissberg, R. P. (2017). Promoting positive youth development through school-based social and emotional learning interventions: A meta-analysis of follow-up effects. *Child Dev*, 88, 1156-1171. Doi: 10.1111/cdev.12864
- Thorsborne, M., & Blood, P. (2013). *Implementing restorative practices in schools: A practical guide to transforming school communities*. Jessica Kingsley Publishers.
- Tomlinson, C. A. (2001). *How to differentiate instruction in mixed-ability classrooms? (2nd ed.)* Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.
- Vygotsky, L.S. (1978). *Mind in society: The development of higher psychological processes*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.
- Walker, C. (2014). A study of self-concept in reading in a second or foreign language in an academic context. *System*, 49, 73-85.
- Wang, G. (2005). Humanistic approach and affective factors in foreign language teaching. *Sino-US English Teaching*, 2(5), 1-5.
- Weissberg, R. P., Durlak, J. A., Domitrovich, C. E., & Gullotta, T. P. (2015). Chapter 1: Social and Emotional Learning: Past, Present and Future. In J. A. Durlak, C. E. Domitrovich, R. P. Weissberg, & T. P. Gullotta (Eds.), *Handbook of Social and Emotional Learning: Research and Practice* (pp. 3-19). The Guilford Press.
- Wigelsworth, M., Lendrum, A., Oldfield, J., Scott, A., ten Bokkel, I., Tate, K., & Emery, C. (2016). The impact of trial stage, developer involvement, and international transferability on universal social and emotional learning program outcomes: A meta-analysis. *Cambridge Journal of Education*, 46(3), 347-376.
- Yoder, N. & Gurke, D. (2017). *Social and emotional learning coaching toolkit: Keeping SEL at the Center*. American Institutes for Research.
- Zins, J. E., & Elias, M. J. (2006). Social and emotional learning. In G. G. Bear & K. M. Minke (Eds.), *Children's needs III: Development, prevention, and intervention* (pp. 1-13). National Association of School Psychologists.

Appendix

SOCIAL-EMOTIONAL LEARNING CLASSROOM OBSERVATION SHEET

(Adapted Version of the Rubric for 10 Teaching Practices That Support SEL developed by Yoder and Gurke (2017))

Teacher: _____ Class: _____

Lesson: _____ Date & Time: _____

RUBRIC DESCRIPTION			
For each targeted SEL practice, select the performance level that best reflects the evidence you collected while observing the teacher.			
1. Not Yet Present	2. Minimally Present	3. Moderately Present	4. Fully Present
1. SEL practice is not yet present in the classroom. Neither the teacher nor the students demonstrate any of the behaviors associated with the practice.			
2. SEL practice is minimally present in the classroom. The teacher and students demonstrate some of the behaviors associated with the practice but only a small number of times throughout the lesson.			
3. SEL practice is moderately present in the classroom. The teacher and students demonstrate some of the behaviors associated with the practice but inconsistently so throughout the lesson.			
4. SEL practice is fully present in the classroom. The teacher and students demonstrate the behaviors associated with the practice consistently across the lesson.			

DESCRIPTION OF SEL PRACTICE	SCORE (1-4)	FIELDNOTES
1. Student-centered discipline refers to the types of classroom management strategies teachers use.		
TEACHER PRACTICE: The teacher has discussions with students about classroom procedures, including incorporating student voice with the rules and procedures of the classroom. The teacher provides students strategies so that they can monitor and regulate their behavior and emotions in the classroom. The teacher consistently implements classroom rules and consequences but also considers learner-specific factors when trying to help students correct their behavior.		
STUDENT BEHAVIORS: Students exhibit positive classroom behaviors, regulating their own behaviors and emotions in the classroom. If students misbehave, they have tools and strategies to accept the consequences of their behavior, problem solve situations that may arise in the future, and articulate how their behavior influences the ways the classroom operates.		
2. Teacher language refers to how teachers talk to students.		
TEACHER PRACTICE: The teacher acknowledges specific positive behaviors and asks students to reflect on their behavior — both social skills and work habits. The teacher also provides specific affirmation to let students know their efforts lead to positive results.		
STUDENT BEHAVIORS: Students use positive language with the teacher and their peers, including appropriate academic language. Students become more motivated, persist in tasks, and modify or continue positive behaviors based on the language the teacher uses in the classroom.		
3. Responsibility and choice refers to how students are allowed to make decisions.		
TEACHER PRACTICE: The teacher engages students in how they are going to learn. The teacher asks for student input, provides meaningful choices, and creates opportunities for students to be responsible in the classroom. The teacher ensures that students make		

connections between their choices and potential consequences.		
STUDENT BEHAVIORS: Students have opportunities to be responsible within lessons as well as classroom procedures. Students are aware that there are multiple ways to solve a problem. Students accept responsibility for their own behavior and the class's behavior, holding each other accountable. They also have opportunities to help their peers and teacher.		
4. Warmth and support refers to the academic, social, and emotional support students receive from their teacher and peers.		
TEACHER PRACTICE: The teacher demonstrates that he or she appreciates each student as an individual and is concerned about how and what each student learns. The classroom is structured so students feel included and appreciated, creating a space where it is OK to make mistakes and where the teacher checks in with students about academic and nonacademic concerns.		
STUDENT BEHAVIORS: Students express academic and emotional support for their teacher and peers. Students know about each other's interests and backgrounds and take into account the perspective and emotions of their classmates and teacher. Students communicate with each other in meaningful ways and feel comfortable taking academic risks.		
5. Cooperative learning refers to a specific instructional task in which students work together toward a collective goal.		
TEACHER PRACTICE: The teacher creates learning experiences in which the students apply positive social skills to succeed, depend on each other, and work through difficulties they may have with assignments. Individual students and the group are held accountable for learning during small-group work. In addition, the teacher provides opportunities for students to share their work, receive feedback from others, and collaboratively process how they work together.		
STUDENT BEHAVIORS: Students work with their peers in meaningful ways and hold each other accountable during group work. Students process how they work together and focus on promoting the group's success. Students provide specific, high-quality feedback to each other and are receptive to feedback from their peers. Students resolve conflict that arises during cooperative learning.		
6. Group discussions refers to conversations students and teachers have about content.		
TEACHER PRACTICE: The teacher helps students identify how to listen to, respond to, and learn from other students in a discussion. The teacher helps students learn how to effectively communicate their point of view, allowing students to hold in-depth discussions about content and reflecting on their peers' thoughts.		
STUDENT BEHAVIORS: Students listen attentively and can paraphrase and analyze the speaker's main points as well as extend their own thinking in response. Students can ask clarifying questions as well as use effective communication skills to present their own point of view and reflect on their peers' points of view.		
7. Self-assessment and self-reflection refers to teachers and students actively thinking about their own work.		
TEACHER PRACTICE: The teacher is clear about the learning goals and asks students to reflect on and monitor their progress toward meeting those goals — both social and academic. The teacher ensures that students have time to analyze their own work, think together about the effectiveness of learning activities, and provide feedback for improvement.		
STUDENT BEHAVIORS: Students understand their goals and actively think about how their work is related to achieving them. Students are able to monitor progress and know where to go when they need assistance. Students are able to identify what they do and do not know as well as effective strategies for learning. They can provide feedback on how strategies are working for them.		
8. Balanced instruction refers to the balance between active and direct instruction as well as individual and collaborative learning.		
TEACHER PRACTICE: The teacher uses multiple instructional practices to keep students engaged, knowing when to best use direct instruction and when to use active engagement activities. The teacher asks students to extend their learning when they provide simple		

answers. In addition, they have students work on real-world products that not only are fun but also represent one of the best ways for students to learn.		
STUDENT BEHAVIORS: Students interact with content in multiple ways, actively solving problems and working both independently and collaboratively. Students identify challenges in solving problems and find potential solutions. Students create products for different audiences and develop an understanding that these audiences may require different communication strategies.		
9. Academic press and expectations refers to the implementation of meaningful and challenging work and expecting that students will succeed.		
TEACHER PRACTICE: Students are given more challenging work once they have mastered easier material, ensuring that students feel responsible for their successes and their failures and that they understand the connection between effort and results. The teacher supports students socially and emotionally while challenging them to achieve and surpass their goals.		
STUDENT BEHAVIORS: Students feel a need to succeed as they work to master increasingly challenging material. Students understand that they are responsible for their academic outcomes and can analyze information to solve problems. They are able to identify and regulate their emotions when facing new challenges and barriers to success.		
10. Competence building refers to using the instructional cycle to develop social and emotional skills.		
TEACHER PRACTICE: The teacher uses a variety of tools to model and practice new learning with students. The teacher has students correct mistakes and improve their work using multiple strategies, including relevant feedback from both the teacher and their peers. The teacher uses student misconceptions to guide instruction without singling out individual students.		
STUDENT BEHAVIORS: Students are engaged with the content throughout the entire instructional cycle. Students use support and feedback from teachers and peers to improve their work, and they recognize that this is an important part of the learning process, especially when they notice mistakes. Students are aware of their emotions and behaviors during instruction, and they respond appropriately.		

KHÁM PHÁ CÁC KHÍA CẠNH XÃ HỘI VÀ CẢM XÚC CỦA VIỆC DẠY VÀ HỌC TIẾNG ANH NHƯ MỘT NGOẠI NGỮ

Trần Thị Yên¹, Nguyễn Thị Mai Hương², Huỳnh Anh Tuấn²

¹*Khoa Ngoại ngữ, Trường Đại học Sư phạm, Đại học Thái Nguyên, Đường Lương Ngọc Quyến, Phường Quang Trung, TP. Thái Nguyên, Tỉnh Thái Nguyên, Việt Nam*

²*Khoa Sau Đại học, Trường Đại học Ngoại ngữ, Đại học Quốc gia Hà Nội, Đường Phạm Văn Đồng, Cầu Giấy, Hà Nội, Việt Nam*

Tóm tắt: Bài báo nghiên cứu các khía cạnh xã hội và cảm xúc vốn có trong việc dạy và học tiếng Anh như một ngoại ngữ (EFL). Nhận thức được bản chất đa chiều của việc học ngôn ngữ, nghiên cứu này nhấn mạnh tầm quan trọng của việc lồng ghép các chiến lược học tập cảm xúc xã hội (SEL) vào lớp học Tiếng Anh. Nghiên cứu đã tiến hành quan sát toàn diện các hoạt động học tập cảm xúc xã hội trong một lớp học Tiếng Anh lớp 10, sử dụng bảng quan sát học tập cảm xúc xã hội được thiết kế dựa trên *Phiếu tự đánh giá 10 Phương pháp giảng dạy hỗ trợ học tập cảm xúc xã hội* của nhóm tác giả Yoder và Gurke (2017). Quá trình quan sát kéo dài ba tuần, bao gồm tám tiết của một bài học, mỗi tiết 45 phút, tập trung vào 10 phương pháp giảng dạy hỗ trợ học tập cảm xúc xã hội. Kết quả nghiên cứu cho thấy một số điểm mạnh trong thực hành giáo dục cảm xúc xã hội của cả giáo viên và học sinh như phương pháp dạy học lấy học sinh làm trung tâm, ngôn ngữ của giáo viên, sự ấm áp và hỗ trợ, thể hiện môi trường lớp học tích cực. Tuy nhiên, các lĩnh vực cần cải thiện đã được xác định, bao gồm: việc thực hiện chưa nhất quán trách nhiệm và lựa chọn của người học, tự đánh giá của người học, việc sử dụng linh hoạt và đa dạng phương pháp giảng dạy của giáo viên. Từ đó, bài báo đề xuất cần thực hành các phương pháp học tập cảm xúc xã hội nhất quán hơn, thường xuyên hơn và rõ ràng hơn nhằm tạo ra môi trường học tập năng động trong các lớp học Tiếng Anh.

Từ khóa: học tập cảm xúc xã hội, học ngôn ngữ, dạy tiếng Anh, yếu tố nhận thức, yếu tố phi nhận thức

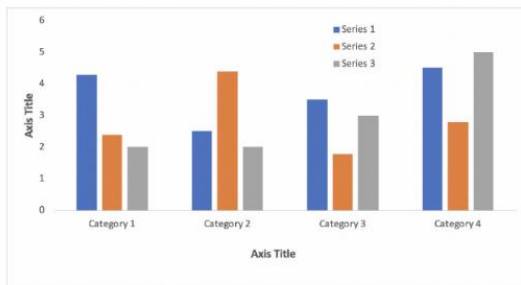
THẺ LỆ GỬI BÀI

- 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:

Figure 1

Sample Figure Title



Note. A note describing content in the figure would appear here.

- Bảng biểu trong bài viết được đánh số thứ tự theo trình tự xuất hiện trong bài viết. Tên bảng trong bài phải được cung cấp trên bảng. Yêu cầu bảng không có đường kẻ sọc.

Ví dụ:

Table 3

Sample Table Showing Decked Heads and P Value Note

Variable	Visual		Infrared		F	η
	M	SD	M	SD		
Row 1	3.6	.49	9.2	1.02	69.9***	.12
Row 2	2.4	.67	10.1	.08	42.7***	.23
Row 3	1.2	.78	3.6	.46	53.9***	.34
Row 4	0.8	.93	4.7	.71	21.1***	.45

*** $p < .01$.

7. Quy cách trích dẫn: Các tài liệu, nội dung được trích dẫn trong bài báo và phần tài liệu tham khảo cần phải được trình bày theo APA7 (vui lòng tham khảo trang web: <https://apastyle.apa.org/style-grammar-guidelines> hoặc hướng dẫn của Tạp chí trên trang web <https://jfs.ulis.vnu.edu.vn/index.php/fs/about/submissions>)

8. Bản thảo xin gửi đến website của Tạp chí tại <https://jfs.ulis.vnu.edu.vn/>. Tòa soạn không trả lại bản thảo nếu bài không được đăng. Tác giả chịu hoàn toàn trách nhiệm trước pháp luật về nội dung bài viết và xuất xứ tài liệu trích dẫn.

MẪU TRÌNH BÀY BỐ CỤC CỦA MỘT BÀI VIẾT TIÊU ĐỀ BÀI BÁO

(bằng tiếng Anh và tiếng Việt, in hoa, cỡ chữ: 16,
giãn dòng: single, căn lề: giữa)

Tên tác giả (cỡ 13)*

Tên cơ quan / trường đại học (cỡ 10, in nghiêng)
Địa chỉ cơ quan / trường đại học (cỡ 10, in nghiêng)

Tóm tắt: Tóm tắt bằng tiếng Anh và tiếng Việt, không quá 250 từ, cỡ chữ: 11

Từ khóa: Không quá 5 từ, cỡ chữ: 11

Phần nội dung chính của bài báo thường bao gồm các phần sau:

1. Đặt vấn đề

2. Mục tiêu

3. Cơ sở lý thuyết

3.1. ...

3.2.

4. Phương pháp nghiên cứu

4.1. ...

4.2. ...

5. Kết quả nghiên cứu

6. Thảo luận

7. Kết luận và khuyến nghị

Lời cảm ơn (nếu có)

Tài liệu tham khảo

Phụ lục (nếu có)

*ĐT.: (Số của tác giả liên hệ)

Email: (Email của tác giả liên hệ)