HOCHIMINH CITY OPEN UNIVERSITY

PROCEEDINGS

TESOL

THE 6th INTERNATIONAL OPEN TESOL CONFERENCE PROCEEDINGS 2018

LANGUAGE LEARNING AND TEACHING TRANSFORMATION IN THE POST METHOD ERA

26 May, 2018 Hochiminh City, Vietnam

Open TESOL Editors

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Proceedings of the 6th International OpenTESOL Conference 2018

ABOUT OPENTESOL

The OpenTESOL conference series was established in 2013 by The Faculty of Foreign Languages and The Graduate School of Ho Chi Minh City Open University, a higher education institution offering a variety of programs ranging from on-site to distance learning and learning at satellite academic centers and aiming to meet various learning needs of society and to contribute enriching the country's human resources. OpenTESOL is a conference for local and international professionals in the field of Foreign Languages Teaching and Learning. OpenTESOL has been recognized as a valuable professional development opportunity for practitioners and researchers in Ho Chi Minh City, Vietnam with an average audience of 120 attending annually. Since 2016, OpenTESOL has also published its conference proceedings. All presenters are encouraged to submit their papers for consideration in this publication. OpenTESOL honors the following groups:

- Classroom teachers and teacher educators;

- Ph.D students and researchers in the fields of foreign language teaching and learning and applied linguistics;

- English language school's managers and tertiary education administrators.

- Foreign experts or researchers who wish to network with the foreign language communities in Ho Chi Minh City and Vietnam.

OpenTESOL aims to:

- Establish a quality hub for sharing ideas of appropriate pedagogies in different teaching and learning contexts;

- Provide an opportunity for building a network of teachers and those professionals involved in language teaching;

- Strengthen the ties between the foreign language teaching communities in Ho Chi Minh City and other provinces in Vietnam;

- Connect local communities with international language education institutions or associations;

- Present state-of-the-art research into language and language education.

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WELCOME ADDRESS

It is my great pleasure to welcome you to Ho Chi Minh City Open University, Faculty of Foreign Languages, the Graduate School, and to the 6th International OpenTESOL Conference 2018.

The emphasis in this 6th gathering of academics as can be seen from the theme is **Language learning and teaching transformation in the post-method era**. This conference provides an excellent opportunity for a wider discussion of the meaning, importance, and challenges of the theme. This will be a chance to stimulate debate and further explore the theme of the 6th annual OpenTESOL Conference.

It is hoped that the Conference will facilitate an international network and academic exchange among the participants and their institutes. This will be especially beneficial to Ho Chi Minh City Open University, to the Faculty of Foreign Languages and graduate students who are engaged in related research.

My special thanks go to the four keynote speakers: Professor Marc Helgesen, Associate Professor Le Van Canh, Assistant Professor David Campbell, and Dr. Bao Dat. I would like to thank to all members of our organizing committee for dedicated commitment to this conference. I would also like to take this opportunity to thank the Regional English Language Office (RELO), the US Embassy in Hanoi and all publishers National Geographic Learning, Macmillan Vietnam, Pearson Education, and Oxford University Press for their support, without which this international conference would not be possible.

I wish you all an enjoyable and successful conference.

Dr. Huynh Cong Minh Hung

Executive member, OpenTESOL Conference Organizing Committee

WELCOME SPEECH

Distinguished guests,

Ladies and gentlemen,

On behalf of HCMC Open University, I am greatly honored to welcome you to the 6th International OpenTESOL Conference 2018 on "**Language Learning and Teaching Transformation in the Post-Method Era**.

We are delighted with the attendance with more than 120 participants, who are administrators, university lecturers, high school teachers, postgraduate and undergraduate students from different organizations. With a large number of participants, we are sure that this conference will be a memorable, highly educational, and "not-to-be-missed" event in language teaching and learning in Ho Chi Minh City.

We take this opportunity to share our expertise, experience, research findings and practices, to talk about something we care deeply, English Learning and Teaching Transformation in Viet Nam. Learning from a colleague and from a student's question can make a difference in our teaching journey, so we are here to learn.

It is our great pleasure and privilege to have Professor Marc Helgesen, English Language Specialist, Assistant Professor David Campbell, Obihiro University of Agriculture and Veterinary Medicine in Obihiro, Hokkaido, Japan, Associate Professor Le Van Canh, Viet Nam National University, Ha Noi, Dr. Bao Dat, Monash University, Australia and other presenters to give their presentations in this conference. We would like to express our appreciation for the presenters' hard work in preparing their presentations and arranging their time to be with us at this important event. We expect that there will be new and innovative approaches, progressive methods in ELT to be shared today. Together we rethink and refine. I also really hope

that this conference will promote friendship and cooperation among the conference participants.

We also want to thank you all the conference organizing committee members for your endless efforts and supports to make this event possible. To all conference participants, we truly value your participation and involvement in this conference.

Thank you again for your meaningful presence and participation. I wish all the presenters, participants a very pleasant and productive day.

Dr. Nguyen Thuy Nga

Chair, OpenTESOL Conference Organizing Committee

THE 6TH INTERNATIONAL OPENTESOL CONFERENCE

Organizing Committee

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Dr. Bui Thi Thuc Quyen	Mr. Ho Dang Tuong Nguyen
Dr. Ho Thi Trinh Anh	Mr. Mai Minh Tien

TENTATIVE CONFERENCE AGENDA

7:30	REGISTRATION						Ground Floor
8:30	OPENING CEREMONY						Hall- 2nd Floor
9: 15 10: 05	Opening Keynote: Prof. Marc Helgesen ELT AND THE SCIENCE OF HAPPINESS: POSITIVE PSYCHOLOGY IN THE LANGUAGE CLASSROOM						Hall – 2nd Floor
10: 05	MORNING TEA BREAK & PUBLISHERS' EXHIBITION						1st Floor
	Hall- 2nd Floor	Room: 402	Room: 404	Room: 504	Room: 602	Room: 604	Room: 702
	PSYCHOLOGY	TECHNOLOGY	TEACHER EDUCATION	LEARNING DESIGNS	ICC - EIL	PROJECT-BASED LEARNING	CREATIVITY
10:30 10:55 S 1	Growth Mindset Feedback: Students' Writing Development and Motivation *Vu D. T. P. Thao*	Mobile-Assisted Language Learning: A Case Study of English Pronunciation Teaching and Learning at Binh Duong University *Dr. Vu Thi Phuong Anh* *Dr. Nguyen Quang Tuyen Nguyen Le*	Student-Teachers' Self-Created Lessons in a Self-Directed Learning Environment *Tran Vu Diem Thuy – Nguyen Tan Minh Khoi*	An Overview of EFL Autonomous Learning in the 21st Century in Vietnam: International Integration and Challenge *Le Thanh Nguyet Anh*	Perception of The Advantages and Disadvantages of Studying Pronunciation and Speaking with English Teachers *Dr. Pham Cu Thien* *Dr. Huynh Cong Minh Hung*	Project-based Learning for Elementary EFL Learners *Pham Duc Thuan*	

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	Duy Hai					
11:00 11:25 S2	An Investigation into the Level of Foreign Language Anxiety an Its Relationship with Oral Performance Among English–major students at Thu Duc college *Ha Nhat Linh*	Van Lang University's English Majors' Inclination towards Smartphone Use for Reading Comprehension *Duong Thanh Hung Duc*	Strategies to Promote Students' Willingness to Communicate in English: Teachers' Perceptions and Practices *Le Thi Diem* *Dr. Le Xuan Mai*	Enhancing Learner - Autonomy for Distance Leaners in Online Courses of Tertiary Level *Nguyen Thi Xuan Mai*	Experiential Learning Develops Students' ICC: A Case of Vietnamese Intermediate Learners *Vu Ngoc Tung*	Using Poster Exhibitions in EFL Classes *Chi Do Na*
11:30 11:55 S3	Motivational Strategies Exploited in Teaching Speaking to First Year Mainstream Student *Nguyen Kieu Oanh*	The Effects of Using Video-Based Instruction on EFL Teenage Learners' Writing Performance *Do Thanh Nhan*	A Post-method Era: Changes, Chances and Challenges *Bui Do Cong Thanh*	The Effect of Monolingual and Bilingual Dictionaries on Vocabulary Recall and Retention *Lai Bao Hoa*	Using Podcasts to Enhance Intercultural Communicative Competence in ESL/EFL Students *Dinh Truong My Hanh* *Vu Ngoc Tung*	Application of Project-Based Learning to Encourage Critical Thinking in Teaching Speaking *Vu Hoang Anh*
12:00	LUNCH				Restaurant "Tu Do" *58 Ho Hao Hon, District 1, HCMC*	

13:00 13:50	Keynote: Assoc. Prof. Le Van Canh REFLECTING ON THE ELT COMPLEX AND DYNAMIC LANDSCAPE: LANGUAGE, LEARNERS, LEARNING & PEDAGOGY						Hall 2nd Floor
13:50 14:10	AFTERNOON TEA BREAK & PUBLISHERS' EXHIBITIONS						1st Floor
	Hall- 2nd Floor	Room: 402	Room: 404	Room: 504	Room: 602	Room: 604	Room: 702
	INCLUSION& SCAFFOLDING	**TECHNOLOGY**	**APPLIED LINGUISTICS**	**STRATEGIES**	**LISTEN&SPEAK**	**READ&WRITE**	**CREATIVITY**
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14:45-	From Daily Conversation	News-Making Project: Applying	The Impact of English-Majored	Language Learning Strategies of High	The Application of Top-Down	Incorporating Extensive Reading	

15:10 **S5**	Language Setting to Drama in Teaching Speaking for First Year Students *Tran Phuong Nguyen Phuong*	ICT In Enhancing Students' Oral Competence *Nguyen Ha My*	Students' Collocation Knowledge on Their Language Skills *Phuong Hoang Yen, Thai Minh Nguyen*	School Vietnamese EFL Students *Nguyen Thi Thu Hang*	Processing Instruction in Teaching TOEIC - Listening Part 3 *Nguyen Luong Tuan Dung*	into the Reading Comprehension Subject for the Development of Reading Abilities *Pham Thi Thuy Duong Thi Thuc Pham Hoai Phuong*	
15:15 **15:40** **S6**	Scaffolding in Peer Interaction by Vietnamese College Students *Vo Thi Khanh Linh*	A Critical View of Computer-Mediated Collaborative Learning as a Supportive Tool to Teach English to Vietnamese Students *Dr. Nguyen Thi Xuan Lan*	Applying Shadowing Technique to Help Students Improve Their "Ed" Pronunciation *Pham Thi Kim Dung* *Nguyen Ngoc Phuong Vy*	Teaching Medical Terms: Effective Strategies *Hoang Thi Hang*	Curriculum Development in Collaboration with Employers: A Viable Vision? *Ho Dang Tuong Nguyen*	Strategies for Teaching Reading in Science Classes Taught in English *Hoang H. Anh*	The Impact of Storytelling on High School Students' Oral Performance *Nguyen Thanh Loan*
15:45 **16:25**	**Closing Keynote: Dr. David Campbell** **TESOL AND TECHNOLOGY: WHERE ARE WE HEADING?**						**Hall – 2nd Floor**
16:30 **17:00**	**Closing Ceremony & Lucky Draw Prizes**						**Hall – 2nd floor**

JAPANESE SYMPOSIUM		
8:00	**REGISTRATION**	**ROOM 702**
Session 1	*Improving the Quality of Teaching & Learning for Japanese-Major Students at HCMC Open University* Pham Minh Tu	**ROOM 702**
Session 2	*Students' Difficulties in Japanese Translation* Chu Vu Nhu Nguyen	**ROOM 702**

CHINESE SYMPOSIUM		
Session 1	*Classification of Function Words and Comparison of Grammatical Terms in Chinese and Vietnamese* Dr. Chau A Phi	**ROOM 704**
Session 2	*Comparing and Contrasting the Functional Uses of the Prepositions: "给" (Chinese) and "Cho" (Vietnamese)* Dr. La Thuy Hien	**ROOM 704**
Session 3	*Training Meta-Cognitive Strategies for Chinese as a Second Foreign Language Students* Dr. Luu Hon Vu	**ROOM 704**
Session 4	*Tourism Translation-Interpretation: Strategies that Work* Dr. Truong Vi Quyen	**ROOM 704**
Session 4	*The Courtesy of Chinese's Modal Particles* Dr Tran Quang Huy	
Session 6	*Examining Borrowed Words in Chinese and Approaches to Translating Borrowed Words* Dr. Ho Thi Trinh Anh	**ROOM 704**

KEYNOTE PRESENTATION

ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING AND THE SCIENCE OF HAPPINESS: POSITIVE PSYCHOLOGY IN THE LANGUAGE CLASSROOM

Positive, motivated students learn more. How do we build that attitude? Positive psychology offers direction. Traditional psychology focuses on *mental illness*. Positive psychology investigates *mental health*: *What do happy, mentally healthy people do?* This is more than "the power of positive thinking." It's science, based on real research and replicable studies. TIME magazine dubbed it "the Science of Happiness." Seligman's (2011) PERMA model of wellbeing— Positive emotion, Engagement, Relationships, Meaningfulness, Accomplishment – take positive psychology to a new level which integrates well with our goals as language teachers. For example, positive psychology encourages "active constructive" answers to questions which help people re-experience positivity. Exactly the same behavior helps students practice using questions as a discourse strategy to keep a conversation going. Many more practical ideas will be included.

Prof. Marc Helgesen

Marc Helgesen is author of over 180 books, textbooks and professional articles including Pearson's popular *English Firsthand* series. He has been an invited speaker at development workshops on five continents. He teaches at Miyagi Gakuin Women's University, Sendai, Japan and in the M.A. TESOL program at Nagoya University of Foreign Studies.

REFLECTING ON THE ELT COMPLEX AND DYNAMIC LANDSCAPE: LANGUAGE, LEARNERS, LEARNING & PEDAGOGY

Complexity and dynamism are now among the key words in the ELT literature. Researchers and language educators have become increasingly aware that language learning and teaching are exceedingly complex undertakings which can be very personal, individual, contextually situated, highly varied, and often difficult to predict in its development. This perspective has questioned our assumptions about aspects of language, learning and teaching that were unwittingly conceptualized in terms of simplistic, unidirectional, linear patterns and engendered a greater awareness of the need to be flexible, adaptive, and sensitive to the dynamics in the classroom. This talk emerges from my own needs as a teacher, teacher educator and researcher to renew my understanding of language, learners, learning and pedagogy given the inherent complexity and dynamism involved in learning and teaching English. I share the belief that language teaching is essentially complex and locally- situated and that it is critical to move away from prescriptive approaches towards more principled and contextually situated methodology. Within that methodology, we need to adopt alternative ways of thinking and open our eyes to different ways of viewing our classrooms. I conclude my talk with suggestions on how we can develop those ways of thinking and seeing to make our pedagogical practices more contextually informed.

Assoc. Prof. Le Van Canh

Le Van Canh is Associate Professor in Applied Linguistics at Vietnam National University, Hanoi, where he has been involved in teaching, teacher education and research for nearly 40 years. He earned his Master's degree in TESOL from Saint Michael's College (USA), and doctoral degree in Applied Linguistics from the University of Waikato (New Zealand). He has published in the leading journals, including *TESOL Journal, The Journal of Asia TEFL, English Australia, RELC Journal*, *Language Teaching Research*, as well as a number of edited volumes on such topics as English language education, second language teacher education, and language-in-education policy. He has been a member of the editorial board of the *Journal of Asia TEFL*, and a reviewer of *TESOL Quarterly*, *Indonesian International Journal of Applied Linguistics*, and *TEFLIN Journal*. He has also been invited as keynote speaker at a number of international conferences. He can be reached at canhvanle@vnu.edu.vn

TESOL AND TECHNOLOGY: WHERE ARE WE HEADING?

The presenter will look at the role technology plays in TESOL and how it impacts teachers and students. He will cover several of the trends in technology (learner management systems, mobile devices, artificial reality, and artificial intelligence) and the challenges and opportunities they can create for teachers and students. Looking at the direction these technologies are going will help us understand what we need to do as professionals in the TESOL field to empower our students to be lifelong learners and proficient users of English.

Assist. Prof. David Campbell

David Campbell is an assistant professor in the Department of Human Sciences at Obihiro University of Agriculture and Veterinary Medicine in Obihiro, Hokkaido, Japan. He has over 35 years of experience teaching English to all ages and levels of students. His current research interests are Moodle, a learning management system, and the use of ICT in tertiary education in Japan. He is a member of the Japanese Association of Language Teachers (JALT) and its CALL special interest group, and the Moodle Association of Japan.

INCORPORATING CREATIVITY IN ELT MATERIALS DEVELOPMENT

The virtual conference-discussion identifies the significance of materials for creativity, summarises the updated debate in creativity in education, and discusses ways of making the learning process more inspiring for students. Ideas proposed in the paper will be demonstrated by examples taken from successful coursebooks and from actual classrooms.

Dr. Bao Dat

Bao Dat is a senior lecturer in education at Monash University. He has worked with Cornell University in the US, Leeds Metropolitan University in the UK, the National University in Singapore, Assumption University in Thailand, and Ho Chi Minh City Open University in Vietnam. Some of his latest books include: *Understanding Silence and Reticence: Ways of Participating in SLA* (Bloomsbury, UK, 2014), *Poetry for Education: Classroom Ideas that Inspire Creativity* (Xlibris, USA, 2017), *Creativity and Innovations in ELT Materials Development: Looking beyond the Current Design* (Multilingual Matters, UK, 2018), *Ways of Making English More Learnable* (Tong Hop Publisher, Vietnam, 2018).

PRE-CONFERENCE WORKSHOPS

ER: EXTENSIVE READING, EFFECTIVE READING

Prof. Marc Helgesen

Extensive Reading – reading a lot of easy, interesting texts – is an important way to help learners increase both their reading skills and their enjoyment of English. And the payoffs are many. ER students see an increase of not only reading abilities but also their vocabulary, understanding of grammar, listening and speaking skills (even when those aren't directly taught)! This workshop will introduce reasons to use ER and ways to implement it in and outside of class. One more important thing about ER: with most language learning techniques, the benefits are later, once someone has achieved a certain level. Because ER uses easy-to-understand stories, the students experience pleasure while they are reading.

THE BRAIN-BODY CONNECTION: LET'S GET PHYSICAL

Prof. Marc Helgesen

When we sit for 20 minutes, blood flows downward to the feet and legs. Standing and moving for just one minute causes a 15% increase of blood (and therefore oxygen) to the brain. That's just one reason to get students up and out of their seats regularly. There are many more. This session will look at reasons and ways to have students moving their bodies, while moving their English abilities up at the same time. In addition to major physical activities, we'll consider short "5-minute energy breaks."

DO-IT-YOURSELF NEUROELT: MAKING YOUR TEXTBOOK MORE BRAIN-FRIENDLY

Prof. Marc Helgesen

Brain Science in education pioneer Leslie Hart famously said "Designing curriculum without knowing about the brain is like designing a glove without knowing about the hand." But whoever wrote your textbook was thinking about grammar and vocabulary, hopefully tasks and motivation – and was probably not focused on brain science. But the brain is where learning occurs. This session will introduce 7 quick and easy ways to make your textbook more appropriate for brain-compatible learning. We'll look specifically at modifying textbook tasks to make them better. They include (1) emotion, (2) providing choice, (3) novelty, (4) multi-sensory learning (5) challenge (6) creativity and (7) personalization. All the ideas are based on established science and replicable studies. More on brain science in ELT is available on the presenter's website: tinyurl.com/DIYneuroELT

CREATING INFORMATION GAP ACTIVITIES IN MOODLE

Assist. Prof. David Campbell

Information gap activities are popular with language teachers, but how do you use them in a CALL setting. Moodle is a powerful and flexible learning management system and by combing many of its elements it is possible to move your favorite info gap activities online.

In this workshop attendees will learn how to create groups/groupings quickly and easily. They will also learn about how to set the different access restriction and completion criteria to guide students through an activity and allow them to access only their part of the information gap. Finally, they will create an information gap activity using the database module.

Having some knowledge of Moodle (high beginner to intermediate) would be helpful.

MAIN CONFERENCE SELECTIONS: ABSTRACTS AND FULL PAPERS

PSYCHOLOGY, INCLUSION, SCAFFOLDING, AND CREATIVITY

GROWTH MINDSET FEEDBACK: STUDENTS' WRITING DEVELOPMENT AND MOTIVATION

Vu Doan Thi Phuong Thao

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ABSTRACT

Despite being a relatively new term in education, growth mindset has been widely acknowledged by scholars and researchers in many parts of the words. In this study, growth mindset was embedded in written feedback to students' second language writing, and the paper aims at investigating its impacts on writing development as well as students' attitude to the tasks and their language potential. 15 students were randomly selected as participants with two research tools: the discourse analysis of their papers, and questionnaires. The improvement of students' writing and their positive attitude towards their potential as well as motivation were confirmed as the impact of growth mindset feedback. Implications for future research, educational policies and practices are well drawn.

Keywords: *growth mindset, second language, writing development, students' attitude.*

INTRODUCTION

As a productive language skill, writing has been widely recognized to cause language learners' multiple difficulties. To improve such skill, continuous and enthusiastic practice coupled with constructive instruction and feedback are prerequisite (Harmer, 2004; Peterson, 2010). In the history of research on second language writing, teachers' feedback can be of various types: oral or written, form-focused, content-focused or integrative, which is a combination of the two previous types (Park, 2006). Most types of feedback mentioned here aim at teachers' efforts to improve students' writing capacity, whether they are process or product oriented. Developing

students' interest and belief in their writing potential, however, seems to have been detached from feedback session. Students' negative perception of their ability to develop English was proved to hinder their development of the language in the context of different countries worldwide (Dweck, 2009; Ocampo, 2017). In other words, mindset is the key to students' progress (Dweck, 2009).

In the context of Vietnamese students who study English as their second/ foreign language (ESL students), studies of such field have not been received adequate attention. The current study was conducted shed a light on this topic by examining the effects of feedback focusing on both language use and learners' attitude toward their own English as a second/ foreign language (ESL - EFL) writing ability development.

The target task to assess students' ESL writing development in this study was two essays of about 250 words written by students of a 3-month English course. Noticeably, this is a challenge for those who only started to write freely; and thus, their improvement (if any) would be of great significance in terms of research. In the surveyed English course, which mainly focused on the two productive skills, writing and speaking, feedback was given on all sessions to encourage their willingness and interest in writing besides checking and suggesting correction of grammar and vocabulary. A large number of students (30 people), which far exceed the optimum class size for language learning of up to 20 (Morgan, 2000), and the density of topics covered in this class hindered the possibility of writing multiple versions of a single topic; therefore, feedback on writing quality was delivered at single writing paper, and improvement was assessed in the next ones, instead of comparing the differences between versions of the same topic. It is important to evoke and maintain students' enthusiasm and improve their language proficiency at the same time.

The study is aimed at investigating the effects of growth mindset feedback on students' improvement and their attitude towards second language writing. To be specific in this case, the genre is an academic essay. It is assumed that a comparison between students' paper at the beginning and end of the course can reveal their enhancement if there is any.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Second language writing and writing development

The history of second language writing research has only begun since the middle of 20th century. Kaplan's (1966) work on contrastive rhetoric or the culture transfer from learners' mother tongue to their writing in the second language remained controversial; however, it was important as a milestone in second language writing as it led to discourse analysis in the field. In the following twenty years, the academic world witnessed the shift in research as well as pedagogy from the focus on product to the focus on processes of writing, which played the role of a trigger of the growing research on writing later (Horowitz, 1986). It is important to note that the appearance of Journal of Second Language Writing in 1992 did establish an official community for researchers and enthusiasts of the field, together with which, research on second language writing had drawn more attention than any other time before. Then, the 21st century has seen the recognition of second language writing as an interdisciplinary skill on which research has been flourished dramatically (Matsuda, Canagarajah, Hyland &Warchauer, 2003).

Going back to the Vietnam context, the increasing number of research reports on second language writing in different English teaching conferences nationwide has proven the attention that researchers, teachers, and academics have paid to this area of research.

Variables affecting L2 writing

The cognitive nature of second language writing was modelled by Hayes & Flower (1980), in which this complex process involved different skills and areas of knowledge. Generally speaking, the process of writing is the interaction of three large elements: task environment, cognitive writing processes and the writer as well as his/ her long term memories. Understanding this allows teachers to identify factors affecting students writing ability, thus, to instruct and give feedback with the right focus to help students improve.

Research has indicated the effect of learners' first language on writing in

another language. The mechanism is as follows:

- Cognitive processes in first language composition are transferred to the composition of a foreign/ second language.

- The most important variable is the writing expertise learners have in their mother tongue. This expertise is stored in long term memory (i.e. topic and audience knowledge, genre knowledge) and is drawn upon when writing,
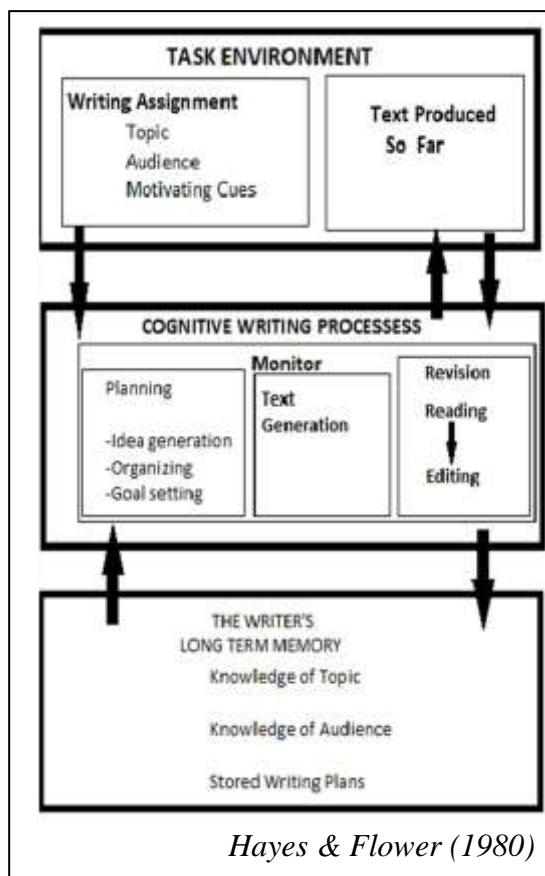
Hayes & Flower (1980)

(Hayes & Flower, 1980)

This mechanism is especially widely seen in those who have started learning writing in English and those who have limited proficiency in the language. In other words, their mindset goes to the stage when it comes to their productive skills, particularly written language.

Writing development measurement

Development in second language writing is defined as the improvement in different dimensions of written texts, including the amount of language (word count, number of sentences), the accuracy and the range of structures. Among various methods to calculate this development,

discourse measures of complexity, accuracy, fluency or CAF model has been largely accepted by researchers and educators (Skehan, 1998; Ellis, 2008; Ellis & Barkhuizen, 2005.)

To specify the criteria of assessment, the three areas are quantified as follows:

- *Fluency*: total words, sentences, T-units, average length T-units (number of words per T-unit). T-unit is defined as an independent clause plus any dependent clauses attached to or embedded in it (Hunt, 1966, 1970).

- *Accuracy:* the rate of errors on total words, or the percentage of error-free units

- *Complexity*:

    o *Syntactic:* the rate of a number of clauses on T-units, dependent clauses/ total clauses, an average length of clause (Lu, 2011; Ortega, 2003)

    o *Linguistic:* type-token ratio or the percentage of words from an academic word list (Wigglesworth & Storch, 2009)

The CAF model of measuring writing development will be adapted to analyze participants' papers in this study.

Teacher's feedback

Undeniably, apart from formal instruction, feedback is another essential channel to help students thrive in their production. In the history of second language pedagogy, the main focus has been written corrective feedback (WCF) which focuses on language use. This type of feedback has been in focus since the 1980s with little empirical research and its hay day started in 2005 with a large volume of studies. Researchers have shown three main areas of WCF:

- Processing of feedback: depth of processing (Qi & Lapkin, 2001; Sachs & Polio, 2007)

- Importance attributed to grammatical accuracy (Hyland, 1998; 2003; Bruton, 2009b)

- Attitude towards teacher (Given & Shallert, 2008)

- Learners' beliefs about language use and form of feedback (Storch & Wigglesworth, 2010a,b; Swain & Lapkin, 2003)

Although WCF addresses a large proportion of language components to develop and humans' cognitive process, considering the cognitive model of writing by Hayes an Flower (1980), there was a gap that WCF left: learners' mindset, or in this case, their perceptions of the language and their own capacity to advance in the language.

Growth mindset and growth mindset feedback

The appearance of growth mindset as a scientific term dates back to the 1980s in comparison with fixed mindset as its counterpart. Generally, both terms refer to people's beliefs in learning and intelligence. On the one hand, fixed mindset sets boundary to people's perception of their own ability as its holders believe that "their talents and abilities are simply fixed. They have a certain amount of that and that's that" (Dweck, 2009). On the other hand, Dwech, 2009 also pointed out that "people with a growth mindset […] think of talents and abilities as things they can develop – as potentials that come to fruition through effort, practice and instruction."

Since then, multiple research report and articles have been increasingly published to confirm the advantages of the growth mindset in education in general and in language learning in specific. In their review on the issue, Walters, Piha, and Cruz (2014) synthesized the benefits of growth mindset as follows:

"Growth mindset training can increase test scores (cited in Blackwell et al., 2007; Yeager and Dweck, 2012; Good, Aronson, &Inzlicht, 2003).

Growth mindedness causes students to use deeper learning strategies and to better recover from an initial poor grade (cited in Grant and Dweck, 2003)

Growth mindset intervention staged the summer before a freshman year in college can increase the percentage of students earning 12+ credits during their first term (a strong predictor of on-time graduation) from 3-10% (cited in Yeager et al., 2013).

Teaching a growth mind-set seems to decrease or even close achievement gaps. When Black and Latino students adopt a growth mind-set, their grades and achievement test scores look more similar to those of their non-stereotyped peers. When female students adopt a growth mind-set, their grades and achievement test scores in mathematics become similar to those of their male classmates. In these studies, every group seemed to benefit from holding a growth mind-set, but the stereotyped groups gained the most (Aronson et al., 2002; Blackwell et al., 2007; Good et al., 2003)."

A visualization of the comparison between fixed and growth mindset could be used for reference.
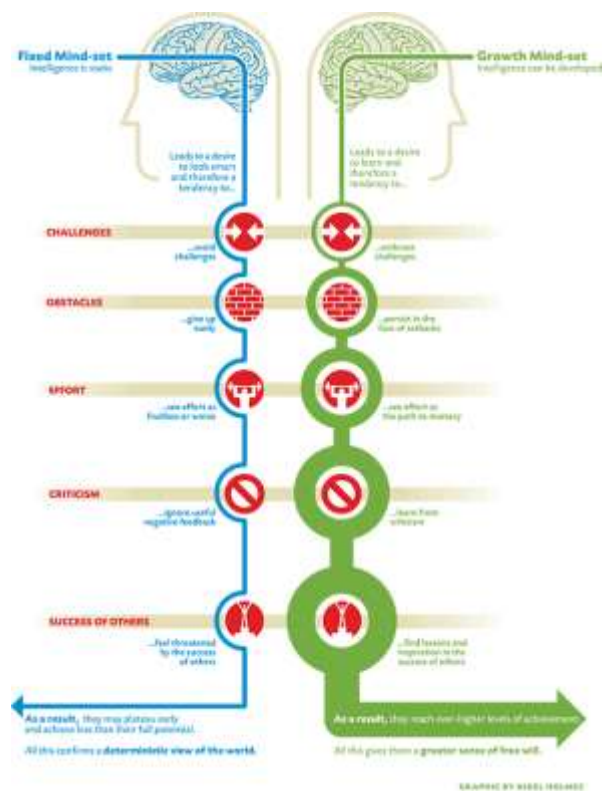
Noticeably, the definition of growth mindset coincides with the human-centered idea and educational equality, in which everyone has equal chances to learn and improve themselves despite their backgrounds, social statuses or economic conditions. In second/ foreign language learner, such belief is vital for learners to strive as learning improvement has never been linear and that the advancing pace differs depending on such factors as leaners' age, time or the complexity of target language.

Lou & Noels's, (2015) research result has confirmed that "Students who endorsed a fixed mindset adopted performance goals especially when they believed that they have strong language skills", which was in line with previous studies showing more success achieved by students with growth mindset as well as their "less helplessness in failure situations, regardless of their competence level." The two authors suggested controlling students' mindset to maintain desired results in their learning results and attitudes.

A study on growth mindset feedback and students' motivation by Truax (2017) also proved students' positive attitude to such feedback, thus, maintained high motivation in writing in English.

Considering the promising potentials in growth mindset for students, teachers should be the pioneers to hold such mindset so that it can be embedded in their communication to students, especially written feedback on students writing. The principle of growth mindset feedback is positive thinking in both cases when students make progress or succeed and when they fail to meet the set requirement. In other words, appropriate compliments and encouragement are the core to show teachers' belief in student's potentials.

Employing growth mindset feedback, the current study aims at assisting students in both their academic development and confidence building in their learning process.

THE STUDY

Research Questions

To fulfil the research purpose set above, two research questions will be answered:

- *What impacts does teacher's growth mindset feedback have on students' writing development?*

- *What are students' views of their potential in English writing?*

Settings and participants

The current study was conducted with the participation of 15 learners of English as a foreign language, who were selected randomly from a class of over 30. Their common target was improving their general English to participate in test preparation classes later. Their backgrounds vary from high school students to workers of different professions, and their average age is 21. Except for the high school students and university students, who study English as one of their subjects, others do not use English outside the classroom frequently. The class was expected to improve their overall level from roughly B1 to B2, according to the Common Europe Framework of Reference for language (CEFR). Regarding writing skill, the aim of the course was for students to write an appropriate essay of opinion.

The surveyed duration of time collided with that of the course, which was approximately three months with 25 sessions, including one mid-course and one end-of-course test. In nearly every learning session, there was a writing topic for student participants to write, and then receive feedback from the teacher researcher. Considering students' rather low proficiency, instructions on the general writing of paragraph was delivered in the first five sessions, then from the sixth one, essay requirement was released and products from that time were collected as data of the current study. They could have multiple versions with the revision of the same writing, but the ones taken in the research was always the first draft, which was believed to avoid any interference with students' original language use and ideas. It is because after receiving teacher's or peers' suggestions, students may follow it, and thus, change their first intention. It is to say that student participants were put in their natural learning environment, without any stress of being in a survey.

Data collection and analysis

To answer the first research question of the effectiveness of growth mindset feedback on students' written language proficiency, writing papers were

collected at two stages of the course (session 5 when students began their essay requirement and session 24 – before the final test). The topics for those two essays are *"Opinion on maintaining relationship with distant relatives"*, and *"Opinion on totally free education"*, respectively. The development in writing ability would then be captured by measuring the complexity, accuracy and fluency of the text (CAF model) (Skehan, 1998; Ellis, 2003, 2008; Ellis & Barkhuizen, 2005). To be more specific, CAF model focus on 3 areas of (1) total sentences produced – fluency, (2) rate of error-free sentences in a text – accuracy, and (3) the rate of clauses on T-unit (Hunt, 1966, 1970).

Addressing the second question on students' confidence in writing considering teacher's feedback, a short close-ended survey was completed by all participants at the end of the course. They were asked to rank on a Likert scale of how they feel about their own ability and potentials as well as motivations in writing after reading the teacher's feedback during the whole course. The responses were calculated and categorized to make draw the conclusion.

FINDINGS

The discourse analysis of 30 papers by 15 participants, basing on CAF model, has revealed interesting results. While the statistics of Fluency reduced significantly, that of Accuracy and Complexity noticeably increased.

Paired Samples Test

	Paired Differences							
				95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	Lower	Upper	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Pair 1 Fluency1 - Fluency2	2.80000	1.52128	.39279	1.95754	3.64246	7.128	14	.000

Paired Samples Test

| | Paired Differences | | | | | | | |
| | | | | 95% Confidence Interval of the Difference | | | | |
	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	Lower	Upper	T	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Pair 2 Accuracy1 – Accuracy2	-11.86667	4.77892	1.23391	-14.51315	-9.22019	-9.617	14	.000
Pair 3 Complexity1 – Complexty2	-54.73333	18.79767	4.85354	-65.14314	-44.32353	-11.277	14	.000

The statistic reduction of a number of sentences in writing papers coupled with the rise in the rate of clauses and T-units as well as the growth correct language use suggested that by the end of the course, generally the student participants could produce more complex language, lengthen the sentences, and make more succinct expressions. Definitely, this is an indication of the surveyed student's improvement in language use of the written task.

Participants' response to the questionnaire suggested the positive view on their potential of writing academic English considering teacher's feedback.

The seven main questions of the survey questionnaire mainly aim at identifying students' attitude toward their writing ability and potential after teacher's feedback in the whole course. The two first questions are used to confirm teacher's nature of feedback via students' understanding. The table below shows the average score for each question.

1. Is your teacher feedback only about your mistakes?	1
2. Does your teacher feedback include compliments on your good points and suggestions for future development?	5
3. Are you happy reading your teacher's feedback?	4
4. Do you feel encouraged to write more after reading the feedback?	4.5
5. Does the feedback make you think you can do better?	4.3
6. Does the feedback help you find ways to write better language?	4.2
7. Do you think more confidently about your ability to write after receiving feedback?	4.7

The lowest score (1) belonging to question number 1 indicates that teacher's feedback was not all about blaming. Then 5 points for question 2 reveals the encouragement and suggestions for future development felt by the learners when reading the feedback. Other questions' results ranging from 4 to 4.7 show students' positive thinking in their proficiency and willingness to compose more, thanks to feedback after their writing.

DISCUSSION

The results of the current study confirm the importance of growth mindset in language proficiency enhancement together with learners' open and positive view of their potential, which is the key to better learning. It would be better if this type of feedback is applied more widely to different levels of students, and different learning content, let alone writing skill. The results of the current study confirm the importance of growth mindset in language proficiency enhancement together with learners' open and positive view of their potential, which is the key to better learning. It would be better if this type of feedback is applied more widely to different levels of students, and different learning content, let alone writing skill.

What impacts does teacher's growth mindset feedback have on students' writing development?

Considering students' paper development, this is an encouraging result for all surveyed students. However, their improvement should not necessarily have been the consequence of feedback only; instead, it was the combination of instruction, self-study, and feedback. To the extent of this research population, 10 out 15 working with a certain amount of time on a day practicing English the role of feedback on their writing was confirmedas a combination of compliments such as *"You did a good job on idea structure. Keep going on!"* and suggestions for future development like *"Next time, try to combine 2 or more short single sentences into a longer one."* the written feedback really made learners feel confident of their strengths while beware of their weaknesses without feeling face losing.

In this case, growth mindset feedback did play the role of written corrective feedback (WCF) as it addressed students' problems of language use and suggested solutions to them. Normally, feedback in this study was written both on the margin and in a separate space other than the students' main

text, which allowed feedback readers to know about the overall comments on their products as well as specific points of grammar, or vocabulary.

This finding agrees with the review of different types of written feedback by Dr. Neomy Storch (2010). It is to say that at different extent, written feedback has improved students' form of language. Ferris (2004) and other researchers also confirmed that although the effectiveness level of written feedback is in question in certain cases, generally, its role in students language development is obvious, which is the similar result in this studies.

The signature of growth mindset trait in the feedback was found in students' attitudes, which is the answer to the second research questions.

What are students' views of their potential in English writing?

The result presented is in alignment with previous research on the effect of growth mindset feedback on students' general motivation in learning as suggested by Carol Dweck in her multiple articles about growth mindset since her coining of the term in 2006 (Dweck, 2006). The increased in students' confidence in their ability and learning motivation also confirm Truax's (2017) findings of a similar paper. Dweck and Yeager's (2012) findings positive effects of psychological interventions in students' mindset which resulted in better view and academic performance seemed to be mirrored by the result of this study.

Improved quality of paper coupled with students' positive thinking support the effects in both practical and spiritual ways. In other words, good results in actual writing paper may boost their courage in writing, and vice versa. Such supportive relationship between what they do and how they feel is the ultimate aim of education that is to teach people and to nurture people's mind at the same time.

IMPLICATIONS AND LIMITATIONS

Implications

Reality and the literature on growth mindset did confirm the significance of teacher's mindset when transferring such ideology to students. Therefore, it is essential for teachers to develop this mindset and practice it before spreading in the educational environment so that best result can be yielded from future generations.

The positive effects of growth mindset feedback on students' writing development and their beliefs in their own potentials have set the ground for pedagogy, teaching policies and practices. In terms of research into feedback to L2 writing, apart from suggestions related to language use and idea development, the branch of those which boost students positive view of their language study should be paid more attention, as it can yield more success not only for learners but for teachers/ instructors as well.

Regarding teaching policies and practices, while accepting that it is challenging to write thoughtful feedback to both recognize strengths and encourage students to improve weaknesses, it is essential to do so to make sure students have a better view of their learning path. To increase the feasibility of applying growth mindset in teaching practice, various workshops on the methods and even design a flexible template by experts of the field or experienced teachers would assist those teachers who are less experienced. On a larger scale, supportive feedback should be made compulsory as a teaching policy in not only writing but other skills and components of language teaching.

Limitations

Despite the researcher's effort during the whole process of research conduction, there still exist inevitable limitations that future research of the same field with more time and human resource can do better.

- *Research scope*

Language improvement is a time-taking process, so the longer the surveyed duration, the more fruitful results. Due to time constraint, which is a 3-month duration of the course, and the limitation in human resource of a study with only one single researcher, there are only 15 students with 2 papers selected.

- *Research methods*

In a broader study, to identify students' attitude, survey questionnaire should be triangle by interviews, so that deeper understanding of the participants will be sought and analyzed. Moreover, longer time on the research can be a good condition for analyzing paper on more topics

instead of 2, which may reveal more interesting patterns of the writing development and contribute more to the field.

CONCLUSION

Despite being a rather new term in education growth mindset has been widely acknowledged by scholars and researchers in many parts of the words. In conclusion, concerning the 2 questions of students' language development and their confidence in writing ability, the study showed that teacher's growth mindset feedback did have the positive impact. Suggestions for language use did help students improve their writing regarding CAF model. Moreover, students were happy with teacher's comments consisting of both their shortcomings and compliments on your strengths, which encouraged them to make more effort and have a better view of their future accomplishment. To improve the representation of the research results, broader scope with more participants, longer research time, more research methods should be employed to triangle the results.

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AN INVESTIGATION INTO THE LEVEL OF FOREIGN LANGUAGE ANXIETY AND ITS RELATIONSHIP WITH ORAL PERFORMANCE AMONG ENGLISH– MAJOR STUDENTS AT THU DUC COLLEGE

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ABSTRACT

This study investigated on anxiety – a subjective feeling – during students' learning process in Vietnamese context, especially in the correlation with speaking. Thesis aims are to measure the level of foreign language anxiety existing among English–major students at Thu Duc College, and examine whether it debilitates, facilitates, or is neutral with the oral performance of students when taking oral tests. There were a hundred students of second– year program, who has just finished speaking course at the college, participating in the study. A questionnaire, IELTS simulation speaking test, and interview were used as the instruments of the research. The results of the questionnaire indicate that students are of a moderate level of foreign language anxiety. In detail, the levels of communication apprehension and the fear of negative evaluation are at medium, while students are struggling with testing anxiety. Furthermore, the Pearson correlation results reveal that foreign language anxiety is debilitating the oral performance of students. Implications of the findings thus suggested solution for this problem and recommended research paths for future research in Vietnamese context.

Key words: *foreign language anxiety, oral performance, English-major students.*

INTRODUCTION

It is observed that English teaching in Vietnam is generally left behind the current demand of competent English-speaking people (Hoang, 2010), and keeping reticence is still a common phenomenon among students through

in-class discussion or imitating the teacher (Bao, 2014). Most English-majors who spent a long time to study English are suffering when communicating in English. There must be many different reasons for the gap between effort and outcomes, but among them, FLA has been identified as a negative source towards language achievement (Tran, Moni, & Baldauf, 2012; Nguyen & Tran, 2015).

Anxiety is defined as "the state of feeling nervous or worried" towards predictable unpleasant situation, according to Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary. Anxiety is an uncomfortable emotional state that closely associates with expected dangers (Aydin, 2013). When a person is acknowledged dangers, he tends to feel powerless and experiences tension. Despite whether the danger is real or imagined, unpleasant emotional reactions are activated (Rachman, 2004). Beside threatening situations, this kind of emotion links with the uncertainty of forthcoming events. Rachman (2004) referred anxiety as the tense of anticipation of a threatening but unclear event, or a feeling uneasy suspense. Liu (2005) stated that anxiety arises when people are not certain of the upcoming occasions, when they are aware that their performance will be evaluated, when they worry about the consequence of an event. In detail, the construct of anxiety is associated with cognitive concern about the consequences of failure (Szyszka, 2017).

In language learning, anxiety could not only inhibit students from language reception and generation but also affect their learning process (Yang, 2003; Zheng, 2008). Students with high anxiety are identified by being quiet or having shaking hands or legs during English lessons or oral English tests (Cortazzi & Jin, 1996). Recent studies which investigated the relationship between FLA and language performance also revealed that it is one of the main factor causing backward outcomes to language achievement (Mersi, 2012; Lian & Budin, 2014; Al-Khasawneh, 2016). As a result, this makes it urgent to unearth this area to better understand the learning context in Vietnam and ultimately enhance the learning and teaching of oral English outcomes.

The study, therefore, aims to contribute to knowledge of FLA by investigating the level of anxiety among English-majors, and the relationship between anxiety and oral performance. The following research questions guide the study:

1. *What are language anxiety levels among English-major students at Thu Duc College in their English class and tests?*

2. *What is the relationship between language anxiety and oral performance in tests?*

LITERATURE REVIEW

Only a couple explored FLA in general, such as the effects on students' determination to study English Tran, Moni, & Baldauf (2012), the aware and attitudes of teachers and students towards the existence of FLA Tran, Moni & Baldauf (2013), and how to manage FLA Tran & Moni (2015). Besides, FLA was counted as one beside other factors affecting students' speaking performance. It is obvious to see that in Vietnamese educational setting, anxiety has not been a focus for students who are learning English as a major, and there has been a lack in the number of research to investigate whether FLA in the classroom interferes oral performing or not. Since these reasons, there is a requirement to form a scale to measure the levels of FLA that fits Vietnamese language learner characteristics.

Each researcher has developed different theories in foreign language acquisition related to anxiety. The first model was about the effects of anxiety on learning from instruction (Tobias, 1979), in which anxiety interferes students' achievement through three stages of language learning process – input, processing, and output. The second noteworthy theory was of Gardner (1985), stating that second language acquisition takes place in a particular cultural context. However, until 1986, FLA research marked a breakthrough by a study on FLA by Horwitz, Horwitz, & Cope (1986). They treated FLA as a distinct and separate construct specific to language learning and laid the foundation for later research.

The construct of FLA

Horwitz et al. (1986) proposed a model of anxiety with three components: communication apprehension, fear of negative evaluation, and test anxiety.

Among three performance anxieties, ***communication apprehension*** played a larger role in FLA and was defined as "a type of shyness, characterized

by fear of or anxiety about communicating with people" (Horwitz et al., 1986, p. 127). Horwitz et al. (1986) noted that people who typically had trouble in real and anticipated communication with others in foreign language learning environment were facing with communication apprehension. In detail, they lose their control in common communicative situations such as in groups or in public, or in decoding information from speaking and listening.

Watson & Friend (1969) defined *Fear of negative evaluation* as the "apprehension about others' evaluations, distress over their negative evaluations, avoidance of evaluative situations, and the expectation that others would evaluate oneself negatively" (p. 449). The term *evaluation* here was attributable to both academic and non-academic evaluations involving in students' performance and competence in the target language. Anxiety was provoked in foreign language class by both real and imaginary evaluations from either the teacher or their peer. With students who are frequently evaluated, they tended to rarely initiate conversation or minimally interact with others. Due to the frequent possibility to make mistakes in language classroom than other subjects, learners were much more vulnerable towards criticism and negative evaluation (Tsui, 1996). In other words, students easily doubt their language proficiency based on mistakes they have made, so the pressure on speaking thus intensified when they receive negative comments as confirmation towards their low language level.

Test anxiety referred to "a type of performance anxiety stemming from a fear of failure" (Horwitz et al., 1986, p. 127). It occurred when a student demanded a better result, compared to their language ability, or worried about their performance. This one was similar to *fear of negative evaluation*, but a narrower in scope. Test anxiety was aroused in the situation of tests and quizzes, which is almost inevitable in language learning.

Oral performance and FLA

As Horwitz et al. (1986) stated, language anxiety has a close relationship with oral performance, improving or impairing. These ways of effects are categorized as facilitating anxiety debilitating anxiety, and neutral anxiety.

This relationship between anxiety and performance is depicted by a curvilinear shape, as an inverted "U" (He, 2018). Facilitating anxiety is described by the left side of the diagram, which shows that anxiety moves forward with the performance. In other words, when anxiety is low, the performance also experiences low level. In contrast, on the right hand of the diagram is debilitating anxiety, showing the adverse effect between anxiety and performance. When anxiety increases to the optimal level, performance deteriorates. The last effect – neutral anxiety – implicates no relationship between anxiety and performance in spite of anxiety's presence (Spielmann & Radnofsky, 2001). In this case, anxiety is not entirely positive or negative to the whole language acquisition.
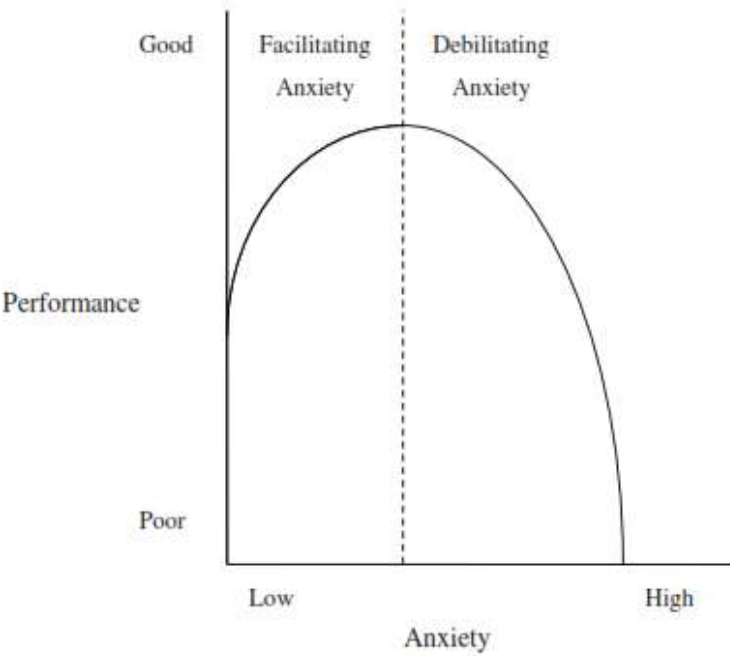
Figure 1. Inverted "U" relation between anxiety and performance (He, 2018)

Lucas (1984) considered anxiety as a negative predictor of learners' oral performance, which influences both the willingness to communicate and communication quality. Additionally, considering exam grades, we can obviously see that higher anxious students tend to get lower results rather than less anxious ones (Phillips, 1992). MacIntyre & Gardner (1994) thus questioned whether task performance can arouse anxiety. Actually, there

are more than one study concluding that language anxiety can be both consequence and cause of the problems in language learning (MacIntyre & Gardner, 1994a; Sparks & Ganschow, 1993). For example, when students are asked to respond to question in a language class, in which students turn to be anxious, this anxiety in turn leads to disturbance (He, 2018).

THE STUDY
Participants

The research participants were 91 English major students, studying in their first year at Thu Duc College in Ho Chi Minh City in 2016. Their age ranged from 19 to 23, with an average age being 19.7 years. Importantly, almost participants were Vietnamese and used Vietnamese as their L1, except for one Chinese student who is using Cantonese as his L1. Generally, they were all non-native speakers of English.

At college, they were at the first-year program of English major, focusing on the development of four language skills. They were included in the study as Yan (1998) reported that Year-1 students are the most anxious university students in language learning. In terms of Speaking course, it is considered as one of the four basic skills, including Speaking 1 and Speaking 2. It is estimated that student proficiency is equivalent to 3.0 – 4.0 IELTS band score at the time they enter the college. After the first course, they are expected to achieve 4.5, then 5.0 and above after the second course.

Instruments

The present research adapted both quantitative approach and qualitative approach to clarify the issue of language classroom in the correlation with English oral performance. In this study, data is collected through a survey, English test, and interview.

Questionnaire

The questionnaire was administered aiming to obtain a general picture of the students' FLA, and to compare with the oral results in English classroom. It was adopted from the Foreign language classroom anxiety scale (FLCAS), a five-point 33-item scale designed by Horwitz et. al

(1986). The present questionnaire was divided into two parts, demographic information and items to measure anxiety of students through manifestations in classroom.

IELTS Speaking simulation test

The use of IELTS speaking tests is to collect the data of students' oral performance to find out its relationship with anxiety levels. The tests include midterm test and final examination, the former tool place in usual class while the latter was organized by the school and marked by other teachers.

Semi-structured interview

The main aims of the focused in-depth interview were threefold: first, to attempt to examine the findings of the questionnaire survey; second, to further explore factors leading to students' FLA; and third, to find out whether FLA is a cause of effect of low oral performance. Importantly, this semi-structured interview would be conducted with intentional participants, based on their FLCAS score and speaking results.

Data collection

The questionnaires were administered in the class, between the midterm test and final examination the second semester, in 2017. Totally 101 students participated in the questionnaire survey. Before starting, the researcher briefly explained the rationale and nature of the study, because the researcher is the current teacher of the course, all students could be aware of the importance of the survey in helping them to improve speaking skill later. Students were also encouraged to raise questions about any items that were ambiguous to them whole answering.

Regarding the tests, the teachers prepared the speaking questions by their own and acted as examiners in class for midterm test. Whereas, students were assessed by two teachers (not in–charge teacher) separately to ensure accurate results. The material of this test was derived from the course book and extra resources, covering Studying, Working, Holidays and Traveling topics.

Six participants were picked up to participate in the interviews, based on

their FLCAS score and their speaking results according to three specific cases of correlation between these two components, including:

- Group 1: students with high anxiety level gained high speaking scores.

- Group 2: students with high anxiety level gained low speaking scores.

- Group 3: students with low anxiety level gained high speaking scores.

Data analysis

The data from the questionnaires was then coded and inputted into SPSS version 23 to export the descriptive statistics by Mean and SD values, and demonstrated in two ways. A pie graph was used to give a report about the percentage of students who are at the level of very high anxiety, high anxiety, moderate, low anxiety, and very low anxiety respectively. Secondly, the exploratory factor analysis was used to reveal how each component of language anxiety affected the students via tables. Finally, the Pearson correlation was used to test the interrelationship between the FLA level and the speaking performance.

As to the speaking results, since they were used to examine the relationship with FLA levels, correlational analysis was conducted with Pearson's *r*. Also, the correlation of speaking results between midterm test and final examination was going to be verified the reliability and validity of the oral tests by the correlation coefficient.

The correlation coefficient is calculated to indicate the relationship between two variables of the same group. Pearson *r* coefficients vary between -1 and +1, with +1 indicating a perfect positive relationship, -1 a perfect negative relationship, and 0 = no relationship. This means that Pearson's *r* gives us information about two major aspects of the relationship:

- The *direction* of the relationship: a positive sign indicates a positive direction, a negative sign shows a negative direction;

- The *strength* of the relationship: the closer to 1 (+ or -) the stronger the relationship, as the following values (Muijs, 2004):

The data from interviews were transcribed verbatim into Word files and edited by eliminating hesitation or non-sense expletives. The transcript was

later translated into English by the researcher. In case the quality of sound was quite low, the notes during the interview would be used. After being transcribed, the interview data were analyzed in line with the results of questionnaire survey data.

FINDINGS

The levels of FLA among participants

The levels of FLA: The statistical analysis of the FLCAS revealed that a considerable number of students were nervous during both oral English lessons and tests, accounting for more than a half of students. A significant number of students responded the high tension and nervous in their speaking class (43%), dominating other levels of FLA This number was followed by students at moderate level, which accounted for 35% and nearly doubled the number of students reporting low level of anxiety. It seemed that not many students felt that anxiety did not affect them during learning speaking, for the reason that only 2% of students was endorsed the very low anxiety and 14% of students thought that they were experiencing the low level.
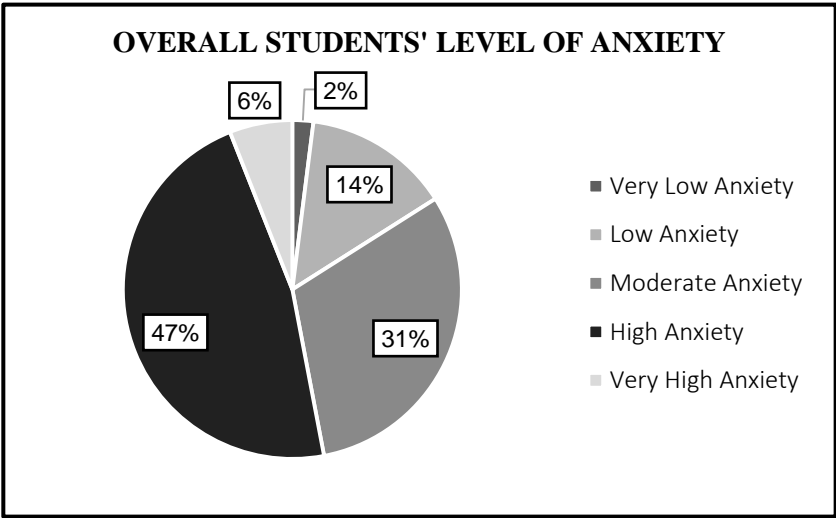

OVERALL STUDENTS' LEVEL OF ANXIETY

6% 2% 14% 47% 31%

- Very Low Anxiety
- Low Anxiety
- Moderate Anxiety
- High Anxiety
- Very High Anxiety

Figure 2. FLA levels of students in classroom

The response to each anxiety item: With regard to students' response to each question, students appeared to be the most anxious in tests (mean

3.44), following by communication apprehension (mean 3.41) in class and fear of negative evaluation (mean 3.05). With regard to test anxiety, the data of this study suggested that the pressure of the test result in specific and taking test in general pose a threat to their mind, making them feel worried, and uncomfortable in tests. Considering communication apprehension, it was highlighted by the fear of speaking without preparation and public speaking. Besides, other cases also caused anxiety in classrooms such as being called in class, difficulties with maintaining a conversation or understanding spoken message, language proficiency underestimation, or the lack of confidence. The remaining factor of language anxiety is the fear of being evaluated negatively; it seems not to cause a remarkable on students, except for the failure to keep up with classmates or making mistakes.

Table 1. The response to each FLA component

Rank	No.	Anxiety Group	N	Interpretation	Mean	Std. Deviation
1	FLCAS 3	Test Anxiety	91	A	3.44	1.34
2	FLCAS 1	Communication Apprehension	91	A	3.41	1.20
3	FLCAS 2	Fear of Negative Evaluation	91	N	3.05	1.23

4.1. The relationship between FLA and oral performance in tests

Table 2. Pearson correlation results between FLA and oral test results

		FLCAS 1	FLCAS 2	FLCAS 3	FLCAS
Midterm Speaking Score	Pearson Correlation	$-,52^{**}$	$-,44^{**}$	$-,56^{**}$	$-,60^{**}$
	Sig. (2–tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000
	N	91	91	91	91
Final Speaking Score	Pearson Correlation	$-,53^{**}$	$-,45^{**}$	$-,50^{**}$	$-,59^{**}$
	Sig. (2–tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000
	N	91	91	91	91
**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2–tailed).					

It is shown that FLA levels of students were not only significantly but inversely correlated with two oral tests – midterm and final examination. The higher level of anxiety students have, the lower scores they can obtain. Both midterm and final results had the lowest coefficients with the fear of negative evaluation ($r = -.44$, and $-.45$ respectively). Furthermore, the level of anxiety was significantly negatively correlated with midterm result ($r = -0.60$), while it made moderate relation to final result ($r = -0.59$).

Students' perceptions towards other variables affecting oral performance in class

The language performance of students does not occur separately in language class, it is thus affected by other factors. The interview focused on some specific variables relating to oral performance in test, including task difficulty, motivation, negative experiences, self-perception, teaching style and in-class activities.

Students think there is no existing gap between the course content and the speaking test, "*It is not too easy or difficult. All of the topics are instructed clearly by the teacher, and these topics are quite familiar to the daily life.*" (S01). Some claimed that "*It's quite easy.*" (S02) or "*I think it is quite suitable for me. Besides, the topics are quite relevant to my life, for example sport activities, or spare time.*" (S03).

It is noticeable that all interviewed students have strong motivation for their major – English language and wish to pursue as a long-term career after graduation and have no negative experiences in learning. Exceptionally, one student who had high level of anxiety and achieved low speaking result told her terrible situation in the first half of the semester: "*It was the midterm test, I received bad result for my speaking performance. So I felt anxious and worry about this result may negatively affects my final score*" (S03).

As for students' self-perception before the course, all subjects reported that they do not pay attention about the judgement about the course before registering for some reasons. Firstly, this course is a compulsory course, so they just follow the fixed learning progress given by their school. Secondly, they are aware of the importance of this subject, for there are four main skills when learning a language. Finally, they just feel pressure before the

semester with subjects like English for specific purposes, including Translation, American Culture, or English for Customer Care.

Most students feel comfortable with the lessons in class and do not have any criticism about teaching style and in-class activities. S01 adds that

I feel quite excited while participating in-class activities and being ready to answer all questions given by the teacher.

Even with students whose speaking result (S03) were quite low also think that

I feel totally feel comfortable with the way the teacher delivers the lesson.

They think the teaching style of the teachers can create a totally relaxed learning environment for them, especially this lend a support for them to exchange skills and knowledge with others. Except for a student (S02), she thinks the way that teacher imparts knowledge to her is not suitable, for that reason, she does not feel quite comfortable in class. However, she highlights that this does not have any relevance with her anxiety in class.

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

For the purpose of the study, the researcher has identified the level of FLA among students and their responses to each factor. Over a half of the participants acknowledged the existence of FLA in themselves, as found in a significant number of other studies (Horwitz, Horwitz, & Cope, 1986; Aida, 1994; Kitano, 2001). Besides, common manifestations of FLA have been depicted in the language classroom context. Students felt the most stressful when they had to deal with test situations, for the fear of failing the course and the test itself. The second factor that significantly influenced students was communication apprehension which was marked by popular phenomena in class. Among them, the first two had the highest supporting rates of participants; the next seven were supported as the subsequent position.

1. The anxiety of speaking without preparation
2. The anxiety of public speaking
3. The difficulty with spoken message

4. The anxiety of being called in class

5. The contemporary disappearance of relevant knowledge

6. Language proficiency underestimation

7. The lack of confidence

8. The dissatisfaction to maintain conversations

9. The anxiety towards public speaking

In addition, the data revealed that negative evaluation was partly caused anxiety in class. Students were perceived the fear of being left behind or making mistakes. All of them were the anxiety manifestations in classroom.

With regard to the relationship of FLA and oral performance, a conclusion can be drawn that the less proficient students were more anxious in oral English lessons and vice versa. Besides, the anxiety among students tightly links with their oral performance in tests. This complies with many early research and current research Young (1986), MacIntyre & Gardner (1991), Young (1991), Liu (2005), Tóth (2012). In fact, many researches showed that the relationship between anxiety and language achievement is not a one-way effect but bi-directional link. As He's model (2018), although anxiety might have a negative effect on learning process and interfere with task performance, task performance can lead to anxiety. The results obtained from the qualitative approach have showed the relationship between FLA and oral performance as well as confirmed that anxiety is the major cause of low oral performance. It means that the higher level of language anxiety may trigger the poorer level of language performance, especially speaking.

Anxiety independently originates backward effects on students' performance in speaking class, which corresponds well with some experimental studies. These studies revealed that the performance of students had improved markedly when anxiety was extracted from learning environment. To reaffirm that L2 learning and communication was influenced by anxiety, they put a camera in class and found that there were deficits at input, processing, and output stages. On the contrary, students felt relaxed and showed better performance the camera – the source of anxiety – was removed. It is similar to the findings of Liu (2005) that when

all causes of language anxiety were controlled, there was a significant improvement of language learning among student participants. Likewise, Onwuegbuzie, Bailey, & Daley (2000) again supported this practice by showing that after all factors of native language difficulties were handled, language anxiety still played a significant role in language learning.

The present research adopted a mixed method to investigate anxiety during both oral English lessons and tests over a full term. It further explored the relationship between anxiety levels and the oral performance in the test. In addition, the research also examined the effects of other variables on oral performance, beside language anxiety. Due to various constraints, there are several limitations existed in the study in the number of sample used, lack of video camera, and the subjectivity while conducting pilot. The later research should focus on whether it is a mono or bi-directional relationship. It should clarify the cause of low proficiency to the students' phobia in using the language in oral English lesson. Anxiety, in turn, greatly negatively affects the students' oral performance in English in the classroom. Also, identifying whether anxiety is a cause or consequence of poor language learning is a difficult task that should be investigated. Later research should replicate the present in different learning situations with varying groups of learners to determine what the findings would be in other contexts. Finally, different facets of second/ foreign language anxiety such as writing and reading or strategies for reducing anxiety are essential in language learning and communication should be a potential scope.

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MOTIVATIONAL STRATEGIES EXPLOITED IN TEACHING SPEAKING TO FIRST YEAR MAINSTREAM STUDENT

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ABSTRACT

The role of motivation in language learning and of applying motivational strategies in language teaching has become a great incentive for the researcher to conduct the research which aims at figuring out frequently used motivational strategies in speaking lessons and investing students' motivated behavior toward those techniques. Some effective motivational strategies as evaluated by studied students and actual classroom observation are subsequently proposed. With a view to gathering the desired data for three research questions, 100 first-year mainstream students were involved in completing the questionnaire. To enhance the quality of information collected from the questionnaire, classroom observation was also employed to help researchers examine and provide more details to the findings.

The results of this research show many positive signs of teacher's motivational teaching practice and student's motivated behaviors. Based on the data collected, the effective motivational strategies as perceived by students and classroom observation are revealed in the data analysis chapter. One hand, some of them are currently widely used in speaking lessons such as personalization, elicitation of self or peer correction or pair/group work. On the other hand, pitifully some have not been extensively exploited such as promoting autonomy, social chat, etc. because of teacher's unawareness of their advantages.

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FACTORS CAUSING OBSTACLES IN VIETNAMESE VISUALLY IMPAIRED LEARNERS' LEARNING ENGLISH

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ABSTRACT

Despite a growing body of research of teaching English in Vietnam, little research has been conducted in the field of teaching English to visually impaired learners. Therefore, this study aims at identifying factors causing obstacles in learning English of Vietnamese visually impaired learners. Six visually impaired learners of English participated in semi-structured interviews constructed on 17 reviewed factors influencing visually impaired learners' English learning. The findings shed a light on the factors truly preventing these students' learning. Thanks to these findings, hopefully it could offer the involved stakeholders (schools, teachers, families) a visible and thorough picture of the learning situations of the six visually impaired learners so that they could have sober reflections on to what extent they have fulfilled their supposed-to-be responsibilities described in the Decision 23/2006/QĐ-BGD&ĐT (MOET, 2006) in facilitating visually impaired students in learning English in inclusive learning and teaching environment and then take actions to seriously assist and promote English learning of Vietnamese visually impaired learners.

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Hoang Thi Nhat Tam has been working as an English language instructor at Faculty of English Linguistics and Literature, University of Social Sciences and Humanities, Vietnam National University for eight years. She earned her Master thesis in TESOL in 2012. One of her burning concerns is to facilitate disadvantaged English teaching and learning communities in

Vietnam and she has strived to get involved her students and colleagues in her research projects serving the communities in need. She finished three projects integrating service learning into 2 courses (Using IT in ELT, and Teaching English to Young Learners). Moreover, she has completed a research paper (granted by CamTESOL Regional ELT Research Grant Program) on factors influencing Vietnamese visually impaired students' English learning.

FROM DAILY CONVERSATION LANGUAGE SETTING TO DRAMA IN TEACHING SPEAKING FOR FIRST YEAR STUDENTS

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ABSTRACT

There is a fact that students are losing interests in learning and their speaking skill is lower than expected. One reason explained for this phenomenon is that students don't understand the goal of speaking lesson and benefits of what they learn in class, therefore they lack focus and interest for learning. There is a need to change students' learning attitude to English and a call for a new learning approach to enhance their language skill. Understand this necessity, the researcher proposes a new approach of teaching which transforms daily communication language settings into the drama to create practical, realistic and interesting activities for students and raise their learning interest, develop their critical thinking and enhance their speaking skill. Through the course designed by the teacher in this project, students learn English completely by group work and play drama roles with common topics that happen in real life. This new method of teaching will bring new atmosphere for learning speaking. Through the situations provided by the lecturer, students use their creativity, critical thinking and cooperation to act situations which can happen in real life. This ends up creating funny situations, enhance their responsibility for their study, and raise students speaking skill through vocabulary, grammar, voice, tone, and intonation which students use in drama.

Keywords: *daily communication, drama, speaking*

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SCAFFOLDING IN PEER INTERACTION BY VIETNAMESE COLLEGE STUDENTS

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ABSTRACT

The current shift of language teaching methodologies highlights the learners' role in language learning as the initiative agents seeking for the knowledge in the supportive language context. From a sociocultural theory perspective, peer interaction is claimed as one of the most productive learning contexts where EFL language learners can scaffold each other for the better linguistic outcomes. The paper focuses on investigating the scaffolding techniques Vietnamese college students use to help each other in completing the speaking tasks through peer interaction. Data from the transcripts of video-recorded pair talks are analyzed in the conventions of sociocultural discourse (Mercer, 2004). The results show that scaffolding is not only the rigid, top-down process from the more capable learners to less capable learners but also the fluid process which benefits both participants. The findings indicate pedagogical values in training students the scaffolding techniques for English speaking activities. They also provide theoretical implications of sociocultural theory and scaffolding in the English language teaching and learning.

Key words: *scaffolding, peer interaction, sociocultural theory*

INTRODUCTION

Peer interaction from Sociocultural Theory (SCT) perspective plays a crucial role in providing the learning context for language learners to master the new knowledge naturally from interacting with their peers. SCT implies that learning and development as being embedded within social events and occurring as a learner uses language to interact with other people, object and events in a collaborative environment (Vygotsky, 1978).

This mutual learning process through interaction in which participants use various techniques to support each other to co-construct the new knowledge is claimed as scaffolding. In essence, scaffolding can be seen as the support from an expert with more capable skills to a novice with less capable skills until new skills, concepts or higher levels of understanding can be developed. The current study examines how EFL students in Vietnam use scaffolding to assist their peers to solve linguistic problems in the classroom context.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Sociocultural Theory

Sociocultural Theory was initially coined by Vygotsky (1978) and developed by his followers. The results of many studies on peer interaction that have adopted this theoretical paradigm confirm the possibility of language learning through peer interaction (e.g., Yule & Macdonald, 1990; Kowal & Swain, 1994, 1997; Villamil & Guerrero, 1996; Swain, Brooks & Tocalli-Beller, 2002; Leeser, 2004; Watanabe & Swain, 2007). SCT is meaningful to language learning and development due to its concept that "human activities take place in cultural context, are mediated by language and other symbol systems" (Le, 2003, p.33). In other words, the focus on the importance of language implies that "participation in culturally organized activity is essential for learning to happen" (Lantolf & Thorne, 2006, p. 214). Simply put, learning is socially and culturally mediated by language. In describing the culturally constructed meaning, the followers of SCT use various key concepts in which zone of proximal development (ZPD) and scaffolding are the most relevant to the current study.

ZPD was first termed by Vygotsky (1978) as "The distance between the actual development level as determined by independent problem solving and the level of potential development as determined through problem solving under adult guidance or in collaboration with more capable peers". The most important idea of ZPD is that human beings can learn things through interacting with the more capable peers in the social environment if the knowledge is within their ability to acquire that is within their ZPD. In language learning, it means that the tasks for learners should be negotiable and solvable and also create enough learning possibilities for language

learners to develop their TL. Moreover, the notion ZPD suggests the idea of doing together and learning together in environment (zone) to reach the development. In this sense, both parties in the peer interaction, even the less proficient learners, must actively engage in the tasks as Wertsch (1991, p. 18) puts it "they (learners) create their surrounding as well as themselves through the actions in which they engage".

SCT not only focuses on the social, cultural and historical context of the learners but also stresses the role of others (adults and peers) in the learning process. In the case of learners taking part in the speaking tasks, learners (peers of different proficiency) interact with each other by using language (L1 and TL) and through the scaffolding process between the more capable peer and less capable peer then the internalization process inside their minds, the language learning is mediated.

Scaffolding

Although the term "scaffolding" wasn't directly mentioned in Vygotsky's (1978) work, it is, in fact, included in his paradigm in the notion of ZPD. The first introducers of scaffolding were Wood, Bruner, and Ross (1976) who described it as a process of constructive support in form of interaction in ZPD between an expert (more capable peer) and a novice (less capable peer) until the novice can do things independently.

Obviously, the concept of scaffolding is a metaphor in learning domain in term of a learning context, a tutorial process (Wood et al., 1976) a support given by a more capable peer and even a dynamic intervention finely tuned to the learner's ongoing (Van de Pol, Volman & Beishuizen, 2010). However, some researchers have controversial conceptualizations of this term with regards to the relationship between expert and novice as well as the learning nature in peer interaction. For example, some criticisms of those who use scaffolding in a very traditional way (Daniels, 2001; Granott, 2005), which means that the experts tend to be in the teachers' shoes (e.g., Le, 2007) with higher position in learning context and this rigid learning might spoil the learning development at least from the side of the expert. In this sense of asymmetrical relationship, the expert controls the learning opportunities in the peer interaction and even novice's knowledge construction, which entails the low mutuality of responsibility in the

interaction (Granott, 2005 cited in Watanabe, 2014).

Similarly, Van Lier (1996) argues that the customary assumption of scaffolding as the top down and one-way assistance within ZPD which can only be from a more capable person is too limited. A number of studies reveal an important finding that there is cognitive value even in homogeneous pairing, i.e. in such peer interaction, there are no identifiable or constant "experts" (Donato, 1988; Kowal & Swain, 1994; Ohta, 1995; Villamil & de Geurrero, 1996). Obviously, scaffolding can occur in collaborative form and accomplishment where scaffolders and scaffoldees can exchange their roles frequently and get mutual benefits from providing "peer scaffolding" or "collective scaffolding" (Donato, 1994) because each learner has his own weaknesses and strengths that may be complementary (Ohta, 2001, p. 76) from the other peer in social interaction to complete the tasks. Scaffolding, then, can be defined as a "collaborative process, through which assistance is provided from person to person such that an interlocutor is enabled to do something she or he might not have been able to do otherwise" (Ohta, 2000, p. 52). Consequently, the current study follows the current trends of viewing scaffolding as a shifting process of assistance in language learning meriting both participants in peer interaction.

During the last decades, classifications of scaffolding strategies can be found in various works such as Wood et al.'s (1976) six scaffolding functions, Tharp and Gallimore's (1988) six means of assisting performance and Van de Pol, Volman & Beishuizen's (2010) three characteristics. From these strategies or processes, it can be said that there are various ways for the experts to help the novices in completing the tasks during their peer interaction. Scaffolding, then, isn't like a technique which can be applied to every situation in the same way due to its flexibility in the utility settings from parent-child interaction to teacher-student interaction (Cazden, 1979) and to peer interaction.

Studies on scaffolding in peer interaction

Scaffolding has become a popular notion in the classroom research due to the influence of SCT from the 1990s (Danli, 2009). The customary explanation of scaffolding as the top-down assistance by the more knowledgeable peers to the less knowledgeable peers seem to be out of date

with the findings of a large body of studies in which the roles of expert or novice are unclear in peer interaction (Forman and Cazden, 1985). As a result, some researchers mention the terms collaborative scaffolding (Donato, 1988; Villamil & de Geurrero, 1996) while the others report the phenomenon of fluidity in participant roles (Kowal & Swain, 1994; Ohta, 1995; Shima, 2008).

Kowal and Swain's (1994) results from a study on the oral discourse of young students in pairs showed a more balanced contribution between the homogeneous pairs as both partners played the roles of experts alternatively with equal responsibility in the process of reaching common solutions. The investigation on a dictogloss task by grade 8 French immersion students also revealed that students' thoughts were built up on each other's comments and they refined the messages and improved the accuracy of the message. However, the findings showed the difference between the heterogeneous pairs with traditional and unchanged roles of more capable peers as experts throughout the task completion. The top-down scenario of expert-novice was, then, concluded as less conducive to language learning.

Ohta's (1995) examination on the talk of the non native pair of tertiary students found the fluidity in the role of the expert in heterogeneous students with different language proficiency. The author confirmed the changing roles between expert and novice in peer interaction while the participants "construct their roles through varying the level of expertise they contribute to the interaction" (Ohta, 1995, p.116). More evidence of changeable nature of expert and novice roles in peer interaction is found in various studies. For instance, Jacoby and Gonzales's (1991) research on expert-novice relationships in a group of peers (scientists), Villamil and de Guerrero's (1996) study on Spanish speaking ESL students at tertiary level working on a composition revision task in pairs, Donato's (1988) investigation on American tertiary students learning French in completing a composition task and a task involving planning for an oral presentation and Shima's (2008) examination on the peer interaction in a small group work task of a pre-intermediate level Japanese language classroom at an Australian university. Donato (1988), then, provided the term of collective scaffolding as the utterances where learners pooled their partial knowledge of L2 to reach solutions to decisions concerning language use or structure. Moreover, the

notion of peer scaffolding was also mentioned in Donato's (1994)'s study in a university French classroom under the name collective scaffolding. In the process of peer scaffolding, language learners can be "at the same time individually novices and collectively experts" (Donato, 1994, p. 46) during the peer interaction to expand their L2 knowledge and extend the linguistic development of their peers. In this case, peer scaffolding firmly supports the concepts of mediation and ZPD in SCT due to its role as a mediational tool to promote learners' ZPD in language learning situations.

In sum, many previous research studies share the results that scaffolding benefits the language learning process and may be incorporated into their independent discourse (Lantolf, 2000). A number of studies in various learning contexts claim that the roles of expert and novice in the peer interaction are fluid. However, a large body of the studies on scaffolding have been carried on written performance (Danli, 2009; Sabet, Tahriri & Pasand, 2013; Ranjbar and Ghonsooly, 2017) while studies on scaffolding through oral performance tasks are still limited especially in Vietnamese context except for the study on peer scaffolding on oral presentation by Nguyen (2013). The study is an attempt to examine features of scaffolding in peer interaction by Vietnamese EFL college students. It investigates how the students mutually assist each other in the process of completing the speaking tasks in pair work. The following questions are addressed:

1. *What are the features of scaffolding in peer interaction?*

2. *How does peer scaffolding affect the students' outcomes in the speaking task?*

THE STUDY

Participants and procedures

The participants in this study were 10 second-year students of English teachers' training major. They were chosen randomly from 3 classes at college level. The students worked in 5 pairs to carry out a speaking task. The participants were instructed to collaboratively produce dialogues and encouraged to make any decisions they liked. They were allowed to use their mother tongue while completing the task for the structures and vocabulary they didn't know or remember in English.

The tasks

Decision-making task adapted from Pica, Kanagy, and Falodun (1993) in which learner dyads are given a problem for which there are a number of possible outcomes and they must choose one through negotiation and discussion. "The Desert Island" task provides the situation of two people on a sinking boat and they are allowed to bring five out of twelve items for their survival on a desert island until they are rescued. The task requires the participants to reach a mutually acceptable decision or an agreed solution following their discussion.

Data collection and analysis

Classroom interactive data were collected during the task completion of each pair. The discussion part was videotaped. The videotaping was done by other students from the participants' classes in order to reduce the effective responses due to the researcher's presence. The researcher was waiting outside the videotaping room, instead of interfering in the discussion.

The data analysis was conducted in two steps. Firstly, the types of talks were identified following the conventions of sociocultural discourse analysis (Mercer, 2004), which focuses on the use of language as a "social mode of thinking" and "a tool for teaching and learning, constructing knowledge, creating joint understanding and tackling problems collaboratively" (p. 141). Transcription of classroom interactions will be extracted as excerpts for commentaries. For analysis of the quantity of language produced, the unit of measurement is the speech production through the commentary of sociocultural discourse analysis. Mercer (2004) classified the talk into 3 types of disputational, cumulative and exploratory talks with the purposes to maintain the crucial involvement with the contextualized, dynamic nature of talks.

Excerpt 1: disputational talks involve the disagreement and individualized decision making with short exchanges

> S2: You bring water from the sea and you warm it to drink.

> S1: you drink the sea?

S2: yes.

S1: no, I don't think so.

S2: yes, you can.

Both participants in the exchange rarely engage collaboratively in the task. They disagree with each other but don't show any critical explanations for their opinion. Thus, this exchange has an unproductive, disputational quality.

Excerpt 2: cumulative talks relate to positives and uncritical responses to the partner's ideas with repetitions, confirmations, and elaborations.

S7: The first, in my opinion, I will bring torch light.

S8: Torch light?

S7: Yes.

S8: Oh why?

S7: Because in the island very dark, I need to torch light to find the way to go.

S8: Oh, yes. That's right.

S7: Anything else?

S8: Oh, I think so. In the island very dark at night and we bring torch light?

S7: Ok.

There is no evidence of dispute in the talk. In fact, the participants seem to agree with each other's idea and share the common solutions. Although their conversation is collaborative, there is no critical consideration of ideas.

Excerpt 3: exploratory talks characterize the critical but constructive exchanges with visible reasoning.

S1: And the next item, I will choose canned food.

S2: Canned food?

S1: Yes.

S2: Why?

S1: Because in desert island, I think not food here and maybe has vegetable we're not eat, we can't find food in there and canned food will help me eat when I hungry.

S2: No. I don't agree with you. I think food can find in desert Island, and it is the sea so you can find fish in the sea. So it don't need for you.

S1: Oh no. I think it's difficult to find fish because it's lives far from so you can't catch.

The participants elaborate each other's ideas with critical explanations and arguments. They use various explicit reasoning for their ideas and even build up on their peer's opinion. They also reach the consensus decisions for the task. This type of talk has the most productive quality in terms of ideas and linguistic development.

Secondly, the current study adopts the specific scaffolding categories suggested by Van de Pol, Volman, and Beishuizen (2010) with some adaptations for coding and quantifying during data analysis. The established categories of feeding back, giving off hints, instructing, explaining, questioning are redefined and adjusted to fit the current participants. Modeling category was deleted due to its inappropriateness to the current study. The table below shows the list of scaffolding techniques with specific explanations and examples from transcriptions of classroom discourse.

Category	Explanation	Examples from the transcription
Instructing	Instructing engages the peers telling each other what to do or explanation of how something must be done and why	*Hey guy, mm… we just...we can just bring 5 things..., mm… to the island so …mm*
Feeding back	Feeding back involves the	*Yes, I will teach you.*

	provision of information for a question and request	
Giving hints	Giving hints is way that peer provides the clues to each other in order to lead the conversation in the direction he/she wants or the prompts to help the other fulfill his/her thought and speech.	*Ok when you climb the tree… What about when you climb the tree?*
Explaining	Explaining refers to the provision of more detailed information or clarification for a request	*No, I don't think so because it don't have enough bullet to us to use and we have the knives.*
Questioning	Questioning involves asking questions that require an active linguistic and cognitive answer.	*and how about the clothes?*

FINDINGS

Scaffolding features

The first research question inquired the identification of scaffolding features in peer interaction on completing the speaking task of making decision. The quantity of each scaffolding technique used by both participants was calculated by a percentage of the total turns in their talk. Table 1 displays the number of scaffolding techniques produced by each pair across the task.

Table 1: Scaffolding techniques used in 5 talks

Pairs	S 1-2	S 3-4	S 5-6	S 7-8	S 9-10
Questioning	17	5	2	8	8
%	20%	13.1%	6.9%	14.3%	21%
Instructing	1	1	1	1	0

Pairs	S 1-2	S 3-4	S 5-6	S 7-8	S 9-10
%	1.1%	2.6%	3.4%	1.8%	0%
Explaining	14	5	1	4	3
%	16.4%	13.1%	3.4%	7.1%	7.9%
Giving hints	5	2	3	0	0
%	5.9%	5.2%	10.3%	0%	0%
Feeding back	48	25	22	41	27
%	56.4%	65.78%	75.8%	73.2%	71%
Total turns	85	38	29	56	39

For all five pairs, the largest portion of techniques is feeding back with the highest percentage of 75.8%. The second frequently used technique is questioning with the highest percentage of 21%. Instructing is mostly used at the beginning of the task as a way of introducing the task. In peer interaction, the students facilitate each other to discuss the appropriate solutions for the survival on the desert island. While they are reasoning the arguments, they are also building up their thoughts on each other's opinions. Initially, one student may choose one item and reason for their choice. Then another student is encouraged to clarify the meaning through scaffolding to reach their final decisions.

The impacts of scaffolding on students' outcomes

The second research question inquired how scaffolding influenced participants' outcomes during task completion. Data analysed in Mercer's conventions (2004) shows 3 types of talks as the table below

Table 2: Types of talks

Task	Disputational talk	Cumulative talk	Exploratory talk
Decision-making task	S 9-10	S 5-6 S 7-8 S 9-10	S 1-2 S 3-4 S 7-8 S 9-10

The decision-making task required participants to use their logical ideas for their choice. Thus, four out of five talks have exploratory characteristics with much more productive quality. The participants negotiate the meaning and also build up the new knowledge on their peers' ideas or arguments. Disputational talk is the fewest with one pair while cumulative talk is the second highest category. As shown in table 2, the nature of the talks is changeable, which results in the fact that one conversation has characteristics of more than one type of talks.

In order to find the evidence of how the scaffolding influences learner's language outcomes in peer interaction, the conversation was coded under the Initiation-Response-Feedback (IRF) structure. IRF was first introduced by Sinclair and Coulthard (1975) and identified by Mercer (2004) with three groups of eliciting knowledge from learners, responding to what learners say and describing significant aspects of shared experiences. The techniques of IRF exchanges are adapted to fit the current context of peer interaction with 7 most significant features frequently used by both participants and calculated by a percentage of the total turns of the analysed IRF. Table 3 displays the amount of IRF structure in the 5 talks produced by each pair across the task.

Table 3: The characteristic IRF structure in the 5 talks

Pairs	S 1-2	S 3-4	S 5-6	S 7-8	S 9-10
confirmation	13	14	7	13	6
%	28.2%)	23.7%	36.8%	24.5%	18.1%
elaboration	5	7	4	8	3
%	10.8%)	11.8%	21.5%	15.1%	9%
repetition	8	6	3	12	1
%	17.4%	10.1%	15.7%	22.6%	3%
elicitation	6	1	1	2	0
%	13%	1.7%	5.2%	3.7%	0%
rejection	4	4	1	1	3

Pairs	S 1-2	S 3-4	S 5-6	S 7-8	S 9-10
%	8.7%	6.7%	5.2%	1.8%	9%)
question	2	15	1	10	7
%	4.3%	25.4%	5.2%	18.8%	21.2%
explanation	8	12	2	7	13
%	17.4%	20.3%	10.5%	13.2%	39.3%
Total turns	46	59	19	53	33

Table 3 shows the variety of IRF use in five talks in which 7 most significant features of confirmation, elaboration, repetition, elicitation, rejection, question and explanation are counted. Some other features such as recap, suggestion, phatic utterances and simultaneous talk aren't listed. Confirmation techniques are frequently used more than the others with the highest percentage in 4 out of five pairs. Elaboration, question, and repetition are also popular in peer interaction. Moreover, the roles of expert and novice are changing quite rapid in the talks when they discuss, negotiate and critically argue for the five final items to bring for their survival on a desert island. The following examples illustrate the shifting roles of the participants in the shoe of the expert as in elaborating the arguments for their partners between S5 and S6 and providing the English words and ideas for the critical reasoning between S3 and S4.

Excerpt 4:

S5: Maybe… I agree with you. Mm and the second thing, I… I think it is necessary in the… desert island, it is fresh water…

S6: fresh water?

S5: Yes. because in the desert island, there is no no water to drink. And we need water to maintain the life.

S6: Yes. I think we need to fresh water to cook food or something.

S5: cook? Yeah

S6: So, and I think we mm need to knife too. Because… in there

very… maybe in there very dangerous animals. So that you bring bring it to protect yourself.

S5: Yes. And the the thing that I I think it is necessary is first aid kit. I think it's necessary when you hurt, mm maybe the snakes or the dangerous animals mm bite you, you can….mm you can mm

S6: use it to mm…

S5: so you can mm mm use first aid kit to mm…to mm to mm

S6: help you when get hurt

S5: Yes.

Excerpt 5:

S4: I agree with you. I think you should I think mm I think I choose first-aid-kit.

S3: First-aid-kit? Yeah, ok.

S4: Yes. Because in in mm từ này đọc là gì? (*How do we pronounce this word*?)

S3: cái gì? (*what?*) desert island

Both: in desert island.

S4: Yes. Because in the desert island, it has a lot of thing, it will dangerous for you so when you have first-aid-kit, maybe you can mm it helps you mm làm gì? (*help you do what?*)

S3: (laugh) giải quyết (*solve*)

Both: (look at each other and laugh)

S4: giải quyết được…

S3: to solve. It helps me to solve the problems.

S4: Yes. Ok. And mm for you to solve problem for you and mm people []. What about you?

Later

S4: Why?

S3: Because in desert island, I think not enough food here. Yeah and maybe mm have many vegetables we're not mm we're not eat. Yeah we can't find food in there. Yeah so canned food can help me live mm it can help me mm to… help me to eat mm

S4: overcome mm

S3: overcome?

S4: overcome hungry.

S3: yes yes overcome (laugh) hungry

S4: No. I don't agree with you. I think food can find… in desert island or you can mm mm bắt cá là gì (*what word is "bắt cá"? catch fish*) Mm it is the sea… so you can… fish

S3: find fish.

S4: find fish.

S3: find fish in the sea. (laugh)

S4: find fish in the sea. Yes. So it not… it don't need for you in mm in… in op… in my opinion…

S3: Oh no. I think it's difficult to to…mm difficult to find fish because it lives far… lives far from (laugh) so you can't catch mm it. catch là bắt đúng không ta? (*Is the word catch for catch fish correct?*)

S4: Oh, so… mm. Yes, so so.

DISCUSSION

Firstly, the findings confirm the presence of such scaffolding techniques as instructing, questioning, feeding back, giving hints and explaining in peer interaction through a speaking task by Vietnamese EFL students. The data shows that learners use the feeding back technique much more than the other techniques. Questioning and explaining are also frequently used during the speaking task completion in order to scaffold each other. These scaffolding techniques in peer interaction are used with the purpose of assisting the participants in terms of finding unknown words, elaborating the ideas and also providing critical analysis of the arguments in order to

reach the consensus. Therefore, peer scaffolding results in co-construction of knowledge and language development, at least in terms of the vocabulary and structure to express the ideas. From this point of view, the study is in line with Lantolf (2000).

Secondly, the findings emphasise the impacts on participants' outcomes in language during peer interaction through oral performance. This result widens the spectrum of scaffolding advantages by reporting the scaffolding impacts on oral performance. Unlike the number of language learning studies investigating on linguistic performances of writing as in Danli (2009), Sabet, Tahriri & Pasand (2013) Ranjbar and Ghonsooly (2017) and reading as in McKenzie's (2011) work, the current study focuses on the speaking task. Participants scaffolded each other by using confirmation, elaboration, question, explanations and even repetition, which positively affects their peers in prolonging their reasoning and negotiating for the shared knowledge and common decisions. During five talks, they showed their attention to the other's opinions and assisted each other in linguistic troubles. Above all, they critically argued for the logic and usefulness of the things their partner suggested. Therefore, their learning was mediated through the image artefacts of the things they chose and their partners' arguments and assistance.

Thirdly, the speaking task of decision-making is one of the important factors to foster the scaffolding impacts. Development is the prerequisite of learning so the task should challenge learners to think and act in advance of their actual level of development. The decision-making task of choosing five things for their survival requires learners to negotiate, persuade and critically argue their points or reject their partner's ideas for the common solutions. Thus, the task itself is an artefact for language development which provides students with items/artefacts images that mediate students thinking.

Fourthly, the evidence of the fluidity in the roles of scaffolder (expert) and scaffoldee (novice) for the purpose of task completion in our findings is in line with Kowal & Swain (1994), Ohta (1995), Shima (2008). For example, S3, S4, S5, and S6 took turns to assist their peers during the interaction to solve the linguistic problems. Moreover, the findings also confirm the

changeable natures of the talks, in line with the results reported by Mercer (2004). The data shows the results of 2 pairs with more than one type of talk, which means that the nature of the talks is not stable.

Finally, the data also reveals that the use of L1 in linguistic scaffolding is useful and essential especially in finding the unknown English words and expressions, which is in line with Mulia (2015). L1 play a crucial role in learning context of L2 and has been considered to provide "essential cognitive support for focusing attention and understanding meaning", Colina and Garcia Mayo (2014, p. 343). From SCT perspective, L1 use benefits language learning process in terms of sending and receiving information and establishing fruitful interaction and collaboration, which enables participants to work together in the pursuit of a common goal. As in the excerpt 4 and excerpt 5, peers provide mutual assistance in finding the English words and the structure for their peers by using their mother tongue.

IMPLICATIONS AND LIMITATIONS

This study has pedagogical implications in training the language teachers as well as alerting the classroom language teachers in providing the necessary scaffolding techniques for their students in working in pairs. The study also contributes to the theoretical implications of scaffolding in Vygotskian framework. The collaborative skills and social skills are also the key issues that a language teacher should considerate to equip their students with in order to create necessary conditions for the language learning context for the purpose of linguistic achievements. In addition, language teacher should also notice the peers' difference in term of proficiency on pairing the students for a speaking task. The speaking task designing might play a crucial role in the success of language learning. Thus, designing a task within students' ZPD in order to provide the appropriate learning context in which students promote themselves best should be always in teachers' minds. In sum, it is vital for language teachers to create a learning context that exposes EFL learners to various scaffolding techniques and to achieve linguistic developments through interacting with their peers for co-construction of new knowledge.

As the study was conducted on a small scale, the results cannot represent

the whole group of EFL Vietnamese students in peer interaction. In addition, the researcher noticed the need of conducting more research on the negative effects of scaffolding on peer interaction, the factors, and impacts of the shifting nature of talks and roles in peer interaction. The findings are more satisfied if the results were examined from various forms of tools such as interviews and learning journals. Finally, as the present study was conducted in an academic context and with intermediate level students in the college, further research is needed to be done in other learning contexts considering other effective factors.

CONCLUSION

This small-scale study adopting SCT as the theoretical framework investigated the features and impacts of scaffolding on performing the speaking task in peer interaction. Similar to other research studies, the scaffolding techniques of questioning, feeding back and explaining are popular during the task (van de Pol, 2010) while the question for elicitation, confirmation, explanation, and rejections are dominantly noted techniques of IRF (Mercer, 2004). From the data, we can conclude that scaffolding is conducive to language learning. Obviously, the changeable nature of talks and fluidity in roles of expert and novice contribute to the complexity and fascination of language learning process.

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APPENDIX

The Desert Island

You are on a sinking ship. There is only one lifeboat left for your rescue. The boat can only hold a limited amount of supplies and people. You can see a small desert island in the distance. If your boat makes it there safely, you will need things to help you survive until you are rescued.

Instruction: Look at the following list of items that you have. Choose only five items that you will bring with you. Working with a partner, you must decide and agree mutually on which five items to take. You have 10 minutes to plan what and how to say. However, you are only allowed to talk without your notes.

Items	Tick (√) to indicate your choice
1. Torchlight	
2. Pillows	
3. Canned food	
4. Clothes	
5. Fresh water	
6. Knives	
7. Map	
8. Family documents	
9. Handphone	
10. First-aid kit	
11. Matches	
12. Gun	

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THE IMPACT OF STORYTELLING ON HIGH SCHOOL STUDENTS' ORAL PERFORMANCE

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ABSTRACT

In the time of international integration, English has become increasingly important and practical. In the academic field, English contributes greatly to overseas study, settlement and research. In this context, teachers should have a variety of teaching methods to support students, especially storytelling, which is one of the most arguing methods. Many teachers say that it is compatible for high school learners while others argue that it is ineffective regarding their teaching contexts. Hence, the research is aimed to investigate how storytelling impacts on students' speaking ability at high schools and whether students are interested in it or not. This is an experimental study conducted with the use of both qualitative and quantitative methods. Pretests and posttests are employed to collect the data. The findings from the study reveal that storytelling has enormous contributions to students' speaking skills.

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TECHNOLOGY

MOBILE-ASSISTED LANGUAGE LEARNING: A CASE STUDY OF ENGLISH PRONUNCIATION TEACHING AND LEARNING AT BINH DUONG UNIVERSITY

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ABSTRACT

The twenty first century has witnessed the important role of technology in language education. Today English language learners can have access to various mobile applications to help them improve their English. This paper reports the results of the first cycle of an on-going action research study on using an application called ELSA (short for English Language Speech Assistant) in a remedial English pronunciation course at Binh Duong University.

The study follows a collaborative action research and the mixed-method design. In the study, a team of teachers-action researchers asked questions about how to improve pronunciation teaching and learning practices, formed hypotheses about motivation and engagement, heightened awareness of problem areas, and better goal-setting, then observed, documented, and reflected on what was going on to confirm or reject their hypotheses. The subjects of this study were 17 teacher-trainees at the Faculty of Foreign Languages at Binh Duong University, all of whom were involved in organizing and delivering a 5-week remedial English pronunciation course open to the public from March 24 to April 21, 2018. The preliminary results confirm our hypothesis, which opens up a world of potentials for mobile-assisted language learning, at least in the area of pronunciation teaching and learning practices.

VAN LANG UNIVERSITY'S ENGLISH MAJORS' INCLINATION TOWARDS SMARTPHONE USE FOR READING COMPREHENSION

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ABSTRACT

The use of smartphones tends to be ubiquitous in any contemporary language classrooms, leading to a potential shift from Computer-Assisted Language Learning (CALL) to Mobile-Assisted Language Learning (MALL). Following many past studies, this survey study, conducted at the Faculty of Foreign Languages in Van Lang University, HCMC, aimed to explore (1) the participants' inclination of using smartphones to facilitate reading comprehension and (2) the participants' perspectives on the effects of such application. Stratified sampling method was used to obtain the target sample from 230 available second-year English majors. The only questionnaire was sent via email to the participants. Findings indicated that the participants frequently used mobile dictionaries, named TFLAT, to translate texts and seek word meanings and less frequently used smartphones to practice EFL reading comprehension. They also felt that this practice is effective enough for their study and disregard its side effects. This study might make contributions to other studies of the functions of mobile apps in EFL learning and teaching.

THE AUTHOR

Duong Thanh Hung Duc is a postgraduate alumnus of HCMOU and has been teaching at Van Lang University, HCMC, for four years. After graduation, he has learnt that all prior lessons in HCMOU's program have supported him much in his long-term study process and teaching. He is

keen on EFL reading and writing and has been trying to grasp some innovative, but effective ways to help his students. Although he is quite young and has just very little experience in research methodology, he hopes that he could make contributions to the success of this conference as well as learn more from others.

Dr. Vu Thi Phuong Anh is currently Dean of Foreign Languages at Binh Duong University. With more than 30 years of experience, Dr Vu has worked in various academic and managerial positions in different public and private universities in Ho Chi Minh City, and was a national "strategic consultant" for Project 2020 from 2014 to 2016. Dr Vu earned a PhD in Education (specialized in Language Testing) from La Trobe University (1998). Among her research interests are language test development and the washback effect of testing on teaching and learning.

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THE EFFECTS OF USING VIDEO-BASED INSTRUCTION ON EFL TEENAGE LEARNERS' ACADEMIC WRITING PERFORMANCE

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ABSTRACT

Writing is considered the most difficult skill for learners to master because of many reasons ranging from objective to subjective perspectives. A great number of students perform well at other skills and find it hard to learn writing. As a result, figuring out an appropriate method to teach writing becomes an indispensable issue faced by English teachers, especially those teaching teenagers who are active in the class. Video exposure has been claimed to be familiar to most teenagers and brings students numerous benefits regarding their learning motivation, leading to a need for applying videos in teaching writing. The current study was conducted with 40 teenage learners at an English language center in Can Tho to investigate the effects of using video-based instruction on EFL teenage learners' writing performance and their perceptions towards using it in learning EFL writing. Quantitative and qualitative data were collected from students' pretest and posttest of writing and a questionnaire. The study results reveal beneficial effects of using video-based instruction on students' writing performance on certain specific features. Besides that, the results indicate teenage students' positive perceptions of the implementation of using video-based as well as some useful implications for teaching writing to teenagers in the era of globalization.

Keywords: *video-based, writing performance, perception*

INTRODUCTION

In the time of globalization, English is gaining its popularity as a top language employed in most situations including transactions or negotiations

worldwide, which leads to a growing number of demands to master this language among learners (Crystal, 2013). In Vietnam, this trend has taken place so intensively that more children from an early age are sent to English centers (Le, 1999). In Can Tho city, in particular, more teenagers become very excellent at English as for their much exposure to English use. The characteristics of teenagers are unlike those of other kinds of students since they are active and easily distracted in the classroom, but they show their good ability at listening skills. Teenagers coming to English centers to learn English are increasingly prevalent, posing a question whether traditional methods are suited to them or not. Most of them can perform well with listening, speaking and reading, but they seem not to be satisfied with their writing skills. They appear to become motivated to listen to English videos as they can catch the information fast and apply the taken phrases into their writing task. One study indicates that children remember video-based information longer than information they read or hear with longer retention (Linda, Knapp & Glenn, 1996). However, they are still in ambiguity without the teacher's guidance, which means that the teacher needs to explain the main points again as writing is formal and difficult to them. Some initiatives like process-based approach combined with videos should be come up with to mitigate the difficulty in learning academic writing among teenagers because that the writing skill acquisition seems to be more "laborious" and challenging than the other three skills acquisition (Zheng, 1999). As a result, teachers are in need of finding out an effective method to teach teenagers writing skills and the idea that using videos to trigger teenagers' potential is reasonable and it could be developed in the years to come.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Academic writing

Writing has been defined in various ways depending on each researcher. Academic writing is, in general, conducted in several sets of forms and genres, normally in an impersonal and dispassionate tone, targeted for a critical and informed audience, based on closely investigated knowledge, and intended to reinforce or challenge concepts or arguments. It usually circulates within the academic world known as the academy, but the academic writer may also find an audience outside via journalism, speeches

and so on. Typically, scholarly writing has an objective stance, clearly states the significance of the topic, and is organized with adequate detail so that other scholars may try to replicate the results. Strong papers are not overly general and correctly utilize formal academic rhetoric. According to Irvin (2010), academic writing is defined as the way in which a piece of writing is for academic purposes. The contexts where academic writing is used are universities or institutions. In general, although writing concerned with different aspects, it shared two common characteristics, meaning that writing is a process and used for communicative purposes.

Writing teaching approaches and assessment

According to Badger & White (2000), Yan (2005), and Yi (2009), there are three main approaches to the teaching of writing in EFL or ESL classroom, namely the product-based, the process-based and the genre-based approaches.

The product-based approaches see writing as primarily concerned with linguistic knowledge with attention focused on the structure of language, writing development via imitating input that is provided by the teacher (Badger & White, 2000). Learning to write with this approach has four stages, namely familiarization, controlled writing, guided writing, and free writing (Pincas, 1982). In familiarization stage, the teachers introduce a sample text in order to get students analyze and familiarize certain features as mechanical grammar and text structure before the controlled and guided writing sections. Next, students are required to practice the models with increasing freedom until they are ready for free writing section (Badger & White, 2000). In other words, at the stage of free writing, students feel as if they themselves are creating something. With the product approaches, although teachers focus on what a final piece of writing will look like (Yan, 2005), their strengths are that learners are provided with linguistic knowledge of texts and imitation is one way to learn (Badger & White, 2000).

With the process approach, there is much less emphasis on linguistic knowledge, but it is a creative act that centers on what the writer does during writing - particularly the ability of free expression, the attempt to find solutions to the problems, self-discovery (Berlin, 1988; John, 1990; Yi, 2009). Badger and White (2000) stated that the teacher's role in facilitating

learners' writing is more important than providing them with input or stimuli. In producing process of a piece of writing, there are different opinions about stages that writers' experience, but four main stages are often mentioned: prewriting, composing/drafting, revising, and editing (Tribble, 1996). In the first stage, the learners brainstorm on the topic and the teacher has to assist them to recall, trigger and activate their personal experience as well as world knowledge related to the topic so that they are able to generate ideas (Yan, 2005). In fact, after prewriting, writers could write from what they brainstorm and from personal experience as well as world knowledge the teacher helps to activate. Then learners make a plan of the topic by selecting and structuring their brainstorming to produce a first draft. After discussion, revising the first draft should be done individually or in groups and learners finally edit the text (Badger & White, 2000).

In the genre-based approach, teaching writing is added with the issues of audience and social context, which entails the written product to be likely to emphasize rhetorical knowledge as structure, style, content, and audience to differentiate genres of novels, applications, reports, articles and so on (Grabe & Kaplan, 1996; Tribble, 1996; Yan, 2005; Yi, 2009). In other words, it helps teachers identify the kinds of texts that students will have to write in their target contexts and organize their courses to meet the needs (Hyland, 2008). In short, writing development of genre approach and product approach shares the imitation of input in form of texts in common. Although genre approaches lack valuable skills to write texts, they engage writing in social context and learning in a conscious way via analysis and imitation (Badger & White, 2000). Alodwan and Ibnian (2014) concluded that the process approach to writing had positively affected the students' essay writing skills in EFL. Based on the study, the researchers recommended placing more emphasis on teaching writing as a process, not only as a product. The researchers also recommended combining more focus on the pre-writing stage due to its significant role in the writing process at the World Islamic Sciences and Education University in Amman. The process approach has been proved effective for both teachers to implement and for students to follow with ease.

In the current study, the analytic evaluation by Hughes (1992, cited in Jessica, 2005) will be used to evaluate students' writing performance, but

five criteria have the equal weight and are described in details in Appendix 1. In the teacher's evaluation of student writing, it is essential for students to understand that grades, scores are different forms of feedback in which they can learn as input for the next writing (Brown, 2001).

Intermediate teenage characteristics

Regarding teenagers' personalities, Wilson and Horch (2002) cited by Salyers & McKee (2016) concluded that teenage students should also be encouraged to use cooperative learning at this age to take advantage of the great range of academic and social maturities while developing group problem-solving skills. Allowing for student choices and making lessons relevant to the interests of young adolescents will engage them in learning upon addressing needs to show their independence. Therefore, using video in teaching writing will create long-lasting impressions because it entertains students and conveys information in attractive ways. Previous studies have constantly suggested that video-based learning can effectively enhance learners to understand more and retain information better (Zhang et al., 2006; Leijen et al., 2009; Palubeckis et al., 2010; Lee et al., 2011;). Similarly, Lenhart (2012) came to a conclusion that youth from higher income and higher education families are more likely to video chat and they are frequent internet users, text senders, and social media users are all more likely to video chat than others. Demands for using something to attract and activate them in the classroom should be met.

Video-based instruction and its roles

Video modeling is defined as a form of observational learning where a target behavior is demonstrated on video then the learner has the opportunity to imitate the observed behavior (Nikopolous & Keenan, 2004). For example, Herron, Cole, and Corrie (2000) offered evidence that showing videos in the classroom allowed instructors to expose language learners to authentic information. Likewise, Simpson, Langone, and Ayres (2004) also concluded that there was an improvement in students' writing skills using videos to assist teaching. Furthermore, according to Choi and Johnson (2005), the authors examined whether video-based instruction that was developed using constructivist theory could affect student learning (comprehension and retention) and motivation (attention, relevance,

confidence, and satisfaction) by comparing learners' perceptions of both video-based instruction and traditional text-based instruction in an online context-based lesson. There was a significant difference in learners' motivation in terms of attention between the video-based instruction and traditional text-based instruction. In addition, the video-based instruction was reported to be more memorable than the traditional text-based instruction as inputs (Brown, 2001). This study implies that context-based videos in online courses have the potential to enhance learners' retention and motivation. Shared the idea is Cruse (2006) who thought that educational television and video could reinforce reading and lecture material, aid in the development of a common base of knowledge among students, enhance student comprehension and discussion, provide greater accommodation of diverse learning styles, increase student motivation with enthusiasm and promote teacher effectiveness. The use of videos in the classroom is practical in terms of analyzed aspects.

In 2010, Onozawa stated process-based instruction was beneficial to learners. That leads to the question whether videos do work for learners or process-based instruction is effective without videos. Supplementary to this study, Rachmah (2011) held the view that teaching descriptive and narrative texts by using video significantly increased the students' score in writing. In addition, using videos in teaching narrative and descriptive text writing had huge effects on the students' score in writing. Nevertheless, there are some suggestions from the writer to teachers who want to apply videos in teaching descriptive text writing, as follows, asking the students to work in pairs or groups first when doing the tasks. Choi and Yang (2011) also presented authentic situations through video is more effective to enhance student learning achievement than presenting authentic situations through text in problem-based instruction. This result is consistent with the findings from previous studies and videos can help students who have limited experience enhance their understanding and learn complex skills. This study was conducted with participants who had never had this type of instruction and had different cultural and ethnic backgrounds from the previous studies. Accordingly, the result of student learning achievement from this study contributes to generalizing the finding of previous studies that the use of video can have a more positive impact on learner

comprehension than the use of text in problem-based instruction. Anggraeni (2012) showed the findings of the results show the positive improvements in the students' writing skill and class situation. Another researcher, Kutlu (2013), did a research in which students in the experimental group had instruction videos as the pre-class activity, while the control group had papers to use for that activity. At the end of the instruction, students studying writing with videos produced more successful essays than the control group. The results of the research highlighted that technology was vital for developing the writing skill as a tool for pre-class activities. The pre- and post-tests were given at the beginning and at the end of the study with 60 university students who are prep class students of a private university in Turkey. The result of this study was in accordance with what Falupi, Arifin, and Novita (2013) figured out, which was about the effectiveness of video use in teaching writing.

However, Woodruff (2014) conducted one research and suggested that when art lessons were taught to students with Autism Spectrum Disorder through video-based instruction, there were not any significant improvements when compared to traditional teaching methods. However, while this study was able to bring new research to both special education and art education, this research raised other issues and questions that should be addressed in future studies. Contradictory to this study, Ariyuni & Husein (2015) showed that the students could improve their ability in writing when they were taught by using video.

Challenges in the video-based writing classroom

Baek (2008) indicated six factors that hinder teachers' use of games in the classroom were discovered: inflexibility of curriculum, negative effects of gaming, students' lack of readiness, lack of supporting materials, fixed class schedules, and limited budgets, lack of supporting material, fixed class schedules, and limited budgets were factors that female teachers believed to be more serious obstacles to game use in the classroom than male teachers did. Nasab (2009) agreed that video-based instruction can be effective to be implemented instead of the traditional teaching method as it led to the same level of cognitive learning and more interest among students, but the teacher should take some factors into consideration. Chen

(2012) was in accordance with these above researchers, but he added some flaws that the researcher should employ more effective variables such as learners' personalities, learning cognitive attitudes, learning environment and various types of instructional materials may deeply conduct the research results. Morevover, Phan (2017) investigated the effects of freewriting on students at high schools, so research on videos combined with writing has not been conducted in Vietnam so far. In fact, teaching teenagers writing is a hard task requiring more effort and time.

The reasons stated above lead to a need of doing a research to investigate the effects of using videos in the classroom for teenagers and determine whether it works or not in bettering learners' writing performance.

THE STUDY

Research Questions

(1) What is the effect of using video-based instruction on EFL teenage learners' academic writing performance?

(2) What is the teenage learners' attitude towards using videos in learning writing?

Design

The study is an experimental design in order to identify the effects of using video-based instruction as the independent variable on teenage students' writing performance as the dependent variable. A combination of quantitative and qualitative approaches was used to collect and analyze data from the study as well as to answer the two research questions. The quantitative approach enables the researcher to control and manipulate how the participants take part in the intervention program while the qualitative approach makes the researcher and the participants close in contact (Lodico et al., 2010, p.229 & 143). The quantitative data were applied to measure the effects of video-based instruction on students' writing performance and what students' perceptions of video usage while qualitative data – particularly interview data were used to examine the students' explanation of their perceptions towards the implementation of using videos in learning writing. The study was conducted with two groups: experimental group

(G1) and control group (G2) and adopted pretest - posttest randomized experimental design (Gay et al., 2011), as shown in Table 1 below.

Table 1: Pretest - Posttest Randomized Experimental Design

Groups	Pretest	Intervention	Posttest
G1	X	X	X
G2	X	O	X

During the eight weeks of the study, students from the experimental and control groups were instructed with the same writing topics and process-based approach. However, students in the experimental group had a chance to expose to videos and under the teacher's supervision before they were ready for writing texts. There was a writing task for students each week and writing topics were picked out from the course book. The progress of students' writing performance after the intervention was examined by comparing the results of the pretest and posttest of writing, and the results of the posttests of the experimental and control group before drawing the conclusion. During the weeks, the teachers also gave the quick feedback form at the end of every class and a questionnaire in the last week to gather data about their attitude towards learning writing with videos so that the later class would be improved to make students learn more effectively.

Participants

Forty students, including 13 females and 27 males at an English language center in Can Tho were chosen to participate in the study. They were divided into two groups: the experimental group including 20 students and the control group 20. Based on the result of the pretest of writing, the students' level of writing performance in the two groups was not statistically different before the intervention ($t(60)$ =-.29, $p = .491$). All students have been learning English for 5 years but had low motivation in learning since they had few opportunities to access English outside the classroom. Their only place to be exposed to English is on the internet where they studied English as a subject in their school curriculum. It is supposed that the students have the same culture, learning materials, and instructional environment.

The participants also included another teacher of English and the researcher as the instructors. The teacher has been teaching more than five years and had got level five of Vietnamese Standardized Test of English Proficiency (VSTEP). She was invited to score the pretest and posttest of writing along with the researcher and gave advice to the researcher in questionnaire and interview questions design.

Data collection and analysis

The data collection procedures could be conducted as the Table 2 below.

Table 2 The research procedures

Time	Research activities
Week 1	Choosing participants
	Building up evaluation framework to assess students' writing productions
	Introducing the project to students
	Having students take part in the pretest of writing
Week 2 - week 7	- Applying videos in teaching writing lessons
	Designing questionnaire and an interview question
	Piloting questionnaires
Week 8	Review
Week 9	Having students take part in the posttest of writing
	Administering questionnaire
	Administering an interview question
	Collecting data

As can be seen in Table 2, in Week 1, the researcher chose participants for the study and built up the complete evaluation framework to assess students' writing productions. Then they were introduced the project. For the experimental group, the researcher described to students how to implement videos in learning writing and then they were asked to write as an example. The final activity they did was to take part in the pretest of writing. From week 2 to week 7, the researcher applied videos to teach

writing lessons for students of the experimental group. They have learned four writing lessons in textbook from unit 9 to unit 12 and three extra writing lessons based on the topics of the two themes. At that time, questionnaire and interview questions were designed and then piloted with other students who have the same level with participants in the study. In week 8, the students took part in the posttest of writing and one week later, they were going to answer questionnaire individually. After that, the researcher interviewed six students of experimental group for their deep understanding of video usage. Finally, the researcher collected the data for the research.

The quantitative data of the first research question were collected from two writing tests with a writing rubric and then analyzed with the aid of Statistics Package for the Social Science (SPSS) so as to understand the results of students' performance in writing. The quantitative and qualitative data of the second research question were gained from the questionnaire and quick feedback forms. The quantitative data from the questionnaire were collected after finishing treatment and analyzed based on three main categories of the questionnaire. Such an analysis would make it possible to decrease a large amount of data which could be more manageable.

FINDINGS

Students' writing performance between the two groups

The descriptive statistics of the results on participants' writing performance in the two tests were reported in Table 4.1 below.

Table 3: Descriptive Statistics of Pretest and Posttest of the Two Groups

Writing test	Group	Min	Max	M	SD
Pretest	Experimental group	1.0	5.5	3.990	1.22
	Control group	2.1	5.9	4.000	0.91
Posttest	Experimental group	4.0	7.5	5.390	0.78
	Control group	2.5	6.9	4.885	1.06

As can be seen in Table 4.1, the mean scores of the pretest of the experimental group (M = 3.990, SD = 1.224) and of the control group (M = 4.000, SD = 0.906) were observed to be low in the ten-degree scale. The results from the posttest show that the mean scores of the experimental group (M = 5.390, SD = 0.781) and the control group (M = 4.885; SD = 1.06) were also low. The scores are just around the average scores. They are expected to be from 6 to 7 to reach good scores.

One-way Anova was run to see whether the post-test result was higher than the pre-test or not. For the control group and the experimental group, there were significant differences between the scores of pre-test and post-test (sig= 0.002 and 0.003 respectively < 0.05). To conclude, the post-test score was higher than that of pre-test. The maximum was also higher, leading to the fact that students learned better with the treatment.

One sample test was also run to consider whether the mean score of pretest was different from the average score (5) and the mean score of posttest was different from the score (7) or not. As can be seen, there were significant differences in the comparison between the mean score of pretest and posttest with 5 and 7 respectively (sig (pre)=0.000 and sig (post)=0.000 <0.05).

An *Independent Samples t-Test* was run to compare the mean scores in the participants' writing performance between the two groups. The results indicate that the participants' writing performance of the two groups before the intervention program did not statistically differ ($t(40) = -.29$, $p = .491$> 0.05 and sig=0.977 >0.05). After the study, the results reveal that no difference between the participants' writing performance in the experimental group and the participants' writing performance in the control group was observed ($t(40) = 1.713$, $p = .257$>0.05 and sig= 0.95>0.05). In other words, the participants' writing performance between the two groups after the intervention program was not statistically different.

Another independent sample T-test was run to see if there was any difference in the performance of boys and girls achieving mean scores of 5.192 and 5.688 respectively. The result showed no difference was found based on sig=0.996 > 0.05, t=-1.427 and sig (2 tailed) = 0.170>0.05. To conclude, girls did not certainly perform better than boys despite the

difference in the physical scores.

Students' writing performance within the two groups

A *Paired Samples t-Test* was run to compare the mean scores of the participants' writing performance within the experimental group and the control group before and after the treatment. The results indicate that the mean scores of the participants' writing performance before and after the research was significantly different ($t(20) = -5.189$, $p = 0.000<0.05$). In other words, with the technique the participants were taught, the participants' ability in writing was statistically different at the end of the study.

For the control group, the results reveal that the mean scores of the participants' writing performance before and after the study statistically differed with $t(20) = -4.424$, $p = 0.000<0.05$). In other words, the participants' writing ability after the study witnessed dramatic changes.

The correlation test was run to see whether those getting high scores in the pretest performed better in the posttest. The results showed that almost all students gained higher scores in the post-test than in the pre-test. The correlation between pretest-pretest and posttest-posttest in the experimental group ($r = 1$, $p= 0.00$) indicated that the students who achieved high marks in the pre-test also gained high marks in the post-test, and those whose scores were low in the pre-test also got low scores in the post-test.

According to the results, there was a strong correlation between students' scores in the pre-test and the post-test. The correlation was positive, indicating that the students who got high marks in the pre-test certainly gained high marks in the post-test. The result indicated that there was a guarantee that the interventional program benefited a certain group of participants.

The correlation between pretest-pretest and posttest-posttest in the control group ($r = 1$, $p= 0.05$) indicated that the students who achieved high marks in the pre-test uncertainly gained high marks in the post-test, and those whose scores were low in the pre-test uncertainly got low scores in the post-test. According to the results, there was not a strong correlation between students' scores in the pre-test and the post-test. The correlation

was neutral, indicating that the students who got high marks in the pre-test uncertainly gained high marks in the post-test. The result indicated that there was no guarantee that the program benefited a certain group of participants.

Results from the questionnaire and quick feedback forms

The quantitative data of the questionnaire and the qualitative data of the quick feedback forms were used to answer the second research question. As a result, the analysis of the questionnaire and quick feedback forms data revealed that the participants generally had positive perceptions towards videos in learning writing, which was consistent with the second research hypothesis.

The results from the questionnaire indicated that the majority of the participants agreed that videos played significant roles in the participants' learning writing in fields of a necessary activity for learning writing in class and at home as well as an influential factor in increasing critical thinking. In addition, videos help them resist the pressure in some ways such as opening up more thinking inside the individual. The analysis of data from the interview supported the evidence for the participants' reaction to roles of videos. The participants stated that practice videos brought them many benefits for their learning writing in terms of a useful way of improving writing skill and thinking. Along with the positive perception of roles of videos, the participants also appreciated the effects of videos on writing performance on specific features of content, organization, vocabulary, language use, and mechanics. Their positive perception could be explained by the progress they made in their writing. The participants' responses from the interview mentioned that implementation of videos assisted them in generating the ideas, improving vocabulary, remembering more structures and using grammar points more flexibly and accurately.

DISCUSSION

The results revealed a statistically significant difference of students' writing performance within and between the two groups after the study in general. The participants in the experimental group had more improvements in specific features of writing than the ones in the control group after the

study. The findings from questionnaire showed that the participants had positive perceptions towards the roles and effects of videos on writing. They also expressed their satisfaction with using videos in their learning. Moreover, the results from the quick feedback forms indicated that all participants had a positive perception toward videos because all would like to continue using videos technique in learning writing. They explained their reasons when answering questions, which well supported. Thus, it is rewarding to consider using videos in teaching writing.

The results did not support the hypothesis that videos would help students improve their writing performance after the intervention program. The results of the posttest indicated that the mean scores on students' writing performance within the experimental group after the research slightly increased, but their writing performance was not statistically different. This result was explained because the participants' writing ability was low and the experimental time was not long enough for the participants to improve all specific features on writing performance. Besides that, guided videos focused learners on generating the ideas rather than improving grammatical aspects and organization. Participants' writing performance and their positive perceptions of the use of videos in learning writing support the conclusion that videos are beneficial in improving participants' writing ability on specific features of content and vocabulary and helping them have a positive viewpoint of their learning how to write in English.

IMPLICATIONS AND LIMITATIONS

Based on the research findings of the current study, three pedagogical implications related to the use of videos, the motivation of writing and brainstorming will be discussed as follow. First, it was proved that videos had positive effects on generating ideas and developing vocabulary in writing essays. Second, the results from interviews revealed students' positive perceptions toward videos - particularly their satisfaction with videos. The students also suggested that they would do writing better if there were interesting activities to motivate them. Last, it is necessary for the teacher and students to have good interactive activities in the classroom. Good understanding of the tasks and having various valuable ideas are necessary conditions for producing complete writing outcomes.

The study has three limitations. First, the study was merely conducted with teenagers at an English language center in the Mekong Delta. It was quite a small sample sized and limited numbers of learners; therefore, the results of the study could not be generalized to all students in EFL writing classrooms in the Mekong Delta or in Vietnam. Second, some learners are not good at listening, so they find it hard to follow the track, up to 30% of learners surveyed. Similarly, some students become distracted with surroundings, leading to their lagging behind others. Third, technical problems do affect the process. Sometimes, problems with the projector or speakers still occur, interrupting the process of both learning and teaching.

CONCLUSION

The findings of the study revealed that students in the experimental group significantly improved their writing performance on specific features after the intervention program while in the control group students' writing performance on specific features was not significantly different. In addition, after the research, learners not only felt freer and more eager in generating ideas, using vocabulary, and thinking about what they wanted to write but also considered videos as a necessary activity for learning writing at school and at home. Especially, all students involved would like to continue using videos in learning writing. In short, videos provided benefits to students' writing performance and students had positive perceptions toward videos.

THE AUTHOR

Do Thanh Nhan is currently a teacher of English at Gia Viet English Center in Can Tho with 7-year experience in the field. He is in charge of teaching various courses and finds himself the ability to cope with many problems arising from various types of learners in different levels. He is also an MA student at Can Tho University majoring in The Principles of English Language Teaching, aiming at the further study and conducting more research.

APPENDIX

The Assessment Scale of Written Work

ESL Composition Profile

Components	Scoring level	Criteria	Comments
Content	30 - 27	Excellent to very good	Knowledgeable, substantive, thorough development of thesis, relevant to assigned topic
	26 - 22	Good to average	Some knowledge of subject, adequate range, limited development of thesis, mostly relevant to topic, but lacks detail
	21 - 17	Fair to poor	Limited knowledge of subject, little substance, inadequate development of topic
	16 - 13	Very poor	Does not show knowledge of subject, non-substantive, not pertinent, OR not enough to evaluate
Organization	20 - 18	Excellent to very good	Fluent expression, ideas clearly stated/supported, succinct, well-organized, logical sequencing, cohesive
	17 - 14	Good to average	Somewhat choppy, loosely organized but main ideas stand out, limited support, logical but incomplete sequencing
	13 - 10	Fair to poor	Non-fluent, ideas confused or disconnected, lacks logical sequencing and development

Components	Scoring level	Criteria	Comments
	9 - 7	Very poor	Does not communicate, no organization OR not enough to evaluate
Vocabulary	20 - 18	Excellent to very good	Sophisticated range, effective word/idiom choice and usage, word form mastery, appropriate register
	17 - 14	Good to average	Adequate range, occasional errors of word/idiom form, choice, usage but meaning not obscured
	13 - 10	Fair to poor	Limited range, frequent errors of word/idiom form, choice, usage, meaning confused or obscured
	9 - 7	Very poor	Essentially translation, little knowledge of English vocabulary, idiom, word form, OR not enough to evaluate
Language use	25 - 22	Excellent to very good	Effective complex constructions, few errors of agreement, tense, number, word order/function, articles, pronouns, prepositions
	21 - 18	Good to average	Effective but simple constructions, minor problems in complex constructions, several errors of agreement, tense, number, word order/function, articles, pronouns, prepositions but meaning seldom obscured

Components	Scoring level	Criteria	Comments
	17 - 11	Fair to poor	Major problems in simple/complex constructions, frequent errors of negation, agreement, tense, number, word order/function, articles, pronouns, prepositions and/or fragments, run-ons, deletions, meaning confused or obscured
	10 - 5	Very poor	Virtually no mastery of sentence construction rules, dominated by errors, does not communicate, OR not enough to evaluate
Mechanics	5	Excellent to very good	Demonstrates mastery of conventions, few errors of spelling, punctuation, capitalization, paragraphing
	4	Good to average	Occasional errors of spelling, punctuation, capitalization, paragraphing but meaning not obscured
	3	Fair to poor	Frequent errors of spelling, punctuation, capitalization, paragraphing, poor handwriting, meaning confused or obscured
	2	Very poor	No mastery of conventions, dominated by errors of spelling, punctuation, capitalization, paragraphing, handwriting illegible OR not enough to evaluate

Adapted from Hughes (1992, cited in Jessica, 2005)

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USING GOOGLE CLASSROOM TO BENEFIT EFL STUDENTS: CHALLENGES AND OPPORTUNITIES

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ABSTRACT

Google Classroom is the topic of ongoing research, debate, and discussion in the field of educational technology, and there exists a small body of literature examining the potential benefits and limitations of the software in a range of pedagogical contexts (Diccico 2016; Iftakhar 2016; Janzen 2014; Keeler 2014; Mary 2014).

In this workshop, we provide a broad overview of the functionalities of Google Classroom, as well as the software's integration with third-party language learning applications. Specifically, we focus on the integration of OpenEd multimedia content to promote guided listening and writing activities with EFL students, and the use of Google Classroom integration to enhance learner autonomy. The workshop will examine the potential benefits that this method of software integration brings to both students and teachers, while also addressing the current limitations of Google Classroom, and identifying areas of importance for scholarly research in the near future.

NEWS-MAKING PROJECT: APPLYING ICT IN ENHANCING STUDENTS' SPOKEN COMPETENCE

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ABSTRACT

As information and communications technology is developing to be an indispensable part of the current life, ESL teachers should recognize that trend and adjust their teaching approaches and techniques to stimulate and facilitate students' learning process. Speaking, particularly, is widely considered as one of the most difficult skills for the first year English-majored students in University of Languages and International Studies (ULIS). This mixed-method research aims to measure the effectiveness of a news-making project, an ICT-based one currently used in speaking courses for first-year students in ULIS. The results collected from the research are promising, which leads to potential implications for teaching speaking for different types of ESL learners.

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A CRITICAL VIEW OF COMPUTER-MEDIATED COLLABORATIVE LEARNING AS A SUPPORTIVE TOOL TO TEACH ENGLISH TO VIETNAMESE STUDENTS

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ABSTRACT

This paper provides a critical view of applying computer-mediated communication to collaborative learning in English Foreign Language classes in Vietnam as a supportive tool to teach English as a foreign language. Accordingly, the problematic issues related to EFL education, the context of EFL teaching and learning in Vietnam, and the necessity of an innovation of teaching and learning approach are discussed. This review suggests a potential tool to support EFL teacher in teaching English in Vietnam and encourage more research on its application to assure its comprehensiveness for EFL classes in Vietnam.

Keywords: *Collaborative learning, Computer-mediated communication, computer-mediated collaborative learning, English foreign language, English as an international language*

INTRODUCTION

As English has developed as a necessary means for the cultural, social, technological, commercial, and political exchanges among countries around the world, there have been increasing demands to learn English as a second/foreign language. Therefore, the complex issues of teaching English to speakers of other languages (TESOL) have arisen widely and deeply. Specifically, in this technological age, the advantages of networked computers have been taken as a supportive application for language learning and teaching in every modern institution. In Vietnam, national schools at all levels have been governmentally supported to develop foreign

language and computer skills in order to prepare a quality labour force to meet the demands of a globally integrated economy. Upgrading the quality of English teaching and information technology has become an important mission for universities in Vietnam. In this paper, a number of issues related to the development of 'English as a foreign language' teaching and learning, as well as the role of information communication technology (ICT) in teaching and learning, will be discussed initially. From the discussion, a suggestion for applying a new modal in teaching EFL in Vietnam will be built up and explained, based on the nature and conditions of the educational context of Vietnam.

THE PROBLEMATIC ISSUES

There is no doubt about the dominance of English for communication among non-native speakers around the world at the current time. Reasonably, the rapid growth of English as an international language has been accompanied by an increasing concern of English language teaching. In fact, the question of how to teach English effectively to speakers of other languages has raised many more concerns than in decades before. Specifically, when computers offer humans numerous opportunities for a more convenient life, their contribution to education and particularly to language teaching is potentially profound. Never before has English been used so extensively for communication among non-native speakers, and nor has EFL teaching and learning been blended with ICT, in language education around the world.

English as an International Language

The issue of English as an international language comes as the first discussion of the problem leading to the suggestion of the teaching modal. Without a doubt the world is changing demographically, socially, culturally, and economically to become interconnected and interdependent (Sarita, 2014). Remarkably, the globalisation that increases the connectivity of most countries has affected many aspects of the world's social relations. It is a fact that English is currently a means for communication among more people from the 'expanding circle' as a foreign language than those from 'outer circle' as a second language and in turn the 'inner circle' as a first language (Crystal, 2003). In other words, the occasions of using

English for communication among non-native speakers are more than among native speakers or between non-native speakers and native speakers. As the use of English for multiple purposes has spread around the world, the issues of English language teaching have raised language teachers' and educators' concerns about how, and what form of English, to teach to speakers of other languages. This situation of second/foreign language teaching has raised the question of whether EFL learners need to learn 'standard English' to be able to produce it accurately in grammar and accent, or whether they should be equipped with the ability to interpret, to express, and to negotiate for meaning (Wang, 2013).

Similarly, in Vietnam, EFL teachers and educators have had the dilemma of whether American English, British English, or any other Englishes should be taught. They themselves are usually confused by the English they are using and teaching to their students. Almost all EFL teachers in Vietnamese schools are Vietnamese native speakers; the English they are teaching is somewhat American or British in style, in terms of the grammar, with a Vietnamese-influenced accent and culture. The endless debates on which English to teach, and how to teach it, have locked EFL teachers and educators in many indecisive arguments. To many teachers, the 'standard English' grammar and pronunciation should be respected strictly, while others are in doubt about the possibility for their students to master 'standard English'. In the circumstances of EFL teaching and learning in Vietnam, as well as in many other Asian countries, where English is mostly spoken by non-native speakers, Wang's suggestion (2013, p.29) that *"British or American 'standard English', need not to be modified, and no Lingua Franca Core needs to be established for teaching purposes"* is worthy of consideration. Accordingly, teachers need to instruct their students in accurate English whether they are able to master it or not. On the other hand, students should not be prevented from making an inaccurate sound or sentence before they can master it. In other words, students should be aware of 'standard English' as well as using English confidently in their culture and accent. Obviously, the purpose of language is for communication, and this target of learning language raises a pedagogical issue of which English to teach and how to teach it as a second/foreign language to speakers of other languages.

Second/Foreign Language Pedagogy Reform

As English has increasingly been used for global communication worldwide, communicative language teaching (CLT) has become a methodology of choice (Richards, 2006). As discussed above, successful communication rather than a native-like pronunciation or prescribed grammar achievement is necessary as English is spoken by mostly non-native speakers. In the communicative approach, communicative competence rather than linguistic competence is emphasised, and not only accuracy but also fluency is included in the second/foreign language acquisition. Moreover, diversity is recognised as part of language development in second/ foreign language learning; no specific teaching practices are appropriate to all EFL learners (Savignon, 2002). While English learners are culturally and linguistically diverse, the communicative approach, that sets the goal on communicative competence, is quite appropriate to the concept of English as an international language (Wang, 2013). For this reason, language teaching has witnessed a shift, from linguistic forms to meaning negotiation and accommodation, and CLT that focuses on communicative competence offers a more comprehensive method.

Unlike the cognitive perspective that focuses on individual learning, the communicative approach is based on the sociocultural perspective which language develops through meaningful social interactions (Mitchell & Myles, 2004). In other words, under the concept of sociocultural perspective, language is no longer learnt individually, it is learnt contextually and collaboratively. Accordingly, collaborative learning (CL) has developed and increasingly attracted more interest from language teachers and educators around the world, as it meets the demand for a comprehensive method for the current purpose of using English as an international language. EFL teaching in Vietnam is not an exceptional case in this trend. As English teaching and learning is currently a hot debate on the educational platform, because of the low English skills of most graduates, innovation in teaching and learning becomes urgent as never before. Specifically with the governmental support, CL is applied widely in schools and is expected to change the lacklustre performance of English teaching and learning in Vietnam (MOET, 2008).

Along with the development of language teaching methods, ICT accompanied language teaching and learning as a supportive application from the early days of its emergence into humans' daily life. In many language teaching and learning practices in this age of technology, ICT becomes a necessary tool that helps support teaching and learning activities and improves motivation and learning autonomy. Significantly, with its particular characteristics, ICT plays an important role in promoting learners' fluency and accuracy in the target language. The integration of ICT into language teaching has promoted language learning both inside and outside classrooms. As most EFL teachers are non-native speakers, the question of whether the advantages of ICT can better assist second/foreign language teaching and learning than the normal methods is worth an answer.

The Development of Computer-Assisted Language Learning

Modern technology is currently playing a significant role in education, and language teaching and learning are no exceptions (Dudeney & Hockly, 2007). Since the invention and the dramatic growth in numbers of microcomputers in the 1980s, CALL has developed and changed its roles. From its limited utilisation as a behaviouristic CALL for drill and practice in the 1960s and 1970s, CALL shifted language teaching and learning to communicative CALL for person-to-person interaction by the end of the 1970s and has become the integrative CALL for the creation of meaning since the mid-1990s (Warschauer, 1996).

Behaviouristic CALL, that dominated in the 1960s and 1970s, replicated the audio-lingual method that is considered a behaviourist model of language teaching. Consisting of drill- and practice programs that were used in old-fashioned teaching methods as an electronic book (Salaberry, 2001), the behaviouristic model with numerous drill programs is still utilised for vocabulary study and grammar practice in language learning today. Consequently, the computer, in this case, plays a significant role in providing immediate feedback at the learner's pace, to help them solve their language problems at the first stage, thus encouraging their learning autonomy (Chappelle, 2001; Ellis, 2002).

Communicative CALL, which started in the 1980s, was marked as the next

generation of CALL, alongside the emergence of microcomputers. It marked the challenge of communicative approaches to behaviourist approaches. Emphasising communicative use, computers provide variety and a range of possibilities for learner interaction. Those new-generation CALL programs, consisting of non-drill format of materials, different language games, reading and writing practice, text reconstruction, cloze tests, and puzzles, aim to stimulate learners' motivation, critical thinking, creativity, and analytical skills. Consequently, the question of whether technology was essentially compatible with the communicative approach was raised (Fotos & Browne, 2004).

Integrative CALL, the current stage of CALL, arose in the mid-1990s with the support of the high-speed Internet, local area networks (Tubaishat & Lansari, 2011), multimedia, and linked resources. Language learners can now communicate comfortably with other learners or teachers of the target language around the world, do assignments, use a dictionary, study and take a comprehension test, and receive immediate feedback, all within the same program (Fotos & Browne, 2004; Gunasekaran, 2011). The communication among humans now is both synchronously and asynchronously unlimited by computer-mediated communication (CMC). It is hard to visualise the future impacts of CMC on humans' communication, due to its current powerful development and challenge to face-to-face (FTF) interactions. As Warschauer (1999) predicted, CMC would make the world borderless.

With these current advancements of CMC, learning a second/foreign language involves apprenticing into new discourse communities. Accordingly, learners are able to enter new communities and familiarise themselves with new genres and discourses (Fotos & Browne, 2004). Remarkably, this integrative CALL, with its advantages, has caused a major shift in the use of technology in education – the shift away from the teacher-centered classroom towards a learner-centered system in which the learners control the lesson content and the learning process (Crystal, 2006; Warschauer, 2003).

As CL becomes fashioned in second/foreign language education, CMC has been developed as a supportive way to make learning and teaching more

convenient and efficient. The blend of CL and CMC that first described by Warschauer (1997) as computer-mediated collaborative learning (CMCL), has attracted more and more researchers. Many studies on the strengths and shortcomings of CMCL of a second/foreign language in particular contexts have been conducted (Bikowski & Kessler, 2002; Fitze, 2006; Miller, 2004; V.L. Nguyen, 2010; Smith, 2003; Warschauer, 1997). In Vietnam, where the workforce is regarded as being of low quality due to its lack of collaborative skills and low English proficiency, CMCL comes as a potential practice that is able to satisfy the current requirement; especially, as English and computers are governmentally supported in most public schools at a very early stage.

THE PEDAGOGICAL PROBLEMS

In Vietnam, CL and CMC have been applied as efficient applications supporting learner-centred teaching methods in modern language classrooms. The strengths and shortcomings of these applications are also reviewed in a number of research studies (Bui, 2006; Dang & Robertson, 2010; Luu, 2010, 2011a, 2011b; V.L. Nguyen, 2010, 2011a; H.H. Pham, 2005; T.H.T. Pham, 2010). Although most of those studies have been conducted on the application of CL or CMC alone in EFL learning and teaching within the limited scope of the researchers' classrooms, their findings have contributed a worthy part to the literature of the field. However, many important issues related to the efficiency of these applications in the Vietnamese context have not been solved, and many questions need to be answered thoroughly.

CL has been brought to classrooms as the first-choice learner-centred approach (T.H.T. Pham, 2010). Rapidly, this method gained popularity in Vietnam in the belief that it could help change EFL classrooms' passive atmosphere where teacher-centred methods mainly applied (H.H. Pham, 2005). However, it soon appeared problematic as these teachers witnessed their learners' increasing drop-out rates due to the use of the method (Luu, 2011a). In many studies conducted on CL practices in Vietnamese classrooms, mostly on English major students at the tertiary level, a number of mismatches between the principles of CL and Vietnamese educational culture were attributed to the failure of applying this practice in Vietnam.

While teachers complain that it is hard for them to cover the material or control the classroom when applying CL, students avoid cooperating in learning or are reluctant to interact because of their traditional beliefs in a teacher-learner relationship, as well as their linguistic deficiency (Luu, 2010). Significantly, their culture is the greatest barrier to Vietnamese learners being effectively involved in CL activities and benefiting fully from this method (Luu, 2011a; P.M. Nguyen, Terlouw & Pilot, 2005; T.H.T. Pham, 2010).

Currently, as the old-fashioned teacher-centred methods do not properly facilitate foreign language education in Vietnam, and the modern learner-centred approaches give unexpected results, ICT is expected to be an efficient supportive tool that is able to help overcome the cultural obstacles most Vietnamese learners face in collaborative activities. In practice, ICT is expanding its uses in Vietnamese educational institutions regardless of its expenses and the lack of evidence for its effectiveness for Vietnamese education. Specifically, as computer use has been increased steadily and dramatically at work and in higher education institutions in Vietnam (Sakellariou, 2009), CMC has been introduced to foreign language teaching as a medium supporting collaborative work online. However, few studies covering different aspects of integrating computing into language education in Vietnam have been documented (Bui, 2006; Dang & Robertson, 2010; Luu, 2011b; V.L. Nguyen, 2010, 2011a).

Among the few researchers in the field in Vietnam, V.L. Nguyen (2010) is the one who investigated CMC enhancing CL in EFL classrooms and provided significant concepts in this field in the Vietnamese educational context. With 100% of the participants having a positive attitude towards the application of CMC in CL, he concluded that this application 'seems to be feasible' in the Vietnamese context, and predicted it would be the 21st century learning style that would prepare students for 21st century jobs. However, he noted that CMC-assisted CL did not make a class successful in itself; its application needed not only support at social and institutional levels but also the benefit of a teacher's positive philosophy and experience as well as the willingness of students to participate, based on their perceptions of CMC-assisted CL. Basically, all conditions for the application of CMC tools in CL he noted above seem to be essential not

only for this application but also for the application of *any* innovative teaching approaches. Moreover, with the current educational conditions in Vietnam, it is hard to implement any new teaching and learning practices without first evaluating teachers' and students' readiness for those applications because introducing a new teaching method requires not only the support of the educational system but also the acceptance of new ideas by teachers and learners (Jia-Rong & Chia-Pin, 2011).

A significant element contributing to the success of CMC application in foreign language teaching that V.L. Nguyen (2011b) pointed out in his research – a teacher's teaching philosophy and experience was not found to have been investigated in many studies in this field in Vietnam. In fact, due to the limited conditions as investigating a very new tool for teaching practice, researchers (Bui, 2006; Dang & Robertson, 2010; Luu, 2011b; V.L. Nguyen, 2010, 2011a) merely narrowed the scope of their investigation within their classes. Hence, researchers as teachers who were very keen on applying new technologies in their teaching practice could not know whether their application would get similar results in other classes with others teachers. Therefore, generalising their models to the wider educational community is very far from implementation.

Like other researchers (Bui, 2006; Dang & Robertson, 2010; Luu, 2011b), V.L. Nguyen (2010) did not provide the evidence that his CMC application could enhance learning outcomes more than other traditional methods. Therefore, it lacks the convincingness for further application, as expected. Similarly, Bui (2006) suggests that CMC was the best choice in teaching pronunciation because it helped teach standard English, but she did not provide any evidence that CMC could help her students master standard English or pronounce it correctly. Dang and Robertson (2010), and Luu (2011b) mainly shed light on whether CMC could improve learners' English skills as well as their attitudes towards CMC application, but the illustrations for the level of learning outcomes that CMC brought to learners, compared with traditional teaching approaches, were not taken into account in their studies. Generally, whether CMC is more effective than traditional practices, in terms of enhancing learning outcomes, is still unknown. Therefore, the convincingness of CMC application is not high enough for wider implementation in language education in Vietnam.

When CL, the preferred teaching method in foreign language classrooms in Vietnam, does not bring about the better outcomes expected, CMC is suggested as an authentic communication tool in assisting CL in language education in Vietnam. Many cultural and educational barriers that were documented in a number of studies as hindering Vietnamese learners from benefiting fully from CL are hoped to be removed by CMC, with its supporting interaction and collaboration functions. Nevertheless, many investigations heretofore, on the benefits that CMC brings to CL, did not provide enough convincingness for its wider application. Therefore, whether CMC can help improve CL in the mutual way that brings the most benefit to Vietnamese EFL learners needs to be investigated more thoroughly: How can CMCL be applied in EFL classrooms in Vietnam? Could the blend of CL and CMC enhance students' learning outcomes more than face-to-face collaborative learning (FTFCL) or other traditional methods? What are students' and teachers' attitudes towards the blend of CL and CMC, or CMCL application? Does this application have different effects on different kinds of students? Are students and teachers ready to accept an innovative application?

EXISTING CONTEXT OF THE STUDY IN VIETNAM

To evaluate an actual application of CMCL in a particular context, a number of issues and concerns related to the research settings are suggested to be discussed before conducting the research. They should include the existing social, political, and educational context in the field of second/foreign language teaching and learning, as well as the integration of computing in education in Vietnam that stimulates the research.

English Foreign Language Education in Vietnam

The restrictive diplomatic and economic relationships that were established with the USSR and communist countries have been opened to many other countries in the world after the Vietnamese government issued the 'Doi moi' (renovation) policy in 1986. As a result, English, historically the dominant foreign language taught in schools in Southern Vietnam from 1958 to 1968, has currently gained prominence (Phan, 2009; Wright, 2002). The government of Vietnam, in its strategic plans in 1986, emphasised that foreign language, especially English, was an important means to achieve

the target of industrialisation and modernisation of the country (Truong, 1986). The Ministry of Education and Training (MOET) recognised the significance of improving foreign language teaching and learning in schools, and promulgated a series of related decisions that focused their attention on foreign language learners' learning competence and teachers' innovative teaching methods (MOET, 2003a, 2003b, 2006, 2007, 2008). Remarkably, in the latest decision of this series, MOET stated that *"English and some other languages are compulsory foreign languages in all national education institutions"* (MOET, 2008, p.2, translated). This illustrates that English language education is currently viewed as one of the important policies in the process of international integration of the country.

Certainly, English has been a powerful foreign language that has had significant impacts on political, sociocultural, and economic sectors of Vietnam (Phan, 2009). It is expressed in the governmental policies and MOET's decisions as mentioned above. However, there has been a big gap between the authorities' expectations and the practical results in the development of English education. Although English is supported to be taught very early and widely in the national educational system, Vietnamese graduates' English proficiency is estimated as very low. Most graduates cannot communicate in English or use it in their work (Bui, 2006). Obviously, the teaching of English in schools and universities remains a problematic issue and a passionate topic in the educational and public debate.

As English is a key to a higher education, and a passport for a better job, the demand for English learning has risen steadily nationwide. However, the fact is that English education in schools and universities does not meet the society's current demands. As a result, English centres mushroom over the country, attracting many students and employees who are looking for a better-quality English program. Though learners have to pay much more for their English course at foreign language centres than in schools, they have more opportunities to learn with native-English teachers, and to approach new teaching methods and modern educational technologies that they think can help enhance their English skills. Although the quality of English teaching and learning at non-public centres is only measured by their own advertising claims, their expanding operations create a competitive English-

teaching environment that affects public institutions too. Accordingly, the improvement of English teaching and learning becomes an important competitive strategy among institutions. Application of new teaching methods has been encouraged and investment in modern technologies that support teaching and learning have been invested in. Clearly, EFL education in Vietnam at the current time shows some signs of a positive change. However, more evidence of the improvement should be collected before making any further decisions on the changes.

Integrating Computing into Education in Vietnam

Currently, ICT has a significant place in every educational institution. Particularly, the integration of CMC, an everyday authentic communication tool, into education is recognised as the new means of expanding and delivering knowledge' (Warschauer, 1997). Accordingly, it is now being applied in teaching and learning in most educational institutions around the world, including in Vietnam. Many Vietnamese teachers and educators, seeking for more comprehensive teaching methods to their classroom practices, are interested in blending ICT with traditional face-to-face (FTF) teaching methods following the worldwide trend in higher education (Stacey & Gerbic, 2009). In particular, CMC and CL, which have developed in a 'mutually supportive way', (V.L. Nguyen, 2010) have contributed considerably to modern language teaching in many institutions in the world.

With the hope that modern technology that has been utilised popularly in supporting education around the world is able to make teaching and learning more interesting and effective, ICT is being applied in Vietnamese education by authorities. In particular, the Ministry of Education and Training has supported integrating ICT into education in Vietnam, by issuing relevant decisions (MOET, 2003a). Accordingly, computer labs have been equipped in most public schools, and students start to learn computer skills as a compulsory subject from Year 3. In second/foreign language education in Vietnam, despite the fact that there are few studies conducted on the application of ICT in schools, and there is not enough convincing evidence of its effectiveness in foreign language education in Vietnam, language classrooms equipped with modern technologies have

mushroomed over modern language centres then started to develop widely in universities. To many Vietnamese people, modern technological equipment has been seen as a guarantee of the high quality of an institution.

Contrary to the expectation of authorities concerning the integration of ICT, many teachers appear uninterested in applying technologies in their teaching practices. To many teachers, especially those in rural areas, ICT integration is still a story of someone else. From a practical point of view, due to teachers' insufficient knowledge of technological applications resulting from lack of, or limited, training, most language teachers in Vietnam feel more confident teaching without modern technological support. Additionally, the sensitive political issues around using networked computers in schools, the lack of successful stories about the field, and especially the technology phobia of many aged teachers, make them reluctant to try technology in their teaching practice. More seriously, many teachers refuse to bring ICT to their classes or to teach in modern multimedia labs. As a result, regardless of students' eagerness to learn with technology, many expensive multimedia programs supporting second/foreign language are wasted, and many computer labs are about to close.

Authorities, teachers, and learners have their own incompatible views about technology integration in Vietnamese schools. Unfortunately, they lack harmony in their thinking. While authorities continue to invest much more money in equipping new technologies in schools, and learners are eager to approach technology in their classes, many teachers refuse to apply it in their lessons. At another corner of this story, teachers who are keen on technology integration, continue their investigations and applications of technologies in their teaching practice, in their very own ways. The future for widespread comprehensive application of ICT in Vietnamese institutions is still far from their reach. Necessarily, more investigations in the field should be carried out officially to find the more convincing solutions for the current problems.

CONCLUSION

Currently, English language education in Vietnam had become one of the hottest debates in educational conferences and in public because of its critical situation. Statistically, Vietnamese learners' English proficiency is

deteriorating. Appropriate teaching methods have become administrators', educators', and teachers' primary concern. As the above discussion, CL with its advantages in teaching communicative English has not been operating well in EFL classrooms in Vietnam because of the cultural hindrances. Additionally, CMC with its progress and benefits in teaching language has been documented in many studies contributing to EFL teaching in Vietnam as an effective tool to teach English communicatively. Specifically, with its distinct characteristics, CMC is predicted to help reduce the cultural barriers that prevent Vietnamese students from getting the most benefits of learning as CL is applied. It is suggested that the combination of these advances would develop in a mutual way that can help introduce EFL learners in Vietnam as a means to approach 'standard English' at their pace.

Although English education and ICT application have been supported by governmental policies in Vietnam, their practice in schools and universities appear problematic. With an effort to ameliorate English language teaching and learning conditions in Vietnam, ICTs in general, and CMC in particular, that are widely used in modern language institutions around the world, are currently expected to help improve the teaching and learning of the English language in Vietnam. Significantly, the evaluation of teachers' and students' readiness for an innovative application can offer a critical basis for the decision to try CMCL in wider areas. Finally, multiple aspects, in terms of FTFCL and CMCL, are suggested to be measured thoroughly.

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ENHANCING LEARNER AUTONOMY FOR DISTANCE LEANERS IN ONLINE COURSES OF TERTIARY LEVEL

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ABSTRACT

Lifelong learning has been a buzzword in education when it comes to learning outcomes for decades. One of the key words, which is also repeated, in the process of lifelong learning is "learner – autonomy", especially for university students, specially those who experience distance learning with online courses. For those highlights, this paper mainly discusses the importance of enhancing learner - autonomy and proposes practical methods to promote the students in university to learn autonomously in tertiary level for online programs.

Key words: *lifelong learning, learner – autonomy, university students*

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THE E-PORTFOLIO AND STUDENT-TEACHERS' AUTONOMY: CORRELATION BETWEEN THEIR WILLINGNESS AND ABILITY TO SELF-STUDY

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ABSTRACT

The conducted study aims at investigating if the E-portfolio on Google Sites, used as a continuous assessment tool during the English Testing and Assessment Methods course, could help student-teachers develop their autonomy which was examined in two factors: willingness and ability to study independently after class. Two groups of student-teachers participated in this study in the summer term of 2017. The experimental group worked with E-portfolios on which they had to upload all of the assignments such as answering essay questions, summarizing of an English textbook on which they wrote tests, collecting relevant materials and writing five English tests, which were evaluated by the instructor at the end of the term (in August 2017). The participants of the controlled group worked with paper-based portfolios which included the same assignments as those of the experimental group. Participants of the two groups were instructed by the researcher. The questionnaire on Google was used to collect data about student-teachers' self-evaluation of their willingness and ability to work independent-ly after class. The findings from the questionnaire reveal that when working with E-portfolios, student-teachers could develop their motivation and responsibility, which are among important personal qualities of autonomous learners; and their self-assessing skill, one of the most important skills that autonomous learners need. In addition, there is significant correlation between student-teachers' willingness and ability to work independently. Therefore, it is strongly recommended that E-portfolios should be used as a continuous assessment

tool not only in English Language Testing and Assessment Methods course, but also in other courses of the English Language Teacher Training program in order to promote students' autonomous learning, which is the core requirement of the credit-based training system, and which is also long-life learning ability of student-teachers for their professional development.

Key words: *E-portfolio, autonomy, student-teachers, autonomous learning, autonomous learners*

INTRODUCTION

E-portfolio or *electronic portfolio (*Lorenzo and Ittelson, 2005) is the personal and digital collection of artefacts of an individual including 'demonstrations, resources, and accomplishments' for a variety of contexts and time periods, and this collection can be comprised of text-based, graphic, or multimedia elements archived on a Web site or on other electronic media such as a CD-ROM or DVD. Today, the *E-portfolio* involves a portfolio within a web- based interface and the use of a web-based interface makes the portfolio process more flexible and dynamic and allows individuals to contribute to an alternate their *E-portfolios* in a way that is immediately accessible to their instructors or employers. The word *artefacts* can indicate text-based work, reflections, video demonstrations, and other multimedia elements such as blogs and wikis that are included in the *E-portfolio* to both promote and demonstrate learning (Brandes and Boskic, 2008).

Google Sites is a great application for creating *E- portfolios* because of the following reasons (Schaefer, 2016). The first reason is its great privacy controls. Thanks to Google, a user can easily make his/her personal site private, share it with selected individuals or make it entirely public and open to the world. The second reason is that Google Sites provides many benefits; i.e. it is free, has no ads, and is customizable. Because it is a Google product, it works smoothly with Google Docs, YouTube, Google Calendar, Picasa web albums…Moreover, a portfolio created on Google Sites is never married to a school's servers, so long after a teacher or student is no longer affiliated with a school, s/he can keep updating and

accessing his/her portfolio, without worrying about eventually being pushed out to make way for current faculty and students. Finally, like many other Google products, Google Sites is very simple to edit and maintain. If a user wants his/her own domain name, s/he can purchase it and have it redirect to his/her Google Sites (Schaefer, 2016). Therefore, with such benefits of Google Sites, student-teachers can create *E-portfolios* of their personal, professional and academic work. They can also collaborate with other students around the world to share ideas, create content and communicate ideas. In addition, student-teachers can assemble, present, and share information online for documenting academic growth, career valuation, and course preparation. Finally, they can maintain and expand individual *E-portfolios* over the duration of a class and beyond university years.

The *E-portfolio* has been used as a continuous assessment tool for students' independent learning in the world; however, there has not been research on using it in universities in Viet Nam although some lecturers recommended using it as a tool to assess students' learning process. How lecturers in universities in Vietnam monitor and assess students' independent learning has still been a question since Decree 43 (the credit-based training system) was issued by the Ministry of Education and Training in 2007 because this training system requires students to self- study after classes and their learning outcome must be evaluated in different ways (assignments, a mid-term test and final term test etc…). This question has also been in the author's mind for many years.

Purpose of the study

As mentioned above, with the benefits of creating *E-portfolios* on Google Sites and the existing problem of the credit-based training system in Ho Chi Minh City Open University in particular and in all universities in Vietnam in general, the researcher as well as the lecturer wished to investigate if using the *E-portfolio* on Google Sites as an alternative test to assess student-teachers' self-studying process could help them to develop some personal qualities and skills that autonomous learners need and if there could be any correlation between student-teachers' willingness and ability to study after class.

REVIEW OF RELEVANT LITERATURE

Definitions of autonomy

There are many well-known definitions of a*utonomy* according to different authors. Benson (2006) cited many different definitions. For example, Holec (1981) is considered the *'father'* of *learner autonomy*, and he states that *autonomy* is *'the ability to take charge of one's own learning'*; Dickinson (1987) defines *autonomy* as *'a situation in which the learner is totally responsible for all the decisions concerned with his (or her) learning and the implementation of those decisions'*; Little (1991) states that a*utonomy* is *'essentially a matter of the learner's psychological relation to the process and content of learning'* (cited in Benson, 2006). In addition to these definitions, Benson (2006) defines *autonomy* is *a recognition of the rights of learners within educational systems*. Moreover, Thornbury (2006) believes autonomy is *one's capacity to take responsibility for and control of, his/her own learning in either an institutional context or completely independent of a teacher or institution*; it is also called *self-directed learning* (2006:22). Furthermore, Knowles (1975) states *self-directed learning as, 'individuals [who] take initiative, with or without the help of others, in diagnosing their learning needs, formulating learning goals, identifying human and material resources for learning, choosing and implementing appropriate learning strategies, and evaluating learning outcomes'* (Knowles, 1975:18, cited by Peréz Cavana, 2012).

Autonomous learners

Autonomous learners, according to William (1997), possess both *willingness* and *ability* to act independently. More specifically, learners' *willingness* to work independently depends on the level of their motivation and confidence; also their level of knowledge and skills positively affect their *ability* to act independently (William, 1997: 82). Also, Moore (2008) suggests that conceptualizing *learner autonomy* involves two factors: (1) an *autonomous learner* has developed the *capacity* to take at least some control over their learning; and (2) the learning environment provides opportunities for learners to take control of their learning. To develop this capacity, *autonomous learners* are required to have a set of personal qualities like confidence, motivation, taking and accepting responsibility,

and ability to take initiative; and this capacity also involves a set of skills: academic, intellectual, personal and interpersonal. According to Macaskill and Taylor (2010), elements of responsibility for learning, openness to experience, intrinsic motivation with an element of self-confidence in tackling new activities are core components of *autonomous learning* or *independence of learning*.

Reinders and Balcikanli (2011) recommended that to study successfully, *autonomous* learners should spend eight stages, all of which forms a cycle that always impacts learners' reflection, motivation and interaction with the language and other learners. One of the stages of the *autonomous* learning cycle is planning learning, and it can be supposed that effective learners should know how to organize their learning, which is line with Moore's view (2008). That is, *autonomous* learners can organize their learning to prove their responsibility for their own learning. In addition, Macaskill and Taylor (2010) argue that *autonomous* learners should own good learning habits including effective time management and positive attitudes towards lone working. Also, *autonomous* learners must be able to self- assess their learning outcome in order to reflect their ability to choose materials as well as learning methods, to plan and to monitor their learning process.

Benefits and challenges of E-portfolios

On the one hand, several benefits associated with E-portfolio are claimed by many researchers such as Barrett (2005), Tosh, Light, Fleming and Haywood (2005) and Wetzel and Strudler (2006). These authors believe that *E-portfolios* can help student-teachers improve technology knowledge and skills, facilitate distribution, store many professional documents, and increase accessibility. According to Lorenzo and Ittelson (2005), with *E-portfolios*, student- teachers may not only can showcase the best work as a professional, but also exhibit their knowledge and skills in using technology; moreover, E-portfolios can serve as an administrative tool to manage and organize work created with different applications and to control who can see the work; also, E-portfolios also encourage personal reflection and often involves the exchange of ideas and feedback (Lorenzo and Ittelson, 2005). Besides these experts, Wray (2007) lists many other benefits of E-portfolios in teacher training programs. First of all, it is the

versatility that the technology brings to the development and review of the product created by student-teachers on their E-portfolios. Second, the format of an E-portfolio itself provides a more seamless and holistic review process. Third, the enhanced media possibilities such as images, audio and video clips, and links to additional resources provide a richer, more authentic, and more complete picture of student- teachers and their readiness to teach than do traditional paper-based portfolios. Next, because E-portfolios are created in a digital format, it is easy for the teacher trainer or lecturer to provide online support to student- teachers during the development phase of their portfolios. Finally, with E-portfolios, student-teachers can work or study within a variety of physical environments like on campus, at work or at home (Wray, 2007).

On the other hand, in spite of many benefits as mentioned above, E-portfolios may challenge both the teacher trainer and student-teachers. Brown (2004) believed that if used as an assessment tool, the practicality of E-portfolios could be lower than that of other forms of assessment because of three reasons like time constraints for both the instructor and students, costs and administrative details. Moreover, according to many authors (Pecheone et al, 2005; Wetzel & Strudler, 2005; Wilhelm et al, 2006), the primary and most obvious barrier to the successful integration of E-portfolios into a teacher education program is the technology (cited by Wray 2007). Also, as indicated by Wray (2007), navigating the technology challenges of uploading files and digital images and linking to online sources can be a daunting and frustrating task for student-teachers with weak technology background. The same challenge can be seen for the teacher trainer who is responsible for writing the criteria to evaluate the final products and for reviewing and assessing student-teachers' completed tasks on E-portfolios. Besides challenges of providing training and support, according to Wray (2007), not all student-teachers have access to the type of technology and peripherals likes scanners, video cameras, and audio recording equipment that they need to create E-portfolios at home. Moreover, perhaps the biggest concern with E- portfolios is about the time and attention needed to ensure a successful experience for both the teacher trainer and student-teachers where training program goals and purposes as well as student-teachers need are met (Wray, 2007). In addition to

technology challenges, other problems such as the lack of self-assessment, reflection, and metacognitive skills in student-teachers' educational background may decrease the effectiveness of E-portfolios (as cited in Yastibas and Cepik, 2015). The last challenge may come from inexperienced teachers who implement E-portfolios in their courses, and their lack of experience with the E-portfolio process can cause problems for the implementation of an E-portfolio system, so implementations of E-portfolios require learning how to use the software for the E-portfolio platform and understanding the assumption on which an E-portfolio is built (as cited in Yastibas and Cepik, 2015).

E-portfolio and learner's autonomy

In comparison with some traditional methods of assessment such as class progress tests and achievement tests, there are some advantages of using *E-portfolios* as a tool in developing *learner autonomy* (Richards and Renandya, 2002; Brown, 2004; Spratt and others, 2011). Many authors such as William (1997), Moore (2008), Macaskill and Taylor (2010), Reinders and Balcikanli (2011) pointed out the relations between *E-portfolios* and learner's autonomy. One of the most remarkable advantages is that *E-portfolios* offer students opportunities to evaluate their work, and this kind of assessment emphasizes students' participation in the evaluation process; and students are also requested to be responsible for their learning and evaluating. Therefore, the process of working with *E-portfolios* helps learners to develop self-assessing skill, an important skill of an autonomous learner, as well as to become responsible for their own learning, and responsibility is also among important personal qualities of an *autonomous* learner. Another important feature of using *E-portfolios* as an assessment tool is that learners take active control of their learning process by using metacognitive strategies such as planning, organizing, monitoring, observing and reflecting, and the use of these strategies can enhance learners' *autonomy*. Finally, *E-portfolios* emphasize learners' participation, so they have opportunities to reflect on their performance, show their learning process and progress, and to present the results of their learning; therefore, they will have a sense of achievement, which motivates them to continue their *autonomous* learning and motivation is among personal qualities of an *autonomous* learner.

Previous relevant research studies

First of all, Tosh, Light, Fleming and Haywood (2005) believed that motivation, assessment and *E-portfolio* technology are major emerging themes that need to be addressed to make using an *E-portfolio* a more rewarding experiencing for many students. The results of their study also show that an institution or more specifically a course, needs to identify the learning outcome of using *E-portfolio*s and ensure that the *E-portfolio*s are aligned with the rest of the course. Next, the results of Wetzel and Strudler (2006) identified many benefits of *E-portfolios* such as increasing opportunities for students to reflect and learn, helping students to understand teaching standards and increasing faculty communication with students. Despite some existing disadvantages, these authors concluded that faculty satisfaction with *E-portfolios* appears strongly associated with their values for student-centered in teacher education and in some cases, their willingness to sacrifice individual preferences to accomplish program goals. Next, according to Kocoglu's conclusion (2008), *E-portfolios* have been potential tools for enhancing reflective thinking and professional development of student-teachers. The findings of another author, Young (2008) prove that the use of *E-portfolios* promotes a greater impetus for the student to assume a personal responsibility for his/her own development, in the process of taking of individual control over his/her progression towards becoming a teacher; therefore, the student-teacher is provided with the opportunity for constant reflection rather than the periodic reflection offered by traditional paper-based portfolios. Then Akçil and Arap (2009) concluded that students had positive attitudes towards using the *E-portfolio* for educational purposes because it provided them permanent learning and gave them the possibility of controlling themselves and increased their motivation to study. After that, Smolyaninova (2010)'s conclusions prove that *E-portfolios* help student-teachers improve self-evaluation skills, form critical view on the personal achievement, and raise level of profession ambition.

In addition to the above researchers, Peréz Cavana's research (2012) is concerned with the role of reflection in autonomous learning and with how learners can develop awareness of their own learning style through self-assessment. In particular, the study of this author explores the use of an

electronic version of the European Language Portfolio (eELP) to assess learning styles. According to Peréz Cavana (2012), the use of reflection and self-assessment with a focus on learning styles is useful for learners because it provides relevant information to improve their language learning; this author also suggests that eELP is a valuable instrument to assess individual learning styles, and that it can be considered as an alternative to tests. In addition to Peréz Cavana (2012), the findings of the study conducted by Cakir and Balcikanli (2012) indicated that both student-teachers and teacher-trainers found the use of *E-portfolios* beneficial in terms of reflection, self- assessment and awareness. Furthermore, Douglas (2012) found that *E-portfolios* were effective in developing self-directed learning skills. Particularly, *E-portfolios* had positive effects on students' intrinsic motivation, self-assessment, self-confidence and self-esteem. Also, the findings of Kaliban and Khan (2012) indicate that the student-teachers in their study appreciated E-portfolios as their performance and achievements were traced over time. They also found that E-portfolios which function as a monitoring tool could help these student- teachers recognize their learning and identify their strengths and weaknesses. However, there were some challenges such as validity and reliability, interrupted Internet connection, negative attitudes of the participants, time constraints, workload and ethical issues. In terms of teacher competencies, they identified six competencies that emerged from the student-teachers' practices of E-portfolios – (i) developing understanding of an effective teacher's role; (ii) developing teaching approaches/activities; (ii) improving linguistic abilities; (iv) comprehending content knowledge; (v) gaining Information and Communication Technology skills and; (vi) the realization of the need to change mindsets.

Other researchers like Khoosf and Khosravani (2014) proved that *E-portfolios* had positive influences on the encouragement of learners' autonomy and their classroom interaction. Therefore, these researchers support the role of *E-portfolios* as a way of the on-going assessment of student's own work. Later, the results of the study by Hakki Mirici và Hergũner (2015) revealed that the use of the *E-portfolio* is helpful in developing student- teachers' metacognitive strategies as autonomous learners, which is a key factor in becoming teachers of foreign languages

adopting the Common European Framework of Reference (CEFR). Although Wuetherick and Dickinson (2015)'s conclusion supports positive influences of *E-portfolios* on their continuing students, these authors identified two major concerns that need to be addressed - the level of computer literacy in their students due to their variability in age and their previous educational backgrounds, and the support for portability of *E-portfolios* for students and teachers. However, the results of Gámiz-Sánchez, Gallego-Arrufat, and Crisol-Moya, (2016) show no increase in motivation, but they do show an increase in autonomy, especially a progressive increase in the student's online participation in a blended learning context. The results also indicate a positive correlation between the variables participation and university student's performance.

Alshawi and Alshumaimeri (2017) proved high proficiency level of student-teachers' E-portfolios and positive attitudes towards using E-portfolios mong these students. Moreover, the results of these authors denoted significantly positive relationship between the quality of student-teachers' E-portfolios and their teaching performance. The findings of Ivanova (2017), on the one hand, revealed several advantages E-portfolios regarding learners' increased sense of ownership, teacher and peer feedback, enriched learning experience at both individual and technological levels, enhanced opportunity for self-improvement and increased awareness of the learning process. On the other hand, Ivanova indicated some challenges facing students, teachers and support staff, mainly connected with technical problems and Internet access, and the necessity for teachers and learners to change their roles to become more independent in the learning process. Ivanova (2017) concluded that E-portfolio could be a promising tool to stimulate and challenge students to become independent and self-regulated learners, so it should be implemented in English language learning at higher educational institutions. Finally, according to Van Wyk (2017), student- teachers felt that they were empowered with different subject content knowledge, technological pedagogical content knowledge as well as other technologies, student-centered methods and techniques through the E-portfolio project.

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

The purpose of the conducted study is investigating the answer to the following research questions:

- *Could the use of E-portfolio as a continuous assessment tool help student-teachers promote their autonomy, in terms of willingness and ability to study independently?*

- *For the E-portfolio group, is there any correlation between student-teachers' willingness and ability to study independently?*

Setting and participants

Two groups of student-teachers in their third year took part in the course of English Testing and Assessment Methods in the summer term of 2017. The course ended in five weeks (from June 26th, 2017 to July 31st, 2017). These students attended classes twice a week. The experimental group (or the E-portfolio group) working with E-portfolios included 37 students and they had classes on Tuesday and Friday morning. The controlled group (the traditional group) working with paper-based portfolios consisted of 22 students and they had classes on Monday and Friday afternoon. All of these students had studied English Language Teaching Methods before they attended this course.

Using the paper-based portfolio and the E-portfolio as a continuous assessment

During the course of English Testing and Assessment Methods, students had to complete many assignments after class such as (i) preparing an oral presentation on one of the International Proficiency Tests of English (e.g. Starters, Movers, Flyers, KET, PET, FCE, CAE, TOEIC, TOEFL, and IELTS); (ii) writing five tests of English basing on an English textbook available in Viet Nam; and (iii) writing answers to essay-questions based on the topics (i.e. testing and assessing grammar, vocabulary, listening, speaking, reading and writing) they worked on in class. Student-teachers had to post/include all of these assignments as well as relevant collected materials in their portfolios as evidence of their independent learning after class. Therefore, both traditional portfolios and E-portfolios were used as a continuous assessment tool to evaluate student-teachers' self-studying during the course, and they were awarded 40% out of 100% for their

learning outcome of the whole course.

Student-teachers in the experimental group created their E-portfolios on Google Sites and uploaded all of the required assignments on their E-portfolios. In addition, they had to post all of the references that they used to write English tests, the first drafts and final drafts of their tests, and the checklists for self- and peer evaluation of the tests they wrote. Because the course lasted in five weeks, student-teachers of the two groups were allowed to revise five tests they had written and included in their portfolios in the sixth week.

Instrument and data collection

The instrument used to collect the data was the questionnaire 14 items. Five items were labeled as students' willingness to work independently and nine items were labeled as skills student-teachers needed when they studied independently after class. Student-teachers' responses were recorded on a 5-point scale with higher scores indicating greater levels of autonomy, more independence and more positive attitudes towards autonomous learning. The questionnaire was conducted on Google Form at https://docs.google.com/forms and was directly sent to the students' emails in the first week of September, 2017 after they took the written test (60% out of 100% for their learning outcome of the whole course). The students' responses were collected one week after the questionnaire was sent. Although the questionnaire was sent to all student-teachers in two groups, 28 (among 37) student-teachers in the experimental group and 15 (among 22) in the controlled group sent their responses. In addition, after processing the collected data from students' responses in the questionnaire, two special participants of the E-portfolio group were interviewed by the instructor (as well as the researcher) through mobile phone in order to deeply under-stand why these students did not highly some autonomous learning skills though their scores for personal qualities were good (3 or 4 out of 5).

Analysis and interpretation of findings

Findings about student-teachers' willingness to work independently

The student-teachers' responses were processed by the SPSS statistics version 22.0 and were presented as follows. The numbers in Table 1 indicate that the mean scores of personal qualities are ranged from the highest scores to the lowest ones (i.e. openness: 4.4 out of 5; responsibility: 4.2 out of 5; motivation: 4.0 out of 5; satisfaction: 3.9 out of 5; and self-confidence: 3.6 out of 5). From these means scores, it can be stated that working with E-portfolios, student-teachers could promote their willingness to study independently and their willingness can be seen in their openness to the new learning experiences, responsibility for their own learning and motivation to self-study after class although the mean scores for their self-confidence in their learning process and satisfaction of their learning outcome are lower than those of other qualities.

Table 1: Student-teachers' willingness to work independently (the E-portfolio group)

Descriptive Statistics (the E- Portfolio Group)

Personal Qualities	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean		Std. Deviation
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic
Openness	28	3,00	5,00	4,4643	,10889	,57620
Responsibility	28	3,00	5,00	4,2143	,12968	,68622
Motivation	28	3,00	5,00	4,0000	,13608	,72008
Satisfaction	28	3,00	5,00	3,9286	,11419	,60422
Self-confidence	28	3,00	5,00	3,6429	,12822	,67847
Valid N (listwise)	28					

A nearly similar range of mean scores for personal qualities of student-teachers in the traditional group can be seen in table 2. The mean scores for personal qualities include openness (4.2 out of 5); responsibility (4.0 out of 5); satisfaction (3.9 out of 5); motivation (3.8 out of 5) and self-confidence (3.4 out of 5). The results presented in Table 2 shows that student-teachers

who worked with the traditional portfolio could promote their autonomy in term of willingness to work independently and their willingness can be seen in only two personal qualities such as openness and responsibility.

Table 2: Student-teachers' willingness to work independently (the traditional portfolio group)

Descriptive Statistics (the traditional portfolio group)

Personal Qualities	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Openness	15	2,00	5,00	4,2667	,88372
Responsibility	15	3,00	5,00	4,0000	,75593
Satisfaction	15	3,00	5,00	3,9333	,59362
Motivation	15	3,00	5,00	3,8000	,67612
Self-confidence	15	2,00	4,00	3,4000	,63246
Valid N (listwise)	15				

When contrasting the results in Table 1 and Table 2, some similarities and differences in the willingness to self-study of two groups of student-teachers can be found. On the one hand, both groups have the highest mean score for openness and the lowest mean score for self-confidence. In addition, both groups of students have a similar score for satisfaction, which means that the kind of portfolio (E-portfolio or paper-based portfolio) does not affect their satisfaction with their autonomous learning. On the other hand, except for satisfaction, the mean scores for other qualities such as openness, responsibility, motivation and self-confidence of the E-portfolio group are higher than those of the traditional portfolio group. Therefore, it can be concluded that E-portfolios had positive effect on student-teachers' development of their willing-ness to work independently; in other word, E-portfolios could help student-teachers develop their open-ness, responsibility and motivation which are important qualities of autonomous learners, and traditional portfolio could promote

student-teachers' openness and responsibility.

Findings about student-teachers' ability to work independently

The information in Table 3 shows the mean scores that the student-teachers awarded to the skills they worked on during the course. The mean scores are ranged from the lowest one (creating E-portfolio on Google Sites, 3.6 out of 5) to the highest one (self-assessing skill, 4.1 out of 5). When looking into the mean score of each skill, it can be believed that student-teachers did not highly evaluate their ability to work in dependently and this ability can be found in many skills such as writing English tests, choosing and reading materials, planning, managing their learning time, monitoring their learning process and reflecting because the mean scores, as seen in Table 3, for these skills are ranged from 3.6 to 3.9 out 5.

Table 3: Skills that student-teachers need when working independently (the E-portfolio group)

Descriptive Statistics (the E-portfolio group)

Skills	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean		Std. Deviation
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic
Creating E-portfolio	28	3,00	5,00	3,6071	,12950	,68526
Planning	28	2,00	5,00	3,6071	,15718	,83174
Reflection	28	2,00	5,00	3,6429	,15613	,82616
Time Managing	28	2,00	5,00	3,6429	,12822	,67847
Monitoring	28	2,00	5,00	3,7143	,15307	,80999
Choosing materials	28	3,00	5,00	3,8214	,10356	,54796
Reading skills	28	3,00	5,00	3,9286	,10195	,53945
Writing tests	28	3,00	5,00	3,9643	,14980	,79266
Self-	28	3,00	5,00	4,1429	,15183	,80343

assessment						
Valid N (listwise)	28					

Similarly, student-teachers in the traditional portfolio group did not highly evaluate their ability to study independently as indicated in Table 4. The mean scores for autonomous learning skills are ranged from 4.2 out of 5 (for self-assessment skill) to 3.4 out of 5 (for choosing materials). When contrasting the mean scores assessed by two groups in Table 3 and Table 4, some minor differences can be identified. On the one hand, the student-teachers in the E-portfolio group had higher scores for their ability to write English tests, to choose materials and to monitor their self- studying than those in the traditional portfolio group. On the other hand, student-teachers in the paper-based group were better than those in the E-portfolio group at some skills such as self- assessing, reading materials, managing their learning time and reflecting. However, both groups had the similar mean score for their ability to plan for their self-studying (3.6 out of 5).

Table 4: Skills that student-teachers need when working independently (the traditional-portfolio group)

Descriptive Statistics (the traditional portfolio group)

Skills	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean		Std. Deviation
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic
Choosing materials	15	2,00	4,00	3,4667	,16523	,63994
Writing tests	15	3,00	5,00	3,6000	,16330	,63246
Planning	15	2,00	5,00	3,6000	,21381	,82808
Monitoring	15	2,00	5,00	3,6000	,21381	,82808

Skills	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean		Std. Deviation
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic
Managing time	15	2,00	5,00	3,8000	,24300	,94112
Reflection	15	3,00	5,00	3,8000	,14475	,56061
Reading	15	3,00	5,00	4,0000	,13801	,53452
Self-assessing	15	4,00	5,00	4,2000	,10690	,41404
Valid N (listwise)	15					

Findings about the correlation between willingness and ability to self-study in the E-portfolio group

The information in Table 5 shows that there is significant correlation between student-teachers' willingness- in terms of motivation, self-confidence and responsibility- and skills that they need when working independently after class. It is clear that most of the correlations are significant. That is, when examining each skill with each personal quality, the correlation is significant at the level of 0.01 or 0.05 (2 tailed). It can be concluded that the higher students are motivated, self-confident and responsible, the better their autonomous skills (e.g. choosing materials, reading, planning, managing time, monitoring, reflecting and reflecting) will become. However, when critically looking into each student's scores, two special cases (among 28 student-teachers) were recognized. These two students' scores for personal qualities were higher than those of some skills, which can be inferred that there was no correlation (negative correlation) between personal qualities and three out of nine skills they needed when self-studying after class. The data from the phone interview in the next part of this article will explain for this exception.

Table 5: Pearson correlation between skills and personal qualities of autonomous learners

Significant levels Skills	Motivation	Self-confidence	Responsibility
Creating E-portfolio on Google Sites	0.01	0.01	0.01
Choosing materials	0.01	0.01	0.01
Reading	0.05	0.01	0.01
Writing English tests	0.01	0.01	0.01
Planning	0.01	0.01	0.01
Managing time	0.05	0.05	0.01
Monitoring	0.01	0.01	0.01
Self-assessing	0.01	0.01	0.01
Reflecting	0.01	0.01	0.01

Findings from the phone interview

The numbers in Table 6 prove that the two students who were interviewed had the higher mean scores for personal qualities than those of three skills. For student-teacher 1 (S1), when being asked why she did not highly evaluate her ability to plan, monitor and reflect her learning process, this student said, "*to tell the truth, I have not been good at planning and monitoring my study since I was in high school and my weakness is that I don't know what my strength is, but I really know what my weakness is.*" She also added "*although I was studying full time from Monday to Friday, working part-time four evenings a week and attending a Korean language course three evenings a week, my work and Korean study did not affect my ability to plan for my self-studying after class.*" Therefore, according to S1's responses, external factors such as part-time work and extra class in the evening did not make her ability to plan as well as monitor her self-study worse but an internal factor or her own innate ability did. In contrast, student-teacher 2 (S2) was strongly affected by his personal problem or his love affair during the time that he attended the course of Testing and Assessment Methods. He said, "*attending five courses in this summer term and working part-time three evenings a week did not influence my self-studying, but my trouble with my girlfriend distracted me from my self-study; in other words, my love affair negatively affected my ability to plan, monitor and reflect when working independently after class*".

Table 6: Mean scores of personal qualities and skills of two student-teachers interviewed

	Personal qualities (mean scores)	Skills (mean scores)
Student –teacher 1 (S1)	Motivation (3)	Planning (2)
	Self-confidence (3)	Monitoring (2)
	Responsibility (3)	Reflecting (2)
Student-teacher 2 (S2)	Motivation (3)	Planning (2)
	Self-confidence (3)	Managing (2)
	Responsibility (4)	Reflecting (2)

DISCUSSION, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATION

Research question 1*: Could the use of E-portfolio as a continuous assessment tool help student-teachers promote their autonomy, in terms of willingness and ability to study independently?*

The findings presented in table 1 prove that by working with E-portfolios, student-teachers could develop their willingness to work independently after class and their willingness can be seen in their openness to their new learning experience and new knowledge, their responsibility and motivation for their own learning. These are in line with the results of Young (2008), Akçil and Arap (2009), and Phan Thi Thu Nga (2015 and 2017). Also, it can be seen in Table 1 that the mean score for self-confidence is 3.6 out of 5; that is, student-teachers were less self-confident when working with E-portfolios; and this finding is similar to that in Phan Thi Thu Nga (2015) and (2017)'s studies; however, this finding is different from Peréz Cavana (2012)'s conclusion because the participants in this author's study became more self-confident when working independently. Moreover, the information in Table 3 indicates that the mean score for self-assessment skill is 4.1 out of 5, so it can be concluded that by working with E-portfolios, student-teachers could develop their ability to work independently and this ability can be seen in their self-assessing skill which is necessary for autonomous learners; and this conclusion is the same as

that of Hakki Mirici and Hergüner (2015)'s study.

Research question 2: For the E-portfolio group, is there any correlation between student-teachers' willingness and ability to study independently?

By looking into the information presented in Table 5, it can be seen that there is positive correlation between three personal qualities of student-teachers such as motivation, self-confidence and responsibility and their ability to self-study. In other word, except for two special student-teachers (as presented in Table 6) the more they were motivated, self-confident and responsible for self- studying, the higher their skills such as choosing and reading materials, planning for their studying, managing learning time, monitoring, self-assessing and reflecting became. As a result, it can be said that if students have positive attitudes towards independent learning; or if they are motivated, self-confident and responsible for their self-studying, they will be able to work independently successfully although in this experimental study, there are two student-teachers, whose scores for skills (planning, monitoring, managing time and reflecting) were lower than their personal qualities such as motivation, self-confidence and responsibility.

In brief, although there are some minor differences in willingness and ability to work independently between the E-portfolio group and the paper-based portfolio group, using the E-portfolio as a continuous assessment tool has helped student-teachers develop their motivation, responsibility and self-assessing skill which autonomous learners need. There are also significant correlations between student-teachers' personal qualities and skills for their independent learning when working with E-portfolios.

From these findings, it is strongly recommended that the use of the E-portfolio as a continuous assessment tool should be continued not only in Testing and Assessment Methods Course but also in other courses of English Language Teacher Training in order to help student-teachers develop their autonomous learning which has become a long- life requirement for their professional development. Moreover, more studies on this issue should be conducted in order to examine why student-teachers did not highly evaluate their self-confidence in different studies on different participants conducted by the author so that the author as well as the teacher trainer could figure out student-teachers' troubles when they work

independently to assist them to gain more success in their autonomous learning. In order to make the results of student-teachers' self-assessment more objective and reliable, the contrastive analysis of student-teachers 'self-assessment and the teacher trainer's assessment is recommended.

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Phan Thi Thu Nga fulfilled her BA program (majoring in English Language Teaching) in Cantho University, Vietnam in 1995. She worked as a lecturer of English in Cantho University from 1995 to 2004. She fulfilled her Master of Science in Education at the University of Groningen in the Netherlands in 2003. She has been working as an English Language Teacher Trainer and a lecturer of English at Ho Chi Minh City Open University, Vietnam since 2005. Her research interests include English Language Teaching Methods, Using Technology in teaching English, Testing and Assessment Approaches, and Autonomy in English language education as well as in English Language Teacher Training.

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TEACHER EDUCATION AND LEARNING DESIGNS

STUDENT-TEACHERS' SELF-CREATED LESSONS IN A SELF-DIRECTED LEARNING ENVIRONMENT

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ABSTRACT

This paper aims to investigate the replacement of traditional classroom lectures by a lecturer with poster presentations and role plays by student-teachers in a Classroom Management course taught in a university in Ho Chi Minh City, Vietnam. In this context, traditional learning environments are transformed into self-organizing ones, with student-teachers providing suggested actions for self-created scenarios which are then acted out in role-plays. The learners create problems and also offer solutions using phrases and expressions from textbook units used in the classroom. Twenty-five student-teachers in their 3rd year participated in the study. They were asked to read, as homework, the unit contents from the class. They then represented what they had understood on an A0 blank paper using visual displays as appropriate. Having presented the project in front of the class, they introduced their self-created scenarios (which related to what they had observed as teacher-trainees in high schools in the previous semester). They then played out the roles. The study lasted four weeks. Questionnaires were administered to all participants and five of the participants were picked randomly to be interviewed so as to discover their insights. The expectations from the study are that the self-organized lessons better meet learners' needs and enhance learners' autonomy.

Keywords: *learner autonomy, learners' needs, role play, self-directed learning, self-organizing learning environment*

INTRODUCTION

In the context of the developing ASEAN economic community and the globalization phenomenon in general with a growing emphasis on mobility and the use of English as a lingua franca, the demand for learning English is likely to outstrip the available traditional teaching and learning structures. And there is a constant need for educational personnel as for 65 years in Vietnam, the pedagogical sector, founded under Decree No. 194, dated August 10th 1946, and pedagogical institutions have continuously developed and educated a huge number of teachers, lecturers, and educational managers (Nguyen Loc, 2011). However, student-teachers who are familiar with lectures in classrooms have a tendency toward passive listening and note-taking.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Self-directed learning

Self-directed learning has existed even from classical antiquity. Research, scholarship, and interest in self-directed learning has literally exploded around the world in recent years; and also it is during the last three decades that self-directed learning has become a major research area [1]. In self-directed learning, the individual takes the initiative and the responsibility for what occurs. Individuals select, manage, and assess their own learning activities, which can be pursued at any time, in any place, through any means, and at any age [2]. These self-directed learners should create ways to experience information and consider the impact of basing ideas and perspectives on it. They are the ones who build a strong learning community by contributing powerfully to supporting, elevating, and empowering each other. However, instructors themselves need to create activities that support students in weighing outcomes, taking into account the possible results; to acknowledge a variety of perspectives using mind mapping or infographics; to compare and contrast maps between students so as to support them in noticing differences; and to use reflective techniques such as journaling and dialogue helps to explore the emotional implications and effects on social

situations and the collective environment [3].

On an additional note, self-directed learning will always exist without our trying to force it into the curriculum, but a curriculum that illuminates and seeks intention through self-directed learning will take our communities to the transformative level [3]. Furthermore, self-directed learning should be attached to learner autonomy.

Learner autonomy

Henri Holec, the 'father' of 'learner autonomy' first coined the term in 1981 [4]. It is briefly described as 'the ability to take charge of one's own learning' (Holec, 1981). Dickinson (1994) believed that 'autonomy is a situation in which the learner is totally responsible for all the decisions concerned with his or her learning and the implementation of those decisions'; and in one of his chapters, Benson (2000) defined 'autonomy is recognition of the rights of learners within educational systems'.

Learners who are with autonomy are called autonomous learners. In order to be able to decide what to learn and how to learn, they need to be disciplined, logical, self-aware, curious, flexible, interdependent and independent, creative, retrieving information, and able to develop the content (Candy, 1994).

Learners' needs

As learning happens in an autonomous learning environment, meeting learners' needs helps to prepare the learners to become more actively engaged and effective for life, and allow for each learner's individual talents to develop. Allowing for each of them to approach the curriculum as they are able, to an extent, better enables them to retain the materials given, thus improving morale and each learner's excitement for learning. Moreover, in identifying an individual's learning needs, such a learner becomes a kind of partner in their teaching. They can feel a sense of personal, active engagement with the material, rather than a passive, just show up kind of class. In addition, the teacher is as a facilitator, not a lecturer. Despite the teacher's presence, learners can also have a pride of achievement in each goal met, because they helped to set those goals in the first place [5].

RESEARCH QUESTIONS

To find out the effectiveness of self-created lessons in self-directed learning, the research question is:

- *To what extent are the self-created lessons effective for the student-teachers in self-directed learning?*

STUDY DESIGN

Participants

There were twenty-five student-teachers participating in the study, who were in their 3rd year at a university in Ho Chi Minh City, Vietnam. Before attending the course entitled Classroom Management, they had spent several weeks working as teacher-trainees to observe real classrooms in high schools in the previous semester. During the four weeks of the study, the participants were asked to read, as homework, the unit contents from the textbook. After that, they grouped themselves to collaboratively work on the content they had decided on and presented it on A0 blank paper using visual displays as appropriate. Some group used mind maps, and some used colourful funny drawings to get the attraction. After that, they presented what they had done in front of the class, and then introduced their self-created scenarios which related to what they had observed as teacher-trainees in high schools in the previous semester. They then acted out the roles from those scenarios.

Instruments

The instruments of the study are questionnaires which were administered to all participants and five out of the twenty-five participants were picked randomly to be interviewed so as to discover their insights.

The questionnaire was designed with a Likert-type scale (1= strongly disagree to 5= strongly agree). The items aim to measure the participants' attitudes or opinions on self-directed learning.

DATA ANALYSIS AND FINDINGS

The questionnaires were delivered in the fifth week of the course and completed by all twenty-five participants. The data were collected and analyzed using SPSS 16.0. There were four males and twenty-one females participating in the study. Ten out of twenty-five agreed to provide their names on the sheets.

Participants

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	male	4	16.0	16.0	16.0
	female	21	84.0	84.0	100.0
	Total	25	100.0	100.0	

Figure 1: Gender of participants

Q1

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	agree	8	32.0	32.0	32.0
	strongly agree	17	68.0	68.0	100.0
	Total	25	100.0	100.0	

Q4

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	agree	8	32.0	32.0	32.0
	strongly agree	17	68.0	68.0	100.0
	Total	25	100.0	100.0	

Q5

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	agree	17	68.0	68.0	68.0
	strongly agree	8	32.0	32.0	100.0
	Total	25	100.0	100.0	

Q6

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	agree	11	44.0	44.0	44.0
	strongly agree	14	56.0	56.0	100.0
	Total	25	100.0	100.0	

Q7

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	agree	2	8.0	8.0	8.0
	strongly agree	23	92.0	92.0	100.0
	Total	25	100.0	100.0	

Q8

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	agree	12	48.0	48.0	48.0
	strongly agree	13	52.0	52.0	100.0
	Total	25	100.0	100.0	

Q9

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	agree	14	56.0	56.0	56.0
	strongly agree	11	44.0	44.0	100.0
	Total	25	100.0	100.0	

Figure 2: The Frequency of the Agreement on the questions 1, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9

The table presents the information about the frequency of agreement with the statements. All of the participants strongly agree or agree on the effectiveness of collaborative work with their classmates. Two-thirds of them feel more confident to express their ideas and also learn from their friends' ideas even the most reserved or the shyest ones.

In addition, from group work they can be methodological and logical to enhance critical thinking skills since a majority of the student-teachers admit to developing the ability to relate to the teaching situations which they had observed in the previous semester, the ability to develop their own learning objectives based on their learning needs without having to follow or learn all the things printed in the textbook. Besides, with self-created lessons, the student-teachers all believe that they are more responsible for the decisions concerned with their own learning. Above all, it is worth noticing that having initiative and freedom for learning are judged as the most crucial things.

Q2

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	neutral	2	8.0	8.0	8.0
	agree	16	64.0	64.0	72.0
	strongly agree	7	28.0	28.0	100.0
	Total	25	100.0	100.0	

Q3

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	neutral	5	20.0	20.0	20.0
	agree	16	64.0	64.0	84.0
	strongly agree	4	16.0	16.0	100.0
	Total	25	100.0	100.0	

Q10

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	neutral	2	8.0	8.0	8.0
	agree	12	48.0	48.0	56.0
	strongly agree	11	44.0	44.0	100.0
	Total	25	100.0	100.0	

Figure 3: The Frequency of Agreement on questions 2, 3, 10

As shown in the tables, there are responses of neither agree nor disagree on the viewpoints of having the ability to search for and identifying the information and selecting the learning materials which are appropriate for their groups' assignments. One-fifth of participants does not think they are more creative while working on the exposed visual drawings while 8% of the participants doubt that they themselves can feel comfortable to learn in the self-directed learning environment.

For the interviews, five out of twenty-five participants were randomly picked for the interview with consent to discover their insights. Most of them felt very comfortable and effective when learning in a self-directed learning environment. The shyest student-teacher was, by chance, in the interview. She believed that she became more confident since she gained many opportunities to express her ideas in groups and in front of the class during her presentation. The other three were certain that with the freedom to select the materials for the lessons and develop their own learning

objectives based on their learning needs, they could be more creative and make their learning more effective. The rest emphasized the importance and the interesting atmosphere of creating the scenarios and then acting out the roles. Furthermore, all of them wished to try to learn future subjects in the same way in such an environment. In addition, when asked to describe themselves after the course, four of them felt excited and added a 'sense of humour' to their characteristics. It can, therefore, be confidently stated that the participants were content with self-created lessons.

However, besides the answers to the questions, the interviewees were concerned that the freedom of selecting materials might lead to mistakes in the lessons, and that a few might become lazy and dependent on the other group members. They rarely contributed to the group work before coming to class and earned the same results as their friends.

LIMITATIONS

There was an attempt to interview more participants to increase the number of interviewees to ten or twelve out of twenty-five, but some refused and some were busy with other subjects on the day of the interview. Another concern was that giving the same results for group presentation might lead to inequality since group members did not report being dependent on others' opinions and not working hard.

CONCLUSION

From the data analyzed, it is evident that most student-teachers generally get excited in each class meeting since self-creating the lessons gives them more freedom to decide the things they would learn according to their learning needs. However, deciding what to learn happens within the lesson and is necessarily based on the structure of the textbook rather than their ability to select which lesson comes first or which lessons should be excluded.

To sum up, creating their own lessons in a self-directed learning environment helped the student-teachers to enhance their critical thinking skills, their ability to work in groups through presentations and role-plays, and above all, their responsibility in learning or working autonomously to meet their learning needs.

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2   http://www.selfdirectedlearning.com/

3   https://www.edutopia.org/discussion/how-put-self-directed-learning-work-your-classroom

4   https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Learner_autonomy

5   https://www.methodschools.org/blog/why-it-is-important-to-identify-and-meet-individual-learner-needs-when-teaching-small-class-sizes

APPENDIX 1

Questionnaire

Dear students,

This questionnaire aims to get your opinions on self-created lessons in a self-directed learning environment.

Please tick in the box for each statement to indicate how much you disagree or agree with each of the statements.

1-strongly disagree   2-disagree   3-undecided   4-agree   5-strongly agree

Items	1	2	3	4	5

When I attend this self-directed learning course and work within groups, I ……

	1	2	3	4	5
1. like to work collaboratively with my classmates because I can speak up to share my ideas freely and comfortably; furthermore, I enjoy learning from my partners' ideas.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
2. am able to search for and identify the information, and select the learning materials which are appropriate for my group assignments.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
3. am able to be more creative while working on the visual drawings.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

4. am able to relate the previous teaching situations (when observing in high schools) to create scenarios. ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

5. am able to develop my own learning objectives based on my learning needs. ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

6. am methodical and logical with critical thinking. ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

7. am happy not to follow and learn all the things printed in the textbook. ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

8. am responsible for my decisions concerned with my own learning. ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

9. have initiative and freedom for learning. ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

10. feel comfortable to learn in the self-directed learning environment. ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

APPENDIX 2

Interview Sheet

Name (*optional*): ……………………………………

Learner autonomy	1. How long have you been learning English? Have you ever had the right to decide the content of the lessons before? …………………………………………… ……………………………………………
Learners' needs	2. What did you think when you were given the right to decide what to learn in your classroom? …………………………………………
Collaborative work and building up confidence	3. Did you enjoy work with your friends in groups on assignments? Why or why not? ………………………………………… 4. Did you enjoy presenting what you had worked on in front of the class? Why or why not? …………………………………………
Wanting to be self-directed	5. If you have an opportunity to learn other subjects in a self-directed manner, will you take it? Why or why not? …………………………………………
Self-directed learners' characteristics	6. Describe yourself after learning in a self-directed learning environment. …………………………………………

USING FACEBOOK FOR PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT IN DONG THAP PROVINCE

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ABSTRACT

Since Directive No.55/2008/CT-BGDĐT of the Ministry of Education and Training on strengthening the Information and Communication Technologies (ICT) use in teaching and training in the educational system for the period 2008-2012 (Socialist Republic of Vietnam, 2008) was approved, it has been required the improvement in foreign language teaching methodology as a response to the needs of Vietnam's society and the 21st Century skills for the labor force in an integrated ASEAN region. As teachers of English in Vietnam are usually too busy with different activities at school, their best way for sharing professional information is using Social Network Sites (SNSs). Of all the SNSs, Facebook is currently the most popular in Vietnam as well as in Dong Thap, so Facebook is the best choice. The research was conducted with 40 teachers of English from ten high schools in Dong Thap province. It was built on the aim of greater use of ICT in education by establishing a 'Closed' Facebook group to create an online community, in which members could share their own writings and materials for the teaching and learning of English. Participation within the group was monitored with the aim of exploring its efficacy on their English competence or their professional development after using Facebook.

INTRODUCTION AND CONTEXT

Since the introduction of the new national curriculum, there have been few teacher professional development opportunities to improve teachers' own EFL writing skills, enhance their teaching of EFL skills or share their EFL writing teaching experience with their colleagues. In addition, many EFL teachers in Dong Thap province of Vietnam failed the writing tests of the National Foreign Languages 2020 Project, meaning that they have become

not only worried about teaching EFL writing as part of English as a Foreign Language (EFL) classes, but also with their own English proficiency level.

To keep pace with the burst of Information and Communication Technology (ICT), Vietnam has been trying to enhance the quality of teaching and learning by applying ICT to the education curriculum from elementary to tertiary levels. With Directive 55 (MOET, 2008), the role of ICT has been emphasized to support educational renovation towards a creative learning society with friendly schools and active students. The role of ICT is also supported as an essential component of innovative student-centered pedagogy. To develop more innovative teaching methods, high school teachers across Vietnam have been trying to enhance their writing skills in different ways through both online and offline learning. Dong Thap is not an exception among the 63 provinces in all Vietnam.

In this context, the present study introduced the process of using a 'Closed' Facebook group for high school teachers in Dong Thap province to develop their EFL writing skills, to share their EFL teaching materials and experiences as well as to get hand-on experience in managing such similar 'Closed' Facebook groups for their own teaching contexts. This research aimed to investigate high school teachers' attitude towards this process of using a closed group on Facebook for teaching and learning EFL writing, and exploring its efficacy on their English competence or their professional development after using Facebook. Specifically, this research explored the following questions:

1. *Do high school teachers think they can improve their English competence after using Facebook?*

2. *Do high school teachers think they can improve their professional development after using Facebook?*

LITERATURE REVIEW

Facebook as a Social Network Site (SNS) in the World and in Vietnam

Facebook was established in 2004 by Mark Zuckkerberg, and in 2010, it became the largest SNS in existence today with over 500 million active users (Informationweek, 2010). Facebook enables its users to present

themselves through an online profile and accumulate "Friends" who can post comments on each other's pages, view each other's profiles and join virtual groups based on common interests (Lampe, Ellison, & Steinfield, 2007). In a clearer description, each Facebook user creates an accounts, constructs a virtual identity in the form of an online profile complete with audio, video, or still pictures; views other users' profiles, and accumulates "Friends" who can post comments on his or her profile page. Users have various privacy setting options wherein they can choose to share their profile content with anyone in the network, with friends of friends, or with "friends" only. Facebook members can also join virtual discussion groups based on interest in a topic, cause, hobby, or organization or to see what classes they have in common. Profiles may provide other details, such as romantic relationship, professional, income status, or religious and political affiliations (Hart & Steinbrecher, 2011).

Even with the introduction of new social networking sites, Facebook remains the most popular. As of March 2014, it had 1.28 billion monthly active users worldwide (Facebook, 2014). By 2014, nearly 25 million of the 36 million Internet users in Vietnam had Facebook accounts, according to a Danish market research agency (VietNamNet Bridge, 2014). The report indicated that of those who had a Facebook account in Vietnam, 97% used Facebook to contact their friends and relatives as well as to share experiences, market products and services (Vietnamnet Bridge, 2014). With the expanding rate of the Internet throughout, especially in the context of very high internet connection speed in Vietnam, internet users accounted for 35.58 % of the entire country's population in 2012 (VNMIC, 2012). Most Facebook users engaged in "searching" for people with whom they have an offline connection more than they "browse" for complete strangers to meet (Lamp, Ellison, & Steinfield, 2006). This is also true with regard to the high school teachers of English in Dong Thap province of Vietnam, where Facebook is currently the most popular online social networking site. In this trend, high school teachers in this province have been using Facebook for bridging online and offline social networks as well as professional networks.

Facebook as an Effective Educational Tool

In the field of education, Social Network Sites benefit learners by encouraging them to carry out peer-to-peer dialogues, promoting the sharing of resources, and fostering the development of communication skills (Siemens & Weller, 2011). On Facebook, teachers can engage in professional development by joining professional groups, adding individual educators as "Friends", creating groups for teachers, watching feeds from other teachers and sharing useful links and messages related to teaching or education. The features of Facebook allow teachers to send private and public messages, post questions and comments, share resources practices and discourse artifacts, and stay in contact with peers, which meet most of the requirements of an effective online professional development environment (Rutherford, 2010; Staudt, Clair, & Martinez, 2013). Facebook offers several benefits to teaching and learning, including increasing learners' self-efficacy, motivation and self-esteem; encouraging positive changes in perceptions and attitudes; and decreasing anxiety and improvement in language learning skills (Aydin, 2012). As Facebook has several opportunities for teaching and learning, teachers are likely to benefit from Facebook in or around the classroom (Sumuer, Esfer & Yildirim, 2014).

Popular Facebook Groups for Vietnam EFL Teachers

At present, there are some popular Facebook groups that Vietnamese teachers of English can easily access such as *VietTESOL* (a public group with 1,339 members, https://www.facebook.com/groups/VieTESOL/), *ELT in Vietnam* (a closed group with 1,347 members, https://www.facebook.com/groups/196442957356639/), *Teacher voices* (a closed group with 7,933 members, https://www.facebook.com /groups/teachervoices/). However, these Facebook groups have been established for sharing teaching experience and materials at either national or international levels. At the time of this study, there was no Facebook group for high school Vietnamese teachers' professional development. As a result, a closed Facebook group called 'Teachers' was set up to provide an online professional learning community, specifically for EFL high school teachers in Dong Thap province of Vietnam.

METHODOLOGY

Research Design

The closed Facebook group for this research was created to facilitate the sharing of participants' own EFL writing, teaching materials and any thing related to their profession with the other group members. To motivate active participation, participants were encouraged to share both creative and academic writing to receive feedback from peers, without any pressure on being judged due to their various English language proficiency levels.

This research was of a descriptive nature in which the researchers collected information and described the facts quantitatively. The data were analysed by SPSS 23.0. The participants were high school teachers of English from different districts and towns in Dong Thap province of Vietnam.

Procedures

The research timeline included two phases:

Phase 1- Pedagogical and Technological Training and questionnaire piloting:

All participants were added to a closed Facebook group called 'Teachers'. The participants were required to submit at least 5 free writing entries and 5 comments on other posts or 5 links to some useful sites for teaching and learning English. Participants were capable of writing posts at their convenient time (self-paced, within about 2 months) and got feedback at free cost in the 'Teachers' Facebook group.

Then, to monitor the questionnaire, twenty of the teachers were chosen to answer the questionnaire. From the result selected from SPSS, *Cronbach's alpha (α) was .866*, it was quite reliable, so the researcher continued asking all forty teachers.

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.866	20

Phase 2 – Data collection:

The questionnaire was administered to forty participants to examine the participants' self - efficacy after joining a closed group on Facebook. The questionnaire was divided into two clusters: High school teachers' self-efficacy on their English competence or their professional development.after using a 'Closed' group on Facebook. After all the other teachers had received and answered the questionnaire , the researcher typed all the answers in the SPSS table to check the frequencies, descriptive statistics, means comparison and correlation between the two constructs. Last of all, the researcher interpreted the output from the quantitative data.

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

Table 1

Descriptive Statistics

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
English competence	40	2.10	3.90	3.1675	.48059
Professional development	40	3.70	5.00	4.2150	.44696
Valid N (listwise)	40				

Table 2

One-Sample Test

	Test Value = 3					
	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
					Lower	Upper
English competence	2.204	39	.033	.16750	.0138	.3212
Professional development	17.193	39	.000	1.21500	1.0721	1.3579

The teachers'self-efficacy on their English competence after joining a closed group on Facebook

Table 1 shows the results of a one-sample t test. A one-sample t- test was conducted on the teachers'self-efficacy on their English competence after joining a closed group on Facebook to evaluate whether the mean was significant different from 3.0, the accepted mean for the teachers' self-efficacy on their English competence. The sample mean M =3.16 (SD=0.480) was significantly different from 3.0, t =2.204, df = 39, p = 0.033.

The 95% of confidence internal of the difference ranged from (3.16-3.0) and the effect size d = 0.16/0.00 = 0.033, a small effect. It means that the teachers' self-efficacy on their English competence was a little positive as seen from the result in table 2.

The teachers'self-efficacy on their professional development after joining a closed group on Facebook

Table 1 shows the results of a one-sample t test. A one-sample t- test was conducted on the teachers'self-efficacy on their professional development after joining a closed group on Facebook to evaluate whether the mean was significant different from 3.0, the accepted mean for the teachers'self-efficacy on their professional development. The sample mean M =4.21 (SD=0.446) was significantly different from 3.0, t =17.193, df = 39, p = 0.000.

The 95% of confidence internal of the difference ranged from (4.21-3.0) and the effect size d = 1.21/0.00 = 0.000, a large effect. It means that the teachers'self-efficacy on their professional development was really positive as seen from the result in table 2.

In general, the Vietnamese high school teacher participants of this study had a generally positive attitude towards joining a closed group on. Actually, their self-efficacy on professional development was more positive than their English competence.

The results from the in-depth interviews with four high school teachers also showed their positive attitudes towards the use of Facebook for learning

and teaching EFL writing. Their responses to the questions were as follows:

Q.1.   What skills did you expect to improve when you decided to join this closed group on Facebook?

ID1: I thought it would be very helpful for my writing skill because my colleagues would detect my errors. Actually, none of them mentioned my errors.

ID2: I just wanted to try new ways of learning.

D3:   I thought it very modern and it had high efficiency but I would not improve my English much.

ID4: I thought I could improve my reading and writing more than speaking and listening.

Q.2.   Why did you expect for your career when you joined this closed group on Facebook?

ID1: I wished to make friends with more colleagues to learn something new.

ID2: Because I wanted to cooperate with my colleagues to create something special.

ID3: I just followed my colleagues, I didn't expect much.

ID4: I wanted to collect some materials for my classes.

From the above responses, it can be seen that most teachers did not expect much on their English competence as their professional development when joining a closed group on Facebook.

CONCLUSION

According to the high school teachers' responses in this research, a closed group on Facebook benefited high school teachers' self-efficacy on both English competence and professional development. Actually, their answers showed that they got more professional development than their English competence. This study was designed to provide a model for the teachers so that they could use FB for their high school classes. Facebook, which might

have been seen as an unproductive use of a young person's time, has become a useful tool for teachers of English. This research is the first step to use ICT in an educational context in Dong Thap province. From this research, a community of EFL high school teachers was established and this may be used for more professional development activities in the future. It is also recommended that more experimental research should be done to see more clearly how closed groups on Facebook can assist high school teachers in their English competence as well as their own professional development.

THE AUTHOR

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STRATEGIES TO PROMOTE STUDENTS' WILLINGNESS TO COMMUNICATE IN ENGLISH: TEACHERS' PERCEPTIONS AND PRACTICES

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ABSTRACT

The aim of study was in an attempt to investigate EFL high school teachers' strategies to promote students' willingness to communicate (WTC) in English. The research was conducted on 51 participants in the Mekong Delta. Three research instruments were employed including questionnaires, interview and classroom observation in order to explore teachers' perceptions of strategies to promote students' WTC in English and their actual practices. The results from quantitative data revealed that teachers' evaluation of strategies was significantly high. Moreover, participants reported that they highly frequently implemented strategies to increase students' WTC in English. Interestingly, there is a high correlation between teachers' perceptions and their practices from their self-report; however, the results indicated the mismatch between teachers' perceptions and their actual practices in strategies to promote students' WTC in English insight from classroom observation. The study was expected to contribute to the comprehension of teachers' strategies to enhance students' WTC in English.

Key words: *willingness to communicate, strategies, Mekong Delta*

INTRODUCTION

Today, the main goal of learning English aims to achieve communicative competence to communicate successfully and effectively in real-life situations to meet the demand of globalization. Despite the importance of English, most Vietnamese students, especially high school students are

passive in learning, remain silent during the lesson, and fail to achieve communicative competence because teaching English still emphasizes the importance of reading and grammar in order to cope with examinations, rather than communication. Therefore, making students talk is still a challenge for teachers because most Asian students are passive, quiet, shy, reticent and unwilling to answer (Cheng, 2000; Tsui, 1996; Liu, 2005). As a result, approximately 98% of Vietnamese students who study English for seven years (from grade 6 to grade 12) cannot use it for basic communication (Nhan, 2013).

In recent years, enhancing students' WTC has been considered a valid goal of language education (MacIntyre, Baker, Clement & Donovan, 2003); however, few studies were conducted on EFL high school teachers' strategies to promote students' willingness to communicate in English (Weaver, 2010). Thus, the current study was conducted to investigate EFL high school teachers' perceptions of strategies to promote students' WTC and their actual practices in classroom.

LITERATURE REVIEW

In this study, eight main strategies were suggested to enhance students' readiness to communicate in English including promoting group cohesiveness, employing cooperative work, establishing supporting and caring relationship with students, creating a pleasant climate classroom, making tasks stimulating and presenting tasks properly, promoting students self-confidence, familiarizing students with English-related values, and conducting a positive way to error correction.

First, group cohesiveness strategies have been applied to increase students' WTC, such as by asking students to work in pairs or small groups and by giving them discussion tasks (Aubrey, 2010; Aubrey, 2011; Vongsila & Reinders, 2016; Wen & Clement, 2003). In other words, promoting group cohesiveness leads to engagement, a pleasant feeling and willingness to communicate. To cultivate cohesiveness, a strong sense of trust between students must be established, to the extent one might find in a family: using positive traits of students and personalizing students' connections (Aubrey, 2011).

Secondly, with respect to strategy of employing cooperative work, the results conducted by Cao and Philip (2006), Centikaya (2005) and Tsui (1995) indicated that students should get them involved in small group works. They are more willing to speak in pairs and groups rather than individually or to their teacher or in front of a large group of people because the learning activity is regarded as a good way to help students learn speaking English in a safe learning environment. These findings were in line with the study conducted by Fushino (2010) that students tend to be more willing to speak in groups with a small number of participants, three or four members since they have the opportunity to help each other and learn from each other.

Establishing supportive and caring rapport was regarded as successful and remarkable implications to deal with the problem of foreign language anxiety and to motivate students to participate. To establish such caring and supportive relationship, teacher academic support and emotional support considered the determining and significant factors were claimed to enhance students' willingness to talk in foreign language classroom (Kang, 2005; Wen & Clement, 2003). The strategy has been pointed out by several researchers confirmed that establishing supportive and caring relationship between teacher and students or teacher' support is the most powerful tool for enhancing students' motivation as well as willingness to interact in class (Dornyei, 2001**;** Dornyei & Chang, 2007; Wen & Clement, 2003; Zarribadi, 2014).

Furthermore, creating a comfortable atmosphere classroom is one of the most effective ways to reduce speaking anxiety in the classroom and enhance students' participation (Vongsila & Reinders, 2016; Wen & Clement, 2003). Many teachers build up a friendly, pleasant and humorous class atmosphere through their choice of interesting activities, encouragement or appropriate feedback. In other words, a classroom with a positive atmosphere and little gap between teacher and students encourages students to take risks and to be willing to participate in the use of English because there is no fear of criticism in a joyful and non-threatening environment.

Designed learning tasks need to draw students' interest in order to facilitate

extrinsic motivation turn into intrinsic motivation as well as increase their readiness to produce the language. Therefore, tasks should be fun, interesting, useful, or challenging to students so that they enjoy the task itself, not because of the reward from the teachers. Additionally, the topic of discussion has a substantial role in manipulating foreign students' WTC (Aubrey, 2011; Kang, 2005; Peng & Woodrow, 2010). Students linguistically confident are willing to participate in discussing when the topic is interesting, familiar, controversial, knowledgeable or when they feel comfortable (MacIntyre et al., 1998) and necessary to discuss (Kang, 2005).

In order to make high school students talk in English, promoting students self-confidence was one of significant strategies (Vongsila & Reinders, 2016). In their research, enhancing students self-confidence by providing positive feedback, highlighting success and providing encouragement was highly important way contributing to students' willingness to speak English in class. Regarding strategy of familiarizing students with English-related values, teachers and students should frequently use English in class, which makess learning English interesting and meaningful. Gardner (1985) stated that students' dispositions towards English culture and its people have a considerable influence on their learning achievement. Therefore, teachers are highly recommended to increase both quantity and quality of English instruction as much as possible in the classroom in order to improve students' oral communication.

Last but not least, providing a positive method to error correction increased students' WTC levels (Kang, 2005; Zarrinabadi, 2014). The findings conducted by Kang (2005) indicated that teachers should try to create a secure environment in which nothing is threatening students in case they make mistakes. It is suggested that delayed error correction was kind of error modification played a significant role in enhancing students' WTC levels (Zarrinabadi, Ketabi, & Abdi, 2014) and students' verbal fluency and accuracy (Rahimi, 2012). In contrast, if the teachers immediately give corrective feedback when error correction happens in speaking performance, it tends to reduce WTC, whichincreases their anxiety and insecure about making mistakes in future interactions (Zarrinabadi, 2014).

RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The research aims to (1) investigate teachers' perception of strategies to promote students' willingness to communicate in English and (2) explore what strategies they frequently employ in classrooms.

Based on the research aims, the research attempts to answer three research questions:

(1) What are EFL high school teachers' perceptions towards applying strategies to promote students' willingness to communicate in English?

(2) What strategies do teachers use to promote students' willingness to communicate in English?

(3) Is there any consistence between teachers' perceptions and practices?

THE STUDY

Settings and participants

The participants in the questionnaire survey who were randomly chosen were 51 experienced teachers of English (12 males and 39 females), teaching at different high schools from different parts in the Mekong Delta.

Data collection and analysis

In order to conduct the research, a mixed method research which combines both quantitative and qualitative approach was used to answer three research questions posed. The questionnaire was employed to investigate teachers' overall perceptions and to examine their frequency of using strategies to enhance students' willingness to communicate in English. In addition, two open-ended questions were used to deeply examine teachers' strategies. After collecting quantitative data, the interview was carried out to get more reliable information that questionnaires cannot provide. Classroom observation was used to explore teachers' actual strategies for promoting students' willingness to communicate in English. Video-recording was employed to record what happened in the process of teaching and learning. Note-taking was used to get extra data for the study.

FINDINGS

Teachers' perceptions of strategies to promote students' willingness to communicate in English

Section 1 of the questionnaire consisting of 30 items aims at measuring teachers' perceptions of strategies to promote students willingness to communicate in English. Participants selected their answers ranging from *Not important* to *Very important*. The five-point scale was coded: *1=Not important, 2=Less important, 3=Neutral, 4= Important, 5=Very important*. The reliability analysis showed that reliability coefficient of section 1 of questionnaire is acceptable ($\alpha_{important}$=.92).

The result from a Descriptive Statistics Test showed that the mean score of teachers perceptions of strategies to promote students WTC in English was M=4.00 (SD=.43). The One-sample t-test was run to check whether participants level of perceptions (M=4.00, SD=.43) is statistically different from the test value of 4.0, a relatively high level of perception. The results showed that no significant difference between participants level of perceptions and the test values was observed *(t=.029, df=50, p=.98).* The results supported that the evaluation of strategies was important to promote students' WTC. The ranked order of the importance of each cluster was presented in table 1.

Table 1. The ranked level of importance of strategies to promote students WTC in English

Order	Strategies	Mean
1	Make tasks stimulating and present them properly	4.20
2	Establish supporting and caring relationship	4.16
3	Promote students self-confidence	4.10
4	Create a pleasant climate	4.09
5	Promote group cohesiveness	3.89
6	Familiarize students with English-related values	3.81
7	Employ cooperative work	3.79
8	Conduct a positive way to error correction	3.74

As shown in table 1, all mean scores fall between 3.74 to 4.20, which means that all strategies were importantfor encouraging students' WTC. The strategies were ranked from the most important to the least important from teachers' response. It is certainty no exaggeration to claim that *designing interesting learning tasks and the way teachers present tasks* (M=4.20) were the most important strategies in order to promote students' WTC in English. Moreover, participants reported that *establishing supporting and caring relationship, promoting students self-confidence, and creating a pleasant climate* were significant to encourage students to speak English. Furthermore, teachers ranked the cluster *conducting a positive to error correction* (M=3.74) at the bottom of table.

Data gained from interviews indicated that c*reating a friendly environment and establishing a good rapport with students* played an essential role to increase students to use English in class without anxiety. The other important strategies were *providing positive feedback on students' performance*, *choosing interesting and most recent topics*, *making communicative tasks stimulating,* and *providing very clear instructions by giving examples or modeling* so that students would be interested in speaking English and increase their willingness to communicate.

Teachers' practices in using strategies to promote students' willingness to communicate in English

In order to explore what strategies high school teachers most frequently employ to encourage students' WTC in English, the questionnaire and classroom observation were conducted. Participants answered the questionnaire according to a five-point scale ranging from –*Never to Very often*. The 5-point scale was coded from 1 for *Never* to *5* for *Very often*. The reliability analysis showed that reliability coefficient of section 2 of questionnaire is acceptable (α $_{frequency}$=.91)

The result from the Descriptive Statistics Test indicated that the mean score of participants practices of strategies to promote students' WTC was highly positive (M=3.99, SD=.41). The One Sample T-Test was employed to check whether participants' level of frequency of practices (M=3.99, SD=.41) was statistically different from the test value of 4.0, a high level of frequency. The result indicated that there was no significant difference

between the mean scores of teachers practices and the test value 4.0 (t=-.134, df =50, p=.89). It can be concluded that high school teachers often implement strategies to encourage students' WTC in English.

The results from Descriptive Statistics Test which showed that participants employed strategies to promote students WTC in English are demonstrated in table 2.

Table 2. Descriptive statistics of strategies employed by participants

Clusters	SD	Mean
Establish supporting and caring relationship	.51	4.22
Promote students self-confidence	.51	4.17
Make tasks stimulating and present tasks properly	.52	4.05
Create a pleasant climate	.49	4.01
Promote group cohesiveness	.53	3.94
Provide positive feedback to error correction	.62	3.84
Familiarize students with English-related values	.50	3.80
Employ cooperative work	.58	3.69

As can be seen in table 2, all the mean scores are relatively high ranging from M=3.69 to M=4.22, which are higher than the average mean. The results revealed that high school teachers often employ these strategies to promote students' WTC. The strategy with highest level of frequency was *establish supporting and caring relationship* (M=4.22), which means that teachers very often use this strategy. The participants also reported that *promoting students' self-confidence* (M=4.17), *making tasks stimulating and presenting tasks properly* (M=4.05), and *creating a pleasant climate* (M= 4.01) are usually employed to encourage students to speak English in class. In addition, the result indicated that the cluster -*employ cooperative work* (M=3.69) was the lowest level of frequency reported by high school teachers.

Establishing supporting and caring relationship

The One Sample T-Test was conducted to check whether the mean score of participants practices in establishing supporting and caring relationship with students was significantly different from test value t=4.0, the high mean score of frequency. The sample mean (M=4.22, SD=.51) was significantly different from 4.0 (t=3.139, df=50, p=.003). The result indicated that the frequency of participants' practices in establishing supporting and caring relationship with students was higher than the mean of frequency.

Data collected from classroom observations in six teachers' classes revealed that all teachers respected students' opinions when they answered the questions or presented in front of the class. In addition, the results indicated that four of them showed friendly and caring behaviors when teaching while the rests rarely smiled and looked slightly serious. Similarly, four of them moved around the class while teaching and provided support if students asked. In contrast, the other participants just stood in front of class or controled the projector during activities. Four observed teachers showed their enthusiasm for teaching English while the others were not highly enthusiastic. In classroom observations, only two of six teachers shared the reason why they were interested in English with students.

Promoting students' self-confidence

Similarly, the result from the One Sample T-Test showed that the sample mean (M=4.17, SD=.51) was significantly different from test value t=4.0 (t=2.349, df=50, p=.023). The results indicated that the frequency of participants' practices for promoting students' self-confidence in willing to speak English in class was high.

Data gained from classroom observations showed that four of six teachers designed speaking activities within students' ability while the others designed tasks relatively higher than students' communicative competence. Three of six observed teachers provided students with positive reinforcement to motivate them to be willing to speak English in class. The rest just confirmed answers by saying *Yes* or they just ask the students to *sit down* without giving compliments such as good, good job or excellent.

Similarly, three teachers provided scaffolding so that students had an opportunity to continue speaking despite their mistakes. Only two participants made clear to students that communicating meaning effectively was more important than using grammatical correctly so students would become more confident to participate in speaking activities.

Making tasks stimulating and presenting tasks properly

The One Sample T-Test was conducted to check whether the mean score of participants practices in making tasks stimulating and presenting tasks properly for students' willingness to speak English in class was significantly different from test value (t=4.0), the high mean score of frequency. The sample mean (M=4.05, SD=.52) was no significantly different from 4.0 (t=.740, df=50, p=.463). The results indicated that the frequency of participants' practices in making tasks stimulating and presenting task properly for students' willingness to speak English in class was relatively high.

Data from classroom observations revealed that all six participants employed various auditory and visual teaching aids to stimulate students to speak English. Three of six teachers gave clear instructions by showing examples or modeling so that students knew what to do. Moreover, the results revealed that three of six participants gave a good reason to students why a particular task is meaningful while the rest did not. Lastly, three of six teachers chose interesting and real life relevant topics such as hobbies, music, or football. However, the other teachers did not adapt or add authentic topics in speaking activities.

Creating a pleasant climate

The One Sample T-Test was run to check whether the mean scores of participants' practices in creating a pleasant climate for students' willingness to speak English in class was significantly different from test value t=4.0, the high mean score of frequency. The sample mean (M=4.01, SD=.49) was no significantly different from 4.0 (t=.141, df=50, p=.888). The results indicated that the frequency of participants' practices creating a pleasant climate for students' willingness to speak English in class was relatively high.

The results from classroom observations showed that all six participants used short and interesting warm-up activities to start each lesson contributing to students' willingness to communicate. In addition, all six of teachers arranged classrooms appropriately for particular activities. half of them brought humor in teaching and created a supportive and comfortable classroom climate that promotes students to speak English without fear of making mistakes.

Promoting group cohesiveness

The result from the One Sample T-Test indicated that the sample mean of teachers' practices in promoting group cohesiveness (M=3.94, SD=.53) was not significantly different from 4.0 (t=-.853, df=50, p=.398). It can be concluded that the frequency of participants' practices in promoting group cohesiveness to encourage students to be willing to speak English was relatively high.

Data from classroom observations showed that four of six participants encouraged students to pay attention to what others were saying while the rest did not ask students to focus on what their classmates were expressing. Four participants did not allowed students to make fun of other students' ideas or someone who gives wrong answers in class. However, two participants did not encourage students to respect others' opinion so that they felt comfortable to speak English. In order to motivate students to be willing to participate in communicative activity, four of six teachers encouraged students to work well with other class members while the rest did not employ this strategy to promote students to speak English.

Providing positive feedback to error correction

The One Sample T Test was administered to check whether the mean score of participants' practices in providing positive feedback to error correction to be willing to speak English in class was significantly different from test value t=4.0, the high mean score of frequency. The sample mean (M=3.84, SD=.62) was no remarkably different from 4.0 (t=-1.793, df=50, p=.079). The results support the conclusion that the frequency of participants' practices providing positive feedback to error correction for students' willingness to speak English in class was significantly higher than the

average level.

Data collected from classroom observations revealed that all participants avoided personal or negative correction in order to reduce students' anxiety of making mistakes. The results showed that only two of four teachers noted error committed frequently during communicative activities and presented a brief review at the end of the session while the rest interrupted students to give the feedback on students' errors. Two of six participants provided indirect, rather than direct correction, to promote students to speak English without fear of making mistakes.

Familiarizing students with English-related values

To check whether the mean score of participants practices in familiarizing students with English-related values for their willingness to speak English in class was significantly different from test value t=3.0, the high mean score of frequency, the One Sample T Test was conducted. The sample mean (M=3.80, SD=.51) was remarkably different from 3.0 (t=-9.666, df=50, p=.000). The results indicated that the frequency of participants' practices in familiarizing students with English-related values for their willingness to speak English in class was significantly higher than the average level.

In classroom observations, three of the participants familiarized students with English related values by increasing the amount of English teacher uses in class. The rest used Vietnamese most of the time, which reduced the amount of interaction in English. Only two participants reminded students the benefits of mastering English while the others considered it a compulsory subject to pass the national high school exam. Two participants familiarized students with English cultural background by showing video of modern zoos in English speaking countries or presenting famous singers and musicians in the world. However, four of six teachers did not provide information of English cultural background to encourage students to learn English.

Employing cooperative work

The result from the One Sample T Test showed that the sample mean (M=3.69, SD=.58) was not remarkably different from 3.0 (t=8.413, df=50,

p=.000). The results indicated that the frequency of participants' practices to promote students self-confidence to be willing to speak English in class was significantly higher than the average level.

The results from classroom observations revealed that all participants employed pair-work for students to practice conversations or share opinions and experiences to finish the task. Three participants employed discussion in small groups in order to promote students readiness to speak English. To encourage students to practice English in class, three teachers let students give group presentation while the others did not employ this strategy.

The correlation between teachers' perceptions and their practices in employing strategies to promote students' willingness to communicate in English

A Pearson correlation coefficient was computed to assess the relationship between teachers' perceptions and their practices in using strategies to promote students' WTC. The result is shown in table 3.

Table 3. The correlation between participants Perceptions and practices in using strategies to promote students' WTC: Insight from their self-report

Correlations

		Perceptions	Practices
	Pearson Correlation	1	.686**
Perceptions	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
	N	51	51
	Pearson Correlation	.686**	1
Practices	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
	N	51	51

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

As can be seen in table 3, the correlation between participants perceptions (M=4.00) and practices (M=3.99) of strategies to promote students WTC in English is relatively high (*r=.686, p<.05*). The results support the conclusion that there was a significant correlation between high school teachers' perceptions of strategies to promote students WTC in English and their practices in teaching.

As presented in table 1, the results from Descriptive statistics test indicated the levels of importance of strategies reported by participants ranging from *M= 3.74 to M=4.20* were high. More specifically, the results from quantitative data showed that the top four important strategies in order to promote students WTC in English in classroom were *designing interesting learning tasks and the way teachers present tasks* (M=4.20), *establishing supporting and caring relationship* (M=4.16), *promoting students self-confidence* (M=4.10), and *creating a pleasant climate* (M=4.09).

The level of frequency ranging from *M=3.69 to M=4.*22 were highly positive. Interestingly, the top four strategies usually employed were consistent with the most important strategies reported by participants: *establishing supporting and caring relationship* (M=4.22), *promoting students self-confidence* (4.17), *making tasks stimulating and presenting tasks properly* (M=4.05), and *creating a pleasant climate* (M= 4.01).

The results from qualitative supported that there were high consistence between teachers' perceptions of strategies to promote students WTC in English and their practices. From the interview data, the participants claimed that *creating a friendly environment for students to take risk, designing learning tasks/activities within students' ability, choosing or adjusting interesting and updated topics, and providing positive reinforcements/compliments on students' performances* were very significant in order to encourage students to be willing to speak English in class. Moreover, they often employed *cooperative work* including pair-work and group work and used various *eye-catching and meaningful pictures* so that students found more opportunities to speak English.

In conclusion, the results from Pearson Correlation test and the interview data indicated that there was a high correlation between high school teachers' perceptions of strategies to promote students WTC in English and

practices.

DISCUSSION

From the quantitative data, the results supported that EFL high school teachers evaluate the strategies highly important in promoting students' WTC. The results revealed that *designing interesting learning tasks and the way teachers present tasks* (M=4.20), *establishing supporting and caring relationship* (M=4.16), *promote students self-confidence* (M=4.10), and *create a pleasant climate* (M=4.09) were the most important strategies in order to promote students' WTC in English in classroom. The results are in line with previous study conducted on Taiwanese teachers by Dornyei and Cheng (2007) and students' attitude towards the importance of motivational strategies by Nguyen (2016). Their findings indicated that *presenting appropriate teacher behaviors, promoting students self-confidence, creating a pleasant climate and presenting tasks properly* were the most important strategies in teaching and learning English.

Regarding the frequency of strategies, the findings revealed that all mean scores were higher than the average frequency. The results supported that teachers often implement these strategies to increase students' readiness to speak English in class. Participants reported that *establishing supporting and caring relationship* (M=4.22), *promoting students' self-confidence* (M=4.17), *making tasks stimulating and presenting tasks properly* (M=4.05), *creating a pleasant climate* (M= 4.01) were the most frequently strategies employed to encourage students to participate in speaking activities. The findings were relatively consistent with previous study conducted by Dornyei and Cheng (2007), Peng & Woodrow (2010), Zarrinabadi (2014). The results from classroom observation indicated that most participants attempted to create a comfortable climate and presented proper behavior to encourage students to participate in speaking English. They provided positive reinforcement to motivate them to express their opinion in English by giving bonus marks or compliments. More importantly, designing interesting tasks, and presenting clear instructions by giving examples or modeling were significant strategies contributing to students' willingness to participate in communicative activities.

From qualitative data, interviewed participants agreed that *establishing*

good rapport with students, creating a friendly and pleasant climate, and designing interesting tasks are the most significant strategies to promote students' WTC. They explained that these strategies provided students more chances to take risk and they do not fear of making mistakes or getting bad marks when expressing their opinion in English. Additionally, they claimed that *choosing familiar and interesting topics* is strongly important contributing to encouraging their willingness to communicate in English. Moreover, *giving bonus marks for good performance* is a significant strategy to encourage students to be willing to speak English in class because good marks significantly contribute to their academic results. Besides these strategies, *employing cooperative work* such as pair-work, group-work or group presentation and *increasing the amount of English teacher uses in class* are important strategies to promote students' WTC in English.

CONCLUSION AND SUGGESTIONS

The current study aimed to investigate high school teachers' evaluation on the importance of strategies to promote students' willingness to communicate in English and the frequency of their practices in employing these strategies. The results indicated that all mean scores of participants' perceptions and practices were higher than the average level, which means their considered the strategies important or very important to encourage students' readiness to use English in class and they highly frequently implemented these in their teaching context. Moreover, there was positive correlation between teachers' perceptions and their practices in using strategies to increase students' willingness to communicate in English.

From both quantitative and qualitative data gained from the study, it is suggested that in order to create a pleasure learning atmosphere as well as motivate students to learn English, teachers need to be enthusiastic, polite, hospitable, sociable, cheerful, sincere friendly, warm, caring, fair and trustworthy which is effective and necessary for enhancing their willingness to communicate (Dornyei & Chang, 2007; Peng & Woodrow, 2010; Zarrinabadi, 2014). More importantly, the teacher should be patient and encourage students frequently to establish good teacher-student rapport and student-student relationship. Besides friendly behaviors, the teacher

should give students more effective model of learning, efficient presentation, positive reinforcement and appropriate feedback. For instance, teachers express their support, sympathy, and attention by providing some active responses such as *yes* or *good*, smiling, nodding, looking students in the eyes or saying thank you at the end of the students' answers, which contributes to students' progress and interest in learning English.

Moreover, teachers need to make a great effort to use English as easy and comprehensible as possible. It is expected that high school teachers emphasize the importance of communicative competence and encourage students to think and speak in English. Accordingly, it is relatively natural that teachers would provide English input as much as possible in the classroom because the more English exposure student receives, the faster they learn. Although using mother tongue in classroom brings important advantages such as facilitating communication, establishing teacher-students rapport, facilitating the learning of foreign language, using the great amount of Vietnamese in foreign language classroom would unlikely encourage students to communicate in English. As a result, they hesitate to using English in succeeding times when they are not trained and expected to use the target language frequently.

Therefore, it is expected that strategies to promote students' willingness to communicate should be implemented in teaching English at high schools effectively in line with local conditions and psychophysiological characteristics of the adolescents in order to boost their communicative competence to meet the demand of the globalization.

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A POST-METHOD ERA: CHANGES, CHANCES AND CHALLENGES

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ABSTRACT

This paper aims at examining the recent language teaching practice in Vietnam - under a paradigm of the "*three Cs*": *Changes*, *Chances* and *Challenges* in a post-method era - in which the role of teachers has been heightened up to a new level. Then, an action plan for enriching the Vietnamese teachers' performance is taken into circumspect consideration to suit the localized teaching and learning condition. Being witness to the "coming and going" of a plethora of methods as a basic rule of the evolution process enables language experts and teachers to bring the notion of method into question in terms of its efficacy in diverse educational contexts. Thus, Kumaravadivelu (2008) has unveiled an emergence of *post-method era* in an attempt to bridge the gap of the inadequacies and weaknesses of many previous methods. By shaping their own theories through their *sense of plausibility* (Prahbu, 1990), teachers are expected to meet their students' learning needs and fulfill learning objectives established by themselves and their educational organizations.

Key words: *post-method, sense of plausibility*

INTRODUCTION

Globalization has resulted in a rapid expansion of English as an international language of which the acquisition is of great necessity in pursuit of cultural integration and career promotion. The tremendous popularity of English all over the world is indeed a fertile region on which language educators and teachers can seize a golden opportunity to experiment as well as conduct a variety of teaching theories and practices

in order to maximize their students' potential for accomplishing their learning objectives. In response to the increasing language learning needs, language teaching profession has been put under pressure and challenges in a new era regarding which teaching method is the optimal solution to the current language learning conditions.

Over the years, language teaching methods have undergone a lot of drastic changes in an attempt to fill the gap of their predecessors and ultimately recognized as a victim of fashion (D.A. Wilkins, p. 208). Such issues lead our group to certain major concerns as to 1/ what the nature of method as well as its significance in ELT is, 2/ whether or not the best method ever exists to solve most of the latest pedagogical problems, 3/ whether we are in a post-method stage as Kumaravadivelu claims, 4/ what the relationships between the Post-method Conditions and the ideas of Dogme, N.S Prabhu's "*teacher's sense of plausibility*" are, and 5/ the implications they might have for both teacher training and teacher development in Vietnam.

Pedagogical Methods in ELT

The twentieth century saw a striking development of language teaching. A series of approaches and methods were generated and adopted in language classroom with an aim of enhancing the learning outcomes and improving the teaching conditions. An ongoing search for the most powerful teaching method still has been a hotly-debated issue over time with a view to finding the most innovative solution to all pedagogical problems. Such an attempt has been recorded and presented through a variety of approaches and teaching methods in language teaching history.

According to Richards and Rodgers (2001), an approach is "a set of beliefs and principles that can be used as the basis for teaching a language" (p. 244). The history of language teaching has documented such approaches as Communicative Language Teaching, Competency-Based Language Teaching, Content-Based Instruction, Cooperative Learning, Lexical Approach, Multiple Intelligences, Natural Approach, Neurolinguistic Programming, Task-Based Language Teaching, and Whole Language. In light of "the nature of language, of language learning, and a derived set of principles for teaching a language" (Richards and Rodgers, p. 245), an approach is more intimately related to a theory and principles concerned

based on which individual interpretation and application is of high flexibility, and thus it requires much of teachers' knowledge and skill at handling the classroom situations. On the other hand, a method is "a specific instructional design or system based on a particular theory of language and of language learning" (Richards and Rodgers, p. 245). It is more in favor of teaching procedures and techniques deployed by teachers in their real educational environment. Some of the prominent methods have been utilized so far such as the Direct Method, Audiolingualism, Counseling-Learning, Situational Language Teaching, the Silent Way, Suggestopedia, Total Physical Response, etc.

It is historically recorded that many theorists and language teachers have devoted much of their life to constructing and experimenting a variety of methods in their workplace. This is to say that the evolution of methods in ELT has constantly undertaken a grand overarching mission in enhancing the quality of language education in the varied historical backgrounds. In recognition of their substantial contributions in ELT, Diane Larsen-Freeman (2000) maintains her viewpoints that methods serve as a guiding star for all language teachers as their study plays an integral part in language education. First, methods are considered as a foil for reflection that can aid teachers in bringing to conscious awareness the thinking that underlies their actions (Larsen-Freeman, 2000). By this way, methodological theories can shed light on teachers' performances or practices in classroom. In other words, teachers per se are supposed to be fully aware of what they do in classroom. Once they follow any specific method, they are to figure out its principles and then implement the relevant techniques accordingly. Second, the knowledge of methods not only engages teachers into a "community of practice" (Larsen-Freeman, 2000) which helps foster interactions among them in order to keep their teaching energetic but also expands their "repertoire of techniques" (Larsen-Freeman, 2000). In this sense, it is absolutely vital that the teacher should gain a critical awareness of selecting and treating different teaching methods most appropriately to different teaching situations. Lastly, the mastery of methods also helps teachers realize where they stand and what method should be applied to their changeable teaching environment.

The Limits of Method

As teaching methods have come and gone over time, it seems that any new method – though born with its typically specified principles and practices - still has, to a certain extent, overlapped with the former (Kumaravadivelu, 2008). The advent of any new teaching method cherishes a burning ambition of covering up the weaknesses and inadequacies of its predecessors. Doubts have been cast on the untiring search for the best method of all time for many reasons. First of all, we can trace the nature of the construct "method". According to Kumaravadivelu (2008), the term of "method" – in a broader view – refers to two different aspects of language teaching in which it can be interpreted as not only being theorized by language experts but also being conducted by teachers in their classroom. He drew a fundamental distinction between *method* and *methodology*. *Method* refers to the knowledge of pedagogical principles and practices theorized and recommended for language teachers by linguists while *methodology* mentions what teachers actually carry out in classroom in light of their selected theory. Furthermore, in support of the two different aspects of the term "method", Mackey (1965, p. 193) clarified the two definitions: *method analysis* and *teaching analysis*. *Teaching analysis* encompasses the scrutiny of the real interactivity between teacher and their students in a specific learning environment in light of the applied teaching theory whereas *method analysis* is concerned about figuring out how teaching works on paper by language experts. The teaching reality has so far revealed that teachers' implementation of methods is of high flexibility, adaptability and creativity. They are not fixed in one method and mechanically in comply with the recommended classroom procedures embedded in the construct of method they employ. Kumaravadivelu (1993), Nunan (1987) and Thornbury (1996), through their in-depth studies, reached a conclusion that what teachers actually did in classroom was not completely the same as what the theories advocated them to do. All discussed above have brought the construct of method into question in terms of its efficacy in the teaching reality.

The Post-Method Era – A Period of Awakening

The foreseeable ongoing evolution of teaching methods in history seems to

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tie our ideas into an endless circle of looking for the existence of the best method. Nonetheless, such an effort above leads us to nowhere owing to a number of variables (Prabhu, 1990) that occur and affect the implementation of methods during the teaching practice such as social contexts (language policy, pedagogical environment, social ideology, cultural beliefs and attitudes, etc.); educational organizations at different levels – national, institutional, and classroom levels – (time and educational resources, instructional objectives, class-size, curriculum and material design, testing items, etc.); teacher-related factors (levels of competency, teaching skills, teaching experience, frequency of training participation, etc.) and learner-related factors (age, aptitude, learning attitudes, teacher-student rapport, motivation, cognitive style, learning strategies, etc.). Instead, teachers should take into account the most effective strategies and techniques for each different teaching situation as Prabhu (1990) indicated that each of the teaching methods will be commensurate with a particular teaching context. Also, he recommended that the teacher should be mindful to opt for any appropriate method to a particular context for a particular group of learners. An essential requirement for a critical analysis of how learning is processed and how teaching acts upon it is enforced and phrased as "*a teacher's sense of plausibility*" (Prabhu, 1990).

As far as we see, the notion of best method ever has been rejected by many researchers as no single method is proved the best ever and promisingly brings the complete success to all language learners (Brown, 2000). In real teaching practice, it is also revealed that some of learners still achieve success whatever methods are applied by the teacher in classroom. This partly has a negative influence on the validity of the construct "*method*" and opens a new era which was coined by Kumaravadivelu(2008) as a post-method era with an aim of awakening the teacher's own mindfulness, creativity and high flexibility, or, in other words, the teacher's *sense of plausibility* (N.S. Prabhu, 1990) in their teaching profession.

As argued so far, the construct of method undermines teachers' vast potential as well as restrains their flexibility and creativity in carrying out what they assume to be appropriate for their students even though methods have been thoroughly explored for their effectiveness in language teaching and accredited as a cornerstone for teachers' practices in the classroom by

theorists. Therefore, the post-method era not only raises the language teachers' awareness of their pivotal role in setting up the teaching activities to increase the learners' active engagement in classroom activities but also promotes their teaching autonomy. They are given a chance to voice their contributions to bridging the gap of the notion of method proposed by language experts because the post-method condition "recognizes their potential to know not only how to teach but also how to act autonomously within the academic and administrative constraints imposed by institutions, curricula, and textbooks" (Kumaravadivelu, 2003a, p.33). As mentioned above, since what happens in the classroom is unpredictable, the post-method era opens a new horizon where teachers can acknowledge their limitless potential by liberating themselves from becoming mechanically fixed in any method introduced by language experts. Hence, they can feel free to make good use of their own teaching strategies and techniques that they suppose to be best for their students in order to tailor the learner-centred lessons. By this way, the teachers can establish and maximize their own theories in accordance with their real teaching contexts. Above all, the role of teachers as autonomous and critical practitioners which is shifting away from that of teachers as method-based followers is clearly reflected in this post-method era as Kumaravadivelu asserts "if the conventional concept of method entitles theorizers to construct professional theories of pedagogy, the post-method condition empowers practitioners to construct personal theories of practice" (Kumaravadivelu, 2003a, p.33).

Moving away from method-based pedagogy, language theorists and teachers in the post-method era proceed to cast doubts on the effectiveness of eclecticism in language teaching. First, eclecticism does not make teachers seem wiser as they still rest on the construct of method despite their efforts to combine a variety of techniques from different methods in their classroom (Harmer, 1991). Second, such efforts have no convincing reason for teachers' critical selection of techniques by "leaping from one method to another" (Harmer, 1991, p.37) because eclecticism lacks its theoretical foundation to prove that what teachers perform in classroom is principle-based and widely effective in most cases. This is also what Kumaravadivelu concerns for the feasibility of eclecticism, "teacher education programs seldom make any sustained and systematic effort to

develop in prospective teachers the knowledge and skill necessary to be responsibly eclectic" (Kumaravadivelu, 2003, p.30). Moreover, eclecticism is to blame for one of its can-be-seen weaknesses such as its lack of criteria upon which we can evaluate what teachers act in the classroom is principle-based or not. Therefore, it is considered as "too broad and too vague to be satisfactory as a theory on its own right" (Stern 1991, p.11).

Of all criticism of method-based pedagogy in language teaching history (Stern, 1985), a post-method era comes into existence in light of the restrictions of methods. Teacher autonomy is enshrined and lifted up to a level on which their principled pragmatism about language teaching in a period of awakening (Kumaravadivelu, 2003) is the bedrock of their actions and awareness. Unlike eclecticism which is still bound by the constraints of established methods, principled pragmatism in a new era offers teachers guidelines for their actions to build a classroom aimed at facilitating the learners' autonomy and self-regulation for their own study. Principled pragmatism goes hand in hand with Prabhu's sense of plausibility (Prabhu,1990) in the way it centralizes the core role of teachers in "knowing how to develop a critical approach in order to self-observe, self-analyze, and self-evaluate their own teaching practice with a view to effecting desired changes" (Kumaravadivelu, 2003).

In support of what is proposed by Kumaravadivelu – a period of awakening, Dogme language teaching theory takes action to appreciate the leading role of teachers in learners' language success. In other words, the conversational communication between the teacher and the learners and between the learners themselves is placed at the heart of language pedagogy. A dogme approach classroom is a place where the students have their own voices for their choice of learning strategies and topics relevant to their learning needs and wants in order to achieve their learning objectives set by themselves and their educational organizations. Language learning is co-constructed rather than "transmitted" from the input the students receive in the learning environment. At this stage, the role of the teacher is being lifted up to higher level in which there exists an "attitude shift, a state of mind, a different way of being a teacher". At this stage, teaching is more than an art which requires the high flexibility, adaptability and creativity in a particular educational context with a particular group of

students. Above all, Dogme approach, Prabhu's sense of plausibility and post-method pedagogy are inextricably interwoven as they do not constitute a fixed method or a "one-size-fits-all" (Kumaravadivelu, 2008) for effective teaching. Instead, they awaken the teacher's insight and actions for a new era in which chances and challenges are closely intertwined. Accordingly, he or she can set about experiencing another way of being a language teacher by theorizing what they practice and practice what they theorize. (Kumaravadivelu, 2008).

Post-Method Pedagogy

In order to transcend the limits of method in language teaching, Kumaravadivelu, 2008 introduced a three-dimensional system under the parameters of *particularity*, *practicability* and *possibility*, which is reciprocal, interactive and intertwined together to increase the teacher's potential for pursuing their professional development.

First, the parameter of *particularity* rejects the notion that there is "one set of teaching aims and objectives realizable through one set of teaching principles and procedures" (Kumaravadivelu, 2008, p.171) and encompasses "context-sensitive and location-specific pedagogies" (Kumaravadivelu, 2003, p.37) with the addition of "lived experiences" (Kumaravadivelu, 2008, p.171). Therefore, the particularity is shown through the teacher's thorough understanding of what groups of students he/ she deals with, in what socio-cultural and historio-political contexts teaching and learning take place to achieve any set of goals defined by the educational contexts at the three hierarchical levels – national, institutional and classroom levels.

Second, the parameter of *practicability* highlights the interactive relationship between theory and practice, especially the teacher-formed theory for their practices and techniques in the classroom. Accordingly, their own theory is the mirror of their intuition and "*sense of plausibility*" (Prabhu, 1990) to promote reflective teaching rather than effective teaching. The teachers are directly involved in the teaching process, so they know on which historio-political and socio-cultural perspective they stand and conduct their individual theory to address their teaching practices. In this sense, the parameter of *particularity* and that of *practicability* act upon

each other to maximize the teachers' critical development of "personal theories" (Kumaravadivelu, 2008).

Lastly, the parameter of *possibility* places an emphasis on the great potential of learners and teachers as pivotal individual identities who co-construct the process of language learning and teaching to achieve a specific set of goals. Such a realization leads the teachers to the belief that all experiences participants gain from or are being affected by the socio-cultural, historio-political and socio-economic contexts interact with an essential need for teachers "to develop theories, forms of knowledge, and social practices" in the pedagogical setting (Kumaravadivelu, 2008, p.174).

The three-dimensional system under the parameters of *particularity*, *practicability* and *possibility* fosters our proper understanding of primary criteria a post-method pedagogy has to fulfill to transcend the limits of method. It urgently calls for the teacher's *sense of plausibility* (Prabhu, 1990) to shift away from the method-based pedagogy and futile search for the best method ever. Instead, each teacher, more than anyone else, is supposed to get a better understanding of his/ her students' profiles along with socio-cultural, historio-political and socio-economic contexts in which language learning and teaching take place in order to intensify his/ her autonomy in theory and practice for each different specific educational environment.

Vietnamese Educational System and

Post-method Implementation: Now or Never?

Although the emergence of post-method is full of promise for a revolutionary change in ELT, Le (2004) and Hoang (2017) maintained that its implementation has not widely and effectively achieved in Vietnam due to some of the following reasons.

First and foremost, the Vietnam contemporary educational system leaves no space for teachers to successfully accomplish their roles as an autonomous teacher – the integral practicality of post-method pedagogy (Kumaravadivelu, 1994b, 2001, 2003b, & 2006). Being influenced by this type of instruction, educational institutions and teachers are just conveyers of the national policies to conform to the expected rules and regulations

(Pishghadam-Mirzaee, 2008). Consequently, a one-size-fits-all policy is currently prevalent and learner differences are not taken into serious consideration. For instance, one English book is widely used in all parts of the country for all senior high school students without any critical thought of individual disparities. Therefore, teachers still holds the traditional role as consumers of theory entrenched by theorists such as linguists, applied linguists and psychologists.

Second, the institutions always offer teachers much encouragement to apply the best teaching method to maximize high school students' outcomes. However, the format of the graduation tests and the national high-stake matriculation tests administered at the end of high school education focuses remarkably on reading comprehension, grammar and vocabulary without considering other skills such as writing, speaking and listening. Plus, there is so much heavy load on memorization of grammatical rules and structures that students cannot realize or – to a certain extent – undermine the communicative aspects of the language they learn. This entails the negative wash-back that high school teachers lay great stress on the skills tested in the exam and ignore other skills necessary for students' higher education and future job.

Third, there is a restriction on time for completing each of the units in the school syllabus. Teachers and students are required to go through all of the four language skills, grammar in focus and case study in each of the units within three periods a week, each of which lasts forty-five minutes. Thus, heavy load is put on the participants' shoulders. More than that, due to the pressure of passing the form-based language exam, learners neglect the communicative side of the language they learn. Together with the time limit, over-size class also contributes to hinder teachers from creatively generating their personal theories to foster the student's communicative competence as Tudor(1996) asserted, "Class size will inevitably have an influence on the form of interaction between teacher and learners upon which learner-centred teaching is based" (p.156).

Lastly, the quality of classroom environment is generally below standard. Not all classes all over the country is well-equipped with modern facilities such as computers, video players, head projectors, etc. to support teaching and learning. Even though the role of teacher is the most crucial to

implement the post-method pedagogy, teaching aids can help them maximize the potential of their lessons and thus, revitalize the classroom and capture students' interest in constructing their own learning. This point is even illustrated in Dogme approach which does not completely reject the use of materials and technology in ELT as it might at first. Materials and teaching aids "that might just conform to the kinds of its conversation-driven, materials-light and emergent-language-focus principles would be those that support the establishment of a local discourse community, and which foster the joint construction of knowledge…" (Thornbury, S., & Meddings, L., 2009, p.12)

In sum, despite the fact that the post-methodologists have brought a significant breakthrough for TESOL when theoretically generating the idea of "Beyond Methods" which highlights not only the role of an autonomous teacher but also the role of learners as critical thinkers in the language classroom, it can be inferred that the Vietnamese educational system of high school education has not radically welcomed a new fresh air for the effective implementation of post-method to take effect. The underlying problems are to blame for the centralized educational system where teachers and students have no chances to act autonomously and a lack of developmental training for teachers, resulting in their professional incompetence.

IMPLICATIONS FOR TEACHER EDUCATION

The shift from method era to post-method era entails the replacement of the term "Effective Teaching" by "Reflective Teaching". The latter has the power to overstep the limitation of routinizing in the teaching process, the motionless view of teaching by creatively generating the reflectivity. Reflectivity refers to "an opportunity to consider the teaching event thoughtfully, analytically, and objectively" (Cruickshank and Applegate, 1981, p.4). In order to become a reflective teacher, the fulfillment of three aforementioned parameters which is the crucial requirement should be taken into full consideration through ten *macro-strategies* proposed by Kumaravadivelu (2006) as follows:

1) Maximize learning opportunities.

2) Facilitate negotiated interaction.

3) Minimize perceptual mismatches.

4) Activate intuitive heuristics.

5) Foster language awareness.

6) Contextualize linguistic input.

7) Integrate language skills.

8) Promote learner autonomy.

9) Raise cultural consciousness.

10) Ensure social relevance.

This macro-strategic framework requires teachers to acquire knowledge, skills, attitude, education and teaching experience. First and foremost, knowledge is comprised of factors affecting language learning, broader principles of teaching, the process of second language development, different learning styles, TESOL methods, phonological and structural features of English, the principles behind materials development and selection, the impact of first language on language teaching, the principles of TESOL course design and curriculum development.

The second requirement is the skills to provide appropriate models of language in context, accommodate varying levels and abilities, use a language level appropriate to the student's ability, provide constructive and sensitive feedback to facilitate learning, use a variety of teaching strategies, provide a balanced program, facilitate independent learning, assess and use appropriate resources, monitor learner progress, carry out a needs analysis, ensure that assessment is valid and understandable by the student and other stakeholders, select and use a range of TESOL methodologies, develop suitable assessment tasks, use both formal and informal methods of assessment techniques, select and apply a range of second language assessment, and use a range of functions to enable students to participate in Vietnam society.

Attitude is another strategic necessity including behaving in a non-racist, non-sexist and professional manner, creating a classroom environment conducive to learning, encouraging teacher-student rapport, ensure that students know what they are doing and why, and ensuring contribution to

professional development programs when possible. The last significant one is education and experience containing TESOL training, continuing professional development in creating and maintaining highly reliable and challenging learning environment through the tactics of classroom management skills, qualifications in TESOL, learning another language.

CONCLUSION

It has been a long way to go as teaching is such a complicated profession. Flashing back to the process of language teaching development in history, we cannot totally deny the enormous contribution of methods to orientating each of the teacher's techniques and practices in the classroom. Nevertheless, methods, in a broader sense, should go beyond their limits that might bind the teacher's *sense of plausibility* (Prabhu, 1990) in carrying out what they assume to be fitting for their students as they know their students and their teaching contexts much better than theorists.

A post-method era – under a paradigm of the *three Cs* – has brought about a lot of marked *changes* in both language experts and teachers' consciousness and actions to improve the quality of language teaching. In addition, it provides golden *chances* for teachers to liberate themselves from being confined in the construct of method by developing their own theories for their teaching contexts. In parallel with the *changes* and *chances* it pertains, *challenges* also lie on teachers' shoulders, especially Vietnamese teachers' in order to be critical and responsible for their principled practices in the classroom. Methods are not dead by nature. Yet, only the futile attempt to quest for the best method is dead. Being involved in that era, teachers in general and those in Vietnam should be fully aware of not only the significance of methods but a necessity as well as an aspiration to transcend their limits so as to maximize learning outcomes. On such a long journey of teaching profession to reach the period of awakening, a perceptible shift is marked on the teacher's role from an *effective teacher*, who acquires the knowledge of pedagogical methods and tactfully applies them into their teaching contexts, to a *reflective teacher*, who gains a strong sense of autonomy and authority to make decisions and expand as well as adopt more of their own teaching principled techniques in the language classroom.

THE AUTHOR

With extensive knowledge and experience in hospitality training, Mr. **Thanh Bui** has developed his passion for both English language teaching and ESP instructions in Hospitality and Travel Industry. Since his graduation from Southern Queensland University with honours in 2012, he has officially followed the professional teaching career at the Faculty of Foreign Languages in Ho Chi Minh City Open University. His areas of interest include Language curriculum and material development, CALL, Business English and Academic writing.

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AN OVERVIEW OF EFL AUTONOMOUS LEARNING IN THE 21ST CENTURY IN VIETNAM: INTERNATIONAL INTEGRATION AND CHALLENGE

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ABSTRACT

In the context of the technological development and the changing situation of English Language Teaching in the 21st century, autonomy is considered to be a crucial goal in teaching and learning process. Although many studies of this field have been conducted in the world and in Vietnam, their results have yet to be comprehensively generalized and final conclusions of this field have yet to be made. Hence, this article was written with the aim of providing a whole summary of EFL autonomous learning in Vietnamese higher education context. The issues presented in this article are definitions of learner autonomy, learner autonomy role in Vietnamese EFL tertiary education, relationship between perceptions and practices regarding learner autonomy, and self-assessing EFL autonomous learning. It also suggests some implications for further research.

Key words: *learner autonomy, EFL, perception, self-assessment*

INTRODUCTION

In the changing situation of teaching and learning English in the 21st century, learner autonomy (LA) plays an important goal in teaching and learning process. The Vietnamese Ministry of Education and Training (MOET) has tried to integrate and develop LA in the credit education system. Recently, a number of new policies have been issued. In Article 40, the Vietnamese Education Law (National Assembly of Vietnam, 2005) mentions the requirements on contents as well as teaching and learning

methods of education at higher education, in which LA plays a vital role: "Training methods in higher education must be brought into play to foster the learners'ability to be active learners, to study and to research by themselves, and to foster their practical abilities, self-motivation, creative thinking, and ambition". Also, the government indicates that Vietnamese education system should be innovated totally to enrich students' creativity, autonomous learning, and lifelong learning. Additionally, accompanying the Decision number 1400/QD-TTg, 30 September 2008 issued by the Prime Minister (Vietnamese Prime Minister, 2008) in "The National Foreign Language Project 2020", teaching and learning foreign languages in National educational system in 2008-2020 period have been innovated to meet the requirements of industrialization – modernization and fast emerging economic conditions of the country in the market-oriented socialism so that up to 2020 the Vietnamese young, who graduate from colleges or universities, will have had enough foreign language ability to use it independently, communicate it confidently, learn, and work in the international integration based on multilingual and multicultural settings. In addition, in the developmental education policy in 2011-2020 period, accompanying the Decision number 711/QD-TTg, 13 June 2012 issued by the Prime Minister (Vietnamese Prime Minister, 2012), the Vietnamese government has stressed the need to take innovations in teaching methods and assessment, training students with the aim of developing their activeness, creativity, and LA ability. In this light, EFL autonomous learning should be explored and promoted more and more at Vietnamese higher education.

Definitions of learner autonomy in foreign language education

For over past three decades, the term "learner autonomy" has been concerned remarkably in second/foreign language learning literature. Clarifying LA attributes is vital to EFL teachers and learners in their teaching/learning processes. Reseachers adopt quite a variety of views around the concept of LA. Unfortunately, researchers have not yet reached a consensus on the definitions of LA. As a result, a large number of definitions about the term have been introduced up to now. Generally, researchers have defined it as "learners' capacity in learning" (Benson, 2001; Dam, 1995; Holec, 1981), "responsibility in learning" (Borg & Al-

Busaidi, 2012; Dam, 1995; Holec, 1981; Littlewood, 1999), and "cognitive attitude in learning" (Little, 2000; Wenden, 1991). Then, Alhaysony (2016) reviews different definitions of LA defined by many language researchers and concludes that most of them have focused on learners' ability, capacity, responsibility, control, demonstration, attitude, willingness, mode of learning (p.46). In the present article, one of the terms of LA focused is lifelong learning.

Learner autonomy as lifelong learning

There is a famous proverb widely seen in LA research (Nguyen, 2014; Trinh, 2005) of "give a man a fish, and you feed him a day; teach a man to fish, and you feed him for a lifetime" related to using LA approach as the foundation for lifelong learning. Additionally, Jacobs and Farrell (2001) show that LA emphasizes the process of learning and students have to "see learning as a lifelong process" (p.5). Also, Borg and Al-Busaidi (2012) consider LA "prepares individuals for lifelong learning" (p.3). Furthermore, Azizi (2014) indicates LA which is "a matter of lifelong process rather than a need for a particular situation or course" (p.130). In addition, LA is the necessary base of learners' lifelong learning process after they graduate university. It is of course possible to apply this idea to English lifelong learning.

In summary, scholars give all above definitions of LA in Western and Asian context of language education. It is high time many other researches were carried out to look for whether LA is appropriate for Asian educational settings even though Little (1999) claims that autonomy is a popular kind of language learning and can apply in any culture. Therefore, exploring LA in foreign language education in Vietnamese setting is necessary and will be introduced in the following section.

Learner autonomy in Vietnamese EFL education

In EFL tertiary education in Vietnam, Trinh (2005) defined LA as a self-regulating ability, including three dimensions, namely planning, monitoring and regulating processes. He also combined above definitions of LA and then divided them into four terms: "(1) cognitive factors (ability or capacity), (2) affective factors (attitudes, willingness, readiness, self-

confidence), (3) meta-cognitive factors (setting learning goals, choosing learning materials, planning learning activities, monitoring and self-evaluating progress), and (4) social factors (working in co-operation with others which promote interactions and scaffolds, a condition for enhancing one's independent problem-solving skills)" (p.23). Additionally, Nguyen (2009) summarized previous definitions of LA into five elements as (1) capacity or ability; (2) qualities; (3) responsibility; (4) strategies, knowledge, and attitudes; and (5) readiness, willingness. She chose the definition of LA as "learners' self-initiation plus their ability to self-regulate their own learning" (p.50) for her study. Furthermore, Dang (2012) conceptualized LA as an attribute of the learner, a reflection of the learning situation, an outcome of the learner's interactions, and a desire for more access, agency, and power in the community. In the same line, Le (2013) gave definitions of LA in language education as a capacity, willingness, a complex construct. In his study, he used Dam's (1995) "Bergen definition" and Holec's (1981) definition of LA as the light of his research to improve EFL learners' capacity and increase their autonomy in the sociocultural setting in higher education in Vietnam.

Like other Vietnamese scholars, Nguyen (2014) looked back and analyzed previous definitions of LA. Then, she states that in her study, "learner autonomy is defined as learner's willingness, and ability to take responsibility, to plan, implement, monitor and evaluate his/her learning with tasks that are constructed in negotiation with and support from the teacher" (p.21). Also, Nguyen (2016) translated "tự học" "as study by self" (p.2) and indicated that this concept appeared in Vietnamese educational system in the 1960s. He analyzed the term "tự học" relating to "the time and effort invested outside the classroom on self-training: observing reality, experimenting and discovering evidence, reading, and connecting to reality to deepen understanding of the subject matter taught" (p.2).

In conclusion, definitions of LA have been focused on learners' autonomous learning ability. It can be seen that current definitions of LA are *not unanimously shared* by researchers around the world. It is, however, unanimously focused on the *learner's perception, intensions and actions of his/her own learning*.

Learner autonomy role in Vietnamese EFL higher education

These days, LA is not a new concept in Vietnam because it has appeared in Vietnamese MOET's macro strategies, in Vietnamese Education Law, as mentioned above. Mentioning the role of LA in higher education, Trinh (2005) shows that one of the goals of English Language Teachers Training programs in Vietnamese universities is LA development. That means the programs aim to develop English major students' personal and autonomous learning skills, which they will go on using after their graduation from university (p.17). Within the educational context a person will have an ample opportunity to practise autonomy by exposing himself to learning tasks (Nguyen, 2009, p.11). In addition, Dang (2012) indicates LA ability "directly contributes to both processes and outcomes of learning activities" (p.26), helps "students to face the challenge of technical difficulties", and "is especially important for knowledge construction and sustainable learning in today's globalized world" (p.27). Besides, Le (2013) considers the role of LA in three aspects such as ideology, psychology, and economy. Also, Duong and Seepho (2014) indicate that LA has had an important role in both academic study and teaching practices in the 21st century step by step. According to new standards in education today, students are taught not only knowledge but also the approaches of LA. Additionally, Nguyen (2016) investigated the potential to increase LA in Vietnam and found that the top-down education system had prevented the development of LA though it could be grown in Vietnamese local context. Therefore, the exercising of autonomy must be learnt.

Relationship between EFL teachers' and EFL students' perceptions and practices regarding learner autonomy

A number of definitions of perception and its relation with practice in scientific research literature in the world have been studied. Perception is defined as a series of actions of awareness, organization, and analysis of input information. More specifically, Bodenhausen and Hugenberg (2009) based on social cognition to define perception as "essentially the interface between the outer and inner worlds" (p.2). McShane and Von Glinow (2010) defined "perception is the process of receiving information about and making sense of the world around us" (p.68).

From Holec's (1981) definition of LA, it seems that he clarifies students' LA ability and responsibility for their learning through five vital actions to practice LA. Those are "determining objectives, defining content and progressions, selecting methods and techniques to be used, monitoring procedure of acquisition, and evaluating what has happened" (p.3). Also, Dam (1995) specifies autonomous learners' duty in learning. They autonomously have to opt "aims and purposes", "materials, methods, and tasks", and "criteria for evaluation", establish learning objectives, and use "choice and purpose in organizing and carrying out the chosen tasks". To complete these activities well, they must be active or even proactive in learning, create their opinions, and make study chances.

From a different angle, many researchers have tried to rank LA into its level continuum of linked representation. For example, Nunan (1997) suggested a five-level sample of learner action continuum which runs from awareness, involvement, intervention, creation, and transcendence. These levels relate to content and process of LA. On this representation continuum, the lower level (awareness) is the foundation for the next upper one. In other words, LA is not a ready-made element, but is consciously built or learnt step by step. Unlike Nunan (1997), Littlewood (1999) gave a model of three features: language acquisition, learning approach, and personnal development. Moreover, Littlewood (1999) developed definition of learner autonomy in two levels of proactive autonomy and reactive autonomy. He indicates that East Asian students own reactive autonomy as Western ones get proactive autonomy. In the way of proactive autonomy, learners work individually and set up their "directions which they themselves have partially created" while reactive autonomy "which does not create its own directions but, once a direction has been initiated, enables learners to organize their resourses autonomously in order to reach their goal" (p.75). In practice, students should move from reactive autonomy to proactive autonomy. Scharle and Szabó (2000) also introduced a three-stage model as "raising awareness", "changing attitudes", and "transferring roles" (p.1). Echoing above authors, Benson (2001) tried to give a model of levels of LA: learning control and organization, a series of cognition, and the learning content. Each above model proposes a positive advance of LA from lower to higher stages

(Benson, 2007).

In a new millennium, a modern education of a country should give a lot of attention to the complete student like a thoughtful, emotional, creative individual who has become a responsible citizen of that country; thus, language teachers' roles in promoting students' LA ability have been researched. A number of various names are used to describe the teachers' new roles in autonomous learning contexts differing from traditional ones such as facilitator, helper, coordinator, counsellor, consultant, manager, advisor, knower, and resource (Riley, 1997, cited in Benson & Huang, 2008: 426). For example, Lowes and Target (1999) claim teachers' duty is to control the classroom activities and support students to build their own learning plan. Additionally, Nunan (2003) mentions teachers should listen to learners' learning problems and give them the best advice suiting for every situation. Also, Al Asmari (2013) indicated that as facilitators and counselors, teachers "help students to take the responsibility by setting their own goals, planning practice opportunities, or assessing their progress" and "guide the students to accept responsibility for their own learning, guide them to be reflectively engaged in planning, monitoring and evaluating their learning" (p.1). Besides, Dang (2012) claims that the development of LA needs to be fostered systematically and deliberately (Holec, 1981), and educationists and researchers have used various practices, depending on particular situations, to enable learners to take more control of their learning.

Relationship between EFL teachers' and EFL students' perceptions and practices regarding LA at Vietnamese tertiary education

Recently, a number of studies of exploring EFL students' practices of LA as well as EFL teachers' perceptions regarding LA have been carried out in Vietnam. More specifically, Dang (2012) found that the results of students' perceptions of LA and their practices on LA activities based on four dimensions had a high correlation. They cared to conduct what they deemed crucial for their language learning. However, Dang (2012) indicates that "the relationship between perception and performance of LA is not strong [...]. Learners cannot always do what they want to do for their learning even though they understand that it is necessary and useful to do

so." (p.184). The findings from interview showed that they could not implement their LA activities due to "travelling problems, part-time job commitments, or friend-related issues" (p.184). In this light, Le's (2013) study's findings from non-intervention students show that most of them practiced audio-visual LA activities such as listening to music, many of them carried out social-interaction LA activities, and a few ones applied metacognition in learning language. He found that students performed LA activities which had characteristics of Littlewood's (1999) framework of reactive autonomy. Students met many difficulties when promoting their LA ability, namely teacher-dependence learning habit in previous education, traditional teaching methods, a few chances to implement English, and so on.

Furthermore, Nguyen's (2014) study's results indicated that the participants could not enhance LA for their students due to the difficulties of their teaching setting, the strictly-fixed syllabuses, and the fixed table-and-chair class. One more important finding in her study is the teachers "did not understand what learner autonomy was and so did not know how to apply it in the classroom" (p.148). In the same vein, according to Nguyen (2016), most teachers in his study offered their students some activities such as giving assignments and then checking, project work and presentations, helping students to recognize the role of LA in learning, and instructing both learning skills and choosing learning resources to develop LA ability. Nguyen (2016) found the same problems as previous researchers in LA. He indicated that teachers rarely created chances for students to make choices and decisions in their own learning.

Notwithstanding a variety of studies investigating EFL teachers' and EFL students' perceptions and practices regarding LA, the obtained results are by no means invariant across the board at all aspects under investigation. Although they are mostly positive, EFL teachers from different contexts understand LA and get involved in developing it for EFL students at dissimilar levels. The further research should be conducted in rural, remote areas in Vietnam to think of LA values and to provide more evidence to the current field literature.

Self-assessing EFL autonomous learning

From definitions, the importance of LA, and the aim at promoting learners into "authors of their own worlds" (Pennycook, 1997:45) in language learning mentioned above, it can be seen that self-assessing LA should be integrated in learners' autonomous learning. Talking about the benefits of self-assessment of LA, Gardner (1999) indicates three main objects getting them. They are autonomous language students, language teachers, and institution. While teachers gain three advantages of self-assessment such as evaluation, monitoring, and support, and institution gets two as accreditation and justification, learners obtain a variety of them like individualization, reflection, motivation, evaluation, monitoring, support, accreditation, and justification (p.51). Therefore, they are good reasons for both teachers and students implement self-assessment of their practice of autonomy.

Self-assessment literature is usually integrated into educational studies (Madsen, 2005). There have been a number of definitions of self-assessment up to now. Andrade and Du (2007) synthesized the concept of self-assessment from previous research and defined "self-assessment is a process of formative assessment during which students reflect on and evaluate the quality of their work and their learning, judge the degree to which they reflect explicitly stated goals or criteria, identify strengths and weaknesses in their work, and revise accordingly" (p.160). Based on definitions of LA above, autonomous language learners have to take responsibility for their own learning and their progress. Furthermore, self-assessment plays an important role in learner reflection in both their language learning and their target language. Therefore, learners can look back their learning goals, their learning objectives, learning activities, and their results depened on their perceptions regarding LA. It can be said that self-assessment is the key term to promote LA because the self-assessment forms can facilitate LA in language study. By using self-assessment, learners can shape their own standards to measure and self-assess their strengths and weaknesses in their own language learning. It means that students have to assess their learning results and identify their strengths and their weaknesses as well so that they will set up suitable learning goals and study plan in the next time. This also shows students' ability in assessing their development in learning.

Like learners, teachers should self-assess their teaching practices of LA activities. Airasian and Gullickson (1994) define teachers' self-assessment related to the terms as "the reflective practitioner", "personal theorizing", "connoisseurship and criticism", "teacher research", "reflection in or on action", "self-understanding", and "analysis of practice" (p.196). It means that teachers should look back their teaching actions by research, analysis, and criticism to self-realize the effectiveness or the ineffectiveness of their teaching activities. Teachers' self-assessment is carried out with the aim of making "judgments about the appropriateness or effectiveness of one's own knowledge, performance, beliefs, products, or effects, so they can be improved" (Airasian & Gullickson, 1994, cited in Madsen, 2005, p.24). In the same line, according to Madsen (2005), teachers' self-assessment was explored in the previous research as "teachers' thinking and reflection" (p.21). Teachers reflect their teaching practices to self-assess whether those activities are effective or not, and then have suitable solutions for the next time. Nova (2017) summarizes benefits of teachers' self-assessment in previous researches and indicates the needs of conducting it due to the following reasons. First, basing on it, teachers can recognize necessaries in setting up activities in teaching. Next, using self-assessment, teachers can foster their performance in teaching practices. Importantly, by self-assessment, they can self-reflect to study situations in teaching and have more duty with their next performance.

CONCLUSION AND IMPLICATIONS

This article presents an overview of definitions of LA, the key role of LA in foreign language education at university, the alignment between teachers' and students' perceptions and practices regarding LA. Moreover, it provides a number of achievements of LA research as well as the constraints both EFL teachers and students have met when they have implemented LA activities. The article also discussed the role of self-assessment in LA process for both EFL teachers and EFL students. Overall, LA in language learning has just been explored at higher education in Vietnamese context for recent years, and the alignment between EFL teachers' as well as EFL students' beliefs and practices regarding LA is not strong. It is implied that EFL students have lacked LA skills for they were

not equipped those ones at previous schools. Specially, LA as lifelong learning in language learning should be focused because the role of education in the 21st century is to develop "in learners a set of targeted skills and competencies that are generated from current economic, social and job market needs", especially their self-interest and self-development (Blidi, 2017:7). Additionally, there have not been any LA studies in lower educational levels in Vietnam. Thus, it is necessary for researchers to carry out LA research to foster LA competence for primary students, secondary students, and high school students to establish their solid LA base in EFL autonomous learning and to help them learn English better in higher education.

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DESIGNING BLENDED LEARNING COURSES FOR DISTANCE LEARNERS AT HO CHI MINH CITY OPEN UNIVERSITY

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ABSTRACT

This paper is to propose an intended blended learning implementation for general English course used for students of distance learning programs) at Ho Chi Minh City Open University. Firstly, the paper identifies the definition, reviews the models as well as the factors that impact on the decision of using blended learning in this course. Secondly, a design of General English course used blended learning mode will be suggested.

Keywords: *blended learning, students of distance learning programs.*

INTRODUCTION

The term *Blended learning* has been introduced since the popular use of World Wide Web at the end of 1990s (Friesen, 2012). With the benefits it promises such as facilitating the students the convenience, low cost, self-pace learning, self-assessment…as well as providing the teachers chances to improve the efficiency in teaching ("*Five benefits of blended learning*". DreamBox Learning), many schools and colleges in the world use blended modes to blend their curriculums and have positive outcomes. In higher education, especially for distance education, blended learning has been employed widely in Asia. Latchem, C. and Jung, I. (2010, p. 11) noted that "In its earlier e-learning readiness study, the EIU ranked South Korea fifth, Singapore sixth, and Taiwan sixteenth globally." The three leading countries are determined in making online learning available to everyone, establishing e-learning industries, and researching cognition in e- and m-learning. Besides that, Myanmar, Laos, Vietnam, Cambodia, Bangladesh,

Maldives and Bhutan were estimated as "at the earliest stages of adoption" (Latchem & Jung, 2010, p.14) with the review of the challenges:

- Have national policies but no plans for implementation, or have no national policies and only undertake small-scale and ad hoc ICT projects.

- Are constrained by costs and the lack of computers and Internet access.

- Treat ICT as a subject or an optional or extra-curricular activity, rather than embedding it in subject learning.

- Limit teachers' training to ICT skills development.

- May be heavily dependent upon international donors and private companies.

Although Vietnam is just in its infancy in using e-learning, Ho Chi Minh City Open University has been struggling to adopt new technology with the aim of facilitating and promoting an active learning society by offering the most flexible and obtainable methods of education to students in Vietnam. (The Decision 389/Ttg - at 26/7/1993 - signed by the Prime Minister on the foundation of Ho Chi Minh City Institute of Open Education established on June 15th, 1990 according to the Decision 451/Ttg signed by the Minister of Education and Training). Moreover, after qualified for the educational accreditation of the Ministry of Education and Training, Ho Chi Minh City Open University definitely remains the affirmation in its mission "By 2023, HCMCOU continues to strive to be a leading public inter-disciplinary university in Vietnam with priorities in practice-oriented education, knowledge promulgation and public engagement. Meanwhile, distance education will affirm its identity in the region." Apparently, distance education still occupies the priority in the school's strategy of innovation and development. Therefore, any new and modern learning and teaching modes should be evaluated and implemented to meet the need of the learners as well as the school's target. This paper is to propose an intended design of blended learning for general English course (used for students of distance learning programs) at Ho Chi Minh City Open University. First of all, the definition of blended learning and the factors that impact on the decision of using blended learning are presented. Then a design of General English course used blended learning mode will be suggested.

The Definition of Blended Learning and Factors That Impact on The Decision of Using Blended Learning in Teaching

Kim (2007, p. 3) had a systematic explanation and precise definition of blended learning. His approach started from the three dimensions of learning as "physical class-based or virtual, formal or informal, and scheduled or self-paced". First, physical class-based is actually the traditional classroom learning and teaching where the teacher and students must work physically at the same time while virtual class-based is E-learning in which the teacher and students do not need to go to school. Second, students require a degree, certificate or at least a credit when they adopt formal learning, but they do not mind any if they participate in informal learning (i.e. just for their interest). Third, scheduled learning requires a fixed schedule for each class while self-paced learning schedule for a course.

From the classification of learning above, six learning types are listed:

1. Traditional learning: scheduled classes and course with the presence of students and teacher in a physical class.

2. Dissertation research, independent studies: course-scheduled without physical class but required face-to-face interaction-based learning.

3. Distant learning: scheduled classes and courses with e-learning.

4. E-learning: course-scheduled with e-learning.

5. Informal learning: scheduled classes and course. This type needs the present of students and teacher in class.

6. Informal learning: unscheduled e-learning.

From his approach, Kim (p.4) defined blended learning as "the combination of some forms of traditional learning and some forms of e-learning."

Friesen (pp.2-3) assumes that there are many "eclectic definitions of blended learning", but blended learning is actually an education program (formal or non-formal) that combines online digital media with traditional classroom methods. It requires the physical presence of both teacher and student, with some elements of student control over time, place, path, or

pace (*Blended Learning: A Disruptive Innovation*, n.d.).

These elements are interpreted as follows. Students can schedule their own time of learning and decide their own speed or place of learning. They are also instructed in using the variety of "models" such as "large-group instruction, small-group collaboration, or individual instruction using in-person or online tools and instructional techniques." (PERC Research Brief, 2014)

Some models of blended learning are suggested.

- **Rotation model** where students "rotate" between a schedule of independent online study and face-to-face classroom time. The rotation is described as "a student stays at her desk, but switches between a paper-and-pencil instruction and online learning on a tablet or laptop". (PERC Research Brief, 2014)

- **Flex model** is described as students independently learn in a digital environment with the on-site support of the teacher when they need.

- **Self-blend model** is facilitated for students who choose "to augment their traditional learning with online course work" (Wikipedia). In this model, students often "take classes beyond what is already offered at their school" (Idaho Digital Learning), often according to their interest or further learning.

- **Enriched-virtual** is a model in which online, virtual experiences are seen as being enriched only periodically through arrangements of physical co-presence.

Blended learning does not happen when the teacher just simply adds some of the technical elements such as exercises designed on LMS or videos shared in the Slideshare.com. To create a blended learning program/course, several elements should be considered.

The objectives

The objectives should be focused first to guide the framework and the implementation of the program/course. Several objectives such as (a) to increase the effectiveness of teaching and learning by the combination of traditional classroom learning and some forms of e-learning, (b) to facilitate

the convenience for the students by allowing them to decide their time, place, path, or pace of learning, (c) to enhance the image of the school internally and externally, (d) to save the cost for both schools and students… should be considered. (Mabed& Koehler(p. 5004); Kim (p.5))

The scope of the blended program/course

The curriculum or the courses should be taken into account in the early stage. There are several conditions that should be checked if (a) "the products/programs complement or conflict with existing curricular"; (b) "the products/programs are ideal for all types of blended learning models"; (c) "the products/programs are supported by existing technology tools" (PERC Research Brief, 2014, p.15)

The consideration of the students

The students' ability to own and use technology to access the content of the program is also considered the key element in designing the blended program. Before making the decision to implement the blended learning, an investigation on if the students have computers or other technological devices that can access the Internet; if the students can use the technological devices confidently… should be carried out. Moreover, the students' choice of the learning models is also identified. They will choose the model that suits their time, schedule, place, background, culture… (Chan & Law, 2007)

Management

According to Kim (p.6) the management issue is related to the "in-house staff or outsourced to service organizations". The cost of the investment on the installation, management of the equipment, services, outsourcing together with the cost of hiring and training the teaching and technician staff should be counted. Therefore, if the investment is worthy or if the return is estimated are weighed.

The determination of the school in implementing the blended program/course

Firstly, check if the goals/objectives of the blended program/course are aligned with the mission or vision of the school/university. Check if the

school/university has a plan to fund sufficiently or a strategy to assess the effectiveness of the blended program/course in terms of the students' achievement and the feedback to the students, parents and teachers. The determination of the school in implementing the blended program/course will only happen if these are confirmed. (PERC Research Brief, 2014, pp.18-21)

The Design of General English Course Using Blended Learning Mode

To design a blended learning course, Mabed and Koehler (2017) adopted the model suggested by Huang, Ma, and Zhang (2008). This model consists of three main stages, i.e., pre-analysis, activity and resource design, and instructional assessment. Kim (p.5) also suggested the steps should be included when design a blended learning course:

1. Setting the scope and objectives of the blended learning program.
2. An analysis of the relevant issues under the overall objectives set.
3. Addressing any problems identified in the analysis.
4. Measuring the results of the blended learning program.

The General English course at Ho Chi Minh City Open University also follows these stages, but this study just focuses on describing the first two stages. The other stages will be left for further study because we haven't finished the teaching and learning the course.

The first stage determined whether blended learning mode is appropriate to use in a specific situation (Mabed & Koehler, p. 5004). In this stage, the key factors that lead to the decision of using the blended learning mode in teaching General English course should be analysed (Kim, p.5). The second stage focuses on the overall blended learning design, the activity design, and resources design (Mabed& Koehler, p. 5005).

Factors that lead to the decision of using the blended learning mode in teaching General English course

The requirement of the school

As the requirement of the Ministry of Education and Training, students at Open University who do not major in English have to attain Intermediate

level (CEFR B1) in General English before they get the University degree. At the beginning of their first year, the students will sit in the English placement test to be assigned into the appropriate English classes. General English course delivers eight classes ranging from:

o Beginner (2 classes: A1, A2 = CEFR A1)

o Elementary (2 classes: A3, A4 = CEFR A2)

o Pre-intermediate (2 classes: B1, B2 = CEFR B1-)

o Intermediate (2 classes: B3,B4 = CEFR B1)

Students do not have to study this course if they apply a language certificate which is B1 equivalence, i.e. FCE level B1, PET pass with Merit, KET pass with Distinction, IELTS 4.5, TOEFL iBT 45.

That requirement is also applied to all distance programs at Ho Chi Minh City Open University, but the level to be qualified is lower: CEFR **A2** (according to the agreement in the meeting - Action minute number 1292/BB-ĐHM - at 14/1/2018). This means that the students have to participate in 4 classes: A1, A2, A3, A4. However, the students of distance programs just take A Certificate (Elementary Level – granted by the Decision of the Ministry of Training and Education 66/2008/QĐ-BGDĐT - 2008) from any Foreign Language Centres. After qualified for the educational accreditation of the Ministry of Education and Training in 2017, the teaching and learning of this General English course should be confirmed in the curriculum of each program (e.g. Computer Science program, Accounting and Auditing program…) (The Decision of the Rector 2079/QĐ-ĐHM – date22/12/2016)**.**

The objectives

To satisfy such requirement, the need of facilitating the most flexible and obtainable teaching and learning of the General English course becomes realistic, and blended learning mode will be the suitable one to choose because (a) the combination of traditional classroom learning (12 hours) and some forms of e-learning may increase the effectiveness of teaching and learning ; (b) it provides convenience for distant students by allowing them to decide their time, place, path, or pace of learning; (c) it enhances an

image of a University leading in using the technology in education; (d) it saves cost for both students and the school; and (e) it increases the amount of money from the tuition.

The scope of the course

The scope of the course is a factor that will be interpreted: (a) the General English course is in accordance with the existing curricular of the school (the required subjects); (b) the course is in accordance with the existing blended model that the school is carrying out (flex and enriched-virtual model); (c) the course is supported by existing technology used in delivering e-learning courses in school (LMS).

The consideration and readiness of the students

To explore the students' consideration as well as the equipment of technology, 70 students learning different distance courses such as Engineering, Law, Business Administration, Sociology and Social Works, Finance and Banking were asked randomly with closed questions. The result shows that the distant students at Ho Chi Minh City Open University are fully equipped themselves with the technical devices such as laptops, desktops, smartphones (69/70 students to be asked randomly), and they are frequently linked with the Internet, 3G, 4G (57/70 students to be asked randomly). They are also familiar with using the Internet to contact with their teachers, share information with their friends or search the information for their study or research (65/70 students to be asked randomly). However, just 26/70 students confirm that they have participated in an online course and other 20/70 students admit that they have the experience of doing the exercises posted on the Internet. That is just because their teachers themselves facilitated for their students as additional tasks while the distance programs have just used textbooks, study guides, workbooks, or videos and audio tapes (recordings of radio programs), or broadcasting programs… together with 8 - 12 hours face-to-face teaching and learning for each subject (Decision of the Rector - number 2079 /QĐ-ĐHM, 22/12/2016). Despite the existence of traditional distance training in their curriculum, the surprise fact is that 47/70 students support the blended mode in learning English course while 23/70 students still feel safe with face-to-face learning.

Actually, the implementation of e-learning has not been fully exploited from the establishment of the Center for Distance Education (the Centre that manages the distance education at Ho Chi Minh City University). This is because the school has not already had enough conditions to activate the program. There was a system of e-leaning network established in the school (around 2003 – 2004), but it could not be activated adequately, just stopped at "learning forum" where the students could post their queries about their study, curricular, extra- curricular… even their stuck in documentary work. Despite the effort of the Board of Directors, several of shortages as well as the stagnant of the staff and teaching staff have made e-learning hard to happen during a decade. Apparently, during that time the use of Internet in Vietnam has not popular while the distance students mostly lived in the rural areas or at remote provinces in Vietnam such as Ca Mau, Kien Giang, Lam Dong, Binh Phuoc… As result, they could not access the technology, and learning with printed sources and TV or radio program is the most effective way. From 2016, the improvement in the use of technology in Vietnam as well as the tireless effort to innovate and progress of the school have activated e-learning program again. The result of this effort is the establishment of E-learning Center in 2016. This center has now managed the training for 6 faculties with Bachelor degree and has all the abilities to hold many e-learning courses for distance programs. (Decision on the Management of training and assessment in Distance education - 1263 /QĐ-ĐHM, 10/08/2017)

Design of Learning Process and Resources

Design of learning process

The design of the learning process should be regulated by the decision on the Management of training and assessment in Distance education which notes that " The teaching and learning process happens mostly on the school LMS together with some face-to-face classes to facilitate the study guidance, review, or Questions and Answers section" (Decision on the Management of training and assessment in Distance education - 1263 /QĐ-ĐHM, 10/08/2017- p.4).

Friesen (2012, p.4) cited from Garrison and Vaughan's 2008 book in which they distinguish between the textual nature of the online context and the

typical oral communication in face-to-face classroom, and the principle of blended learning is that face-to-face oral communication and online written communication should be in such an integrated use so that the strengths of each form contribute to the learning experience that suits the context and intended educational purpose. Moreover, Heller (2010, p. 9-14) discussed in details the advantages of face-to-face and virtual communication, as defined online communication (Friesen p.5) and assumed that "if used effectively and appropriately, virtual communication shows a promising avenue for organizations [educational institutes] to pursue." Therefore, "a wide range of modalities or technologies, including video conferencing separated by space, video recording and playback separated by time, and forms of a more quotidian nature, such as asynchronous email or synchronous (i.e. "real-time") chat…" (Friesen, p.5) are employed to facilitate the communication in general and teaching and learning in particular.
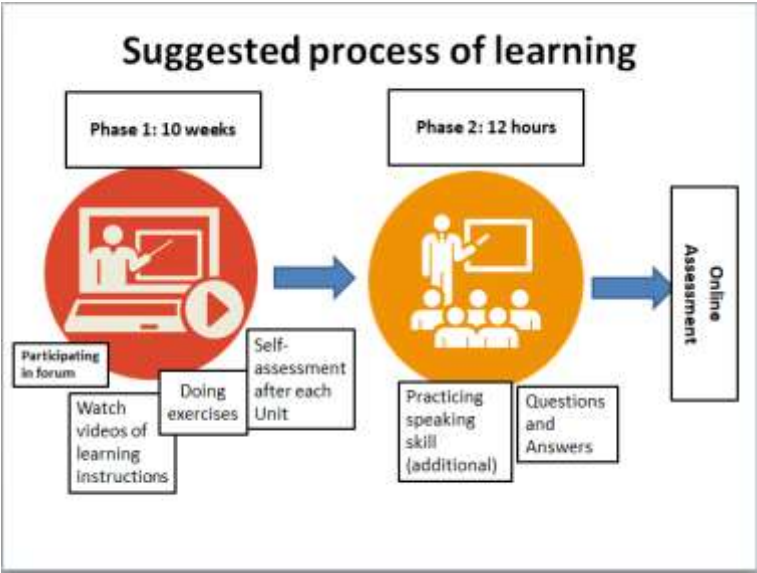
Figure 1: Suggested process of learning of General English course for distance program

The course lasts at least twelve weeks in which the students will spend ten weeks to struggle with the available resource on LMS in the first phase. They learn by watching (or downloading) the videos of learning

instructions, doing exercises, watching additional videos or listening to additional audio CDs. They also have to participate in the forum to exchange the ideas or ask for the instructions or corrections from their friends or teacher (who can answer at least 24 hours after the students post their queries). After each unit, the students have a test for self-assessment. The test includes the assessment of 4 skills: listening, speaking, reading and writing. All the arrangement of the activities on LMS is regulated by the course syllabus.

In the second phase, they need twelve hours working face-to-face or via video conference with their teacher to cover two sections:

o   to polish their speaking skills because this is the most difficult skill and the students need a direct and correct feedback

o   to get more explanation or directions in "Questions and Answers" section

At the end of the process, the students have an online written test to assess listening, reading and writing skills. Speaking skill will be evaluated via a video recorded by students (individual, pair or group – depending on the requirement of the test) and this will also be submitted online. The text rubric can be seen in the Appendix.

Design of resources

Actually, the goal of the General English course just enables the students of distance programs to use English at CEFR A2 level, so the learning objectives (arranged within the six levels of cognition of Bloom's taxonomy) will be elaborated clearly in each objective of the class level (Bloom, B. S et.al., 1953). This is the example for writing the learning objectives (written in the syllabus) for the class level A1 (CEFR A1).

Cognitive level	Description
Knowledge	Remember the vocabulary provided in the topics
Comprehension	Understand the vocabulary provided in the topics
Application	Use simple communicative sentence structures in speaking and writing within familiar contexts

The online content of General English course level A1 can be described as the example.
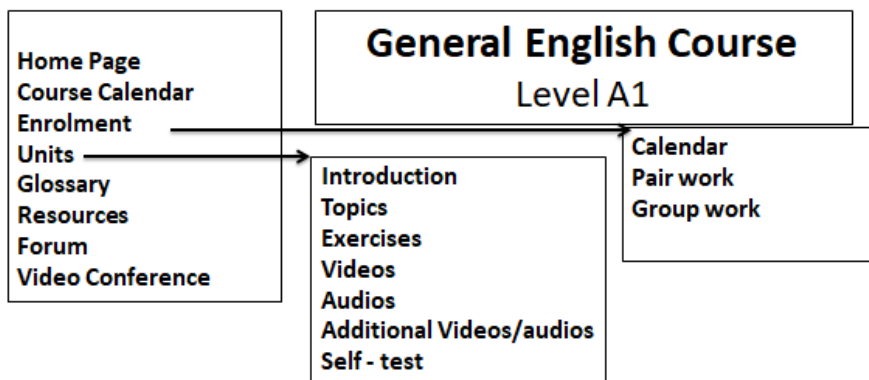
Figure 2: The General English course – Level A1 in LMS

Home page is designed to prepare students for studying General English course content through LMS. It also provides students with a brief overview of the major goals of the course and structure of the content.

In *enrolment*, students enable to register in a particular pair/group to work during the course.

The *Units* provides the content of each unit (6 units in a level). To start a unit, the introduction introduces the unit goals as well as the teacher's regulations or timeline. Topics include the written instructional materials (in PDF files, Word files…). Then many types of exercises (Multiple choice, Matching…) are designed on Moodle base with available answers. The instructional videos/audios are the records of the teacher's instruction. Each video lasts 10 minutes and focus on one topic of the unit. Students can watch/listen directly or downloaded to study whenever or wherever they want. There are also additional videos/audios to provide students further study/practice. After each unit, students have a test for self-assessment.

The *Glossary* presents an alphabetical list of vocabulary for each unit along with definition and sentence examples.

The *Resources* is the store where students and quickly find and download files (Word, PDF, Power Point, Audio, Video, .png…) available for each unit.

Forum is the area where students exchange the ideas after each topic/unit, ask and answer the questions from their teacher or friends.

Video conferences happens twice every class level. During 60 minutes for each video conference students can get more explanation or directions in "Questions and Answers" section from their teacher.

CONCLUSION

With the wide spread and progress of the technology, HCMC OU with the mission of offering the most flexible and obtainable methods of education to learners at any ages, from many places in Vietnam will have to fight for ways to make it the best. Therefore, the implication of blended learning in Distance education in general and General English course in particular at O.U. are inevitable and possible with all the favorable conditions from the school and the support from the students.

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APPENDIX

Analytical Assessment Scales

Speaking Assessment

Scores	Grammar and Vocabulary	Discourse Management	Pronunciation	Interactive Communication
2.5	Performance above Band 2			
2	- Shows a good degree of control of *simple* grammatical forms; attempts some *complex* grammatical forms. - Uses a range of appropriate vocabulary to give and exchange views on familiar topics.	- Produces extended stretches of language despite some hesitation. - Contributions are relevant despite some repetition. - Uses a range of cohesive devices.	- Is intelligible. - Intonation is generally appropriate. - Sentence and word stress is generally accurately placed. - Individual sounds are generally articulated clearly.	- Initiates and responds appropriately. - Maintains and develops the interaction and negotiates towards an outcome with very little support.
1.75	Performance shares features of Bands 1.5 and 2			
1.5	- Shows a good degree of control of simple grammatical forms. - Uses a range of appropriate vocabulary when talking about familiar topics.	- Produces extended responses beyond short phrases, despite hesitation. - Contributions are mostly relevant, but there may be some repetition. - Uses basic cohesive devices.	- Is mostly intelligible, and has some control of phonological features at both utterance and word levels.	- Initiates and responds appropriately. - Keeps the interaction going with very little prompting and support.
1.25	Performance shares features of Bands 1 and 1.5			
1	- Shows sufficient control of simple grammatical forms. - Uses a limited range of appropriate vocabulary to talk about familiar topics.	- Produces responses characterized by short phrases and frequent hesitation. - Repeats information or digresses from the topic.	- Is mostly intelligible, despite limited control of phonological features.	- Maintains simple exchanges, despite some difficulty. Requires prompting and support.

Edited Version of Speaking Assessments Scales based on 'Cambridge English PET Handbooks for Teachers' by Đoàn Kim Khoa – lecturer of Faculty of Foreign Languages (HOU)

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THE EFFECT OF MONOLINGUAL AND BILINGUAL DICTIONARIES ON VOCABULARY RECALL AND RETENTION OF STUDENTS MAJORED IN ENGLISH LANGUAGE

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ABSTRACT

This exploratory action research aims at investigating the use of two types of dictionaries which are bilingual and monolingual, along with their efficiency in vocabulary recall and retention. 120 students at intermediate level majoring in English in Thang Long University were chosen to partake in the research. After 120 students took 3 Preliminary English Tests (PET) vocabulary tests, at the beginning, after 2 weeks and after 9 weeks, their scores were all recorded. Following that, the students were divided into two groups of monolingual and bilingual dictionaries use, learning and practicing vocabulary in-class mainly with two course-books. The students all learned a range of vocabulary after a while, regardless what type of dictionaries they used. However, the students in the bilingual dictionaries group tended to maintain higher rates of vocabulary recall and retention and students at this level seemed to prefer to use bilingual dictionaries to monolingual type.

Keywords: *bilingual dictionaries, monolingual dictionaries, vocabulary recall, vocabulary retention.*

CONTEXT AND RATIONALE

Dictionaries have been proved to benefit learners in attaining vocabulary as well as mastering reading skill while learning a language (Ortega & González, 2016). Not only do they equip learners with insights about the lexicons but also their usages. Pousi (2010) claims "vocabulary acquisition

is considered by many to be the single most important aspect of foreign language learning" (p. 21). It is agreed by Knight (1994) that using dictionaries has become crucial to language learning as perceived by both teachers and students. Therefore, research concerning dictionaries use, its significance, and syllabi designs has attracted a great number of scholars.

Among the conducted studies about dictionaries use in learning language, especially learning language vocabulary, the comparison of the usefulness of two different types of dictionaries: monolingual and bilingual types is still a few in number. Also, the effect of dictionary types in language learning in vocabulary recall and retention has not been investigated thoroughly with the English learners of intermediate level.

The research's participants are 120 freshmen from 4 English intermediate level and English majored classes in Thang Long University.

Research aims

This exploratory action research attempts to investigate the effectiveness of dictionary use by comparing monolingual and bilingual dictionary types, which leads to differences in vocabulary recall and retention.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Key concepts

Dictionary

Originally, the term "dictionary" has its root as Latin "dictionarium" which means "a book of sayings" (Hartmann, 1992, p. 5). Nevertheless, today, the word "dictionary" means a book containing lists of words accompanied by information about them (Crystal, 1987). All in all, the most well-rounded definition of the dictionary brought by Zgusta (1971, p. 197) is "A dictionary is a systematically arranged list of socialized linguistic forms compiled from the speech habits of a given speech community and commented upon in such a way that the qualified reader understands the meaning of each separate form, and is informed of the relevant facts concerning the function of that form in its community". More interestingly, "Dictionaries, the products of lexicographers' work, are written to be used

by those who need them and language learners are consumers in need (Laufer and Melamed, 1994, p.1).

Regarding the effectiveness of dictionaries, they assist learners a great deal in acquiring a second or a foreign language and as the categorization of Crystal (1987), a decent dictionary's characteristics should be good quality paper, binding, encyclopedic information inclusion, given usage guidance, clear and profound definitions, easy access, idioms, synonyms, and antonyms.

English monolingual dictionary

According to El-Sayed & Siddiek (2013), monolingual English dictionaries can be defined as a list of "hard words", in other words, the word lists that are explained in plain English. They also indicated that common lexicons are gradually added with the owing to offer the users a comprehensive coverage of the English language.

Boxer (1980) as cited in Hayati & Akram (2006) shows the benefits of using a monolingual dictionary as it gives definitions, and also other crucial word's aspects, supposing that the use of monolingual dictionaries has to be encouraged as it offers students' fluency when they understand the words in contexts.

English bilingual dictionary and its importance

According to Atkins & Varantola (1998), Baxter (1980), Hulstijn, Hollander, & Grenadius (1996), and Knight (1994), students at all levels can use bilingual dictionaries. If the lower-levelled students utilize bilingual dictionaries to look up the strange lexical items, more advanced learners use them to reaffirm their insights about partially known L2 vocabulary blocks. Also, research results support the use of this kind of dictionary for reading and vocabulary skills (Knight, 1994).

In a study by Schmitt (1997), it is the Japanese EFL learners' feedback that the use of bilingual dictionary is one of their most accomplishing techniques in their English language learning, and they tended to use this type of dictionaries more than any other type.

Vocabulary recall and retention

A full definition of recall, according to Dobinson (1996), "This refers to the act of remembering something from the lesson almost immediately after the lesson. In this study words not only needed to be remembered for their form but also for their meaning". (p.28)

Dobinson (1996) also defines "retention" as "This refers to the act of continuing to recall something from a lesson after a considerable time has elapsed, e.g. weeks or months. Again, in this study, meaning and form had to be remembered for the word to be deemed retained". (pp. 28-29)

A study by Hayati & Fattahzadeh (2006) focuses on the use of two types of dictionaries which possibly leads to recall and retention of vocabulary in students. In the research, 100 Iranian EFL students were called to join. After tests, the result was rather unexpected when even students did learn a number of words while reading; however, the types of dictionaries used did not matter as no remarkable difference was recorded. The only thing that we can relate to is that bilingual dictionaries do help students improve the reading speed.

Debated issues

Is it important to use dictionaries while learning English language vocabulary? Are there any drawbacks in using types of dictionaries in learning English language vocabulary?

Over years, schools and universities have been motivating their students to use dictionary types in the classroom, and even during exams as they perceived the use of dictionaries in learning languages, especially vocabulary is essential and effective; however, this is questioned by scholars, teachers and students as to some extent they all realize the dictionary use may hinder or speed down the learning process (Ibrahim Holi Ali, 2012).

Concerning how to use dictionaries in class, Waring (2001) points out that whether to use dictionaries is dependent on the tasks types. Indeed, with work relating fluency, like conversational speaking or fluent reading, the use of dictionaries can become a hindrance slowing down or even stop the flow. In contrast, when the task is about studying the language, like getting to know more about lexical resources or translation, the students can try

some guessing before really resort to the dictionaries.

Does it matter what sort of dictionaries English language learners use?

The dictionary has a pedagogical significance (Ibrahim Holi Ali, 2012) as it boosts the language learning processes, e.g. reading comprehension, vocabulary acquisition. But for years, which kinds of dictionary should be used has always become controversial and whether the different sorts of dictionary bring along different effectiveness.

With respect to the first type: monolingual dictionaries, the advocates insist on the strengths of this dictionary type as it helps with not only definitions, but other aspects like encouraging students to think in the target language, which may enhance a great deal the second language acquisition (Scholfield, 1982; Bensoussan et al., 1984). Compared to bilingual ones, monolingual dictionaries can give the illustration of words analytically with synonyms, parts of speech, derivations or usages (Piotrowski, 1989; Hartman, 1991).

Yet, even having been widely promoted, monolingual dictionaries still prove their unavoidable deficiencies such as the doubt and confusion they can bring to students as the low-leveled students often have to guess the meaning as the description and definition seem to be long and implicit (Yorio, 1971; Bensoussan et al., 1984).

In studies, when students were asked to choose freely, normally they opted for bilingual dictionaries as they had some pros over the monolingual one. First of all, bilingual dictionaries can offer students the exact or concrete, straightaway answers, less information about morphology, which makes them feel safe (Yorio, 1971; Bensoussan et al.,1984; Thompson, 1987; Wingate, 2002, as cited in Lew, 2004; Nakamoto, 1995). Furthermore, students revealed their choice of bilingual dictionaries over monolingual ones as the former are easy to use and time-saving (Thompson, 1987; Wingate, 2002, as cited in Lew, 2004; Nakamoto, 1995). It appears the challenges that monolingual types have become the plus points of bilingual dictionaries.

Besides, there are still a number of scholars who are against the use of bilingual dictionaries as they reinforce students to improve translation, and

hinder students' ability to think directly in the foreign language (Thompson, 1987; Wingate, 2002, as cited in Lew, 2004; Nakamoto, 1995).

All in all, all those claims are still assumptions which need more empirical research done to shed the light about the real differences in the use of two dictionary types; thus, it is still impossible to draw a conclusion whether for or against any type of dictionaries.

THE STUDY

To collect valid and reliable data for the investigation, the researcher combined the exploratory action research during the 9-week term (English dictionary types controlled) and the quantitative method: two survey questionnaires asking students' perspectives on their use as well as their preference of dictionary types: monolingual or bilingual dictionaries, and what kind of dictionary they see as useful.

Subjects

The investigation was conducted with 120 freshmen from 4 English majored classes in Thang Long University. Students were all at English intermediate level.

Procedure

Students had twelve 55-minute sessions each week, which meant 660 in-class hours/ week. The studied term lasted 9 weeks. At first, the students sat in a vocabulary test (which was designed to check the vocabulary in the PET word list) (see APPENDIX 3) and attended a vocabulary training session, where students had the chance to get familiarized with two types of dictionaries: monolingual and bilingual at the beginning of the term-time. The vocabulary test scores were recorded. Also, after the dictionary use training session, students were asked to answer the first survey questionnaire 1 (see APPENDIX 1) of which type of dictionary they used and preferred.

During 9 weeks, when learning English in class, students' use of dictionary types was controlled. Class A and B used monolingual dictionaries while class C and D used the bilingual ones. The course books are: Strategic

Reading 3 (Second Edition) of Jack C. Richards and Samuela Eckstut-Didier. After getting exposed to distinctive dictionaries for two weeks, they sat in a vocabulary test (see APPENDIX 4), which tested the range of vocabulary learnt in two weeks. The scores again were recorded. The third time was at the end of the term time, when the students' vocabulary test scores (the second designed vocabulary test - see APPENDIX 5) were recorded again.

At the end of the 9-week investigation, the students were asked to answer the survey questionnaire 2 (see APPENDIX 2) to express their perspectives about their use of dictionary (preference, need, convenience,..)

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

Results from the exploratory action research (EAR)

There were 120 students who did the first test. And the scores were recorded.

Class A, mean A	**4.77**
Class B, mean B	**5.2**
Class C, mean C	**5.18**
Class D, mean D	**5.17**
MEAN1 = (mean A + mean B + mean C + mean D)/4	**5.08**

There were 120 students who did the second test, after 2 week time. And the scores were recorded.

Class A, mean A	**5.37**
Class B, mean B	**5.73**
Class C, mean C	**5.93**
Class D, mean D	**5.9**
MEAN2 = (mean A + mean B + mean C + mean D)/4	**5.73**

MEAN2- MEAN1 = 5.73 – 5.08 = 0.65

We can see that, after two weeks, the average score of students' vocabulary test seemed to increase, but with an insignificant figure. The duration of 2 weeks with reading practices and the help from dictionary use seemed to help, but not very much. We need to see the third test's result at the end of the term (9 weeks/ 108 sessions/ 5940 hours in class).

There were 120 students who did the third test. And the scores were recorded.

Class A, mean A	**7.63**
Class B, mean B	**7.41**
Class C, mean C	**9.13**
Class D, mean D	**9.22**
MEAN3 = (mean A + mean B + mean C + mean D)/4	**8.35**

MEAN3- MEAN1 = 3.27

After 9 weeks with 108 sessions/ 5940 hours learning English in class with the assistance of the dictionaries, the students' scores in vocabulary seemed to go up a great deal. It can be inferred that students' vocabulary range seemed to improve significantly after a term time of their using dictionaries when learning English (variation =3.27). Also, the students of class C, and D (the two classes using bilingual dictionaries) appeared to progress further than students in two class in which students were controlled to use monolingual dictionaries in class (the average test score of class C and D increased by 3.95 and 4.05 respectively while those for A, and B were 2.86 and 2.21 respectively).

Overall, students appeared to develop their vocabulary range after a term using controlled types of dictionary. The result matched with the conclusion of research by Bensoussan et al. (1984), Laufer (1990), and Narenji (1998) that using dictionary do have an effect on how students perform on vocabulary tests. The use of dictionaries did not help much in vocabulary immediate recall but seemed to bring along effectiveness in vocabulary delayed retention. Last but not least, with students of intermediate level, bilingual dictionaries seemed to be more beneficial than

monolingual type when they helped students progress more in vocabulary learning, bringing higher rates of vocabulary recall and retention. The result of this research contradicts with the conclusion drawn by Hayati and Fattahzadeh (2006) when they said "There is no significant difference between two dictionary-use groups in vocabulary recall and retention" (p.129). The setting, the participants of two studies are different, which can be the main cause for the distinct results.

Results from the survey questionnaire using quantitative data analysis method

At the beginning of the term, before students were trained to use dictionaries in learning English, 85% of the surveyed students supposed that using dictionaries did not matter and 15% of them said "very useful". However, after a term time of 9 weeks with the controlled dictionary types use, only 10.8% of participants said using dictionaries in learning was okay, 21.7% agreed that it was useful, while the figure for the "very useful" group climbed up dramatically to 67.5%. It means that after a period of time being trained and exposed to the use of English dictionaries in class, students seemed to realize the importance of them using that useful tool when studying English.

Before the test and the research were actually conducted, 9% of surveyed students said they used monolingual type, 86% opted for bilingual dictionaries while 5% used both types. And the majority agreed they preferred bilingual dictionaries (95%) over monolingual dictionaries. After the term ended, the preference among students did not seem to change much when 5.8% of students preferred monolingual dictionaries to bilingual ones; while the remaining majority liked bilingual dictionaries more.

For the reasons to choose to use monolingual dictionaries, it was mainly because using this type of dictionary is trendy as friends or people around use them (83%) and also the monolingual dictionaries help students get exposed to the target language more (86%). Meanwhile, bilingual dictionaries were chosen by a large majority of students since they are time-saving (54%), convenient (78%), useful (82%), not as difficult when using monolingual type (80%); the feeling of insecurity when using

monolingual dictionaries also induced students to use bilingual ones more (78%).

Overall, the perception of students over the effectiveness of using dictionaries in class seemed to change positively when they perceived that was far more useful after using the tool over the term time. Moreover, the students of intermediate level appeared to prefer bilingual dictionaries to monolingual ones because of various reasons like time, convenience, usefulness, security and the easiness.

Therefore, the debate over which type of dictionaries are better seemed to have been answered partly that teachers, students, and the educators need to take students levels, preferences, or needs into serious consideration before guiding or assigning them to use any type of dictionaries. In this case, all results are to prove that with learners of intermediate level, bilingual dictionaries fit them as they bring higher rates of vocabulary recall and retention, which means students can learn English vocabulary better with the aid of this dictionary type. Also, because of the easiness, and the straightforward characteristics of bilingual dictionaries, students at this level find it far more comfortable to use when they do not need to translate the definition, guess, then become confused or worried if they are right.

LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

As being conducted in only one term time (9 weeks), the EAR could have some limitations. The first limit to the study was time, if the researcher could work with the freshmen in two more terms, a clearer and more thorough and well-rounded conclusion could be drawn about the learning of students in one academic year. Moreover, the problem was that students could use the other type of dictionary when they did not go to school, so that had an influence on the study about the use of dictionaries of students in class. Last but not least, only 4 English-majored classes were chosen (120 students) while there are 10 classes altogether majoring in English at Thang Long University. It could be better if students of 10 classes all participated in the study. Also, the choice of 4 classes was not random as the researcher had to ask the participation from the classes of several teachers; therefore, the objectivity of the research was not very high.

Finally, the increasing rates of vocabulary recall and retention might be questioned as the reasons for higher test scores could be the students' competency, not because of the use of dictionary. However, there should be a caution here that students were encouraged to use dictionaries in class with high frequencies; thus, higher test scores obviously were due to the help of dictionary use.

SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER STUDIES

As mentioned in the limitations part, other researchers could carry out studies in longer time frame to draw a clearer and more precise picture of the stated issue. Besides, as suggested, more participants could be asked to be involved in the research, to have more detailed and thorough results. Other researchers may conduct the same framed research but with other groups of students of different settings. Students of other levels could be a good start to shed more light on the theme about the use of dictionary types.

CONCLUSION

In conclusion, students all progressed in acquiring vocabulary after using dictionaries regardless of types. However, for the learners of lower level, bilingual dictionaries can be more useful and appropriate to them when they want to use dictionaries when learning English language vocabulary. Therefore, it is recommended that teachers and learners learn more about students and themselves to understand the levels, preferences, and needs to choose the appropriate type of dictionaries.

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APPENDIX

Appendix 1:
http://www.mediafire.com/file/uy7u31nbcwcab9a/APPENDIX_1.docx

Appendix 2:
http://www.mediafire.com/file/9aqyaplhbbpdj16/APPENDIX_2.docx

Appendix 3:
http://www.mediafire.com/file/t98hbmezohkrndy/APPENDIX_3_PET_vocabulary_test_1.docx

Appendix 4:
http://www.mediafire.com/view/pq2sd0ic2444abi/APPENDIX_4_PET_VOCAB_TEST_2.jpg

Appendix 5:
http://www.mediafire.com/view/3p24wb3nwbwu87v/APPENDIX_5_VOCAB_TEST_3.jpg

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COURSEBOOK EVALUATION: A REFLECTION ON *INTERNATIONAL EXPRESS (PRE-INTERMEDIATE)* AND ITS APPLICATION IN TEACHING IN LANGUAGE CENTER

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ABSTRACT

'Streamline English' was likely to be the most popular course book for many language centers fifteen years ago. However, with the development of technology and teaching methods, more English books have been composed and writen. As the result, teachers and learners have various options to choose and 'International Express' has been used as a replacement of 'Streamline English' in most of the language center and so did the one where I have taught. With the mentioned background, this paper is a self reflection evaluation which is written to identify and describe a problem concerning course design or syllabus planning relevant in Vietnamese context which causes the unsuitability of *International Express (Pre-Intermediate)*, and also compare various possible solutions to the problem. Furthermore, this essay will offer some suggestions for those identified problems.

Keywords: *coursebook evaluation, International Express (Pre-Intermediate)*

INTRODUCTION

It is undeniable that coursebook is one of the vital factors in teaching in general and in language teaching in particular. More importantly, coursebook evaluation is also necessary for teachers as well as learning in teaching and learning process. On this account, among many essential constituents influencing on an English learning and teaching classroom and

programs, there is a question: 'Which course book should be used?' which has been taken into adequate considerations. Once 'Streamline English' seemed to be an occupied course book used by many language centres in Vietnam for a long time. However, recognizing the out-of-date and not communicatively effective of teaching methodology and syllabus design, 'Streamline English' course books (Bernard Hartley & Peter Viney) have been gradually not popular and wide - used for teaching and learning English any more. These days, more and more course books are carefully evaluated and examined in order to apply for Vietnamese learning and teaching context, in which, 'International Express' course book series by Liz Taylor is one of the most talked–about teaching and learning materials as a replacement for 'Streamline English' at that moment.

'International Express' coursebook series are also considered as the replacement for the classic four–level intensive 'Streamlines English'. 'International Express' shows the outstanding methodology of teaching and learning in comparison with 'Streamlines English' at that time, replacing Grammar–Translation traditional method by multi–method teaching with colourful illustrations. However, with the demanding of communicative and communicable English usage which learners desire to obtain, 'International Express' turns out not being a perfect 'visual heart of any ELT programs' (Sheldon, 1988) since 'International Express' focuses mainly on business objects and topics and the skills are not focused, sometimes, quite higher than the level of the intended learners

As an English teacher, the author of this essay has also used 'International Express' course book series including Elementary, Pre – Intermediate, Intermediate, Upper – Intermediate (A2-B2) for teaching students who needs to get the National English Certificate and for TOEIC preparation test in language centres and some other universities. This following essay is written to identify and describe a problem related to course design or syllabus planning relevant in Vietnamese context which causes the unsuitability of International Express (Pre-Intermediate) recently, and also compare various possible solutions to that problem. Furthermore, this essay will give some suggestions for those identified problems.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Firstly, a clear literature review needs to be written about the differences between the term 'textbook' and 'coursebook'although these two terms are used interchangably. The definition of 'textbook' is described by Merriam Webster (2003) as 'a book used in the study of a subject as one containing a presentation of the principles of a subject or as a literary work relevant to the study of a subject.' Furthermore, textbooks are named as commodities, political objects, and cultural representations and, therefore, are the site and result of struggles and compromise in order to determine how and by whom they will be produced, how and by whom their contents will be selected, how and to whom they will be distributed, and how teachers and students will make use of them (Shannon, 2010). However, textbook is sometimes cofused by coursebook. According to Richards and Schmidt (2002), a coursebook is usually in series and including neccessary materials for a specific type a of learner with a specific level (page 120,550). Take International Express series for example, this is a coursebook because International Express is a series and with different level for a specific learning outcome.

Regarding the roles of coursebooks, it is at the center of most of the English teaching settings that the coursebook lies (Sheldon, 1988; Hutchinson and Torres, 1994). Coursebooks also usually occupy various roles in language teaching. Those are the roles as:

- a resource for presentation material (spoken/written)

- a source of activities for learner practice and communicative interaction

- a reference source

- a syllabus

- a resource for self-directed learning or self-access work

- a support for less experienced teachers (Cunningsworth, 1995)

To emphazie the importance of coursebook in teaching, it was stated by Hutchinson and Torres in 1994 that 'no teaching-learning situation, it

seems, is complete until it has its relevant textbook.' (p.315)

In response to the signifincant impact of coursebooks, Cunningsworth confirmed: 'The wealth of published materials for English language teaching (ELT) available on the market makes selecting the right coursebook a challenging task' (1995, p.1). Sheldon previously also stated that 'it is clear that coursebook assessment is fundamentally a subjective, rule-of-thumb activity, and that no neat formula, grid or system will ever provide a definite yardstick' (Sheldon, 1988, p.245). Reaching a decision on the best suitable coursebook is not a straightforward procedure, as 'selecting a suitable coursebook is not a simple task' (Chambers, 1997, p.29).

In order to evaluate teaching materials, there are many different methods suggestest by scholars and experts with different criteria. The evaluation of this paper is mainly based on the two distinguised methods for materials evaluation: a) predictive evaluation, and b) retrospective evaluation (Cunningsworth, 1995; Ellis, 1997). In terms of predictive evaluation, it is the assesment aiming to decide which materials to use. Available teaching materials are taken into cosideration and teacher will choose the 'best suited to their purposes' (Ellis, 1997, p. 36). Concerning retrospective evaluation, the process is opposite. Teachers could evaluate the coursebooks after using them. No evaluation is done to examine if the materials are suitable before their real teaching. By this way, it is practical for the teachers to make the decison if they will use the coursebook again or not.

THE PROBLEM

In concerning of course design, it is obvious from the table of content that International Express is designed for multi – method teaching, in the other words, multi – layer syllabus course book. In this essay, the International Express (Pre-Intermediate) course book will be used to take as a source for evaluation.

In analyzing, the problems related to this course book design as well as the syllabus planning, this essay would focus on some main points, which has been drawn by Allwright in the article: 'What do we want teaching

materials for' (ELT Journal Volume 36/1, October 1981). According to Allwright (1981, 8), the content of a course book should be the summary to 'what is taught' and 'what is learned' or 'what is available to learned', which come to terms of what Yalden concluded about syllabus (1987). Furthermore, the content also should not be predictable but interactive and naturally coming from classroom events. On this account, viewing broadly the content of series International Express in general and International Express (Pre-Intermediate) in particular, it is found that there are incoherent and not practical factors in the content of the book. For example, looking at the table of content of the book (Students' book) we can see, each unit will all have:

- Language Focus

- Word Power

- Skill Focus

- Focus on Function

It is undeniable that there are enough four basic skills for learning and teaching. However, when scanning the content and the topic given in this textbook, it will be a big challenging and difficult for teachers to design a syllabus no matter that is a Product – Oriented Syllabus or Process – Oriented Syllabus.

One more evidence about the incompetent topic of this book, in unit – about Plans and Arrangements, the topic for Language Focus is about 'Global Training' which might bore the Vietnamese learners since they have no ideas about this and in Vietnam, it is not available. Moreover, it is not a good lead-in if the author of the book wants to introduce the grammar point: 'Future: Present Continuous' because when reading the article, there are not many relations and sentences with Present Continuous. Besides, referring to the Language Focus, it is formatted in the whole book that Grammatical Structure is presented in the way of Inductive – Grammar Teaching.

The good point here is that this way makes the book have a synchronous format. Nonetheless, it is also the bad point for not presenting various

illustration and presentation forms and structures when teaching Grammar. Then the learners have not many ways to expose themselves the some methods of learning which might make them not to be active in thinking and relating grammar points.

In terms of vocabulary in the book, it is obvious that teachers, as well as learners will meet with a lot of vocabulary with various topics. However, the author of this book seems to ignore the importance of Bloom's Taxonomy of Learning Domains, which shows scientifically the ways, which a learner can do well in learning a new language. In addition, the point is that the huge amount of vocabulary are presented and illustrated separately. Furthermore, there are so differences between active vocabulary and passive vocabulary. In the other words, some key vocabularies are not appeared or mentioned frequently in one unit. Thence, teachers will find it hard to present the passive and active vocabulary, and learners will have difficulty in learning and remembering new words.

Finally yet importantly about the content, that is the vocabulary once again. For a variety of topic, the vocabulary in this book is also with a large amount. Therefore, if designing the course as a topical syllabus, it means the teacher and the learner will focus mainly on the content and the topic, the grammatical forms are not presented sufficiently and practically. Moreover, it will be difficult for teachers to choose an adequate content and make the balance between content and grammar.

Therefore, with those problems, learners will find it is hard to know 'what is available to learn' in such a large forest, and teachers will be headache to decide, 'What should be taught' so that both teachers and learner will not get lost.

Strongly influenced by Grammar – Translation Method, in Vietnam, when adopting a coursebook, it will be easy to notice that the dominated focus will be set on teaching Reading and Grammar. Therefore, in International Express, teachers care a lot about the topic, the vocabulary and the grammar structure. In concerning of these factors, this essay will review some studies about some strategies and problems of teaching vocabularies and scrutinize the effects of teaching grammar.

Firstly, vocabulary understanding is the rudiment foundation for reading comprehension. And there is the obvious connection between vocabulary and comprehension. Concerning about teaching Vocabulary in this book, there are enough Pre, While and Post – presenting in every reading passage of this course book. However, vocabulary hasn't reviewed and presented effective enough in International Express (Pre-Intermediate). In a study, Celce–Murcia and Rosens Weig (1989) said vocabulary should be recognized as a principal component in language instruction from the beginning stages. Therefore, some items of new words should be introduced at the very first stage of the lesson so that the learners can comprehend the content of the reading passage. In addition, Celce – Murcia and Rosens Weig also emphases that if learners have a sufficient stock of vocabularies on the whole stage of the lesson, they will find confidently to achieve the efficiency in communication rather than exposing to a lot of functions or structures without understanding the meaning. For some cases, this book uses Definition Approaches, in other cases it used Contextual Approaches, and sometimes, there is also the combination of Definition Approaches and Contextual Approaches. In a book written by William E. Nagy about Teaching Vocabulary to Improve Reading Comprehension, he has shown some problems of these approaches.

In terms of teaching vocabulary with definition approaches, the learners will involve only on the synonym or definition of the instructed new words. As a result, in the view of Bloom's Taxonomy, students just learn the 'superficial level of word knowledge' (William, Nagy, 1975) and therefore it cannot dependably upgrade reading comprehension. Secondly, by Contextual Approaches, this is a much more effective than definition approaches. Nevertheless, in comparison with other vocabularies instructions, it is still an inefficient technique when teaching vocabulary because, if the learners know most of the vocabularies in the context, this way will be helpful and vice versa. Finally, the combination of Defination Approaches and Contextual Approaches is much more effective than any isolated techniques, in which increase reading comprehension (Stahl and Fairbanks, 1986).

Furthermore, another good method in teaching vocabulary that highly appreciated in this book is the Collocation – which is used in some units for

Skills Focus. In the research conducted by Ozgul Balci (International Journal of Research Studies in Language Learning, 2011) reported that Lexical Approach, introduced by Michael Lewis, focuses on improving learners' proficiency with lexis, or words and word combinations (Lewis, 1993,p.95).By the Lexical Approach, particular attention is directed to collocations and expressions that include institutionalized utterances and sentence frames and heads. Besides Lewis affirms, we deliberatively try to think of collocations, and to present these collocations in our expressions instead of individual words. That is to say, instead of trying to break things into ever smaller pieces, we have a conscious effort to see things in larger, more holistic ways (Lewis, 1997).

In understanding and using a new lexical item, it is not only used separably but in the combination with other words. Therefore, teaching vocabularies by Collocation Approaches is one of the very effective methods.

Secondly, that is teaching grammar. Grammar could be taught in many methods. For the context of Vietnam, grammar in this book can be taught effectively in inductive way as the book has shown. However, that is not the only way. According to David Nunan, in textbook, Grammar is usually presented out of the text, therefore, one suggestion for teaching grammar effectively is teaching grammar in context. The learner will receive some isolated sentences and then induct the structures of those sentences. As a result, any English teachers will introduce learners to see that effective communication involves achieving harmony between functional interpretation and formal appropriacy (Halliday 1985) by giving them tasks that dramatize the relationship between grammatical items and the discoursal contexts in which they occur. Therefore, David Nunan also suggests some methods to teach grammar:

- teaching language as a set of choices;

- providing opportunities for learners to explore grammatical and discoursal relationships in authentic data;

- teaching language in ways that make form/function relationships transparent

- encouraging learners to become active explorers of language

- encouraging learners to explore relationships between grammar and discourse.

(David Nunan, 1998, p.104)

OTHER RECOMMENDATIONS

In order to apply the 'International Express' series effectively, with all the problems mentioned above, in teaching Reading skills or using Reading passages as the lead in for Language Focus, the book should choose the familiar , related and also interested – enough topics that can motivate the learners. Furthermore, the vocabulary in each reading passages should not be too much complicated. As an international course book, then, the topic should be international enough in order that the learners from all over the world will find that they are not reading some nonsense passages. If possible, that would be exciting if there are games to revise vocabularies. Besides, applying Bloom's Taxonomy for teaching and presenting new words, and also, using some exercises and techniques for learning and teaching Reading such as: skimming, scanning or S3QR so that the students can do well and effectively in their learning.

About teaching grammar, as mentioned, grammar should not be introduced inductively only. As Hidalgo, Hall & Jacobs, 1995; Tomlinson cited in Richards, 2010 that ELT materials should stimulate interaction between students. Therefore, a grammar point can also be taught as a speaking or listening lesson which includes that grammar point. It is said that practice makes perfect, thereforethn it is no reason that we let students use the grammar point that they've just learning right away in their speaking or even listening skills. It is agreeable that students also need to know how to write, but whenever they can use that point well, it is certainly that they might write it well.

Thirdly, this book should be more well organized so that teachers or learners can consider it as a ready-to-use materials, as there are too many unnecessary points in this book. For example, in Skills Focus in Unit 12, there are twelve small parts. It is too many. Instead, the author could give situations for practicing.

Next, for Focus on Functions, there should be more and clear functions of speaking demonstrated in the book so that students can easily learn them.

Sometimes, it is also able to combine Skills Focus and Focus on Functions, then, why don't we combine these two parts together?

CONCLUSION

To sum up, with all the descriptions and suggestions given above for the 'International Express' course book, it is expected to shed a light to improve and renew the used-to-be-famous course book, so that it can be applied flexibly for any teaching and learning context as well as for any syllabus designs. As Cunningsworth aslo suggested that:

> No coursebook will be totally suited to a particular teaching situation. The teacher will have to find his own way of using it and adapting it if necessary. So, we should not be looking for the perfect coursebook which meets all of our requirement, but rather for the best possible fit between what the coursebook offers and what we as teachers and students need. (1984, p.89)

Therefore, teacher should examine thoughtfully a coursebook before applying it for teaching context, syllabus design and so on.

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CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT IN COLLABORATION WITH EMPLOYERS: A VIABLE VISION?

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ABSTRACT

In Vietnam, from tertiary level and above, there is a growing trend to integrate the needs of employers into curriculum development. It has been assumed that vocational-oriented programs are more influenced by external stakeholders, have more practical goals, and provide more competent workforce for the labor market than academic-oriented programs. The latter, nevertheless, also shares the same mission as the former, i.e. training and equipping learners with an appropriate level of expertise required for particular jobs in the market. Ultimately, the leaners in any programs all have a desire for proper employment after graduation. Previous studies, however, have not fully addressed the significance of engaging employers in developing higher education curriculum, especially for academic-oriented programs. This paper reviews the literature on engaging employers in developing curriculum through collaboration around the world as well as in contexts similar to Vietnam. It focuses on identifying the conditions to facilitate this collaboration, its benefits and barriers. It is expected that this review would become part of a research project and will contribute to future studies on curricular topics.

Key words: *curriculum development, employer engagement, collaboration*

BACKGROUND

Over the past decades, higher education has been described as a driver of economic competition in the knowledge-based economy. The imperative for higher education is to raise higher skills of graduates and professionals, to sustain an internationally competitive research, and to improve knowledge dissemination for the benefits of the industries and society more generally.

However, it has been criticised that education does not have much relevance to the real world and that knowledge production carried out is in the absence of some practical goals. This reality has therefore contributed to recognising and promoting a closer relationship between higher education and the world of work. This shift towards collaboration between higher education and industries may deeply affect research, teaching, funding and other important areas of the academic world.

One important element of change that will play a dominant part is the vocationalism of higher education. There is a growing trend to integrate the needs of employers and workplace in higher education curriculum. This relationship is the coming together of the student learning experience with the world of work, which was once part of the hidden curriculum but now it is becoming part of the "explicit curriculum" (Foskett, 2005, p. 253). In policy terms, discussions have been around developing a "partnership" between the state, employers and individuals, with all expected to "play their part" in upskilling the nation (Brown, et al., 2004, p. 45). In consequence, there has been seen a move to encourage colleges and universities to develop appropriate curricula in line with government priorities, and to do this by delivering courses through collaboration with employer partners and higher education institutions. At operational level, such extrinsic pressures initiated the efforts by many higher education institutions for the effectiveness and responsiveness to some perceived needs of employers. The initiative may focus on how universities will need to redesign their organisational structures and management priorities to foster such links and provide a favourable setting in which collaborative arrangement can flourish (Kezar, 2004).

If the relation between higher education and enterprises in the West is described as "a gap to be bridged", that relation in Vietnam is a larger gap as universities and employers in Vietnam are "standing too far from each other". In many Western countries, the gap has been bridged in many ways already: conducting research on employers' perceptions of graduates' skills, embedding the skill-agenda into the curriculum, work-based learning programs, and providing a career service in each university. In Vietnam, these types of initiatives are new. The connection between the university and firms "still faces many hurdles" (Tran, 2006, p. 14). There are few

points of connection, thus little mutual understanding between universities and employers. Employers continue to complain about the graduates' shortage of skills. Universities have not responded, and as a consequence, the opportunities for skill development centers "are now appearing like mushrooms after rain in Vietnam" (Tran, 2015, p. 58). Students and graduates seem to hope that after taking these courses, they will obtain the target skills to help their resumes and to learn more about employer needs. Nobody tells them that skills need time and real practice to develop (Helyer et al., 2011; Wickramasinghe & Perera, 2010; Yorke & Harvey, 2005).

It is believed that the world of work has been an extrinsic strong influence on the design of the curriculum at higher education (Barnett et al., 2001). By this way, it can impose content, methods or structures that will improve education. For instance, the development of competencies, especially professional expertise, requires integration of different types of knowledge and interaction between theory and practice. Close collaboration and partnership between higher education and workplace is essential to realize this pedagogical principle. In many cases of collaborative programs, the students and staff work closely with employers through the curriculum in their work-based learning modules and in the professional development assignments (Foskett, 2003). The sources of employers' input, along with educators' own expertise and analytical assessment, are thought to contribute to the goals of (1) the creation of a well-rounded student with broad-based professional and academic skills; and (2) the preparation of students to function effectively in their chosen occupations (McCuddy et al., 2008, p. 612).

Although the development of curricula for this purpose is often suggested as an area for cooperation between higher education institutions and world of work, evidence of the innovative practices has not yet informed certain ambiguities surrounding such joint initiatives. Such approaches can pose challenges to the structure, system and culture within higher education institutions. Specifically, the workforce markets, whether individual employee or employer, require new models of teaching and learning (Wedgwood, 2006, p. 5): the responsiveness and integration; the content of courses; the way they are delivered and assessed; the student support system; the involvement of the employer and company; the administration;

and the marketing, etc. These themes remain a complex and problematic area without clear or obvious solutions.

This paper, therefore, suggests that there is a sound rationale for investigating the ongoing employer-higher education institution collaboration discourse through curriculum at a practical level. The research problem, accordingly, is stated as:

How can employers and higher education institutions collaborate effectively in curriculum development?

To address this issue, the following aspects will be further explored:

1) How do researchers define collaboration, employer engagement, and curriculum development?

2) What research has been done on collaborating with employers in curriculum development?

LITERATURE REVIEW

1. Perspectives on collaboration, employer engagement, and curriculum development

In a recent report, Connor and Hirsh (2008) conclude that employer influence on higher education mainly comes through active collaboration, and a higher education institution locates such cooperative relationship as the design and delivery of its own management program. "Collaboration" involves cooperation sharing "the ultimate commitment between two organizations because they involve sharing risks, responsibilities, resources and rewards" (Polenske, 2004, p. 1029), but it is usually less formal than a binding, legal contract and responsibilities may not shared equally; while "partnership" is a contractual relationship involving close cooperation two or more parties having specified and joint rights and responsibilities. In this sense, when the employer-higher education institution cooperation is considered as "a relationship involving close cooperation and joint rights and responsibilities between employers and a higher education institution that produces mutually beneficial outcomes" (Walker, 2009, p. 12)", but in general it is based on more informal relationships rather than a formal and

fully "partnership" according to the intensity of cooperation and scale of intervention, the notion of "collaboration" will be used to define their relationship.

Employer engagement is the central theme for any institution-employer relationships. Various definitions and conceptions exist within these relationships and amongst its stakeholders. There is no single agreed definition of what "employer engagement" means and its meaning often depends on the context in which the term is used. Where employer engagement is defined, it is often defined as either:
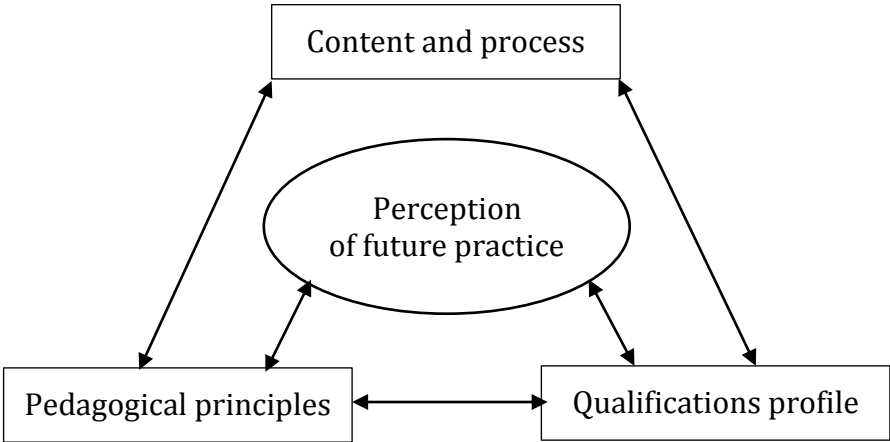
- a process through which employer directly participates in activity facilitated by an external organization in pursuit of shared objectives (SSDA, 2007, p. 3)

- or an outcome, where higher level of engagement is achieved by "encouraging businesses to invest in training and to get involved with the design and delivery of that training" (Cooper et al., 2010, p. 8)

In terms of collaborative curricula or programs, types of employer engagement might include discussions about skills, qualification and training requirements; employers' involvement in curriculum working groups, designing courses, etc.; employers offering students work-based learning opportunities, projects, placements, work experience; provider/employer/learner negotiated programs to support continuing professional and workforce development etc. (Scesa & Williams, 2008, p. 2).

Stark (1998) stated that the type of service and competencies that professional programs provide, the underlying values and the educational content are negotiated with external community of practitioners, for instance with employers and representatives for the professional field, or joint councils of academics and practitioners. When the link is well developed, practitioners/employers' influences affect professional requirements, accreditation standards, codes of professional ethics, and provisions of integrative opportunities for students (Stark, 1998, p. 367). This calls for employer engagement along several lines (i.e. different work-based learning relationships with employers, consortium professional

programs, etc.), and the curriculum becomes a core site, which requires greater collaboration between educators and practitioners/employers. In this regard, Junghagen (2005) introduced a conceptual model for curriculum development (Figure 1):

Figure 1. Curriculum development model (Junghagen, 2005, p. 72)

```
         ┌─────────────────────────┐
         │   Content and process   │
         └─────────────────────────┘
                 ↑             ↑
            ╭─────────────────────╮
            │      Perception     │
            │   of future practice │
            ╰─────────────────────╯
          ↕           ↕         ↕        ↕
┌─────────────────────────┐    ┌─────────────────────────┐
│  Pedagogical principles │ ↔  │  Qualifications profile │
└─────────────────────────┘    └─────────────────────────┘
```

In this model, four dimensions are expected to develop by working with employers. The central dimension of the model is defining a perception of future practice. This perception is expected to develop over time and is dependent on information gathered by way of ongoing relations with industry through research activities, student projects in industry, or Advisory Board, etc. This perception then gives rise to a certain qualification profile of graduates needed to live up to the requirements in future practice. These two dimensions constitute competency goals/learning outcomes for the study program. To reach competency goals requires the presence of content and process of programs and pedagogical principles, both of which are aligned with the competency goals (Junghagen, 2005, p. 73). Junghagen's model indicates that both the content and process dimensions of curriculum is important for institution-employer collaboration, and these different dimensions need to be taken into account when constructing a curriculum.

2. Prior research on collaborating with employers in curriculum development

2.1. Institution-employer collaboration in curriculum design and delivery

Current research continues the employability and workforce development discourses raising issues on the effectiveness of various methods of collaborating with employers in curriculum development. In practice, the institution-employer relationships identified have formed a number of case studies where employers' higher learning needs are being met by higher education institution providers. These studies give examples of a number of forms of collaboration ranging from the provision of customized single company (Keithley & Redman, 1997) or consortium programs (Smith & Betts, 2003) for MBAs and other specialist awards such as foundation degrees; teaching company schemes (Peattie, 1993); and different work-based learning programs, etc. The following part will first look at relevant studies regarding institution-employer collaboration in curriculum planning and design and then discuss their collaboration in curriculum delivery.

Collaboration in curriculum planning and design

Current research shows that employers have shared responsibility for curriculum planning, offer support through improved needs and labor market analysis for providing focused programs of learning (Schneider & Pickett, 2006). This has been conducted in consultation with employers, sector group, or the established network with employers. Another key theme in this regard concerns identifying graduates' skills and competencies based on surveys and interviews aimed at what employers require of graduates. Cox & King (2006) presented a "skills set approach" to identify skills sets in relation to the established industry roles through interviews with employers in the computer and information industry. Ferrin et al. (2001) described the use of Delphi study technique for curriculum design by obtaining opinions from a selected group of practitioners on the skills and competencies needed by graduates being hired for entry level positions in purchasing and materials management positions. In Vietnam, Truong (2006) also conducted a large survey with university graduates, staff and employers on the skills which he claimed to represent the quality

of graduates from business master programs in Vietnam. He suggested that 19 skills (e.g. problem-solving skills, critical analysis, etc.) should be included and integrated in curriculum design for business students; and called for a collaboration between universities and employers in this process.

Collaboration in curriculum delivery

In terms of course delivery, collaboration with employers is often through "live" work-based assignment and learning that can provide students with the opportunity to undertake problem-solving tasks in a "real world" situation. These are achieved either by employers teaching as a guest speaker (Ducrotoy, 2001) or by students having a work placement or other structured work experience programs with an employer. For instance, Neumann and Banghart (2001) described the need and how a "consulternships" was established and managed through institution-industry partnership based on a case study, where management students were placed on in-company consultancy projects to act as consultants and analysts. The authors conclude that the development of the relationship between the employer and the institution needs careful management. Employers need to contribute to the learning environment through its creation and management. In Vietnam, however, skill development not only contains significant shortcomings but is also mismatched with employers' needs. Tran and Swierczek (2009) suggested three reasons for this "obscure area" of skill delivery in Vietnam's universities; firstly, universities are still focused primarily on explicit knowledge; secondly, the curriculum design is still deprived of market-orientation; and thirdly, there is a lack of concern for employers' needs in most universities (p. 580).

2.2. Institution-employer collaboration and employer engagement: barriers and good practice

Potential barriers to effective work-related program developments in such institution/employer relationship have been identified in the related literature. Reeve and Gallacher (2005) defined them as: limited evidence showing that employers wish to engage; cultural differences in the partnership (i.e. the incompatibility of the aims of the two stakeholders, particularly the different understandings in terms of knowledge); and

unfavorable institutional settings. Consistent with the arguments of Reeve and Gallacher (2005), Hillier and Rawnsley (2006) highlighted the similar issues in their study. They advised caution assuming that employers can fully participate in the design, delivery and assessment of any new work-based learning program; and employers may continue to resist engagement in education since their main activity is to run a successful business which makes a profit. In terms of collaboration in assessment, Sheehan (2004) further pointed out that there are issues surrounding the nature and level of employer engagement in terms of commitment levels, available time and consistency of judgment. Quality assurance issues can also be problematic in this regard.

Previous studies have also informed lots of good practice which will contribute to refining the curriculum and skills about working in such partnerships. When analyzing a case of collaborative work-based learning curriculum, Benefer (2007) perceives the key success factors in a more general way as: strong vocational focus, involvement of employer in designing and providing "real" projects, integration of work-based learning and academic learning, and student support by company-based mentoring, etc. To achieve this, university should develop work experience activities and consultation with professional bodies and regionally-based groups (Morgan et al., 2004), recognize what is good in workforce learning and development, and add values to employer through higher education.

CONCLUSION

In short, key stakeholders and partner employers are involved in program and curriculum design and development to some extent. Employer involvement is mixed and varied, depending on the nature and type of the degrees and programs. Previous studies have indicated that it is difficult to design and implement collaborative curricular activities within a range of disciplinary traditions and in the complexity of a variety of institution-employer relationships. Nevertheless, the literature review has also shed light on some practice for achieving effective institution-employer collaboration. Therefore, it is potential for employers and higher education institutions to collectively act in developing a successful curriculum for mutual benefits.

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INTERCULTURAL COMCOMMUNICATION, ENGLISH AS AN INTERNATIONAL LANGUAGE AND PROJECT-BASED LEARNING

STUDENTS' PERCEPTION OF THE ADVANTAGES AND DISADVANTAGES OF STUDYING PRONUNCIATION AND SPEAKING WITH FOREIGN TEACHERS

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ABSTRACT

Teachers play an important role in the classroom, especially in teaching skills relating to vocal communication. This study aims to survey 46 Master's students of TESOL 10, Ho Chi Minh City Open University, on the advantages and disadvantages of studying speaking and pronunciation with foreign English teachers. The result showed that 35 students (76.1%) have already studied speaking and 26 students (56.5%) have had a chance to study pronunciation with foreign teachers. Data on their perceptions towards the reasons why they liked studying with the foreign teachers were gained from questionnaires. It also made some suggestions for better ways of teaching speaking and pronunciation more effectively in the field of English language.

Keywords: *students' perception, speaking, pronunciation, English teacher*.

INTRODUCTION

English is the most widely-used and widely- learned language in societies outside its original home in the modern society (Foley, 2011). It is the most important global language in the world and thus has the greatest status as a world lingua franca (Foley, 2014; Melitz, 2015). It achieves a genuinely global status when it develops a special role that is recognized in every country (Crystal, 2003). English has become a basic skill in the work place (Foley, 2011) and demands on an employee's competence in English are rising (Graddol, 2000). With the development of globalization and informatization, more and more people from different countries have been communicating and exchanging ideas with each other via English (Xue &

Zuo, 2013). Learners of all ages all around the world now have been learning English with different reasons. Many of them learn English because it is on the curriculum at their schools. Some of them learn English because they have to move to a country where English is the national language. The others learn for other purposes, for travelling or just for fun (Harmer, 2010). Çakir and Baytar (2014) stated that pronunciation is one of the most important aspects of a language, and speaking is the most important of all four skills including listening, speaking, reading and writing (Ur, 2012).

Besides the curriculum, the syllabus, and the materials for learning English such as books, videos, tapes, pictures, and so on, teachers are very important when teaching and studying a foreign language. With the fast development of English language, the number of English teachers from different nationalities has been increasing; therefore, the learners may have different perceptions when studying English with teachers from different countries, especially speaking skill and pronunciation. The focus on language education in the 21st century is mainly on using language to communicate and connect to other people around the world, it does not concentrate on grammar and memorization (Eaton, 2010). Speaking and pronunciation should be researched extensively at different levels because they have a close relationship in communication.

There has been a lot of research on learners' perception of the advantages and disadvantages of studying English with different kinds of English teachers (Alseweed, 2012; Tsou, 2013; Walkinshaw & Duong, 2012, 2014; Xiaoru, 2008). However, very few studies have been conducted to find the perception of master student when studying English with foreign English teacher in terms of speaking and pronunciation. The study sets out to survey TESOL Master's students' perception of the advantages and disadvantages of studying speaking skill and pronunciation with foreign English teachers.

LITERATURE REVIEW

It is very difficult to describe good teachers because different teachers often succeed in different ways (Harmer, 2010). English teachers have been

divided into two groups: the native and non-native English-speaking teachers. The term "non-native speaker" is often defined in contrast to the "native speaker" of a language, but it is very hard to define precisely (Luk & Lin, 2007). The term "native" and "non-native" have been used to refer to speakers of a language (Ulate, 2011). Nowadays, the number of non-native English-speaking teachers has been increasing and exceeds that of native English-speaking teachers in the world (Ma, 2012). The status of non-native teachers of English has been a controversial issue when this language started being taught internationally (Madrid & Canado, 2004).

Medgyes (1994) stated that native and non-native teachers differed from level of L2 competence and in term of teaching behaviours. Different teachers have different strengths and weaknesses, and teachers' ability depends on how students view individual teachers; it is certain that students will not express the same opinions (Harmer, 2010). In general, native teachers could speak English better than non-native ones and use it more naturally in means of communication in class (Árva & Medgyes, 2000; Madrid & Canado, 2004). Foley (2014) stated that Standard British or American English are often considered as the only acceptable norms for learning English. Madrid and Canado (2004) stated that native teachers can pronounce better because they master the language they teach. In the real situation, the same class should have both native and non-native teachers so that the students could get the better knowledge (Clouet, 2006) and develop English well. Xiaoru (2008) also agreed that each kind of teachers had its own strengths and weaknesses, so they should complement each other when teaching English.

In the future, the increasing of using of English will affect both local languages and English. The native and non-native English-speaking teachers should understand that language is not always consistent or perfect but it is progressing day by day (Foley, 2014). The research result by Madrid & Canado (2004) showed that the students' preferences for native teachers increased with their academic level. Eaton (2010) considered that the focus on language education in the current century is mainly on using language to communicate.

This research will find the perceptions of English-major master students

about the teachers from different countries, and also give some suggestions for better ways of teaching speaking and pronunciation in the field of English.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS

RQ1: *What are the perceptions of TESOL master's students about the advantages and disadvantages of studying speaking and pronunciation with foreign English teachers from different nationalities?*

RQ2: *What are the suggestions for teachers in order to teach speaking and pronunciation in English language more effectively?*

THE STUDY

Settings and participants

Ho Chi Minh City Open University is a state university which has the TESOL master program. This university enrolls student once a year, so each year has one batch. All the TESOL master students (100%) in the final year (the tenth batch) of Ho Chi Minh City Open University participated in this study.

Data collection and analysis

One cross-sectional survey was done to collect data by using the questionnaire. The questionnaire was designed by referring to the previous research (Ma, 2012; Torres, 2004; Walkinshaw & Duong, 2014). The questionnaire was written in Vietnamese so that the participants could understand clearly then it was translated into English later for the paper. Data were collected at one point of the time in April 2017 in the classroom of the school. The implementation of the data collection referred to the five steps in the process of data collection (Creswell, 2012).

Microsoft Office Excel and SPSS software (Statistical Package for Social Sciences version 20; SPSS Inc., Chicago, Illinois) were used for data entry and statistical analyses. Double entry was done to prevent from errors. Descriptive analysis, mainly the percentage was used for data analysis.

FINDINGS

Participants' information

There were 46 TESOL master's students in the final year of the training program participated in the research, in which 69.6% were female and 30.4% were male (Table 1). The other 12 students who dropped out at the time of collecting data were not included in the study.

Table 1. Participants' information

Gender	N	Percentage (%)
Male	14	30.4
Female	32	69.6
Total	46	100

The results from the study showed that 76.1% students (n=35) had already learnt speaking with foreign English teachers and 56.5% students (n=26) had a chance to study pronunciation with them (Table 2). It is understood that one student could study one skill with more than one teacher from different nationalities. For speaking skill, students had studied with teachers from the United States of American (71.4%), England (60.0%), Australian (51.4%), the Philippines (17.1%), Canada (14.3%) and New Zealand (2.9%). For pronunciation, students had studied with the teachers from the United States of American (69.2%), England (57.7%), Australian (19.2%), and the Philippines (7.7%).

Table 2. Percentage of students learnt speaking and pronunciation with foreign teachers

	N	Percentage (%)
Students learnt speaking with foreign teachers	35/46	76.1
With English	21/35	60.0
With American	25/35	71.4
With Australian	18/35	51.4
With Filipino	6/35	17.1
With Canadian	5/35	14.3
With New Zealander	1/35	2.9
Students learnt pronunciation with foreign teachers	26/46	56.5
With English	15/26	57.7
With American	18/26	69.2
With Australian	5/26	19.2
With Filipino	2/26	7.7

RQ1: Students' perception of studying speaking and pronunciation with foreign English teachers

Percentage of students liked studying speaking and pronunciation with foreign English teachers was showed in Table 3. For speaking, students liked studying with teachers from the United States of American (68.6%), England (45.7%), Australian (14.3%), the Philippines and Canada at 2.9%, no student chose the teachers from Canada. For pronunciation, students liked studying with the teachers from the United States of American (65.4%), England (53.8%), Australian (19.3%) and the Philippines (3.8%).

Table 3. Percentage of students liked learning with foreign teachers

	N	Percentage (%)
Students liked learning speaking with foreign teachers	35	
With English	16	45.7
With American	24	68.6
With Australian	5	14.3
With Filipino	1	2.9
With Canadian	1	2.9
With New Zealander	0	0
Students liked learning pronunciation with foreign teachers	26	
With English	14	53.8
With American	17	65.4
With Australian	5	19.3
With Filipino	1	3.8

Students' perceptions of studying speaking with foreigners varied (Table 4). The most important one was that teachers could use English more accurately, and the next one relating to the studying environment. Most of the students considered teachers from the United States (n=24) and England (n=16) had more advantages than the ones from the other countries such as Australia (n=5), the Philippines and Canada (n=1).

Table 4. Students' perceptions of studying speaking with foreign teachers

Students' perceptions	when studying speaking with teachers from					
	England (n=16)	USA (n=24)	Australia (n=5)	Philippines (n=1)	Canada (n=1)	New Zealand (n=0)
More accurately	13	14	3		1	
Learning environment	7	7	2	1	1	
Good method	5	7	1		1	
Easy to practise	4	9	2			
Easy to understand	4	5	3			
No shyness when asking	4	5	2			
Improve speaking faster	1	4	2			

For pronunciation, the most important perception from student when studying pronunciation was that teachers could use English more accurately, however, the next one was that it was much easier for student to practice pronunciation (Table 5). Most of the students also considered teachers from the United States (n=17) and England (14) had more advantages than the ones from Australia (n=5) and the Philippines (n=1). No student showed their perception to the teachers from Canada and New Zealand.

Table 5. Students' perceptions of studying pronunciation with foreign teachers

	when studying pronunciation with teachers from					
Students' perceptions	**England (n=14)**	**USA (n=17)**	**Australia (n=5)**	**Philippines (n=1)**	**Canada (n=0)**	**New Zealand (n=0)**
More accurately	13	13	4	1		
Easy to practise	6	8	2			
No shyness when asking	2	4	1			
Easy to understand	4	6	2			
Improve pronunciation faster	2	3	1			
Learning environment	1	2	1			
Good method	1	1	1			

In general, most students mentioned the advantages of studying speaking and pronunciation with foreign English teachers, only one commented that the way of teaching speaking by Canadian teacher was not suitable for the learners, so the benefits were not obtained.

RQ2: Students' suggestions for better ways of teaching speaking and pronunciation

There were ten suggestions for good ways of teaching speaking skill (Table 6). According to the students, the highest one was to design the environment and choose the suitable topics for learners practice (37.6%). The next one related to the method of teaching, they suggest that the

teachers should have good methods so that learners can learn and practice well (16.5%). The third one was that the teachers must pronounce accurately in order to be a sample for learners to follow (12.9%).

Table 6. Suggestions for good ways of teaching speaking skill

Contents	N	Percentage (%)
Design environment and topic to practice more	32	37.6
Have good method of teaching	14	16.5
Have accurate pronunciation	11	12.9
Make chance to practice with foreigners	7	8.2
Have good speaking skill	5	5.9
Design interesting and attractive topic to practice	5	5.9
Design suitable activity to practice	3	3.5
Have rich vocabulary	3	3.5
Use authentic material like video	3	3.5
Instruct learner suitable intonation	2	2.4
Total	85	100.0

Total suggestions for good ways of teaching pronunciation were less than suggestions for teaching speaking skill (Table 7). The most important one was to practice pronunciation regularly and more (33.3%). The next suggestion was similar to the one for speaking, it was that teachers must have accurate pronunciation (15.8%). The third one was that the teachers need to have good method of teaching (14.0%), and the three next suggestions relating to showing the model and giving feedback so that the learners can follow the samples and then correct mistakes.

Table 7. Suggestions for good ways of teaching pronunciation

Contents	N	Percentage (%)
Practice pronunciation regularly and more	19	33.3
Have accurate pronunciation	9	15.8
Have good method of teaching	8	14.0
Show video clip of foreigner to learner to follow	7	12.3
Be a standard teacher	6	10.5
Record students' pronunciation, show them and correct	5	8.8
Listen as much as you can	2	3.5
Combine listening, dictation, speaking	1	1.8
Total	57	100.0

DISCUSSION

Most of students in the research liked studying speaking and pronunciation with the teachers from the United States and England because they could use it as natural means of communication in the class (Árva & Medgyes, 2000; Madrid & Canado, 2004). However, the acquisition of a native-like accent is not the main objective of most of the language learners anymore and the need is that people can communicate successfully with other people who have different L1 language instead of treating a native norm as the goal of studying foreign language (Jenkins, 1998).

Using English accurately is the most important one voted by students in this study when they studied speaking and pronunciation with foreign English teachers. Obviously, the rise of international English will affect both local languages and English then it gives the increase to new hybrid language varieties (Foley, 2014), that is what the learners want to minimize.

Practice speaking and pronunciation more and more is the top suggestion in

this research. This agrees with Ur (2012) that learners should actually talk a lot as much time as possible. This practice can be done in the classroom, outdoor activities, meeting with foreigners. Get students to practice speaking in the classroom first because this activity provides rehearsal opportunity to practice real-life speaking (Harmer, 2010). Teachers need to model the short phrase or sentence to indicate the right stress and intonation and ask learners to imitate, also encourage them to say it again and again (Harmer, 2010; Scrivener, 2011). Models can be Video clips, listening texts, voices on cassettes, CD or teachers' performance in the class (Harmers, 2010).

Good method of teaching also considers the top three suggestions when teaching speaking and pronunciation. Teachers can be evaluated the excellent ones when studying at school, but they may not transfer their knowledge to the students effectively if they do not have the good methods for each skill or different content or lessons. There are a lot of famous and effective methods and teachers should use the suitable ones for teaching. The right methods should be applied for different skills in teaching English like teaching grammar, vocabulary, listening, reading, writing, speaking and teaching pronunciation (Doff, 1988; Ur, 2012). Teachers should understand that teaching pronunciation includes the sounds of the language, the rhythm, intonation and stress patterns (Ur, 2012) so that they should not use one method for this skill like Grammar Teaching Method or others and applying completely for speaking and pronunciation.

Showing model and giving feedback also had the high percentages of the suggestions for improving pronunciation. Some students want to be corrected their mistakes at the time they made mistake, whereas the other students would like to be corrected later because of shyness (Harmer, 2010). The problems of pronunciation from learners are varied from country to another (Doff, 1988). By any ways, the feedback and correction were very necessary for learners, especially for Vietnamese students who usually omit the ending sounds in English, also the ways of pronouncing Vietnamese are usually different from English. If teachers set up the properly activities and give useful feedback, learners can get satisfied result of studying (Harmer, 2010).

LIMITATIONS

The result showed the perceptions from TESOL Master's students in the second year in Ho Chi Minh City Open University about the advantages and disadvantages of studying speaking and pronunciation with foreign English teachers. It also gave suggestions for good ways of teaching these. Moreover, the findings can be used to provide the policy makers in foreign language training about learners' perception of studying English so that they can take into consideration the importance of teachers in teaching and learning English. However, the main limitation of the research is that the study only sampled the final-year Master's students at Ho Chi Minh City Open University. The further research should be conducted on a larger sample size.

CONCLUSION

Most TESOL Master's students preferred studying speaking and pronunciation with teachers from the United States of American. However, the main objective of learning is that people can communicate each other successfully instead of treating a native norm as the goal of studying foreign language.

Students' perceptions of studying speaking and pronunciation with foreign English teachers varied. The most important one was that teachers could use English more accurately. The next one was relating to the studying environment for speaking, and the easy way for student to practice for pronunciation. Most of the students considered teachers from the United States (n=24/35) and England (n=16/26) had more advantages than the ones from the other countries.

Practicing, pronouncing accurately and having good method of teaching were the three most important suggestions for the better teaching of speaking and pronunciation. Being a good teacher and using authentic materials are key factors when it comes to teaching speaking.

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USING PODCASTS TO ENHANCE INTERCULTURAL COMMUNICATIVE COMPETENCE IN ESL/EFL STUDENTS

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ABSTRACT

Under the impact of globalization and internationalization, English language learners are required to acquire not only the linguistic competence but also their intercultural communicative competence (ICC). This demand calls for the integration of developmental models regarding intercultural competence into the Communicative Language Teaching Approach. In other words, ESL/EFL teachers are looking for an applicable framework for applying those models into practical classroom learning activities. Meanwhile, besides textbooks, teachers want to take advantage of authentic language resources to expose students to how English is used in real-world cultural contexts. However, though recent empirical studies have offered the benefits of using podcasts as an authentic resource in English Teaching, they have not specifically touched on how its advantage could be used for developing students' ICC. The teachers are still struggling on their own with applying teaching tools available to improve students' intercultural communication. Filling this gap, the presenters attempt to weave the theoretical models into practical teaching. Two fundamental models of IC, which are the Cultural Iceberg Model Modified from Weave's Iceberg Analogy of Culture (1998) and Bennett's (1993b) Developmental Model of Intercultural Sensitivity (DMIS), are implemented into designing learning activities. Second, based on theoretical models, a comprehensive benchmark on how to select relevant podcast resources for expected ICC learning outcomes within each language level is proposed. Participants will walk away with an understanding about the role of ICC in present teaching landscape, the teachable objectives for each level and series of adaptable classroom-based tasks.

Keywords: *ICC, podcast, Cultural Iceberg Model, Developmental Model of Intercultural Sensitivity*

INTRODUCTION

According to Kumaravadivelu (1994), in line with increasing demands of the 21st-century education, the post-method pedagogies have emerged to highlight teachers and learners' autonomy, and constructivist learning. In the meantime, the growing globalization where speakers from different cultures use English as a tool for communicative purposes has led to English language teachers paying great attention to the demands of improving intercultural communicative competence (ICC). Therefore, to meet those objectives, their activities and materials can be organized according to a task-based approach for Intercultural Language Teaching, allowing students to stay engaged in *"meaning-focused linguistic and communicative activities involving in comprehending, producing and/or interacting in the target language…"* (Nunan, 1989). Byram (1996), derived from (Newton, Yates, Shrearen, and Nowitzki, 2015), stated *"intercultural speakers have competencies which enable them to mediate/interpret the values, beliefs, and behaviors of themselves and of others and to stand on the bridge or indeed be the bridge between people of different languages and cultures."*

In the meantime, reflecting on the availability of teaching resources, with the rapid development of the Internet and multimedia. English teachers have witnessed a shift to a digital Internet-based format and been offered a variety of options to explore and diversify their language teaching materials. Among all the authentic digital materials and resources available, podcasts, a type of digital auditory content which the users can subscribe, download and listen to, have emerged and demonstrated its critical role in exposing students to not only the abundant world of English's, but also the cultural concepts of native speakers and their ways of thinking. Because of its high-quality recording availability and its convenient access, as well as its content richness, podcasts have become appealing for educational purposes (Campbell, 2005; Nicole, 2006).

Therefore, in this discussion, we propose some activities using podcasts

that earn their unique characteristic to assist teachers in improving the student' ICC.

The Multiplex Landscape of Intercultural Communicative Competence (ICC)

In the English teaching landscape of globalized 21ˢᵗ century where classrooms are both more student-centered and culturally diverse, communicative language teaching approaches are highly recommended with the emphasis on students' abilities to reach intercultural awareness. Various existing theories have developed the coinage of communicative competence (CC) with more elaborate skills of "*Communication, Critical thinking, Creativity, and Collaboration*". Another theory opines that, "…language cannot function independently from the context in which it is used." (Liddicoat et al, 2003). Therefore, Intercultural Competence (IC) is essential to the process of learning English adequately. This evidence was highlighted (Sinecrope, Norris, and Watanabe, 2012)"*research on intercultural competence underscores the importance of preparing students to engage and collaborate in a global society by discovering appropriate ways to interact with people from other culture*" (cited in Moller, and Nugent, 2014).

Language reflects the culture in which it is used; therefore, its role is imperative, making learners proficient at communicating with other cultural people. Exposing students to an authentic environment means that allowing them to observe how interactional patterns are displayed on both on the linguistic and cultural level is highly recommended. Culturistic features can be integrated into language lessons in an explicit way, enabling students to apply competently a range of appropriate forms in languages in different contexts. Consequently, ICC is a precise output of English learning which is related to the encouragement of improving attitudes on cultural differences ranging from "*avoiding" (cultural difference)* to "*seeing the cultural difference*".

Elaborating on the teaching of culture, we can divide it into two sub-areas: Seeable and Unseeable, as the following diagram is adopted. For the lower levels, seeable features necessitate the learner's easy and adaptable progress with the other as critical in developing among those in higher

levels. High levels of culture, according to Jarvis in 2006, are "…all knowledge, skills, attitudes, beliefs, values, and emotions that we, as human beings, have added to our biological base. Culture is a social phenomenon; it is what we regard as a society, or a people with whom we share, and which enables us to live as a society for humanity to survive…". Culture is broadly contemplated in two opposing views that is "self-contained factual knowledge" or "knowledge out of context." With such profundity in the conceptualization of what constitutes a complete meaning of culture, it poses a challenge for researchers and teachers to make it teachable. Furthermore, from the pedagogical design, it is crucial to ensure that students receive "comprehensible input" which is language that goes just a step beyond the structures which second-language students have already acquired (see the Input Hypothesis (Krashen, 1985). In other words, the input should acknowledge the language at the students' current level of competence first, going from concrete and basic concepts to higher and more abstract concepts. For example, lower levels must be familiarized with prevalent "Visible Culture" first before approaching more complex layers of culture such as "Invisible Culture" and "Common Humanity."
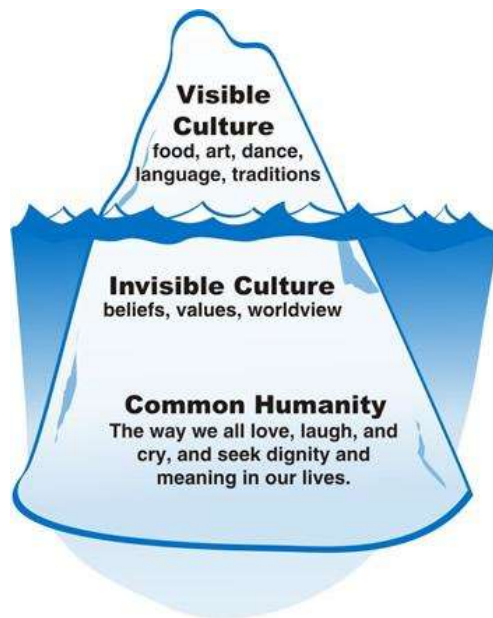
Figure 1 - Cultural Iceberg Model Modified from Weave's Iceberg Analogy of Culture (1998)

Another model we considered in this article focuses on the procedural development of intercultural competence. It was proposed by Bennett's (1993b)- Developmental Model of Intercultural Sensitivity (DMIS). DMIS allowed English speakers to respectfully interact with other interlocutors from distinct cultures (Sinecrope et al., 2012). Especially with that connection, this model "generates greater intercultural sensitivity and the potential for more intercultural competence" (Bennett, 2004).

	Development Stages		Orientation	
1	Denial	• Little idea about cultural differences • Own culture perceived as the only true reality • Foreign cultures are ignored	Ethno-centric world: Own culture seen as central reality	Development of intercultural sensitivity — Experience of difference
2	Defence	• Cultural differences more clearly • Stereotyping of foreign cultures • Own culture perceived as superior		
3	Minimali-zation	• "Everyone is equal" • Levelling of differences • Elements of own culture experienced as universal		
4	Acceptance	• Recognition of own cultural identity • Acceptance of other cultural contexts • Curiosity about and respect for other cultures	Ethno-relative worldview: own culture seen in the context of other cultures	
5	Adaptation	• Experience of foreign cultures leads to appropriate behavior and sensitivity • Easier communication • Ability to see the world from the point of view of other cultures		
6	Integration	• Own experience broadened to include multicultural points of view • Perception of oneself as "meandering through cultures" • Integration not necessarily the better prerequisite for intercultural competence than adaptation • Typical of long-term expats, "global nomads", "citizens of the world"		

Figure 2- Bennett (1993)'s DMIS

Regardless of how developmental stages are allocated in either *denial* or *defense* or *minimization* as they view their own culture as central in the worldview, learners with regard to their learning progress into *accepting* diverse cultures from which, in return, help them *adopt* new culture and finally *integrate* grounded on their competence to communicate with interlocutors effectively (Sinicrope, Norris, and Watanabe, 2007).

With the current teaching practice, according to Byram (1997), intercultural

speakers should know well about their own country and social groups, as well as the knowledge of interlocutor's country because they are relational. The second knowledge acquisition is concerned with the "knowledge of the processes of interaction at individual and societal levels" (Moeller & Osborn, 2014). However, when coming to attitude-related requirements, Byram pointed out that speakers unnecessarily feel instantly positive in the beginning. Rather, they need to be curious and open, so they are not prejudiced against cultural differences and are open for analyzing their viewpoints from others' perspectives. Lastly, skills of interpreting and relating coupled with discovery and interaction are the last puzzle. While the interpreting and relating skills are closely connected with their own prior knowledge, the discovery and interaction skills are rediscovered by documenting their observations when interactions occur between communicators, with the hope of surpassing any difficulties.

ICC is supported by the strong need for content related to the comprehensive layers of cross-cultures and cultural diversities. The argument is that, "…Discourse displaying exclusive native speaker use should be kept to a minimum as it is chiefly irrelevant for many learners in terms of potential use in authentic setting" (Alptekin, 2002) where learners were exposed to real forms of language across multiple populations. Hence, the emphasis should lay on the perspective of diversity in intercultural communication and how mutual cultural understanding can be developed. Meanwhile, the instruction of language with authentic materials is supposed to provide real context as they are performed by speakers from different backgrounds.

Podcasts Serves as a Tool to Enhance ICC in English Language Teaching

In the time of digital revolution and the Internet, the application of online materials and computer technology (as reviewed under Computer-Assisted Language Learning - CALL) is used to introduce the varied aspects of authenticity to English language learners. In support of this concept"…computer networks are a channel for interactivity and authenticity and for developing language learner's intercultural competence." (Hager, 2005) (cited from Liaw (2006)).

Among technological tools, CALL is used in the task-based approach, "podcast technology provides learners to get access to resources which are authentic, free, and otherwise not available in territories when target language is not spoken" (Gromik, 2008). So far, the relationship between using podcasts and developing effectiveness in foreign-language teaching for students can be evaluated by the following studies:

- *Podcasts are sources of education*: Ting (2011) argues that "*podcasts have incredible potentials for language learners*", not only as integrative and supplementary learning tools but also as "*powerful generators of knowledge*". Podcasts, as teaching materials, are an embodiment of ways, signaling students' empathy towards other cultures (Almaqrn & Alshabeb, 2017).

- *Podcasts are uniquely authentic*: Hasan and Hoon (2013) proved podcasts have provided learners with samples of materials and experiences with English as a medium of communication. When they listen to and comprehend podcasts, they will accept the fact that English learners realize multiple cultural conceptualizations when it comes to diversity. That is also re-examined by the intertwined language and culture.

- *Podcasts are flexible and comprehensive*: With the connection of Podcasts in learning, English-learners discover different aspects of communities' other than their own. Learners are ultimately enchanted with their most suitable listening recordings, ranging from the easiest to most challenging topic complexities. The podcast can be customized for personal understanding.

- *Podcasts are for everyone*: Podcasts are now increasingly widespread to cover economic, business, political, entertainment topics. Therefore, the wealth of world-cultural knowledge is far-reaching. Thus, despite podcasts from different cultures of global parts, learner's identity and understanding are challenged conceptually, which is expected to result in self-awareness in terms of cultural differences.

- Rostami et al (2017) discussed that teachers have claimed podcasts as a beneficial source of teaching materials. Stimulating students' curiosity and attitudes needs to be taken into consideration because learners

possess different degrees of educational and cultural backgrounds. Also, Bolliger and Armier (2013) stated that students can open a larger interaction with peers and in society if they are provided with a wealth of materials in specific topical matters.

Now, the puzzle here is how to design activities that can incorporate all highlighted features from Bennett's (1993) DMIS model and Bryham (1997)'s model into podcasts used to "*prepare students for cross-cultural encounters*" (Bennett, 2004).

With the models and the benefits of podcasts suggested above, teachers can take advantage of the rich content in podcasts and take the intercultural communicative objectives into consideration. For instance, teachers can go through the following questions before planning the activities:

1. What is the topic of the podcast? How can this topic be integrated into the teaching of language and intercultural communication? Based on the Iceberg Model, can the level of my students be capable of relating to and discussing this topic (see Figure 1)?

2. What kinds of cultural concepts can students acquire after understanding this podcast excerpt? How can I build up those concepts through my activity's procedure (see all different development stages of Bennett in Figure 2)? Through the analysis of the podcast, can my students appreciate the cultural uniqueness and difference between their culture and the target culture? Can they interpret that awareness in English?

3. How can I assess my students' ICC after the activity? What are the expectations for their learning outcomes based on the stages suggested by Bennett (see Figure 2)?

After those general questions, teachers can write down the objectives of their activity. We will discuss how differently teachers of each level can take advantage of podcasts in the following sections.

IMPLICATIONS FOR LANGUAGE TEACHING

Intercultural communicative language teaching focuses on the integration of culture and language, and it takes a long time to scaffold and build up a

student's cultural awareness and his or her intercultural competence. For beginners, this can be quite challenging because culture is an intricate and sophisticated area, and because beginners have a limited range of vocabulary and sentence structures. However, since we know that there is a connectedness of culture and language, teachers teaching beginning levels can overcome the linguistic obstacles. They can encourage learners to be actively involved with cultures through their exploration of language, their interaction with input related to topics about the cultural worlds, and their conceptualizations of culture through vocabulary learning. For example, instead of merely teaching a lifeless and mechanical greeting dialogue, such as:

A: Good morning! How are you?

B: I am fine. Thank you, And you?

the teacher can expose students to authentic greeting exchanges through using podcasts with a real interactional situation where people from different cultural backgrounds are introduced to each other. Furthermore, distinctive aspects of each culture such as the family relationships, the organization of rooms in some house or common expressions to show politeness, or cultural festivals and holidays are all appropriate topics that can be introduced naturally at the beginning stages. Those topics are vivid, observable, describable and relatable, which can be expressed with a certain basic degree of lexis and grammar. The most important thing is after the exposure to the podcast, the teacher needs to create an interactional experience for students in which to engage so they can strengthen their vocabulary learning to express simple concepts related to cultural topics. On this level, students take advantage of the podcasts as a source of exposure and language immersion, through which they imitate and recite norms of the cultural practice of their own country and other countries.

With intermediate students, teachers can give them topics related to their critical thinking beyond just the familiar and common topics. They can start with topics related to prevalent meaning or values they wish to convey. For example, with the vocabulary teaching about clothes, intermediate students can become involved with activities using podcasts to listen about how clothes represent the people's beliefs and their abilities of creativity with local textile materials. With this level, teachers can employ podcasts as a

tool for modeling and stimulate the reflections on cultural topics for students. Teachers facilitate students to use the English language as a tool to communicate effectively in the norms of interactional situations with native speakers and to address the meaning of ubiquitous cultural matters.

For advanced students, students approach cultural topics through the process of conceptualization and the analytic thinking. They know not only the cultural knowledge but also how to integrate their knowledge into solving cultural problems and articulate their cultural understanding in the relation to other cultures' perspectives. Students equip themselves with the input from the podcast to upgrade their understanding of the topic and justify the rationale beyond their cultural attitudes and behavioral decisions. Therefore, on this level, podcasts play a role of an incitement for deeper analysis and evaluation, which would result in selecting and operating the language skillfully to handle cultural communication. After listening to the podcast, students need to know how to apply their reflection in their own real-world interaction, and in return, may create a language production, such as their own podcast, to proclaim their elaborate inquiry in the target culture.

From the theoretical background, we have presented above, we propose a checklist for teachers to consider integrating those models into their lesson planning for different language levels of students.

Checklist for adapting a podcast

      If students familiarize themselves with podcasts or not, teachers should provide a brief introduction to podcasts. At the heart of this task is to arouse student's curiosity and subsequently attract their attention. Teachers, who may wish, can follow the guidelines or reorganize the various contexts that help build the better understanding of podcasts.

Beginner

1. The cultural topics should be familiar for a foreigner to relate to. The more similar background knowledge the students have regarding the topic, the better they can comprehend the cultural messages and the language use.

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2. The language use should be understandable and teachable. That means that the words and expressions are frequently used in normal and daily conversations or situations. More concrete words can be found in the script than abstract words.

3. The length of the podcast or its excerpt the teacher chooses should be no longer than 3 minutes.

4. The rate of language delivery should be slow and be relaxing to listen to.

5. There should not be a lot of background noise, and the voice of the speaker is clearly pronounced.

Intermediate

1. The cultural topics can be explained based on student's understanding and interpretation of their country's beliefs and values. The students can become aware of and comprehend the distinction in their country's beliefs beyond a common cultural practice.

2. Students can pay more attention to the variety of linguistic expressions which can be used to address their communicative needs in a situation in the target culture. Students can comprehend and use appropriate linguistic structures in a conversational situation in a natural way.

3. The length of the podcast or its excerpt the teacher chooses should be no longer than 3 minutes.

4. The rate of language delivery can be natural with longer chunks of expressions or with uses of communication strategies.

5. The voice of the speaker can demonstrate different common dialects in the target culture.

Advanced

1. The cultural topics can approach the comparative views of abstract and comprehensive topics of cultural humanity such as cultural identity, cultural assimilation, and globalization, cultural loss, etc.

2. Students can use appropriate linguistic structures as a tool for

intercultural communication effectively and flexibly. Students can engage in discussion and debate related to cultural issues.

3. The length of the podcast or its excerpt the teacher chooses can be extensive to twenty-minute audio.

4. The rate of language delivery demonstrates native speakers' natural speech production speed.

5. The voice of the speaker can demonstrate different dialects in the target culture.

Moreover, for each activity we suggest here, we take into consideration Bennett's developmental model with a view toward designing the objectives for each level to achieve the desired goals of intercultural communicative competence. Students in lower levels build their foundation to appreciate their own culture and then embark on the gradual shift to embrace the cultural differences between theirs and the others. The result is that when students achieve an advanced level of their linguistic competence, they also know how to execute their linguistic resources to exhibit their intercultural perception and application.

Students' proficiency level	Recommended podcast stations
Beginners	Podcast in English: https://www.podcastsinenglish.com/pages/level1.shtml VOA News https://learningenglish.voanews.com BBC Podcasts https://www.bbc.co.uk/programmes/p02pc9zn/episodes/downloads https://www.bbc.co.uk/programmes/p02pc9zn/episodes/downloads https://learnenglish.britishcouncil.org/en/learnenglish-

	podcasts/series-01-episode-03?_ga=2.11722100.1919561440.1507108422-1845707002.1507108422
Intermediate	Voice of America: https://learningenglish.voanews.com/programs/radio
	General English https://dyned.libsyn.com
	https://pronuncian.com/podcasts/
	https://www.eslpod.com
	https://realenglishconversations.com/phrasal-verbs-podcast/
Advanced	National Public Radio (NPR): https://www.npr.org/podcasts/
	This American Life: https://www.thisamericanlife.org/
	Freakonomics: http://freakonomics.com/

In conclusion, this article has offered a new pedagogical application in English Language Teaching by weaving two models which construct the foundation conceptual theories of ICC altogether. As a result, the authors propose practical checklists for English practitioners to integrate ICC into classroom practices, using podcasts as an authentic language resource. The promising aspects of this framework and the above checklist shall lie in equipping students with contextual construction when using English and their real-world interactions with other students from diverse cultural backgrounds, who also use English as a lingua franca for communication.

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Hanh Do is an experienced teacher who was regarded as successful of TOEFL-iBT courses, and she has been the full-time teacher for nearly 4 years at various Vietnam-based schools, which was her great advantage. Her Master's degree in TESOL from Murray State University has encouraged her to move up to the research degree as she wishes to contribute more impacts to the development of ELT in Vietnamese landscape. Hanh's research focus is on Curriculum development and Material design.

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EXPERIENTIAL LEARNING DEVELOPS STUDENTS' ICC: A CASE OF VIETNAMESE INTERMEDIATE LEARNERS

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ABSTRACT

The study aims to develop Vietnamese intermediate university-level learners' intercultural communication regarded as necessary in the interconnected world against inequality and advocated diversity. Kolb's experiential learning and Byram's ICC model served as theoretical underpinnings of this study. The study encompassed a total of eight students who were currently obsessed with native-like accurate usage of English language which directly triggered little cognizance of effective and appropriate communication. According to Kolb's 4-stage cycle (Concrete Experience-CE, Reflective Observation-RO, Abstract Conceptualization-AC, Active Experiment-AE), participants associated with the project's goal joined in the 5-week project. They were presented with a series of collaborative activities such as workshops with multi-cultural English-speaking guests, critical-thinking with narratives and mini-presentations, theory-based lectures and academic reading assignments, and 2-week intergroup projects in chronological order. The study ran parallel to action research with qualitative data which were collected from multiple sources of observations and open-ended questionnaires administered after each activity. Upon completion, a majority of them reported to have sharply increased knowledge of their own and others' cultures, followed by the uplifted "curiosity, openness and suspend the disbelief and judgments with respect to other[s'] … behaviors" before being equipped with "skills of interpreting and relating, and skills of discovery and interaction" (Byram, 1997). Shortly, this study fueled the students' confidence and augmented their recognition of World Englishes to communicate effectively around contextual settings.

PROJECT-BASED LEARNING: FROM THEORY TO EFL CLASSROOM PRACTICE

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ABSTRACT

Project-based learning (PBL) emerges as a model that meets the needs of both teachers and learners in teaching and learning a foreign language effectively. Project-based learning drives teaching and learning in accordance with skills, engages learners into the learning process, motivates and develops learners' creativity. With an aim to shed light on some fundamental aspects of PBL in the literature, this paper focuses on answering the five following questions: (1) What is PBL?, (2) What are the key features of PBL?, (3) What is the process of the implementation of PBL?. (4) What are the benefits of PBL in EFL (English as a Foreign Language) classroom, and (5) What are the difficulties in implementing PBL? And some suggested projects are proposed for teaching English for elementary EFL students based on the author's two-semester experience of using the project-based approach in teaching English for first year non-English majors in a university in the north of Vietnam with the aim of increasing the students' motivation and autonomy. The addressing of the questions, to some extent, renders help to teachers and practitioners who are willing to apply PBL in their teaching practice.

Key words: *project-based learning, language learning, EFL, projects.*

INTRODUCTION

Based on the idea that students gain knowledge or skills by experiencing and solving real world problems, Project-Based Learning (PBL) has been recognized to be effective and fruitful in the 21st century education. A great number of studies on PBL have been carried out on the global scale (Lam, 2011).

Simpson (2011) states that PBL is not a new approach in general education. According to Beckett (2006) PBL can be traced back to the mid-1800s, and it was first created by David Snedden who taught science in American agriculture classes. Later, in the early 1900s, PBL was further developed by William Heard Kilpatrick, John Dewey's student, and focused on the need for learners to have a purposeful activity (Beckett, 2006; Muniandy, 2000; Wolk, 1994). As a matter of fact, learners had the opportunity to construct knowledge by generating their projects based on their interests and individual differences. They made connections between their new knowledge and their existing knowledge and were able to apply them to similar settings. They learnt in a meaningful context while creating an end product (Wrigley, 1998).

Primarily, PBL was widely implemented in science education (Kalvu, 2015). Projects are commonly used and have been extensively researched (Marx, Blumenfeld, Krajik, & Soloway, 1997; Krajik, Blumenfeld, Marx, Bass, Fredricks, & Soloway, 1998). However, PBL has also been incorporated into language education along with an increased interest in student-centered learning, autonomous learning, and collaborative learning (Hedge, 1993).

With an aim to shed light on some fundamental aspects of PBL, this paper focuses on answering the five following questions:

- What is PBL?
- What are the key features of PBL?
- What is the process of the implementation of PBL?
- What are the benefits of PBL in EFL classroom?
- What are the difficulties in implementing PBL?

And some suggested projects are proposed for teaching English for elementary EFL students. The addressing of the questions, to some extent, renders help to teachers and practitioners who are willing to apply PBL in their teaching practice and make the implementation more effective.

What is Project-based learning?

In the literature, there are different definitions of PBL proposed by various

researchers. As is discussed in Thomas (2000), PBL is "a model that organizes learning around projects" (p.1). "Projects" are described as "complex tasks, based on challenging questions or problems, involving students in design, problem-solving, decision making, or investigative activities; giving students the opportunity to work relatively autonomously over extended periods of time; and culminating in realistic products or presentations" *(ibid.)*. The term "project" used in EFL context was proposed by Fried-Booth (1986, p.8) indicating that language tasks arise naturally from the project itself, "developing cumulatively in response to a basic objective, namely, the project." Hedge (1993) specifies projects as extended tasks which usually integrate language skills by means of a number of activities. These activities combine in working towards an agreed goal and may include the following: planning, the gathering of information through reading, listening, interviewing, and observing; group discussion of information; problem solving; oral and written reporting; and displaying.

With a new appoach to PBL, which is different from the mentioned authors focusing PBL as tasks, Stoller (2006) lists some key criteria for PBL:

- must be both process-oriented and product-oriented

- students must have a say in shaping the process and product

- must extend beyond a single class period

- must encourage skill integration

- must give students support in both language and content learning

- students must work in groups/pairs/teams as well as on their own

- must require students to be responsible for their own learning in the target language

- must allow for time to focus on language and direct teaching if needed

- must result in a final, tangible product

- must conclude with students' reflection on both process and product.

It is can be seen that there is complexity in PBL definitions. PBL is defined

differently from time to time. This diversity presents a lack of a unanimous opinion of a model or theory. Fortunately, there are still some overlaps in the design features. Thus, it generates greater flexibilities and possibilities for application in education practice and leads to a variety of research and development activities.

What are the key features of PBL?

The characteristics of PBL seem to be consistent among educators and researchers who studied and applied this teaching approach. Simpson (2011) assembled research on the common features of PBL as follows:

- complex explorations over a period of time;

- a student-centered learning activity whereby students plan, complete and present the task;

- challenging questions, problems or topics of student interest which become the center of the project and the learning process;

- the de-emphasis of teacher-directed activities;

- frequent feedback from peers and facilitators, and an opportunity to share resources, ideas and expertise through the whole process in the classroom;

- hands-on activities and the use of authentic resources and technologies;

- a collaborative learning environment rather than a competitive one;

- the use of a variety of skills such as social skills and management skills;

- the use of effort in connecting ideas and acquiring new skills during different stages of projects;

- the production of meaningful artifacts that can be shared with peers, teachers, and experts in a public presentation;

- assessment in both the process of working from the first stage to the last stage and the finished project.

What is the process of the implementation of PBL?

Papandreou (1994) maintains that every project is the result of a series of activities conducted by the students and these activities are organized into a process. That is to say every project is composed of certain stages. Wrigley (1998) argues that most project work covers the following steps: topic selecting, planning, researching and products-making. Studies on the process of PBL vary from each other. However, they share certain core features or steps. There are a variety of approaches to present the PBL in English teaching classrooms.

Booth (1986) argues that a project actually covers three stages: beginning in the classroom, moving out into the world, and re-turning back to the classroom. This model later develops into the eight stages of development.

Papandreou (1994) in "An Application of the Projects Approach to EFL" introduces a model which illustrates the process of project work in six steps: *Step 1 Preparation*: in this period, the teacher introduces the topic to the students, and asks them to discuss and ask questions. *Step 2 Planning*: in this period, the teacher and the students determine the mode for collecting and analyzing information, and different work are assigned. *Step 3 Research*: in this part, the students work individually or in groups gather information from different sources. *Step 4 Conclusions*: the students draw conclusions based upon their analysis of the collected data. *Step 5 Presentation*: the students are supposed to present their final product to the whole class. *Step 6 Evaluation*: in this part, the teacher makes comments on the students' endeavor and efforts.

Based upon the above models, Alan and Stoller (2005, p.10) summarize and put forward the revised ten-step process in "Maximizing the Benefits of Project Work in Foreign Language Classrooms". The steps are:

Step 1: Students and instructor agree on a theme for the project.

Step 2: Students and instructor determine the final outcome.

Step 3: Students and instructor structure the project.

Step 4: Instructor prepares students for the language demands of information gathering.

Step 5: Students gather information.

Step 6: Instructor prepares students for the language demands of compiling and analyzing data.

Step 7: Students compile and analyze information.

Step 8: Instructor prepares students for the language demands of the culminating activity.

Step 9: Students present the final product.

Step 10: Students evaluate the project.

The revised model is easier to handle and manage, which may help the teachers and students in the real application of the project. Thus the students' language skills, creative thinking and content learning can be facilitated. The final objective of the project work can be achieved.

What are the benefits of PBL in EFL classrooms?

It has been broadly agreed that the implementation of PBL in EFL classrooms brings students a lot of benefits. Researchers have defined the benefits of PBL which range from development of language skills up to enhancing students' personal growth.

First, a project integrates the four language skills, speaking, listening, reading, and writing and requires the use a variety of activities. While working on a project students have opportunities to "recycle known language and skills in a relatively natural context" (Haines, 1989, p.1). Similarly, Levine (2004) argues that mostly recognized benefit of implementing project in the foreign language classroom is improved language skills. Because students engage in purposeful communication to complete authentic activities, they have the opportunity to use language in a relatively natural context (Haines, 1989) and participate in meaningful activities which require practical language use. Authentic activities refer to activities designed to develop students' thinking and problem solving skills which are important in out-of-school contexts, and to foster learning to learn (Brown et al, 1993). While activities are anything students are expected to do, beyond getting input through reading or listening, in order

to learn, practice, apply, evaluate, or in any other way to respond to curricular content (Brophy and Alleman, 1991), practical activities are tasks that integrate across the curriculum. In addition, project-based learning provides opportunities for the natural integration of language skills (Stoller, 2006).

Second, students develop metacognitive skills because a project is an activity that "involves a variety of individual or cooperative tasks such as developing a research plan and questions, and implementing the plan through empirical or document research that includes collecting, analyzing, and reporting data orally and/or in writing" (Beckett, 2002, p.54).

Third, as students work together to achieve their end product they develop confidence and independence (Fried-Booth, 2002). Project work incorporates collaborative team work, problem solving, negotiating and other interpersonal skills, which have been identified by learners as important for living successful lives (Stein, 1995). Besides, Farouck (2016) confirmed in his study that PBL helps to develop students' evaluation skills for presentation and reduce communication anxiety.

What are the difficulties in implementing PBL?

Researchers have shown along with a lot of benefits possessed by PBL, of course, there also found many challenges in the implementation affecting the success of PBL. First, it has been revealed that if the PBL is applied in large classes, teachers experience difficulty in improving students' motivation, difficulty in making the students to concentrate on learning tasks, difficulty in helping students to connect new content with their prior knowledge, and difficulty in performing cooperative learning activities efficiently (Blumenfeld et al., 1991; Marx et al., 1997; Lee & Tsai, 2004). Besides, students who are not experienced with working in groups may have difficulty in negotiation and compromise (Grant, 2002). If this method has not been used before, it may be necessary to teach students how to interact in a group and manage conflict within the group. There is a possibility of students who are less active in group work. What's more, many instructors/teachers feel comfortable with traditional classroom, where the instructor/ teacher play a central role in the classroom. This is a difficult transition, especially for instructors/teachers who have little or no

control of the technology (Scott, 1994). In addition, PBL requires a lot of time that must be provided to solve complex problems (Grant, 2002). This will lead to a lack of time available for the material/content.

SUGGESTED PROJECTS FOR ELEMENTARY EFL LEARNERS

During the two semesters of the academic year 2017-2018, I was in charge of teaching English of elementary level for a class of thirty first-year non-English majors. After several first weeks, I found the students were relatively passive and showed low motivation in learning. They just did the things they were told to do. They seemed to be unable to manage their own learning.

For the purpose of enhancing my students' motivation and autonomy in learning English, the ten-step model by Alan and Stoller (2005) was employed in my English teaching practice. The reason for choosing this design is that it is said by the two scholars to maximize the potential benefits of projects such as student engagement, collaboration, creativity, motivation, autonomy and independence.

The result of implementing PBL in my class showed that students liked doing projects. When asked in an interview at the end of their projects, they confirmed that doing projects helped them to be more autonomous.

Based on the two-semester experience of teaching elementary English for non-English majors in using the project-based approach, in this section, I propose some English learning projects for elementary EFL students. The links of the students' out come products are also provided for reference.

Themes	Suggested projects	Outcome products	Language focus
Describing places	Making a video introducing a famous place in your hometown.	Video	Speaking skills Vocabulary: Adjective describing a place Grammar: Use of Present Simple

	Giving a presentation about a tourist attaction in your city.	Presentation	Speaking skills
			Vocabulary: Adjective describing a place
			Grammar: Use of Present Simple
	Writing a brochure or a poster introducing a craft village in your hometown	Poster / Brochure	Writing skills
			Vocabulary: Adjective describing a place
			Grammar: Use of Present Simple
	Making a video introducing a shop (a bakery shop / a restaurant / a clothes shop /	A video	Speaking skills
			Vocabulary: Adjective describing a place / Words related to clothes or food
			Grammar: Uses of Present Simple
Describing people	Making a video describing the friendship of a group of close friends.	A video	Speaking skills
			Vocabulary: Adjective describing personality and appearance.
			Grammar: Use of Present Simple / Past Pimple

Links:

1.A presentation introducing Bai Dinh pagoda: https://drive.google.com/file/d/1txT9nJeCjrl_EPD1q3wCGxGDGJ_KStdP /view?usp=sharing

2.A prochure introducing 5 craft villages in Ninh Binh:

https://drive.google.com/drive/folders/1wLUml8982eCNm_RZGZsqB9W
JulRcfNL0?usp=sharing

3.A video about friendship of three close friends:

https://drive.google.com/file/d/1D2UN7UaIVDZ-
Z0gxMvpMdc9gldjF5UZ_/view?usp=sharing

4. A video introducing a bakery shop and how to make cakes:

https://drive.google.com/file/d/1PNsYigYQl0VwYzAIQT0snogzKqbZeo
FJ/view?usp=sharing

5. A video introducing a clothes shop:

https://drive.google.com/file/d/17HD8vbwexy4Hfw2_TBotSLfWCYB_H
M0V/view?usp=sharing

CONCLUSION

This paper has presented fundamental areas of PBL in the literature by answering important questions concerning the definitions, the key features, the implementation process, the benefits of PBL in EFL context, and the commonly faced challenges in implementing PBL. Based on the literature review that has been done, PBL has the following characteristics: cooperative learning, student-centeredness, life-long learning, self-directed learning, motivation, autonomy and creativity, which are appropriate and fruitful for language teaching and learning. And to give English teachers some practical ideas about projects for teaching English for low level students, some specific projects are proposed. Despite the limitations, the presentation in the paper helps raise a supporting voice to teachers and practitioners willing to experiment this teaching approach.

THE AUTHOR

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USING POSTER EXHIBITIONS IN EFL CLASSES

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ABSTRACT

The importance of English language is unquestionable with such an increasing number of language learners worldwide. EFL learners come from different backgrounds and obtain different language levels which leads to such requirements of various teaching techniques to best assist them in language learning. In addition, learning English should be associated with motivation. Hence, in teaching English, especially to young learners, there should be strategies or activities to make them interested in learning English, maximise their language use, and promote their creativity and collaboration. The paper provides an example of using poster exhibitions in EFL classes. Using a variety of topics in limited conditions and teaching supplies, this activity still shows its effectiveness in developing learners' interests in learning English with great opportunities for teamwork and language use. Through the observations and interviews, the findings reveal that the learners enjoy the activity which gives them chances to work in teams, show their language ability, talents, and creativity. However, there are certain difficulties regarding time constraint, teaching facilities, and classroom management skill. Therefore, suggestions will be made in order to make the best use of poster exhibitions in an EFL classroom.

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APPLICATION OF PROJECT-BASED LEARNING TO ENCOURAGE CRITICAL THINKING IN TEACHING SPEAKING

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ABSTRACT

Project-based learning (PBL) is applied to stimulate autonomy, accountability of learners showed in the research of Thomas (2008), Doppelt (2003) mentioning how PBL could boost the speaking ability, a primary in language skills but difficult to teach (Hinkle, 2005), after experiences. However, there are no clear details about the element for that.

Critical thinking is a key feature in PBL but not an easy one to make clear in a certain way (Petress, 2004). The most common way is critical thinking is a type of reflective thinking on theoretical data analyzed based on Bloom's taxonomy (Bloom, 1994; Dewey, 1997) and a higher level - higher order thinking (HOT) skills (analyze, evaluate, and create).

This paper will focus on proving the virtual of critical thinking in learning and teaching English speaking skill; therefore, applying of PBL to motivate the development of critical thinking for both aspects.

THE AUTHOR

Vu Hoang Anh holds a B.A degree in Business English from Pedagogy University and now is completing the final thesis for the Master course in TESOL at HCMC Open University. Hoang Anh had more than three years in teaching full time and part time in several universities, knowing the strengths, weaknesses, and limitations of teaching methods when being applied in university. It was an excellent environment and time for Hoang Anh to observe reality, aware it, research and find ways to enhance teaching quality and support learners more in learning a foreign language.

APPLIED LINGUISTICS AND STRATEGIES

CHALLENGES FROM LEARNING LANGUAGE CONTRASTIVE ANALYSIS ENCOUNTERED BY VIETNAMESE STUDENTS OF ENGLISH: POST-METHOD PEDAGOGY SOLUTIONS

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ABSTRACT

Contrastive Analysis of Languages is a difficult module to learn for the third-year English major Vietnamese students at the University of Foreign Language Studies, University of Danang, Danang, Vietnam. In fact, the challenge may be caused by the student's attitude, the material, the language teachers used for instruction or the teaching method. Still, the problem has hardly ever been studied in Vietnam and overseas. This paper; as a result, studies the "Challenges from Learning Contrastive Analysis of Languages Encountered by Third-year English Major Vietnamese Students, University of Foreign Language Studies, University of Danang, Danang, Vietnam" as a case study. The data are collected from questionnaires involving the issues under investigation completed by 120 third-year English major Vietnamese Students at the University of Foreign Language Studies, University of Danang, Danang, Vietnam. The research findings and implications could help improve the efficacy of teaching and learning this module to these students with the implied post-method pedagogy.

Keywords: *Challenges, language-contrastive-analysis, post-method pedagogy, Vietnamese students*

INTRODUCTION

In the post-method era, the role of teachers is seen as central, changing from information oriented to inquiry-oriented. They are regarded not only as practitioners but also as self-directed theorizers who construct their own theory of practice. Effective post-method teachers are able to analyze their

classroom procedure to see what works and what does not so that they could assess their instruction effectively to bring the necessary changes for achieving the teaching desired goal. Their teaching goal is not just transmitting a set of the pre-selected and pre-sequenced body of knowledge, but their own beliefs and knowledge are considered to be an integral part of their teaching process. This kind of process could be a reflective, not a mechanical one. In this article, the challenges faced by the third-year English major Vietnamese students at the University of Foreign Language Studies, University of Danang, Danang, Vietnam in learning Language Contrastive Analysis (LCA) are investigated.

Key definition: Language Contrastive Analysis is to examine the differences between the two languages in an effort to identify problem areas for language learners (Lado, 1957).

LITERATURE REVIEW

The issue of post-method pedagogy has been so far studied by several researchers overseas. Kumaravadivelu recognizes the theory/practice dichotomy as harmful. In this regard, he makes a distinction between professional theories and personal theories. The former are those theories that are generated by experts. The latter are theories that are developed by teachers "by interpreting and applying professional theories in practical situations" (Kumaravadivelu, 2001, p. 540). He adds that professional theories are often valued, while personal theories are often overlooked. Rejecting the demarcation between theorists' theory and teachers' theory, Kumaravadivelu emphasizes that post-method teacher should be able to "theorize from their practice and practice what they theorize" (Kumaravadivelu, 2006b, p. 173). In the same line, Ur (1996) points out that post-method has changed the relationship between the teachers as practitioners and the theorizers.

Brown (2002) refers to twelve principles that can guide language teachers in the post-method era. They are (1) automaticity, (2) meaningful learning, (3) the anticipation of reward, (4) intrinsic motivation, (5) strategic investment, (6) language ego, (7) self-confidence, (8) risk-taking, (9) the language - culture connection, (11) inter-language, and (12) communicative competence. He calls his approach 'a principled approach' and declares that

these principles are not exhaustive and they are not of the same weight in our approach to language teaching, either. All the above frameworks emphasize the limitations of methods. Furthermore, they make explicit that post-method pedagogy has to be constructed by teachers themselves by taking into account their classroom context and particularities (Kumaravadivelu, 2006a).

In order to realize post-method pedagogy, teachers play an important role. The post-method teacher is supposed to be autonomous which is so central that Kumaravadivelu (2001) refers to it as "the heart of post-method pedagogy" (p. 548). In this way, post-method teachers should trust their prior knowledge and their potential to develop a reflective approach to their teaching involving a major shift in emphasis on their thinking and acting" and adopting a critical attitude to themselves as teachers. Murphy (2001, p. 499) adds that reflective teaching introduces "way for teachers to look inward, both within themselves and within the courses they offer, to access information and inspiration about their efforts in language classroom". According to Kumaravadivelu (2001; 2006b), the post-method teacher is a self-directed individual who can construct his own theory of practice. He keeps his "eyes, ears, and mind open in the classroom to see what works and what does not, with what group(s) of learners, for what reason" (Kumaravadivelu, 2001, p. 550). In addition, he assesses his instruction effectively to bring the necessary changes for achieving the desired goals of teaching. In these ways, "teachers could develop a deeper understanding of many issues in teaching and learning" (Richards & Farrell, 2005). Nevertheless, these oversea post-method pedagogy studies have hardly focused on a particular group of learners learning a particular subject at a certain phase of their learning. In fact, learners suffer from different psychological states with different subjects and in different learning stages. In Vietnam, there has been hardly a study of the post-method pedagogy on a specific group of learners as well. This article is, as a result, to study the challenges from learning Language Contrastive Analysis encountered by the Third-year English Major Vietnamese students at the University of Foreign Language Studies, University of Danang, Danang, Vietnam and the implications of post-method pedagogy as a potential solution for the problems.

RESEARCH DESIGN

The research design encompasses the research aims, research questions, data collection methods and data analysis.

Research Aims

This study is aimed to investigate the attitudes of the third-year English major Vietnamese students at the University of Foreign Language Studies, University of Danang, Danang, Vietnam when learning LCA and the challenges faced by them and to put forward some post-method pedagogy implications in order to help these students learn LCA and other English subjects better as well as do their language contrastive research.

Research Questions

In order to achieve the above aims of the study, the following research questions could be put forward:

1   *What are the attitudes of the Third-year English Major Vietnamese students at the University of Foreign Language Studies, University of Danang, Danang, Vietnam when learning LCA?*

2   *What are the challenges from learning LCA faced by the Third-year English Major Vietnamese students at the University of Foreign Language Studies, University of Danang, Danang, Vietnam?*

Data Collection Methods

The corpus is collected from questionnaires, each of which covering 7 questions (see Table 1) under investigation completed by 120 third-year English major Vietnamese Students from 4 different classes (30 students from each class) after they have learned LCA within 30 periods of 15 weeks in the second semester at the University of Foreign Language Studies, University of Danang, Danang, Vietnam. This LCA module is to introduce to these third-year students the comparative procedure of two (or more) languages or subsystems of the languages in order to determine both the differences and similarities between them to help the students improve their knowledge of the issues under investigation in various aspects such as phonemes, morpho-syntax, lexicology, translation, and semantics so that

they could learn English better as well as carry out their research related to these aspects. The LCA teacher of these students has used the learner-centered approach in which the students play an active role: they have to prepare in groups for their lessons and exercises of LCA by themselves with their textbook (the limited circulation textbook compiled in Danang in 2009) and the complementary hand-out before having their lecture of this subject with their teacher in class. Identifying the potential challenge from the teaching approach and materials faced by the these students, the teacher of LCA of these classes as the author of this article has collected the students' information about the problem in hope of developing a deeper understanding of many issues in teaching and learning LCA for these Vietnamese learners of English and of designing her own post-era pedagogy strategies which match the classroom context to improve the situation.

Data Analysis

The surveyed students' responses collected from the questionnaires covering 7 questions under investigation (see Table 1) are analyzed according to the qualitative and quantitative approach to discover the students' attitude and the challenges they have to face when learning LCA at the University of Foreign Language Studies, University of Danang, Danang, Vietnam.

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

Table 1 shows that N = 38 # 31.67% of the surveyed students enjoy learning LCA for various reasons. Many of them (N = 19 # 39.58%) think that theoretically this subject could help them have a good insight into the similarities and differences in such theoretical aspects of Linguistics such as Syntax, Semantics, Pragmatics between English and Vietnamese language so that they could do their future research project better. Practically, just more than half of the students (N = 26 # 54.17%) believe that LCA enables the students to learn such other subjects as Advanced English Grammar, Translation, Interpretation, Lexicology better and especially the Language and Culture subject better so that they could communicate with the native speakers of English more efficiently. Few other students assume they could have a deeper knowledge of English and

Vietnamese language and apply it confidently.

However, up to N = 82 # 68.33% surveyed students dislike learning LCA. The reason is that most of them (N = 119 # 99.17%) face difficulties when learning this academic subject. More specifically, the most common challenge is LCA involves too many theoretical branches of Linguistics such as Semantics, Syntax, Lexicology, Phonetics, and Phonology and Pragmatics accompanied by too many corresponding jargons (26.42% + 27.27% = 53.69%).

The second common reason is the task difficulty. In fact, nearly half of the surveyed students (24.43% + 16.19% = 40.62%) find it difficult to understand the requirements of the task and they cannot do it even when they have understood them.

The third major reason is that the teacher has used the learner-centered teaching method in which the students are assigned to work in groups to prepare for their lessons and tasks by themselves at home and later the teacher consolidates the lessons and tasks for students in class by answering any questions from the students and correct the tasks for students so that they could have a check.

Only N= 3 # 0.85% of the students think the problem is due to the teacher-center teaching method in which the teacher plays an active role in the classroom: giving lectures, correcting tasks for students who do not have to prepare for the lesson and task in advance. In terms of teaching materials, a majority of the students (N=74 # 61.67 %) assess they are informative with a clear content which could enable the students to prepare for their lessons in advance at home especially the condensed hand-out with the summary of the key points of the lessons could supplement the textbook and facilitate the students' revision for their exam.

Nonetheless, a lot of the students (N= 46 # 38.33%) evaluate that the material is not good enough for a lot of reasons. Firstly, the textbook is lengthy with too many unnecessary further reading parts and makes the learners confusing. Moreover, the textbook is lacking reference tasks or exercises which the students could use as a model for doing other tasks because they think the tasks are too difficult for them to do without the

guidance of the teacher and the model ones. Besides, the textbook contains quite a lot of technical terms without a glossary which may make the students difficult to understand the lesson and prepare for their lessons in advance.

Table 1: Students' Opinions on Learning LCA and Recommendations

QUESTIONS	a		b		c		d		e		f	
	N	F (%)	N	F (%)	N	F (%)	N	F (%)	N	F (%)	N	F (%)
1. Do you like learning LCA?	38	31.67	82	68.33								
2. Have you got any difficulties in learning LCA?	119	99.17	1	0.83								
3. What difficulties have you got in learning LCA?	96	27.27	93	26.42	86	24.43	57	16.19	3	0.85	17	4.84
4. What do you think about the textbook and the hand-out?	74	61.67	46	38.33	0	00.00						
5. To teach LCA effectively, what language should teachers use?	0	00.00	13	10.83	107	89.17						
6. Do you have any recommendatio	43	35.83	77	64.17								

ns for the teaching materials to help improve the teaching and learning of LCA?										
7. What do you think is the effective teaching method of LCA?	38	31.67	70	58.33	12	10				

IMPLICATIONS

The students' answers to questions 5, 6 and 7 from Table 1 may imply some implications to improve the actual situation of teaching and learning of LCA for the third-year English major Vietnamese students at the University of Foreign Language Studies, University of Danang, Danang, Vietnam. For the language in the classroom (question 5), an overwhelming number of the surveyed students (N= 107 # 89.17% vs. N= 13 # 10.83) believe that the teacher should use Vietnamese language in combination with English language to teach LCA. The major reasons are this combination could help students better understand the lesson and the requirement of the exercise in the teaching materials so that they could better prepare for their lessons and tasks in advance to be more active and confident in class. This again confirms that "although the target language is considered the best way of teaching and learning a foreign language, it may have some limits in the reality in Vietnam and it is not always successful to completely apply this way of teaching and learning to all English classrooms" (Nguyen, 1999, pp. 100, 101). Sharing this viewpoint, Mirza and her fellow researchers (2012, p. 73) state:

the mother tongue could be used to introduce complicated grammar structures, new words, technical terms as well as to steer students to perform activities in the classroom and thereby could ease the tension in the

class and help learners learn more effectively

In fact, the point of view could be applied to the classes of English in Vietnam including those of LCA in which students have to face quite a lot of new technical terms in various theoretical branches of Linguistics. In addition, speaking English to Vietnamese students of LCA, the teacher could help them improve their listening skill of technical terms and understand the equivalent meaning in Vietnamese in order to help enrich their knowledge of technical terms in English and in Vietnamese.

In respect of the teaching materials, a majority of the investigated students (N =77 # 64.17% vs. 43 # 35.83%) has suggested some persuading recommendations to improve them. Over half of the number of the students (N= 51 # 57.30) assume that the textbook should have a clearer content with a list of Vietnamese translational equivalents of the English technical terms and with various types of model exercises accompanied by keys to help the students get familiar with them and avoid errors in doing their exercises as Vu (2010, p. 41) claims that teachers could design the related exercises to assist their students to practice and avoid making errors. In this way, the students could prepare for their lessons and tasks at home more easily and could save the teacher's time in class. What is more, a smaller number of the students (N= 22# 24.72%) reckon that the materials should be bilingual (English - Vietnamese) and more condensed with the essential content without the Further Reading section for the sake of better intelligibility and self-study.

Relating to the effective teaching method of LCA, more than half the number of the learner (N= 70 # 58.33%) believes that the teacher had better use the learner-centered method for several reasons. Firstly, the learners themselves should explore the repertoire of the knowledge, not the teacher whose role is merely to facilitate the students' learning process. The preparation of the lessons and the exercises at home could enable the students to remember them more easily and further understand the teachers' lecture in class. Secondly, learning in groups at home could equip the students with teamwork skills through which they could help each other to learn the difficult subject of LCA better. Furthermore, the learners would rather discover the problems from the lesson and task when preparing for

them at home in advance in order to ask the teacher in class to solve them other than have the teacher give the whole lesson. In this way, the learner-centered teaching method could save the time of the student and the teacher and give more chance for the teacher-learner communication for the sake of the learner's benefits.

Yet, a smaller number of students (N = 38 # 31.67%) reckon that they prefer the teacher-centered teaching method due to various reasons. The major reason is that this difficult subject is assigned to learn in the third-year when the students are too busy to prepare for their lessons and exercises. Another equally important reason is that the learners learn in credits and do not have the same schedule for all the subjects they have chosen. They accordingly cannot gather fully to learn in groups; even when they can (in some cases), they cannot learn in groups successfully because they find the lessons and exercises with too many unfamiliar technical terms are too hard for them to prepare for. Also; when learning in groups, the students of LCA may spend too much time discussing the lessons, doing the exercises and it would be difficult for them to reach a consensus in their answers for each student may have a different viewpoint.

Last but not least, a humble number of the surveyed students (N= 12 # 10%) believe that they prefer having their teacher use a combination of the above two methods. Despite the negligent number of students favoring this opinion, the author of this article by using a suitable classroom observation based on the recognition of the potential mismatch between her teaching intention and the learner interpretation of the subject agrees with this teaching method viewpoint in order to reassess her instruction of LCA effectively to bring the necessary changes for achieving the desired goals in teaching. Truly, the teacher of LCA with an active role could give the lecture to their students in class and guide them how to do the exercises at home. The students then actively do the tasks individually or in groups depending on their conditions to further explore the knowledge by themselves. The teacher after that could correct the exercises for their students in class and consolidates the lesson through the discussion with their students to enhance their creative role in learning. In this way, the students could feel less stressed and learn LCA more effectively.

LIMITATIONS

This article is restricted to investigate a sample population of 120 third-year English major Vietnamese students of English at the University of Foreign Language Studies, University of Danang, Danang, Vietnam. The findings are hence experimental. Further studies could be done with a larger number of participants to ensure their reliability and validity.

CONCLUSION

On the whole, this article has described the challenges from learning LCA faced by the Third-year English Major Vietnamese students at the University of Foreign Language Studies, University of Danang, Danang, Vietnam. Some post-method pedagogy implications basing on the reflective approach to the researcher's teaching through the identification of the problem or issue, collecting information about the students' problem to deal with it have then been put forward. In this way, the findings from this article could help the teacher devise suitable strategies to teach these students of LCA more successfully so that she would inspire her students to learn this subject confidently, eagerly and willingly and help them learn it and implement their language contrastive projects better.

THE AUTHOR

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THE IMPACT OF ENGLISH-MAJORED STUDENTS' COLLOCATION KNOWLEDGE ON THEIR READING AND WRITING PERFORMANCES

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ABSTRACT

Vocabulary knowledge is important to learners of any languages, for without vocabulary, one cannot speak, write or understand anything from the language being learned. Among different aspects of vocabulary learning, knowledge of collocations has a crucial role to decide the success of communication. The current study investigates the impact of collocation knowledge on English-majored students' language skills at Can Tho University. This research was conducted with the participation of 269 English-majored students. The research tool was a collocation test with 45 items. Then, the collocation test scores and students' scores of the listening, speaking, reading and writing from the previous semester were input in the SPSS software to figure out if there is any correlation. The research results reveal that students' collocation knowledge was highly correlated with their achievement in the reading and writing skills. Implications are suggested for EFL teachers on how to help students improve their collocation knowledge.

Key words*: vocabulary acquisition, knowledge of collocation, language skills*

INTRODUCTION

Studying a foreign language entails a joint process of comprehending knowledge and developing academic skills, namely reading, writing, speaking and listening ones. According to Ghazal (2007), vocabulary is a principal factor of a language, especially in imparting ideas and

information. Nevertheless, most students have a considerable difficulty in using suitable words in various contexts. They find it hard to guess meanings and determine exactly which words go together. Native speakers also face a challenge with such bewildering and strange phrases or chunks like "family-run hotel", "blanket of fog" or "a quick glance" instead of a fast glance. Hence, a great emphasis on vocabulary acquisition and its appropriate use have been increasingly noticed in recent years (Hassan Abadi, 2003).

Some research shows that several traditional methods of vocabulary learning such as rote learning, the learning of individual words, the translation from the first language (L1) to the second language (L2) and so on are ineffective. Therefore, a large number of studies have been conducted concerning a novel technique of lexical chunks, word combination or collocation instruction. However, few studies have been conducted in the field to figure out whether the technique works in improving learners' vocabulary knowledge and especially whether good knowledge of collocations has a positive impact on learners' language skills. The latter issue will be explored in the current study. In particular, two research questions will be answered in the present paper.

1. *Are there any significant differences between first-year and fourth-year English-majored students in Vietnam in terms of collocation knowledge?*

2. *Is there any correlation between English-majored students' knowledge of collocations and their reading and writing performance?*

LITERATURE REVIEW

Definition of collocation

The term "collocation" has been defined in a wide variety of ways from different angles. To be specific, "collocation" originates from the Latin verb *collocare* which signifies to arrange or to set in order (Müller, 2008:1). Firth (1957), considered as the father of linguists indicating the elucidation of collocation, states that collocation can be easily recognized because "you shall know a word by the company it keeps" (p.11) and "words are mutually expectant and mutually comprehended" (p.12).

McCarthy (1990) regards collocations as "a marriage contract between words, and some words are more firmly married to each other than others" (p.12). Likewise, Hoey (2005) elucidates collocation as "a psychological association between words (rather than lemmas) up to four words apart and is evidenced by their occurrence together in corpora more often than is explicable in terms of random distribution" (p.5).

Classification of collocation

Collocations have been classified in various ways by different scholars. Wei (1999) categorised collocations into three groups namely lexical collocations (e.g. "a quick meal"), grammatical collocations (e.g. "be keen on"), and idiomatic expressions (e.g. "feel under the weather"). Meanwhile, according to Lewis (2000), there are two types, i.e. strong and weak collocations. Nevertheless, in this study, the division is based on Benson, Benson, and Ilson's categorisation (1986). More specifically, collocations fall into two categories, namely lexical and grammatical collocations. In the current study, the categorization by Benson, Benson, and Ilson's (1986) will be used.

Lexical collocations

As noted by McArthur (1992), lexical collocation is regarded as a connection of mutual expectancy or customary company. In other words, lexical collocations include content words such as nouns, adjectives, adverbs, and verbs. There are also fixed and loose combinations with different structures. The formers are idiomatic, so the meanings based on the constituents are sometimes unpredictable. Meanwhile, the collocates, i.e. words following the pivot word (Shin & Nation, 2008) in the latter are freely combined, hence the senses can be originated from the particular words. Concurrently, Benson et al. (1997) arrange them into six sub-categorizations marked as L_1 to L_6 in Table 1 below.

Table 1: Lexical collocations by Benson et al. (1997)

Type	Combination	Example
L_1	Verb + noun	To launch a rally, do gymnastics
L_2	Verb + adverb	Recommend highly, pull steadily
L_3	Noun + verb	Bee stings, economy booms
L_4	Noun + noun	A stream of traffic
L_5	Adverb + adjective	Drastically changed, happily married
L_6	Adjective + noun	Thick fog, key issue

(Adapted from Shamsudin, Sadoughvanini & Hanafi Zaid, 2013)

Grammatical collocations

Grammatical collocation is described as a phrase comprising a predominant word (verb, noun, adjective) plus a particle such as a preposition, an adverb, an infinitive, a gerund or a clause (Bahns, 1993:57). In addition, Benson, Benson, and Ilson (1986) in The BBI Combinatory Dictionary of English introduce eight kinds of grammatical collocations marked as G_1 to G_8, among which G_8 contains 19 English verb patterns that are designated in Table 2.

Table 2: Grammatical collocations by Benson et al. (1986)

Type	Combination	Example
G_1	Noun + preposition	apathy towards.
G_2	Noun + to infinitive	It was a pleasure to do it.
G_3	Noun + *that* clause	She made a promise that she would do her best.
G_4	Preposition + noun	By accident, in advance.
G_5	Adjective + preposition	Be angry at, be keen on.

Type	Combination	Example
G$_6$	Adjective + to infinitive	ready to go, heavy to lift.
G$_7$	Adjective + *that* clause	It is vital that you have a positive attitude to life.
G$_{8(A)}$	Verb + direct Object + to + indirect Object = V + indirect Object + direct Object	She sent the book to him = She sent him the book.
G$_{8(B)}$	Verb + direct Object + to + indirect Object	They mentioned the book to her.
G$_{8(C)}$	Verb + direct Object + for + indirect Object = Verb + indirect Object + direct Object	She bought a shirt for her husband = She bought her husband a shirt.
G$_{8(D)}$	Verb + preposition + Object	They came by train. call at, protest against.
G$_{8(d)}$	Verb + Object + preposition + Object	We invited them to the meeting.
G$_{8(E)}$	Verb + to + Infinitive	She continued to work.
G$_{8(F)}$	Verb + bare infinitive	Mary had better go.
G$_{8(G)}$	Verb + V-ing	They enjoy watching TV.
G$_{8(H)}$	Verb + Object + to Infinitive	We forced them to leave.
G$_{8(I)}$	Verb + Object + infinitive	She heard them leave.
G$_{8(J)}$	Verb + Object + V-ing	He felt his heart beating.
G$_{8(K)}$	Verb + a possessive + V-ing	I can not image their stealing apples.

Type	Combination	Example
$G_{8\,(L)}$	Verb + that clause	The doctor suggests me that I take Vitamins.
$G_{8\,(M)}$	Verb + Object + to be + Complement	We consider her to be well-trained
$G_{8\,(N)}$	Verb + Object + Complement	She dyed her hair red.
$G_{8\,(O)}$	Verb + Object 1 + Object 2	The teacher asked the pupil a question.
$G_{8\,(P)}$	Verb + (Object) + Adverbial	He carried himself well.
$G_{8\,(Q)}$	Verb + (Object) + wh-clause/ wh-phrase	She asked why we had come.
$G_{8\,(R)}$	It + Verb + Object + to infinitive	It surprised me to learn of her decision.
	It + Verb + Object + that-clause	It surprised me that our offer was rejected.
$G_{8\,(S)}$	V + Complement (Adjective or Noun)	He was a teacher.
$G_{8\,(s)}$	V + Complement (Adjective)	The food tastes good.

(Adapted from Benson, Benson, and Ilson (1986b, as cited in Chaun Li, 2005, p.8)

Students' collocation knowledge and reading and writing performance

Various attempts have been made to explore the relationship between students' collocation knowledge and their skills of reading and writing. For example, in Lien's (2003) quasi-experimental research with 85 students in a national university of Taiwan, it was found that "collocation instruction had more positive effects on the participants' reading comprehension than vocabulary instruction and no instruction". Additionally, Hsu (2007) did

research about the use of lexical collocations on the online writing of 41 English-majored and 21 non English-majored students at a Taiwanese university. The results revealed that there was a significant correlation between students' diversity of collocations and online writing marks.

Similarly, Bahardoust (2012) investigated EFL students' writing production across the first language to the second language based on their collocation understanding as well as the effect of L1 on L2 collocation use. The 200 participants were chosen through purposive sampling attended paragraph and essay writing courses in two consecutive years. Their mid-term, final exam and assignments were assessed to figure out the answers to the research questions. The results revealed that there were both positive and negative influences of L1 on collocations. Besides, Adelian, Nemati, and Fumani (2015) explored the influence of collocation knowledge on 80 Iranian advanced EFL student's writing ability. Free writing examination including three topics and a multiple-choice test were provided to measure their productive and receptive collocation competence respectively. The findings showed that the collocation learning did not affect learners' free writing performance positively, yet there is a clear correlation between productive and receptive collocation knowledge.

While several studies have been conducted to explore the relationship of students' collocation knowledge and writing and reading performance in other EFL contexts, to our knowledge, no study has been done to explore the same issue with Vietnamese students.

METHODOLOGY

Participants

The participants of the current study included 269 full-time English-majored students (49 males and 220 females in a university in the Mekong Delta of Vietnam). Among them, 143 participants were first-year students and 126 were fourth-year students. These students came from two English majors namely English studies and English Translation and Interpretation.

Instruments

A collocation test was designed to examine the relationship between

participants' collocation knowledge and language skills. The test was culled from the book "English Collocations in Use", which is written by Michael McCarthy and Felicity O'Dell It included 45 items divided into five sections:

Cluster 1: A 30-item multiple choice test combined with different kinds of collocations.

Cluster 2: A 5-item test used to find the wrong collocations.

Cluster 3: A 5-item fill-in-the-blank test with the type of Verb+Noun collocation.

Cluster 4: A 5-item fill-in-the-blank collocation test associated with feeling.

Cluster 5: Personal background.

The reliability coefficient was computed by the Statistics Package for the Social Science (SPSS 20 for Windows) program to examine the value of the collocation test. The Cronbach's α value of 0.749 demonstrates acceptable instrument reliability.

In addition, students' scores of the subject reading and writing skills from the previous semester were used to denote students' reading and writing performance in English.

Procedure

The researchers first asked teachers for permission to use their class time to administer the collocation test. Next, the test was distributed to 6 classes (3 classes for each group of first-year and final-year students). Time allocation was 50 minutes, but most students finished the test within approximately 40 minutes. *3.4.* **Data analysis**

Firstly, an Independent Sample T-Tests was conducted with the two groups, namely freshmen and seniors to find out if there was a significant difference between them in terms of collocation knowledge. Then, a Pearson correlation test was run to check the relationship between students' collocation knowledge and their reading and writing performances.

FINDINGS

Research question 1: Are there any significant differences between first-year and fourth-year students in terms of collocation knowledge?

This section used Independent Samples T-Test to answer the first research question, investigating the disparity between first-year and fourth-year students' in terms of collocation knowledge with the distinct part. The results are shown in following tables.

An independent sample t-test was conducted to compare the total scores of the collocation test between the groups of first-year students and fourth-year students. There was a significant difference in the scores for first-year students (M = 15.32, SD = 5.57) and the scores for fourth-year students (M = 21.93, SD = 5.86); $t(267) = 9.47$, $p = .00$.

Research question 2: Is there any correlation between English-majored students' knowledge of collocations and their reading and writing performance?

To answer the second research question, Pearson Product-Moment Correlation Co-efficient was used to analyze the relationship between 269 English-majored learners' reading and writing scores in the previous semester and their scores of the collocation test. The result is presented in Table 3 below.

Table 3: Correlation between students' knowledge of collocation and reading, and writing performance

		Scores of Collocation
	Pearson Correlation	.310[**]
Reading and Writing Marks	**Sig. (2-tailed)**	.000
	N	269

The findings indicated that there was a significant positive correlation between 269 students' reading and writing performance and their collocation knowledge. This finding is compatible with that of Hsu's study (2007) when there was a remarkable relationship between learners' frequency of lexical collocations along with the variety of collocations and their online writing score.

DISCUSSION

The current study has figured out that there was a significant difference between first-year and fourth-year students in term of collocation knowledge. This finding can be explained by the fact that first-year students were less exposed to the English language than the other group. Since they only finished one semester in their English-major program by the time of the study, they had only 180 hours of class to learn the English subjects namely listening, speaking, reading and writing. Meanwhile, fourth-year students had already finished the 7 semesters of learning at the university. Beside language skill subjects, they also had chances to learn the English language in depth through the subjects such as morphology, syntax, contrastive analysis and so on. That means students in their final year were provided with the opportunities to learn not only English language skills but also English language nature and traits.

The second important finding of the current study is that there is a positive correlation between students' collocation knowledge and their reading and writing performance. This can be because the knowledge of collocation helps students to understand the reading texts better and provides them with the tools to use vocabulary and structures better in the writing tasks. Since they read and write better with the greater knowledge of collocations, they score higher in the course of reading and writing.

CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

The current study demonstrated the contribution of collocation knowledge to English-majored students' reading and writing skills. Therefore, the following implications can be drawn. First, teachers should notice that developing collocation understanding plays a major role in improving students' English reading and writing skills. Thus, it is favourable for

teachers to take full advantage of the valuable associations with collocation knowledge during their class lessons. Moreover, because of the positive correlations of collocation understanding on students' language skills, students themselves should have a high awareness of studying collocations for the purpose of self-improvement and flexibility in using appropriate collocations in particular circumstance after graduation. Additionally, this study can be regarded as a reference for analyzing the association between students' collocation knowledge and other language skills such as listening and speaking.

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APPLYING SHADOWING TECHNIQUE TO HELP STUDENTS IMPROVE THEIR "ED" PRONUNCIATION

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ABSTRACT

The study made an investigation on how shadowing - a technique of listening and repeating- can help its participants improve their pronunciation, "ed" pronunciation specifically. The study is aimed at contributing a voice to the existing literature in relation to the benefits of this technique and more importantly, its aim is to find out how the technique can advantage its participants and whether it should be expanded or not to improve learners' pronunciation in general. The results of this study have shown that most of the participants got benefits from the technique in different manners and at different levels. Therefore, it is suggested that shadowing should be applied and expanded in the future so that more participants can benefit from it.

Keywords: *shadowing, pronunciation*

INTRODUCTION

Shadowing was used by interpreter trainers as a pre-simultaneous exercise or some interpretation schools used it in their entrance examination (Schweda Nicholson, 1990). In recent years, shadowing has been known as one of the techniques to improve English language learners' (ELL) pronunciation, in which ELL will listen to foreigners' utterances and then repeat what they hear. The ELLs are suggested to repeat almost at the same time with the speakers' utterances without pausing the videos or audios or waiting until the speakers finish their sentences. Some classroom teachers use it as a weekly assignment with the purpose of helping students to improve their listening and speaking skills. However, there has not been a lot of research about its effects on learners' process.

In the light of the above practices, this study is employing shadowing technique in order to assist non-English majored students to improve their pronunciation in general and their "ed" pronunciation, in particular.

LITERATURE REVIEW

What has been done to help students with "ed" pronunciation

Several studies were carried out to find out the possible reasons and solutions for helping students with their pronunciation effectively. According to Batista and Watkins (1997, as cited in Roseli Serra, n.d) by the process of assimilation, the morpheme "ed" was pronounced as /t/ in words that end in voiceless obstruents, and as /d/ in words that end in voiced obstruents, sonorants or vowels. In words that ended in /t/ and /d/, the morpheme "ed" was pronounced as /id/. As the authors observed from most of the classes, students tended to pronounce all regular verbs like /id/ sound although most students knew that there are 3 ways to pronounce "ed". For example, *looked*, *cleaned* or *watched* are usually mispronounced as /lʊkid/, /kliːnid/ or /wɒtʃid/, then in the conversation, what they said did not make sense to the listeners. Roseli Serra (n.d) also stated that "the most important thing, as I see it, is the hands-on stage, because above all students need to practice these features in different situations, from very structured exercises to spontaneous speech". Another successful way to assist students to master "ed" pronunciation was a game using flashcard. Making a comparison with traditional way, Marta J. Sabbadini (2006) stated that "students produce this quite naturally (being a question of which sound is easier) - a better option than trying to work out complex rules". The third effective method had an extremely good effect on students who "have learned the basic -ED rules, but may still struggle to produce the sounds accurately" (Luiz Otávio Barros, n.d). To begin with, he asked them to move /t/ and /d/ to the front of the vowel sound because he noticed that it would be easier for students (liked it – /laɪk tɪt/, dreamed of – /driːm dəv/). The next step was putting together a 7-minute video containing 12 songs, and the significant difference here was instead of choosing /d/ or /t/, students could practice ed sound in fast connected speech; and the song excerpts focused on the two sounds which were usually being avoided - /t/ and /d/, rather than /id/. He said that this one was the most effective method so far.

What is shadowing and how has it been applied in language learning

Lambert (1988) defined shadowing 'as a paced, auditory tracking task which involves the immediate vocalization of auditorily presented stimuli, i.e, word-for-word repetition in the same language, parrot-style, of a message presented through headphones" (p.381). For many years, this technique was used in interpreters' training so that they could practice the skills of listening and speaking almost at the same time (Arjona, 1978). Recently, language learners have been introduced to this technique as a method to improve their listening and speaking skills. It was believed that the more learners did shadowing, the better their listening skills would be. It was because they had to listen to a recorded video or audio many times in order that they could recognize all the words included before they could shadow them. It therefore indirectly improved their listening skills. Besides, this technique was suggested to improve learners' pronunciation naturally because the sounds they could produce reflected what they could hear. As a result, if they had a chance to hear the exact pronunciation of the words, it was more likely for them to produce accurate sounds. Although there has not been a lot of research related to this technique's advantages in improving learners' language skills in the existing literature, it is a promising one. That is also the reason why the authors of this research decided to examine the effects of shadowing technique on improving learners' pronunciation in general and their "ed" pronunciation, in particular.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS

This action research is aimed at answering the following questions:

1. *Does shadowing technique help students to improve their "ed" pronunciation?*

2. *If it does, how much it can help them to improve?*

THE STUDY

Settings and participants

This study took place at DongThap University (DThU) during November 2017. Most of the students here come from different provincial cities, small

towns and rural districts; therefore, the vast majority of them have fewer chances to learn English than students in big cities. As educators, the authors of this study concern about their difficulties and make a lot of efforts to help them. Among the skills of English, speaking seems to be the most difficult one to most of them because they were intensively taught grammar for examination at the high school rather than listening and speaking. They can understand a sentence when they see and read it, but not when listening to it, and in a long run, they hardly pronounce the words correctly although they know the rules to pronounce them. This really stimulates the authors to carry out this study to help them to partly pay more attention to the words' pronunciation and to pronounce them correctly.

17 non-English major students (with 3 males and 14 females) were invited to be involved in this study. They are all juniors and studying the B1 (for internal use only) course at the university at present. They have been studying English for at least 10 years and they know that there are three ways to pronounce "ed" in irregular verbs in the past. They are informed about the purposes as well as the procedure of the study. They voluntarily join the study in order to be helped to improve their pronunciation in general and their "ed" pronunciation, in particular. They know that they can withdraw from the study at any stage if they want to.

DATA COLLECTION AND RESULTS

Procedure

In the first meeting, the authors introduced shadowing technique and its benefits as well as a way to do shadowing to them. Additionally, the authors asked for their permission to record their first reading, so that it can be compared with their second reading after they do shadowing. Then they were divided into 2 groups with different purposes. The first group has 8 members in total; their task is doing the shadowing daily with the videos provided. Seven other members belonged to group 2; they were asked to listen to and watch the videos only. At the end of the period of 5 weeks, they are invited to read the same texts as they did the first time. The researchers assist them to analyze their improvement via the number words

which are pronounced correctly and give them some advice for better pronunciation, especially with "ed" sounds. Finally, they are invited to answer the questionnaire about their experiences as well.

Data collection

By counting the number of regular verbs which are pronounced correctly, some noticeable figures are collected as follow:

Table 1. Numbers of correct "ed" words

		Before shadowing	After shadowing	Percentage of improvement
Group 1	Student 1	5/18	15/18	55,55%
	Student 2	4/14	9 /14	35,71%
	Student 3	3/18	10/18	38,88%
	Student 4	13/15	14/15	6,67%
	Student 5	10/15	12/15	13,33%
	Student 6	8/14	13/14	35,71%
	Student 7	2/14	4/14	14,28%
	Student 8	3/14	8/14	35,71%
Group 2	Student 9	2/15	7/15	33.33%
	Student 10	5/19	6/19	5,26%
	Student 11	3/15	8/15	33,33%
	Student 12	4/ 17	4/17	0%
	Student 13	2/15	3/15	6,67%
	Student 14	4/15	9/15	33,33%
	Student 15	3/15	10/15	46,66%
	Student 16	2/14	5/14	21,42%
	Student 17	1/18	1/18	0%

Table 2. Average improvement of each group

Average

	Group 1:	Group 2:
	29,48 %	20%

Evaluation form

It is designed to find out more information from the participants before and after the research. It contains the total of 15 questions about 1) their understanding about Shadowing, 2) their understanding about /ed/ pronunciation, 3) their practicing process and finally 4) their self-evaluation.

1. Students' understanding about Shadowing before the research

Before the research, 70.6% of participants haven't known about Shadowing while 17.6% have known but haven't tried. The rest say that they have tried it.

When joining the research, 47.1% completely believed Shadowing is effective. The rest reported that they quite believed and no response for "Completely disbelieve" and "No opinion".

Compares to traditional rules, more than 80% think shadowing is easier to learn about "ed" pronunciation while nearly 6% says it's harder, and "No opinion" accounts for about 12%.

To be successful in Shadowing, 100% students agree that "The most important features are hard-working". No other choice is collected.

2. Their understanding of final sounds and /ed/ pronunciation in particular before the research

When being asked about the importance of pronouncing final sounds, the majority of students said that it was "Important", only 5.9% of students said it was "Not important".

About "skip pronouncing final sounds", over 8 out of 10 respondents say that they "Usually" did it. The rest respondents answered that they "Always" did, and no answer was for "Never".

Before the research, the proportion of students who knew ways to pronounce "ed" is 64.7%. The others who did not "know" accounts for 35.3%.
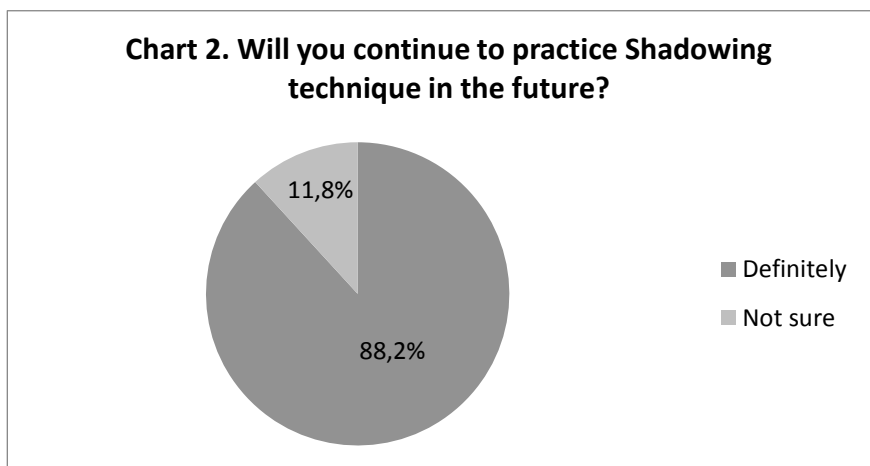
3.   The practice process

With regards to practicing time, 23.5% of answers go to "Less than 30 minutes" on practicing every day. From 30 to 60 minutes of daily practice, we recorded that it has 29.4% of the answers. The rest of students said the amount of time was flexible.

In terms of applying other methods or apps at the same time with shadowing in this study, 15 out of 17 said "No". Some students said "Yes" and they used "Duo Lingo app", "listening to a talk of a famous person", "do pair work", "join an online course", "listen to other videos on YouTube and read out loud again".

Answering about difficulties in practicing process, 70.6% students said that they did not have time for shadowing; 17.6% said they "Don't understand clearly about the way to shadow". The other 2% comes from students who are "Shy to shadow" and "Other reasons".

4.   Self-evaluation

After the practicing time, nearly half of them think that they have improved about 25%. Approximately, 1 out of 3 students assesses their "ed" pronunciation 50% better than before. The same percentage of 11.8% goes to 2 categories: 0% and 75%.

Chart 2. Will you continue to practice Shadowing technique in the future?

11,8%

88,2%

■ Definitely

■ Not sure

The chart shows that most students answered they will "Definitely" apply this technique in the future, only 11.8% is still considering whether they will or will not use it.

Chart 3. Will you introduce this technique to your friends?

8,6%

91,4%

- Definitely
- Not sure
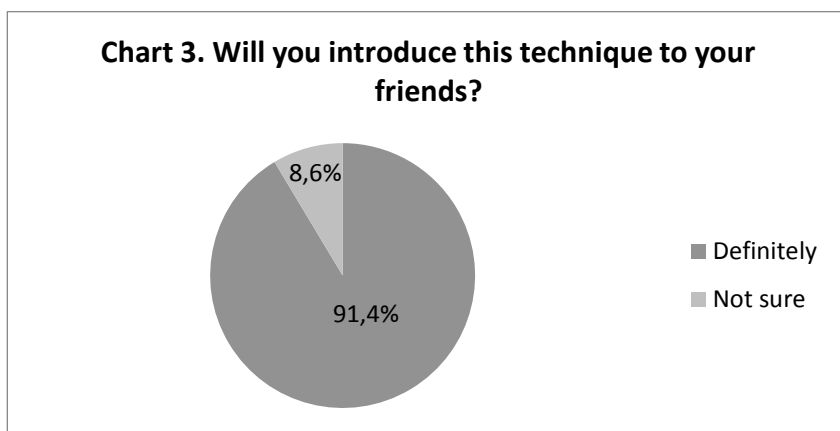
94.1% of participants said that they will introduce it to their friends; others were still not sure about it.

When being asked how interesting shadowing technique is to them, 13 out of 17 students said that it could help them to improve their pronunciation in general, and their "ed" pronunciation, in particular. A few of them reported that it can help them to improve their reading skills, to be more confident in their communication, more interested in learning English and to learn something new about intonation and speed in English speaking.

DISCUSSIONS AND CONCLUSION

Students involved in this study have been learning English for more than 10 years; however, they are still struggling with their pronunciation, especially "ed" pronunciation. Although theoretically, they know how to pronounce them in three different ways, they hardly do it correctly. This stimulates the authors to apply a new technique trying to help them. Shadowing was chosen because it has been applied in different fields of language learning and promises a possible success.

As can be seen from table 1, this study achieves success at some certain levels. Firstly, all participants had a good chance to practice their *-ed*

pronunciation, which they have learnt for a long time but have not pronounced it exactly. For both groups, group 1 with 8 students who did the shadowing every day showed a better improvement than their counterparts who just listened and watched the provided videos. The former group had the average improvement's proportion of nearly 30%, whereas that of the latter group was 10% less. Although some students reported that they have used some other kinds of methods, apps or techniques at the same time to improve their pronunciation, the figures proved that shadowing affects student's pronunciation positively, especially in producing "ed" sound. Moreover, it is worth concerning that most students will practice on their own after the study ends and will introduce about this technique to their friends too, which shows that students are interested in shadowing after experiencing its benefits. There is obvious evidence to conclude, teachers and researchers should consider more about applying shadowing to help learners more not only in their pronunciation but also in their listening and speaking skills of learning English.

With the positive result from the study, it is believed that this technique should be applied to improve students' language learning in general and their skills in particular.

It is possible to conclude according to this action research is that shadowing is a good technique to help students improve their pronunciation, in general, and their "ed" pronunciation, in particular. Although the time and the number of participants in the study are limited, the results are promising and deserved to stimulate other researchers to do other larger-scale research to uncover this technique's hidden benefits in learning as well as in teaching languages.

THE AUTHORS

Pham Thi Kim Dung has been a lecturer of English at Dong Thap University for more than 8 years, responsible for teaching English skills for English majors and non-majors at her university. She completed her M.A of TESOL at La Trobe University in December 2014 under ADS scholarship. Her interest is in improving her teaching practice by doing action research and applying ICT to stimulate the students in her class. She used to present

her research at Viettesol conference. Her abstracts were accepted by SILK, CamTESOL and other international conferences in Vietnam.

Nguyen Ngoc Phuong Vy graduated from Dong Thap University in 2016, majoring in English Education. She has joined many extra-activities of the school, so it provides her various experiences which is beneficial for her career now. After a year of working as a freelance teacher for some English Centers in Cao Lanh city, she is currently one of the youngest lecturers of the Informatics and Foreign languages Center of Dong Thap University. Her main responsibility is teaching English for non-major students of English, helping them to meet the prerequisite to graduate from the school.

APPENDIX 1

Reading 1: Amelia Mary Earhart American (1897 – 1937) **The first woman to fly across the Atlantic**

Her early years

Amelia was born in her grandparents' house in Kansas. Her parents didn't have any money, but her grandparents were rich, so she studied at the best schools. After she graduated from high school, she decided to study nursing and worked in a hospital in World War I. When she was 23, she visited an airshow and went up in a plane; she was very pleased. At that moment, she knew that she wanted to be a pilot.

What she did

In 1920, flying was dangerous and people didn't think it was an activity for women. But Amelia had flying lessons, and one year later, she broke her first record – she flew up to 14,000 feet. She married at 34, but never had children. The next year she became the first woman (and the second person) to fly alone across the Atlantic. Amelia was now famous; she travelled around the world and talked about her experiences. And in 1935, she turned 38; she became the first person to fly alone across the Pacific.

Her last flight

When she was nearly 40, Amelia tried to be the first woman to fly around the world. She started the 29,000 mile flight in Miami on 1 June 1937. On 2

July, she was nearly at the end of her journey, when she and her plane disappeared near Howland Island in the Pacific Ocean. People thought that she died because the plane was crashed.

Reading 2: The Christmas Presents

Della wanted to buy her husband – Jim a Christmas present. Della was the unemployed and she had no money. Suddenly, she ran to the mirror and looked at her beautiful long hair.

Della stopped when she came to a door with "Madame Eloise – Hair" on it. "Do you buy hair?", she asked.

"I buy hair", Madame answered. Madame slowly touched the hair with her hand. "Twenty dollars," she said. "Quick! Cut it off! Give me the dollars!" Della said.

Jim had a beautiful gold watch that once belonged to his father and before that to his grandfather. Jim loved this watch, but it had no chain. When she saw a gold watch chain in the shop, she immediately decided to buy it for her beloved Jim.

When she arrived home, she worried about her very short hair "What is Jim going to say when he sees me?"

At 7.00 o'clock, Jim came in. Della could not understand the look on his face. It showed that he was not angry or surprised, but sad.

"Don't look at me like that. I sold my hair because I wanted to buy you a present. But don't worry, it grows so fast. Don't you love me anymore Jim?"

"I will always love you no matter if your hair is long or short. But…open this and you can see why I was unhappy at first."

Della opened her present excitedly. There were the combs – for her beautiful hair. When she first saw the lovely and expensive combs in the shop window, she wanted them. But now they were hers, but she no longer had her hair. She held them in her hands and her eyes were full of love.

Then Della remembered Jim's present. "Give me your watch, and let's see

it with its new chain!"

Jim smiled. "Della, I sold it to buy your combs".

Reading 3: I have a dream

"I have a dream that my four children will one day live in a nation where they will not be judged by the color of their skin but by the content of their character."

The 3rd Monday of January each year is a national holiday in the USA. It is called "Martin Luther King Day".

Martin Luther King was born in 1929 in Georgia in the south of the USA. His father was a priest; Martin studied at college and also worked as a priest in Alabama.

At that time, black and white people were not treated equally. For example, in Alabama, black people had to stand up on a bus when a white people wanted to sit down. One day, a brave woman named Rosa Parks refused to do this. Parks and King decided to work together to change the law. In the end they won, and in 1956 Alabama changed the law.

King continued to fight for the rights of black Americans. He made some famous speeches, won the Nobel Peace Prize in 1964, and was the hero for millions of Americans. But some white people hated him. On 3rd April 1968, he made a speech to a big crowd in Memphis, Tennessee. He talked about his enemies and his own death. The next day, James Earl Ray shot Martin Luther King. He died on 4th April 1968.

King had four children: two boys and two girls. They all decided to continue his work and to fight for the rights of black Americans.

Reading 4: We have never learnt to drive.

Tudor Bowen-Jones is going to spend his 90th birthday doing what he love best - hitch-hiking.

A retired teacher named Tudor from South Wales, has spent 60 years hitch-hiking all over the world. He is now on his seventh passport, and wants to be in Vienna for his birthday. Tudor's first journey abroad was to France

and Belgium in 1947. Now he likes to make two or three journeys a year. But he has never learnt to drive.

Tudor says: "I started hitch-hiking round Britain in 1940s when I didn't have any money. It was the only way to travel. I travelled to 40 countries in the past, and I think it's an excellent way to visit places and meet people. People are usually very surprised and amazed when I tell them what I am doing!"

He visited Europe, the Middle East, and America, and he has taken all kinds of interesting lifts. He has hitched-hiked with a horse and a cart in Hungary, ridden a motorbike across Spain, sat in the back of a hearse in France, and enjoyed the comfort of a Rolls-Royce in Germany. The longest he has waited for a lift is twelve hours.

He has been to the Pyramids in Egypt, where the driver took out a gun. Tudor was frightened, but the driver cleaned the gun and put it back again! Tudor says that hitch-hiking is not dangerous, if you are careful.

He has made friends all over Europe. They come and visit him in his little home in Wales. "I'm always going to hitch-hike," Tudor says.

Reading 5:

2.   When Joise Dew was young, she fell out of a car, so she has never learnt to drive.

She was still studied at primary school when she knew she wanted to travel. So when she was eleven, she decided to go for long bike rides, and cycled 40 or 50 miles every day.

Joise says: "The only good thing about secondary school was cycling there and back. I dropped out of school when I was 16. I love cooking, so I started a business. I cooked three-course meals, and delivered them by bike! In 1985, as soon as I had some money. I cycled to Africa and back."

Jossie has travelled to 40 countries and has had all kinds of interesting experiences. She has cycled through the Himalayan Mountains in Nepal, then down into India. She has cycled through millions of locusts in the Moroccan desert. She has passed through tornados in the USA. She stayed

in Romania on Christmas Day in 1989 when the President Ceausescu was executed by the Government. And she hasn't been to Egypt yet, because when she was in Turkey, a war happened nearby. So she went to Greece instead.

She has sometimes travelled with friends, boyfriends and even her mother, but she has often cycled alone. She frightened only one time when a man attacked her in Bulgaria.

In 1997, she hurt her knee very badly, so she started writing books about her journeys. She has written 5 books, and now she is on her bike again! At the moment, she's planning to cycle around New Zealand.

APPENDIX 2

Key words for Youtube search for the videos used:

1. ED pronunciation in English - How to pronounce ED endings

2. Past Simple Tense - Regular Verbs: The Story of Alice & Josh (A cute, but unfortunately love story.)

3. English Grammar For Beginners - Regular Verbs In Past Simple Tense

4. "-ed" Past Tense | English Pronunciation

5. ED ending Pronunciation

APPENDIX 3

The quetionnaire

Applying shadowing technique to help students improve their "ed" pronunciation

Nhằm mục đích giúp đỡ các bạn sinh viên của trường Đại Học Đồng Tháp trong việc cải thiện khả năng phát âm, chúng tôi đang thực hiện một nghiên cứu mang tên "Applying shadowing technique to help students improve their "ed" pronunciation". Để bài nghiên cứu có thể hoàn thành tốt đẹp, chúng tôi rất mong nhận được phản hồi từ các bạn sau khoảng thời gian tham gia làm đối tượng nghiên cứu.

1) Bạn đã từng tập (hoặc biết) về kĩ thuật Shadowing từ trước khi tham gia nghiên cứu hay chưa?

   a. Chưa, đây là lần đầu tôi biết và tập.

   b. Có, tôi có biết từ thầy cô/bạn bè/Internet nhưng chưa từng tập.

   c. Có, tôi có biết từ thầy cô/bạn bè/Internet và đã từng tập.

2) Bạn có nghĩ rằng việc phát âm đuôi đúng là quan trọng ?

   a. Có

   b. Không

   c. Không ý kiến

3) Bạn có thói quen bỏ phát âm đuôi (s, es, ed...) hay không ?

   a. Luôn luôn

   b. Thỉnh thoảng

   c. Không bao giờ

4) Trước khi tham gia khảo sát, bạn có biết cách phát âm động từ có đuôi "ed" không?

   a. Có

   b. Không

5) Trước khi tập Shadowing, bạn có niềm tin rằng kĩ thuật này sẽ giúp mình cải thiện phát âm, đặc biệt là âm với đuôi "ed" hay không?

   a. Hoàn toàn có niềm tin

   b. Có một chút niềm tin

   c. Hoàn toàn không có niềm tin

   d. Không ý kiến

   6) Mỗi ngày, bạn dành bao nhiêu thời gian để tập?

   a. Ít hơn 30 phút

   b. Từ 30 đến 60 phút

   c. Nhiều hơn 60 phút

   d. Không xác định

7) Bạn có cho rằng học phát âm từ với đuôi "ed" bằng Shadowing thay cho cách học phát âm bằng các quy tắc (từ nào kết thúc bằng kí tự nào) thì có dễ hơn không?

    a.   Có

    b.   Không

    c.   Không ý kiến

8) Có bao nhiêu cách phát âm từ với đuôi "ed"? Trong các cách đó, theo bạn cách nào là khó phát âm nhất ?

………………………………………………………………………………
…………………

………………………………………………………………………………
…………………

Bạn cảm thấy mình tiến bộ như thế nào sau khi tham gia bài nghiên cứu?

    a.   0%

    b.   Khoảng 25%

    c.   Khoảng 50%

    d.   Khoảng 75%

    e.   100%

9) Bạn gặp khó khăn gì trong quá trình tập Shadowing ? (Có thể chọn nhiều lựa chọn)

    a.   Bận việc học các môn khác nên không có thời gian tập

    b.   Không có hứng thú nên lười tập

    c.   Không có nhiều nguồn videos để tập

    d.   Không hiểu rõ cách tập

    e.   Ngại sợ người xung quanh dòm ngó/cười trong lúc tập

    f.   Khác

10) Trong quá trình tham gia tập, bạn có học thêm hay áp dụng song song một phương pháp nào khác để cải thiện ngữ âm hay không ? (nếu có, vui lòng cho biết đó là phương pháp hoặc tài liệu nào ?)

……………………………………………………………………………………
…………………

……………………………………………………………………………………
…………………

11) Bạn sẽ tiếp tục luyện tập Shadowing trong tương lai ?

    a.   Chắc chắn

    b.   Không chắc lắm

    c.   Sẽ không

12) Bạn sẽ giới thiệu phương pháp Shadowing cho bạn bè ?

    a.   Có

    b.   Không

    c.   Không ý kiến

13) Để thành công với kĩ thuật Shadowing, bạn cho rằng (Có thể chọn nhiều sự lựa chọn):

    a.   Phải siêng năng chăm chỉ

    b.   Phải thật sự yêu thích tiếng Anh

    c.   Phải có thật nhiều thời gian

    d.   Phải chọn video về chủ đề mà mình thích

    e.   Phải có người tập cùng

    f.   Khác

14) Bạn có thấy Shadowing là một phương pháp thú vị hay không? Vì sao?

……………………………………………………………………………………
………………

Xin chân thành cảm ơn sự giúp đỡ của các bạn!

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STUDENTS' LEARNING STRATEGIES FOR DEALING WITH VOCABULARY AT THE UNIVERSITY OF ECONOMICS, HO CHI MINH CITY

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ABSTRACT

The purpose of this paper is to present and analyze the findings of the survey conducted on 130 students of the University of Economics, Ho Chi Minh City. It concentrates on the students' learning strategies for dealing with vocabulary. The author of this paper tries to find out some strategies students at UEH often use to learn vocabulary to create suitable classroom activities for them and motivate them in their learning process. The first part of the paper introduces briefly the students at UEH, the course book they use and the reason why the author is interested in this topic. The second part presents some theories related to vocabulary learning strategies. The following part is the questionnaire designed for students to discover their strategies for dealing with vocabulary. The fourth part illustrates and discusses the results of the research. The final part gives some recommendations to language teachers who want to match classroom activities with students' vocabulary learning strategies.

INTRODUCTION

Learning strategies are defined by Nunan (1999) as "the mental and communicative procedures learners use in order to learn and use language". Brown (1994) points out, "strategies vary widely within an individual'. Therefore, it is not always easy to decide exactly which learning strategies the learners manifest. However, based on the students' responses, I try to give an account of what I have found about their learning strategies for dealing with vocabulary.

The students who are handed out the questionnaires are in the third year.

They are studying Module 4, and their main course book is "Market Leader Pre-intermediate". This course book develops the communication skills students need to work in business and widen their knowledge of the business world. They are expected to use the language confidently and efficiently, master business vocabulary and improve their overall ability to communicate in the business world after this course.

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

In recent years, there has been a growing interest in research on language learning strategies. Researchers have attempted to describe how learners process the latest information and what kinds of strategies they employ to understand, learn or remember the information. In this literature, it is useful to provide various definitions and taxonomies of language strategies presented several researchers.

There are numerous definitions of language learning strategies by various researchers. According to Richards, Platt, and Platte (1992), "learning strategy (in language learning) is a way in which a learner attempts to work out the meanings and uses of words, grammatical rules, and other aspects of a language". Wenden and Rubin (1987) state that learning strategies as "…any sets of operations, steps, plans, routines used by the learner to facilitate the obtaining, storage, retrieval, and use of information, that is what learners do to learn and do to regulate their learning". Following Douglas (1994), strategies are "specific methods of approaching a problem or task, modes of operation for achieving a particular end, or planned designs for controlling and manipulating certain information".

It is unavoidable for language learners to use learning strategies to process new information and perform tasks in the language classroom, even though some of the learners are unaware of the strategies underlying the learning tasks in which they are engaged.

Language learning strategies learners use are identified and classified by leading researchers in the language learning strategies. Most researchers have developed their own lists of language learning strategies. For example, Oxford (1990) (cited in Hismanoglu 2000) provides the most comprehensive taxonomy of learning strategies currently available. These

strategies are divided into direct or cognitive strategies and indirect or metacognitive strategies.

- Direct strategies include such things as memorizing, analyzing and reasoning, guessing intelligently, practicing, reviewing well, employing action. Direct strategies are specific procedures that learners can use to internalize the language.

- Indirect strategies include things such as evaluating one's learning, cooperating with others, asking questions, empathizing with others.

Similarly, Brown and Palinsear (1982) (cited in Wenden and Rubin 1987) classified learning strategies as cognitive and metacognitive. In their view:

- Cognitive strategies are directly related to a specific task and learning objective and may not be applicable to diverse types of learning tasks. Cognitive strategies involve manipulation or transformation of the material to be learned.

- Metacognitive strategies involve thinking about the learning process, planning for learning, monitoring of learning while it is taking place and self- evaluation of learning after the learning activity. Metacognitive strategies can be applied to all types of learning tasks.

Beside cognitive strategies and metacognitive strategies, O'Malley (1985:582-584) (cited in Wenden and Rubin 1997) mentions the third type of language strategies. This type is called social-affective strategies. Social-affective strategies are related to social-mediating activity and transacting with other. Cooperation and questions for clarification are the main social-affective strategies.

The classification system which Wenden and Rubin (1987) found most useful for organizing the learning strategies identified has three main categories: metacognitive, cognitive, and social-affective strategies. This framework can help teachers realize learning strategies easier and integrate learning strategy instruction into their curriculum. According to them:

- Metacognitive strategies include advance organizers, directed attention, selective attention, self-management, advance preparation, self-monitoring, delayed production, and self-evaluation.

- Cognitive strategies consist of repetition, resourcing, directed physical response, translation, grouping, note-taking, deduction, recombination, imagery, auditory representation, key word, contextualization, elaboration, transfer, and inferencing.

- Social-affective strategies include cooperation and question for clarification.

- Social-affective strategies include cooperation and question for clarification.

In Vietnam, there are some researchers who are interested in discovering students' learning strategies. For example, Ho (2015) stated that Vietnamese learners have various strategies in their learning. Vietnamese students mainly use visual and auditory learning styles. Teachers not only help them improve their skills but also make them aware of the strategies that they can use better in their learning. Nguyen (2013) founded that 'the Vietnamese EFL students were medium users of strategies and they tended to use a wide range of strategies on a frequent basis in their language learning process.' She thought that Vietnamese students use more repetitive and memorisational strategies.

Of the different classifications of language learning strategies by many researchers, the author would like to follow Wenden and Rubin's framework to analyze the data.

However, the literature review in this field has revealed that it is necessary to update tools to investigate students' vocabulary learning strategies in the age of technology. Further research should be directed to this.

THE QUESTIONNAIRE

The questionnaire is designed to find out the students' learning strategies for dealing with vocabulary. These are the questions:

1. According to you, the most important part of learning English is

   a) Learning the grammar

   b) Learning the vocabulary.

   c) Learning how to translate from Vietnamese to English and vice versa.

d) Learning the pronunciation and the sounds.

e) Others (please specify).

2. What is your attitude towards learning vocabulary?

a) Learning the vocabulary is very interesting.

b) Learning the vocabulary is sometimes interesting

c) Learning the vocabulary is a little boring

d) Learning the vocabulary is very boring.

3. If you do not understand an unfamiliar English word, what will you do?

a) I look it up in the dictionary

b) I make guesses (such as by analyzing it or according to the context)

c) I ignore it

d) I ask somebody

e) Others (please specify)

4. What do you often do to memorize a new word?

a) I use it in a sentence.

b) I remember its location on the page, on the board.

c) I read it aloud many times.

d) I write it many times.

e) Others (please specify).

5. What do you often do to build up your English vocabulary words?

a) I read for pleasure English.

b) I watch English language TV shows spoken in English.

c) I learn some words from the dictionary

d) I try to find the family words (eg. All kinds of fruits/furniture…).

e) Others (please specify)

6. Where do you get your vocabulary?

   a) From my teacher and textbooks.

   b) Reference books.

   c) From my conservations with my friends or native speakers.

   d) From newspapers in English.

e) Others (please specify).

7. How often do you review your vocabulary?

   a) 0%

   b) 25%

   c) 50%

   d) 75%

   e) 100%

8. What do you often do to review your English vocabulary words?

   a) I build sentences using the words I have learnt.

   b) I write letters, messages, or diary in English

   c) I speak English to my friends, or join English clubs or talk to natives when there is a chance.

   d) I review my English lessons.

   e) Others (please specify)

9. When do you remember vocabulary better?

   a) When I do this alone

   b) When I do this with my friends

   c) When I do this with my teacher because s/he can correct my pronunciation.

   d) When I use the cassette player to learn it.

   e) Others (please specify).

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10. If you do not know right words in English what will you do?

    a) I make up new ones

    b) I use words or phrases that mean the same thing.

    c) I try to find until I get it.

    d) I ask somebody.

    e) Others (please specify).

11. In the conservation in English, if you do not know any words, you will

    a) Ask your partner to repeat or to slow down

    b) Ask your partner to explain

    c) Ignore these words

    d) Try to guess.

    e) Others (please specify)

12. How much progress do you think you have made since the beginning of your studying English?

    a) A lot

    b) A little

    c) Not at all

PRESENTATION AND INTERPRETATION OF DATA

The number of respondents: 130

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
A	10	24	84	27	22	43	8	17	56	4	34	42
B	79	64	44	3	74	17	59	19	42	56	62	79
C	6	30	2	50	11	29	56	35	16	35	7	9
D	28	12	/	38	10	38	7	54	16	34	26	/
E	7	/	/	12	13	3	0	5	/	1	1	/

Question 1 exploits the students' belief about language learning. They value highly the role of the vocabulary in their learning of English. Surprisingly, a much smaller number think that grammar is the most important. This can be explained that students are aware of using English as a communication means, not just doing grammar exercises.

Question 2 examines the students' attitude towards learning the vocabulary. Half of the students (64) think learning the vocabulary sometimes interesting. Not many students consider vocabulary to be boring.

The result of question 3 shows that 84 students (64%) look up a new world in the dictionary if they do not understand the meaning of new vocabulary. Only two students ignore it.

Question 4 asks the students about how they do to remember a new word. 50 students (38%) read a new word aloud many times, 38 students (29%) write it many times.

For question 5, 74 students (57%) develop their vocabulary by watching programmes in English on TV.

The result of question 6 is that most of their vocabulary comes from the teachers and text books.

Question 7 explores that 56 students (43%) of the students spend half of their free time reviewing their vocabulary. Only 8 students (6%) never spend their time on vocabulary revision.

Question 8 wants to know how the students review their vocabulary. 54 students (59%) review the English lessons to remember their vocabulary.

Question 9 investigates that 56 students (43%) learn vocabulary best when they study individually, 42 students (32%) like studying it with their friends.

From the result of question 10, we see that nearly half of the students use synonymous words or phrases when they do not know an exact word in English.

Question 11 asks the students about what they do if they meet an unfamiliar word during a conversation. 34 students (26%) ask their partner to repeat

or speak slowly, 62 students (47%) ask their partner to explain it.

The last question wants to know about the students' belief about themselves. 42 students (32%) think that they make a lot of progress, 79 students (60%) students make progress but not much, only 9 students (7%) state they have no progress.

DISCUSSION

According to their responses, I realize that the students have different learning strategies. It is very difficult to say which strategy is good or not good. However, 32% of the students say that they have a lot of progress, which means they have good strategies. 60% feel they make progress but not much and 7% think they have no progress; therefore, they have to adjust their learning strategies in order to learn English better.

Now, I would like to extract some learning strategies described by them through their responses according to Wenden and Rubin's framework above:

Self-management: The students understand the conditions that help them learn and arranging for the presence of those conditions. 43% learn vocabulary best when they study individually, maybe it is more concentrating. 32% like studying it with their friends because they can help each other remember the vocabulary. 12% of them like to learn it with their teachers, for their teachers can correct their pronunciation mistakes. In addition, 12% want to listen to the CD, maybe they can remember it by speakers' accent. (question 9)

Repetition: 38% of the students read and 29% write a new word many times when they are asked what to do to remember a new word (question 4).

Grouping: 7,6% of the students try to put a new word in the family word (question 5).

Recombination: When being asked to memorize a new word, about 20,7% use it in the sentence. They try to construct a meaningful sentence in which there is a new word by combining words already known in a new way (question 4).

Imagery: Only 2% use this strategy. They memorize a new word via familiar locations (question 4).

Auditory Representation: 12% of the students want to use a CD or a cassette player to learn vocabulary (question 9).

Inferencing: About 34% of them try to guess the meaning of a new word based on the context (question 3).

Cooperation: 32% like to work with their friends to remember new words better (question 9). 27% want to speak to their friends or join English clubs when they review their vocabulary (question 8).

Clarification: 33% want to ask their partner to repeat or speak slowly if they do not understand an unfamiliar word, 59% ask their partner to explain it (question 11).

Having realized the students' learning strategies, I would like to comment on my teaching method.

I have not been interested in their learning strategies before. In my class, I try to follow my teaching schedule; my teaching activities are rather poor, mainly based on activities in the course book. I rarely give them extra activities. I can explain that I do not have enough time to create more activities for my students. Through this research, I have an opportunity to know more about the students' learning strategies dealing with vocabulary. I think I have to adjust my teaching method to match their strategies.

RECOMMENDATION

From the students' responses, I wonder what I will do to help my students learn vocabulary better. In the research, I know that a lot of students like learning vocabulary; therefore, I have to develop, increase and maintain their motivation. I think I have to seek, design and conduct different interesting activities that respond to what students want to know and what they see as relevant to their learning purpose.

The following actions are recommended for effective ways of giving and learning tasks to match their varied learning strategies. Here are the specific ways:

The students should be encouraged to do classification tasks, for example, they are required to put vocabulary items into their semantic groups. Classifying helps learners to memorize grouped items better than isolated ones.

To the authority-based learners, they need to be trained some following techniques to be less dependent on the teacher and dictionary:

Guessing the meaning from the context.

Guessing a discourse relationship.

Inferring implied meaning.

In each class, a handout prepared by the teacher is delivered to the students. The handout consists of types of exercises about vocabulary words, such as matching items, cloze-test, items involving synonyms, multiple choice… The teacher must be sure that the handout does not take the students too much time to finish, about ten or fifteen minutes is enough because it does not aim to test them, but give them an opportunity to learn what they are interested in.

Extensive reading should be considered as one activity in class. The source is pieces of news from newspapers in regard to their fields such as economics, finance, and accounting.

The above recommendation s made based on the students' learning types and preferred strategies desire to help them to develop effective learning strategies.

CONCLUSION

Language learning strategies are very important in language learning and teaching. Each student has his/her own learning strategies in the learning process. Each learning task is at least one strategy. Therefore, the teacher should organize a lot of activities to match students' different learning strategies.

Conducting this study, I hope I can understand the students' learning strategies better so that I can select proper instructions to match their learning schedules, also help them plan their learning schedule in harmony with their learning strategies.

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LANGUAGE LEARNING STRATEGIES OF HIGH SCHOOL VIETNAMESE EFL STUDENTS

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ABSTRACT

Language learning strategies (LLS) has long been researched and proved to be crucial in facilitating EFL learners' language acquisition. In the Vietnamese EFL context, there has not been adequate research examining the use of LLS of high school students. The current study was conducted in response to examine Vietnamese EFL learners' LLS. A Vietnamese version of the Strategy Inventory Language Learning (SILL) version 7.0 (Oxford, 1989) was developed by the researcher and distributed to eighty-three high school students. The findings indicated that all of the subscales of the SILL were correlated with each other. LLS is positively associated with Vietnamese EFL learners' language achievement. Pedagogical implications are discussed.

Keywords: *Language Learning Strategies, Strategy Inventory Language Learning, Vietnamese SILL*

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TEACHING AND LEARNING MEDICAL TERMS: EFFECTIVE STRATEGIES

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ABSTRACT

Medical Terminology (MT) is considered as a must for almost every medical student (MS) when they choose to become professionals in the field. For a starter, approaching the world of MT seems to be confusing when there are tons of books related. With basic knowledge about Anatomy, MSs could save a lot of time mastering MT to enhance their knowledge in their chosen career by applying various methods in learning it. For that purpose, the paper will suggest some effective ways to learning and using MT to those who really concern about the field. Also, the author will evaluate useful methods in picking up terms and suggest some currently used resources in this field.

THE AUTHOR

Hoang Thi Hang graduated from HCMC University of Education in 2007, then completed her MA. Degree in TESOL from Victoria University in 2010. She is currently working as a full-time teacher at Pham Ngoc Thach University of Medicine. Having nine-year experience in English for Specific Purposes (ESP), she finds the medical world really interesting. In 2011, she had a chance to travel to Belgium to learn about Moodle- a platform used for e-learning.

TEACHING SKILLS: LISTENING, SPEAKING, READING AND WRITING

THE EFFECTS OF IMPLICATURE ON IMPROVING STUDENTS' LISTENING AND SPEAKING SKILLS

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ABSTRACT

English is adopted as the language of globalization these days due to its great importance in exchanging global culture and international economy (Graddol, 1997). Listening and speaking are receptive and productive skills that play an important part in understanding what English speakers say and mean behind their words as well as giving appropriate responses to build up communicative conversations. Besides, oral communicating competence including how efficiently we can hear and speak in target language would be better assessed rather than reading comprehension and writing ability. Nevertheless, many students usually come across several challengings during the process of acquiring these essential skills, so this study presents about the effects of teaching Implicature on enhancing learners' listening and speaking competence at School of Foreign Languages, Thai Nguyen University.

Keywords: *Implicature, English, listening, speaking.*

INTRODUCTION

Listening is one of the receptive skills which helps people be able to understand what others say and happen in most casual life activities as listed by Lindsay and Knight (2006): what speakers say during a conversation, whether face to face or on the telephone; noticeable announcements at an airport or railway station; the weather forecast on the radio; a lecture; professional advice, instructions on how to use a camera or other equipment, etc.

Because of its double psychological and social nature, listening is regarded as a complex process that takes place on a cognitive level inside people's

heads (Agustin, 2017). Moreover, this competence is also a social phenomenon, which develops interactively between people and the environment surrounding them. Consequently, it needs understanding so as to teach and evaluate it before integrating it with phonological aspects and with the skill of speaking (McLaren & Madrid, 2006). That is the reason why the aim of teaching listening comprehension is to help learners of English cope with listening in real life.

Contrary to listening, speaking is productive as well as one of the most difficult and important skills language learners have to encounter. It is also undeniable that the ability to speak a language is synonymous with knowing that language. Nonetheless, "speaking in a second or foreign language has often been viewed as the most demanding of the four skills" (Bailey & Savage, 1994, p.21).

However, most school lectures focus on theoretical content with great attention to grammar, structures and paper tests that prevent students from practicing speaking English frequently. Because of this difficulty, an ideal solution is to combine both listening and speaking task in classroom lessons. This brings pupils opportunities to use their speaking and listening skills in real life situations. Besides, applying new teaching methods and useful strategies are likely to support students efficiently. More especially, teachers are recommended to introduce **Implicature** in teaching listening and speaking naturally.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Implicature

The terminology "implicature" is used by Grice (1975) to account for what speakers may imply, mean or suggest as different from what they literally say. Grice's theory of implicature includes two main kinds that he called conventional implicature and conversational implicature.

Conventional Implicature

Conventional implicature is defined as an addition unstated meaning associated with the use of a specific word (Quang, 2005). He also divides conventional implicature into two types which are Common and Scalar.

However, I find Lyons' classification more comprehensive. While Quang (2005) concentrates on 'word' level, Lyons (1996) has analyzed conventional implicature from the small unit of 'word' to the larger unit of 'expression'.

For example, the utterance: "He is poor but honest", in which "poor but honest" implies a contrast between "poor" and "honest". With this, the speaker may be implicating that it is unusual for someone to be both poor and honest. The conventional implicature of "but" here is "contrast". We can also extend the list of forms that meet Grice's criteria for Conventional Implicature considerably. Many of the connectives giving cohesion to a text fall within the scope of this definition: therefore, however, *nevertheless, moreover, yet,* etc. So do modal particles such as *even, well* or *just* as in the following examples:

E.g.　　*Even Daisy likes that dish*

　　　　She may well be right

　　　　It was just one of the good news

Lyons (1996) even logically extends the notion of conventional implicature with the choice of one form of an expression, rather than another. For example, if the speaker says

　　　Michael asks me to work for him

　　　or

　　　Michael has asked me to work for him

　　　rather than

　　　　　Michael asked me to work for him

He or she may imply that Michael's statement had or still has validity. In fact, differences of tense and mood are also associated with differences of expressive meaning frequently.

From the above analysis, Lyons (1996) defines conventional implicature as something that does not only depend on truth-conditional in the conventional use or meaning of particular forms and expressions.

Conversational Implicature

There is another way to classify implicature is that they are divided into generalized implicatures and particularized implicatures.

- Generalized implicatures – which is inferred without a special reference to context.

John walked into *a house* yesterday (That means the house here was not John's house)

- Particularized implicatures – which is inferred only due to a special context.

A: Can you tell me the time?

B: Well, the milkman is here.   (In this case, it must be the time when the milkman comes)

With conversational implicatures, what is implied varies according to the context of utterance. Conversational implicatures also differ in scope and contrast with conventional implicature. Furthermore, utterances' meaning is indirectly associated with the linguistic context and drawn from principles of the cooperative convention.

This is the type of implicature that is mentioned the most frequently. Because of the reasonable explanation for implications in conversations, it is not difficult to understand why conversational implicature has received such a lot of attentions from linguists.

As we know, there are many situations where the speakers and listeners' responses seem to be not literally relevant but the participants yet understand each other. In fact, they interpret the information by implying, not stating. Implicatures can be inferred from the assumption that the speaker observes or ignores some principles of cooperation. Grice (1975) argued that this predictable inference information could be explained by postulating cooperative principle, which shows agreement by speakers and listeners in communication. Thus, in order to understand the notion of conversational implicature thoroughly, we need to understand the maxims of Cooperative Principle suggested by Grice (1975).

Maxims

- Quantity (also called the Maxim of Informativeness)

This requires that the speaker provides all the necessary information he has

for the present needs of the partner. In other words, speakers are expected to make a contribution as informative as required.

For example: A: I feel empty. B: There is a restaurant round the corner.

Implicature: As far as the speaker knows, the restaurant is open and also sells foods. If neither of the two was true B would not have said so. Therefore, he can find something to eat there.

- Quality (also called the Maxim of Truthfulness)

This maxim requires that we are not permitted to say something we believe to be false and only give information for which we have evidence.

A: Who won the match yesterday?

B: Manchester did.

Implicature: Assuming that B is co-operative and provides information for which he has evidence, his reply is true and therefore Manchester won the match; otherwise, B would have provided a different answer.

- Relation (also called the Maxim of Relevance)

- Make your contribution relevant.

A: Can I borrow 10 euros?

B: My wallet is in the bedroom.

Implicature: Provided B is co-operative and provides a relevant answer, I can borrow 10 euros.

A: How are the trumpet lessons going?

B: Not great, but I'd rather not discuss it now.

Implicature: The trumpet lessons are not going so well.

Manner (also called the Maxim of Clarity)

In this kind of maxim, the speaker should avoid ambiguity as well as make her response brief enough.

A. Do you love me?

B. Of course I do.

Implicature: Provided that B is co-operative, he is giving her a clear, unambiguous answer; therefore, B loves A.

In general, there are some necessary points for English language users to remember. Firstly, the maxims are not rules that people have to follow in an interaction. Secondly, people do not always follow these maxims in everyday interaction. Even when the maxims are violated, the hearer assumes that this is done on purpose and looks for particular inferences.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The study was designed with the purpose of finding answers to the following questions:

1. How does Implicature affect the students' listening and speaking competence?

2. What are the students' attitudes towards the importance of Implicature in learning listening and speaking at School of Foreign Languages, Thai Nguyen University?

THE STUDY

Settings and participants

This case study was carried out under the situation of realizing students' difficulties in dealing with not only speaking as well as listening assignments at university but also understanding the context in the target language. Most leaners come across troubles in acquiring meanings of the native speakers' words, which leads to their weakness in absorbing oral language (listening skill) and giving responses (speaking skill).

The study subjects were 84 students who all agree on the implementation of the proposed method taking part in this research. The participating students, with both females and males from English Education Class – Course 38 are from School of Foreign Languages, TNU. The reason for choosing those participants is that they all finished three semesters at university, so they were expected to be at the elementary level. In addition, this group is considered suitable ones because they have recently fulfilled the exam for the subject "English Oral Proficiency" and "English Written Proficiency"

which reflect their current competence in language uses, especially English-speaking ability.

Data collection and analysis

Case study research is employed as an appropriate approach for this study since this method, through reports of the previous work, allows the exploration and understanding of complex issues. Specifically, it can be considered a robust research method particularly when a holistic, in-depth investigation is required. Case study is still recognised as a tool in many social science studies, the role of case study method in research becomes more prominent when issues with regard to education (Gulsecen & Kubat, 2006), sociology (Grassel & Schirmer, 2006) and community-based problems (Johnson, 2006).

So as to fit the aim of this study, the researcher combines two instruments: tests (pre-test, and post-test) and interview. The listening and speaking tests are designed to measure the chosen sophomores' English speaking competence before and after the course. Then it is the researcher's job to evaluate students' results through test scores and collect their feedbacks through a direct interview at the end of the fifteen-week course.

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

According to the pre-test results, the students' mark in the class were divided into 5 major groups: excellent group (mark 9), good group (mark 8), fair to good group (mark 7), fair group (mark 5 to 6), and very poor group (mark 2, 3, and 4).

Table 1. Pre-test scores

Sub - group	Number of students	%
Excellent (9-10)	0	0
Good (8)	8	9.5
Fair to good (7)	16	19.0
Fair (5 - 6)	47	56.0
Very poor and inadequate (1 - 4)	13	15.5

The table showed that among all participants, no one achieved excellent marks (9-10). Being at the second rank, 8 students (9.5%) got mark 8. In contrast, 47 was the number of those who got mark 5 to 6 which belonged to fair level and the remaining number of students who got very poor and inadequate marks was 13 which accounted for 15.5 percent. The total marks of the pre-test were 478 and the average score of the class was 5.69.

Table 2. Post-test score

Sub - group	Number of students	%
Excellent (9-10)	3	3.8
Good (8)	18	21.3
Fair to good (7)	34	40.5
Fair (5 - 6)	22	26.1
Very poor and inadequate (1 - 4)	7	8.3

It is obvious that after 15 weeks of learning with Implicature lessons, there were 3 (3.8%) students getting excellent score which was really impressive. The number of those who got good grade (mark 8) was 18 that were more than twice as it in the pre-test. More importantly, these students who got very poor and inadequate marks were 7 (8.3%) which were much lower than those in the pre-test (13).

Consequently, this result proved that there was a big difference between the pre-test and post-test with the students' post-test scores were higher than that in the pre-test. It meant that the theory of Implicature was effective because there has been a great progress in the participants' score, and their achievement was greatly increased after the 15-week course.

Additionally, the interview's findings also revealed a significant positive correlation between the participants' pragmatic competence and language proficiency. It is because they all shared that during the course; they were obliged to read the theories thoroughly as well as to practise with real-life situations using referencing competence in understanding and making

conversations with their partner. Hence, those periods motivated learners to enhance listening and speaking skills voluntarily and actively. In other words, it is the ability to use a language to express a wide range of functions as well as interpret their illocutionary force in discourse due to the socio-cultural context. Many of them also shared that although they tried to acquire lots of vocabulary, repeat the tape many times, they could not find the best answer for the test. The problem is then clarified due to the matter of Implicature which requires the listeners to infer the hidden meanings of the utterances they heard. Most of the participants claimed that after the course, they were able to understand both linguistic and contextual knowledge in the previous assignments and achieved higher levels of language processing automaticity.

IMPLICATIONS AND LIMITATIONS

Although pragmatic competence is part of the knowledge base of teaching English to speakers of other languages, little attention is usually given to pragmatics in teacher education (Vásquez & Sharpless, 2009). The matter is what we are saying is not wrong but sometimes not very natural. More or less, the matter of naturalism has not been paid much attention to. Implicature, which is quite a common way to communicate among native speakers, is an obvious example. Implicature is so common in everyday conversations that it appears frequently in international tests like TOEFL or TOEIC. Unfortunately, it is not common in Vietnamese contexts and even in English learning lessons. Native speakers do not always talk about things directly, however, they do not beat around the bush as the way Vietnamese speak either. Thus, to speak English actually fluently and one-step better - naturally, learners need to care for not only the grammar and vocabulary but also the way native speakers speak. Among all, Implicature is the outstanding phenomenon because of its popular use in conversations. We can imagine how unnatural and strange it would be as we speak in a different way from the others. Moreover, it is worse in some situations when people say something with implicative meanings but we cannot understand or misunderstand them. Either of these cases can cause the conversations to end. This means that the communicative aim is unsuccessful. Therefore, mastering and applying Implicature theory into

practice certainly helps learners in understanding real English conversations and developing their practical listening and speaking skills.

There are some existing limitations of this research. In spite of conducting a survey on more than 80 sophomores at SFL-TNU to explore the attendants' perspectives about the effectiveness of Implicature integration, the number of participants was still limited. There were 84 students from English Education major, course 35 took part in this research. This small figure affected the final outcome of the study because it did not collect all school students' opinions about this studying approach. Additionally, the researcher should have used much more materials for references before conducting the inquiry.

CONCLUSION

This paper has a preliminary discussion on the use of the Implicature in teaching listening comprehension and speaking skills with the aims at supporting the students to develop their ability to understand implied meanings in EFL conversations and communicate by using English more effectively.

It is obvious that some English listeners who possess a variety of vocabularies and grammatical rules may find it hard to understand a sentence when it is put in a piece of the listening record. Therefore, learners are required to have both knowledge of grammar and a deep understanding of the application of language in social contexts. Then, after mastering specific strategies to have a good listening comprehension ability, they are capable of developing speaking skill through both practising listening and communicating with others regularly. In recent years, although English listeners have changed their learning methods and listening materials in order to improve their listening ability, the listening ability of many English listeners is still deficient. There still have existing problems in training and practicing listening comprehension as well as speaking it. "We cannot really understand the nature of language itself unless we understand pragmatics" as stated by Leech (1983, p.34).

As mentioned and discussed in above parts, it is being tried to find out methods to improve learners' speaking and listening comprehension

abilities. Therefore, the factors influencing listening, no matter the linguistic or non-linguistic factors have been greatly attracting people's attention. Grice's Conversational Implicature theory had strong influences on listening comprehension deeply, especially in understanding daily conversations. Basing on things they can hear, listeners are capable of applying them to create their own dialogue naturally and informatively. In conclusion, while teaching English, teachers should choose the necessary linguistic theories to guide their students' speaking and listening comprehension, the pragmatic theory can help learners better understand implicated meaning in English listening practical situations.

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THE APPLICATION OF TOP-DOWN LISTENING IN TEACHING LISTENING PART 3 TOEIC TEST

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ABSTRACT

Since Test of English for International Communication (TOEIC) has widely been used as a tool for assessing learners' English competence and become an obligatory requirement for students to pass University level in Vietnam, dozens of books have been published to help learners conquer it. None of these put the communication on top, blurring learners from the core value of the test which aims to improve their awareness of English for daily work. Most textbooks focus on sound perception, grammar, vocabulary, and test strategy training. However, in order to comprehend thoroughly the meaning in a stream of spoken language, students must grasp the formal organization of the talks, guess the general idea from clues and apply prior knowledge.

This article investigates the application of top-down processing instruction in order to help students activate their prior knowledge in listening, make the best use of it, and build up the habit of integrating linguistic knowledge with schemata in the interpretive process of listening. The research also provides a sample lesson plan with well-designed activities, which can be used as a reference for teachers interested in top-down approaching.

Key words: *TOEIC test, top-down listening, prior knowledge*

LITERATURE REVIEW

Teaching Top-down listening

Schema theory is currently widely used in the teaching of reading, writing as well as listening comprehension. It accounts for the role of the listener's

background knowledge in language comprehension and tells us that the language comprehension is a process between new information and the old one. Background knowledge, or *'schema'*, refers to knowledge and experience that one has had in memory and can be called on in the process of comprehension (Lynch and Mendelsohn, 2010, p.184). Schemata may take different forms: *'content schemata'* and *'rhetorical schemata'*. While *content schemata* are networks of knowledge on different topics, enable students to link contents, *rhetorical schemata* (also called *textual* or *formal schemata*) is the awareness of the genre that makes listeners easier to engage in top-down processing strategies, such as predicting and inferencing (Lynch and Mendelsohn, 2010, p.184).

Basing on that theory, top-down processing, which is defined as relying on what one already knows to help make sense of what learners hear, requires learners to go from whole to part, and focus on the interpretation of meaning rather than recognition of sounds, words, and sentences.

While Bottom-up processing uses incoming input as the basis for understanding the message (Richards, 2008, p.4), Top-down processing emphasizes the use of background knowledge in understanding the meaning of a message. Following this point of view, O'Malley, Chamot, and Kupper (1989, cited in Mendelsohn, 1994, p.19) defines that *'listening comprehension is an active and conscious process in which the listener constructs meaning by using cues from contextual information and **from existing knowledge**, while relying upon multiple strategic resources to fulfill the task requirement'*. In order to listen successfully, Anderson and Lynch (1988) drilled the crucial role of the listener as '***activating various types of knowledge***', and 'applying what he knows to what he hears and trying to understand what the speaker means' (Anderson and Lynch, 1988, p.6). Investigating difficulties students have in the listening process, Ji (2015) also emphasized the role of prior knowledge. First, students 'fail to appreciate that we integrate linguistic knowledge with our existing knowledge… and do not need to hear every word' (Ji, 2015, p.137). Second, 'learners who are unfamiliar with the background knowledge required to make sense of a text will experience difficulty in inferring and interpreting meaning' ((Ji, 2015, p.139).

To conclude, listening comprehension is widely regarded as not merely the process of a one-way receiving of audible symbols, but also an interactive process (Brown, 2001) in which a competent listener wisely uses both of bottom-up and top-down processing to achieve effective comprehension of a spoken message (cited by Schmitt, 2010, p.183).

Challenges of Part 3 TOEIC: Short Conversation

In the Listening test of TOEIC, there are four parts: Picture Description, Question-Response, Short conversation, Short talks in which Part 3 is the most challenging one. This part consists of ten short conversations, *each* followed by *three* questions with four answer options for the test-takers to choose the correct one basing on what he/she hears. All the 30 questions and the answer options are printed, not the conversation.

According to Craven, M. (2012), there are seven factors to be aware of in Part 3 of the TOEIC Listening and Reading test:

- *Length*: The four-turn conversations do vary in length and some can be rather long.

- *Language level:* The variable complexity of vocabulary, sentence structure and grammar make some words or expressions difficult to understand.

- *Question types*: The questions test abilities not only to comprehend the main ideas and details but also to make an inference.

- *Answer choices*: The length of answer choices is considerably different. Long answer choices take more time to read and to process.

- *Repetition*: The more difficult conversations involve less repetition and less paraphrasing of ideas, so the test-takers may only have one chance to identify the information he/ she need to answer a question correctly.

- *Sequencing*: The order of information appearing is sometimes not in the same order of questions. Test-takers need to locate where the information they need is.

- *Bunching*: A conversation may occasionally 'bunch' key information to

further increase the challenge, so test-takers also need to locate where the information they need is.

Some other difficulties in this part are caused by unique features of listening, such as: it is usually ephemeral, one-shot nature; the presence of a rich prosody: stress, intonation, rhythm, loudness…; the presence of characteristics of natural fast speech like assimilation, elision; the frequent need to process and respond almost immediately…This project mainly focuses on the most common problem, with which students do not know how to activate and make use of their background knowledge in listening, especially in understanding the message. Thus, it aims to apply top-down process instruction in order to help students activate their background knowledge to aid prediction, inference, as well as facilitate comprehension.

A SAMPLE LISTENING LESSON

A typical lesson sequence in current teaching materials involves a three-part lesson sequence - consisting of pre-listening while listening and post-listening; and contains activities related to the top-down listening process.

Applying the term of active listening, the following three instructional approaches are suggested: First, the teacher should teach the prominent genre features for Part 3. Second, the teacher pre-teaches key lexical items and has the students activate shared background knowledge of the text and predict the topic, the context, the speakers, or even the sequence of the discourses. Lastly, students should preview the questions for the listening passage, thereby creating space for expectation and purpose for listening and alerting them to the information they should listen for.

Teaching materials

The example of a short conversation Part 3 – TOEIC Listening and Reading test with 3 questions and the tapescript, can be seen in the **Appendix 1**.

A sample lesson plan

The following lesson plan concentrates on description of teacher's activities rather than students' ones. The target students are at Pre-intermediate level with about 30 students in a class.

	Teacher	**Students**
Lead-in	- Introduce the topic of the lesson (*about jobs*) (**Appendix 2**) - Ask Ss to work in pairs, match each job with its suitable daily work. *Ex: 'preparing VAT returns' is the work of an accountant, match the two together by writing down 1-E.* Check the answers and explain difficult concepts which students do not understand, if any) <u>*Answers: 1-E, 2-A, 3-C, 4-B, 5-F, 6-D.*</u> **-** Lead in the content of the listening (*about what their jobs are and what they exactly do in detail*)	- Work in pairs in 5 minutes)

<u>*Analysis:*</u> The warmer introduces the theme of the lesson: *'people with jobs',* familiarizing students with the topic

Also, the matching game links to the theme and draws students' attention to 2 main ideas:

+ Names of different jobs/ positions

+ What people do in their jobs/ positions

As a result, Ss activate their prior knowledge (***content schemata***) about these two main ideas and are introduced the related vocabulary

Besides, T introduces the coming activities to draw attention of Ss

| **Pre-listening** | **-** Ask Ss to work in groups of four, discuss what they think is the criteria they should have to get a good job? (**Appendix 2**).

(T goes around to join or to give help to weaker groups)

- Guide the Ss to look at the | - Ss discuss in 10 minutes, choose from the list and explain their choice.

- Imagine about |

	comprehension questions, read the questions only, and *guess* what types of questions and which information they need to listen for.	the context and guess content according to teacher's guide
	Possible answers:	
	1. Who… - listening for main idea - people's jobs/ positions/ works	
	2. What… - inference question- a(n) deduction/ implication	- Choose possible answer
	3. According to the woman, what should… - listening for detail - a(n) request/ advice/ suggestion.	
	- Let Ss read the answer choices and guess: what relationship between speakers are, where they are, what they are talking about. Check the answers with and write down the answers.	
	Possible answers:	
	+ colleagues	
	+ in office/ company/ café…	
	+ Other people/ company/ budget and money/ market…	
	- Sum up the guess and ask Ss to be ready for listening	

Analysis: In the process of discussing, Ss activate their vocabulary of *'the criteria you should have to get a job'*.

Ss guess and make a list of things they will hear. First, Ss use the set of questions to define *what they expect to hear about the topic*. (then, may listen to see if they are answered later). Next, students study answer choices to guess the *genre* of the listening text, which makes it easier for listeners to predict or infer

This activity may also help students to activate their ***rhetorical schemata*** of the structure and organization of the text type.

While listening	- Play the record the first time	- listen to check what they have guessed
	- Play the record second time and ask Ss to answer the comprehensive questions in handouts (**Appendix 2**). So	- listen and try to answer three questions and circle the correct answers.
	- Then T conducts feedback by listing the answers from class and provide correct answers)	
	Answers: 1.B 2.C 3.A	

Analysis: Students are checked their skills of listening comprehension through activities of:

+ Listening for main idea/ gist. (Question 1)

+ Listening for detail. (Question 3)

+ Inference/ deduction. (Question 2)

Post-listening	- Guide Ss to look at case study. (**Appendix 2**), explain the situation	- work in pairs to do the tasks in handouts
	- Discuss together with Ss to choose five questions that may use to ask the candidate. Conduct feedback by listing the answers from class on blackboard	- discuss in groups
		- Role play:
	- **Guide Ss to do** role-play in pairs in five minutes. Then ask them to change the roles	* Student A (interviewer): gives the candidate five questions you have chosen.
		* Student B (candidate) tries to answer the questions

Analysis: Through the case-study activity, Ss are required to practice speaking in order to revise their vocabulary, structures, as well as to give their opinions about the topic of job recruitment. Besides, they will get familiar more with the structures of the conversation in real test by creating conversation themselves

EXPECTED OUTCOMES AND IMPLICATIONS

In the application of top-down processing instruction expected students to know how to activate prior knowledge and experience and make use of that background knowledge in listening. Besides, students would develop the habit of integrating linguistic knowledge with schemata, improving listening strategies like Predicting and Inferencing. After all, students are improved listening competent and TOEIC scores.

To some degree, difficulties in aurally comprehending a stream of oral discourse are that, whenever the listener mishears or fails to catch several key words, he or she often loses track of the text, because being aware of having failed to catch a few key words causes a significant cognitive and affective burden. However, by knowing the formal structure and organization of the text, listeners may be able to stay on track even if they miss some words. In short, the formal schema helps test takers retrieve rhetorical organization based on their learning experience, and by doing so, they are more likely to follow the whole text, even if they miss some key words in the middle of the listening text.

Top-down processing is suitable for teaching TOEIC preparation as in the real test because in both situations, listeners rely on what they already know to help make sense of what they hear. In top-down processing, student's background knowledge and experience are what they know. In TOEIC, student's background knowledge and experience, adding the questions and answers which they read before listening, are what they know.

The paper also suggests a good listening teaching procedure in which there are two main steps. First, teachers should teach the overall organization of the prominent genres explicitly; and, in the next step, students must train their listening comprehension using prototypical texts. If the students are not exposed to prototypical texts repeatedly, activating the formal schema of the texts seems to be unlikely; students need repeated practice in order to learn to comprehend the central meaning of identical texts and develop fluency in listening.

Besides, the important skill for comprehending passages in Parts 3 is inferencing skill. Parts 3 requires the test takers to infer meaning that is only

implied in the texts. In other words, students must identify the context of a particular spoken text—for example, where the speech is most likely taking place, who the speakers are, and what the purpose of the speech is. All of these components correspond with the term discourse community. In order to grasp the implied meaning of the texts, students must activate shared background knowledge with the speakers (Rost & Wilson, 2013). Shared background knowledge refers to common ground between the listener and the speaker, which is mutual cognitive space with the speaker of the text.

Moreover, the prior activation of the similar cognitive space is a key implication of active listening: Without activating common cognitive ground, the listener cannot fully understand the message.

An effective way of activating prior knowledge is previewing the questions about the listening passage. By previewing the questions, students can create space for expectations and purposes— the gist of the information and the concepts they should be alert for during listening. Expectations and purposes are linked to one another and associated with a listener's active participation in listening (Ur, 1984). Together with lexical priming, previewing the questions enhances the degree of active listening.

Due to the pressure of time and the boundary of the research, this paper limited itself to the suggestions of teaching procedure basing on top-down listening approach. Hence, there are still research gaps for further researches on measuring statistically the results of top-down approach in teaching TOEIC listening, as well as make a comparison between top-down and bottom-up approach toward teaching TOEIC listening comprehension for Vietnamese students. Hopefully, the topic could encourage the teachers with the motivation of applying new things in teaching, bringing best results for the training process.

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APPENDIX 1: Teaching materials

A short conversation of Part 3- TOEIC Listening and Reading test (Craven, 2012, p.42)

Questions:

1. Who most likely are the speakers?

    A. Client service analysis

    B. Human resource manager

    C. Market researchers

    D. Finance directors

2. What does the woman imply?

    A. The budget is too small

    B. Mistakes have been made

    C. Ms. Chivers is inexperienced

    D. The market is strong.

3. According to the woman, what should the man do?

    A. Contact Ms. Hofmann   C. Wait for an offer

    B. Return some money   D. Call important clients.

Tape script:

Man: OK, so of the three we've finally managed to short-list, who do you think we should take on? I'd say it's a pretty close thing, actually.

Female: Yes, I agree. They all have their strengths. I thought that Frances Chivers came across very well, which is critical of course, but perhaps she lacks the knowledge of market we need right now. I mean, She's keen all right, but she's only been in the business 18 months. We can't afford to make any mistakes.

Man: Hmm. And I'd say Frank Lee is the strongest on paper, but he's changed companies almost every two years, which does worry me a little. He has the experience, though.

Female: That's basically what it boils down to, isn't it? But for my money, Laura Hofmann proved she has good contacts with all our major clients, and she has a strong track record. I'd say you give her a call and make an offer.

APPENDIX 2: The handout

1 Matching Game

Jobs	Daily works
1. Accountant	A. controlling all financial aspects of company.
2. Finance director	B. controlling the direction of the company.
3. Market researcher	C. recording and analyzing of data about customers
4. CEO (Chief Executive Officer)	D. managing the financial portfolio of clients
5. Human resources manager	E. preparing VAT returns
6. Stockbroker	F. *recruiting* and training employees

2 Discussion

What criteria should you have to get a good job? Choose from the given list and explain why?

+ *Experience*

+ *High Distinction Certificates*

+ *Good relationship with the employer*

+ *Good relationship with clients*

+ *Knowledge related to the job*

+ *Impressive records for achievements in the job*

3 Comprehensive questions

1. Who most likely are the speakers?

A. Client service analysis

B. Human resource manager

C. Market researchers

D. Finance directors

2. What does the woman imply?

A. The budget is too small

B. Mistakes have been made

C. Ms. Chivers is inexperienced

D. The market is strong.

3. According to the woman, what should the man do?

A. Contact Ms. Hofmann

B. Return some money

C. Wait for an offer

D. Call important clients.

4 Case study

A job fair in Singapore

A film company is looking for a sales assistant

TREADLIGHT FILM

Background

You and a colleague work for the Treadlight Film Company, a television production company. You are both at a job fair in Singapore. You want to find an assistant for your sales manager in Singapore. On a website, you read information about three young people at the fair looking for a job in sales. Read about them, then do the task below.

Jenny Wong

Age: 20 **Born:** Taiwan
Education: high-school certificate
Work experience: sales assistant in bookshop
Languages: fluent Chinese, basic knowledge of English
Personality/appearance: elegant, friendly
Interests: music, international cinema

Cindy Tan

Age: 21
Born: Hong Kong
Education: university graduate (geography)
Work experience: –
Languages: fluent Chinese, good standard of English
Personality/appearance: well-dressed, confident
Interests: conversation, people

David Chong

Age: 24
Born: Singapore
Education: university graduate (computing)
Work experience: website designer
Languages: fluent Chinese and English
Personality/appearance: serious, hard-working
Interests: computer games, karate

Work in pairs. Imagine you have time to interview only one of the candidates.

1. **Tell your colleague:** Who do you want to meet? Do you agree to your partner's choice? Why?

2. **Discuss to choose five questions that you will ask the candidate to find out more** **information (besides what you have known).**

3. **Role play**

* Student A - the interviewer: gives the candidate five questions you have chosen.

* Student B: the candidate: tries to answer.

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WILLINGNESS TO COMMUNICATE IN ENGLISH: A STUDY OF VARIABLES INFLUENCING BUSINESS ENGLISH MAJORS AT HCMC UNIVERSITY OF ECONOMICS

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ABSTRACT

Together with the advance of globalization, English language education in Vietnam has also been placed with extreme importance. However, the EFL context of Vietnam does not give people many chances to speak English in everyday life. This leads to a consequence that the majority of English learners in Vietnam can only use English in limited contexts like within the classroom boundaries. Nevertheless, to achieve the ultimate goal of communication, one must learn to convey ideas. Thus, one's willingness to communicate (WTC) in L2 is crucial to improving L2 communication skills. The purpose of the present study is to examine possible interrelationships among WTC, perceived communicative competence, and classroom conditions. To this end, a questionnaire was administered to 75 students majoring in Business English at HCMC University of Economics. The collected data was then analyzed by SPSS for descriptive statistics and correlation test. The results not only cast light on the variables affecting students' WTC in English but also lead us to discuss further pedagogical implications.

Key words *willingness to communicate, perceived communicative competence, communication confidence*

INTRODUCTION

There is no denying the fact that English plays an immense role as a school subject in the context of foreign language education in Vietnam. However, in the past, the traditional grammar-translation approach which helped

prepare students for the high school graduation exams and entrance exams to higher education vastly limited the opportunities for students' real communicative practices. Therefore, taking initiative in interacting with people is beyond the grasp of the majority of students. More recently, contemporary language pedagogy has placed great weight on meaningful communicative interactions in class towards shaping and developing learners' communicative competence. The goal of EFL education is not just the mastery of structures anymore. In recent years, under the Decision 1400 (2008) released by Vietnamese Ministry of Education and Training, communication has officially been assigned a place in the curriculum of EFL programs at both high school and university levels. According to the Decision, upon graduation, Vietnamese EFL learners should be able to effectively initiate meaningful interactions so that they can later work in any multi-lingual or multi-cultural contexts. That explains why a study of WTC among EFL learners in the university context should be conducted. Nevertheless, up to now, there is still a limit to the number of research papers on WTC in Vietnam. This has urged the researchers to carry out the current study with a view to promoting active in-class communication engagement for the students.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Willingness to Communicate (WTC)

Over the past years, MacIntyre, Clément, Dörnyei, and Noels (1998), Yashima (2002), Kang (2005), MacIntyre (2007), and MacIntyre and Legatto (2011) have all stressed the extreme importance of WTC as an essential component of modern language education. WTC is described as 'a readiness to enter into discourse, at a particular time with a specific person or persons,

using L2' (MacIntyre, Clément, Dörnyei, and Noels, 1998, p.547). The concept of Willingness to Communicate (WTC) was first developed in the context of first language (L1) communication (McCroskey & Richmond, 1987). In a research by MacIntyre (1994), an L1 WTC model was developed in which language apprehension had a negative impact on L1 WTC and perceived communicative competence positively influenced L1 WTC. The L1 WTC model was then applied to second language (L2)

communication in a study by MacIntyre and Charos (1996) to test the L2 WTC model. After MacIntyre and Charos (1996), a lot of research has been carried out to further examine the structural relationships that influence L2 WTC. The majority of empirical studies indicated that self-confidence is the strongest predictor of WTC (e.g., Ghonsooly et al., 2012; Hashimoto, 2002; Munezane, 2013; Peng & Woodrow, 2010). Hence, the higher the level of students' self-confidence is, the more willing students are to communicate in L2. Besides, Kang (2005) stated that 'L2 learners with a high level of WTC are more likely to use L2 in authentic communication and facilitate language learning' (p.278).

Perceived communicative competence

Perceived communicative competence is defined as learners' self-evaluation of their language skills (Peng, 2009). McCroskey and Richmond (1987) pointed out that WTC is mainly affected by communication anxiety and communication skills. Nevertheless, there is not enough evidence to confirm the relationship between WTC and communication skills. Kelly (1982, cited in Yu, 2009) indicated that learners who highly rank themselves in communicating are more willing to initiate communication. Some other researchers also studied the relationship between perceived communicative competence, WTC, and communication apprehension (Cetinkaya, 2005; Hashimoto, 2002; MacIntyre & Clément, 1996; Matsuoka, 2005; Yashima, 2002). The results showed that there is a positive relationship between perceived communicative competence and WTC and a negative relationship between perceived communicative competence and apprehension. According to Clément (1980, 1986), self-confidence is regarded as a variable structured by perceived communicative competence and communication apprehension.

Language classroom environment

Studies conducted in L2 WTC has pointed out that students' beliefs, attitudes, language proficiency, and self-confidence are some factors that relate to the language classroom itself (Cao, 2011). Peng and Woodrow (2010) took only three components of the language classroom environment into consideration: task orientation, student cohesiveness, and teacher support. Through former empirical research, these three variables were

shown to be relevant factors in a language classroom context (Clément, Dörnyei, & Noels, 1994; Williams & Burden, 1997). Teacher support mentions the extent to which the teacher gives aid, supports, makes friends with and cares for the students (Dorman, Fisher, & Waldrip, 2006). According to Wen and Clément (2003), the teacher's support can directly affect L2 WTC. Dorman et al. (2006) defined student cohesiveness as the extent to which students befriend, help, and support one another. Student cohesiveness was found to have a great impact on communication and learning in the classroom (Clément et al., 1994). In other words, students receiving support from a cohesive group will feel more motivated to learn and carry out learning tasks (Peng, 2009). Task orientation implies the extent to which it is important to finish all activities and resolve problems (Dorman et al., 2006). As Kubanyiova (2007) pointed out, appealing and engaging tasks help with student engagement, and tasks that are meaningful and have a reasonable level of difficulty might boost students' performance quality.

To put it on a different note, the majority of research on WTC was mainly conducted in an ESL (English as a Second Language) context (Baker & MacIntyre, 2000; Clément, Baker, & MacIntyre, 2003; MacIntyre, Baker, Clément, & Donovan, 2002; MacIntyre & Charos, 1996). These researchers employed a scale developed by McCroskey and Baer (1985) where participants join situations that they have scarcely experienced in their everyday lives (e.g., talk with a friend while standing in line; Cao & Philp, 2006; Peng & Woodrow, 2010). The EFL (English as a Foreign Language) context differs from the ESL context in that students almost do not have any chance to use English outside the classroom (Oxford & Shearin, 1994). Thus, for EFL contexts like in the case of English language instruction in Vietnam, the language classroom offers the best context for practicing and communicating English. However, very few studies have explored the role of the language classroom context (e.g., Cao, 2011; Peng, 2012; Peng & Woodrow, 2010), and there is almost no such study conducted in Vietnam yet.

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

Working definition

The students: This term refers to the students who are English majors at HCMC University of Economics.

Communication: In this research, this term indicates the mutual exchange of information, feelings, and ideas through the use of the English language in a classroom context.

Willingness to communicate (WTC): As defined above, this term refers to 'a readiness to enter into discourse, at a particular time with a specific person or persons, using L2' (MacIntyre, Clément, Dörnyei, and Noels, 1998, p.547)

Perceived communicative competence: This term is defined as learners' self-evaluation of their language skills (Peng, 2009).

Beliefs in classroom context: This term refers to how students perceive adequate in-class conditions for communication. In the present research, it involves task orientation, group cohesion, and teacher support as put forward by Peng and Woodrow (2010).

Research questions

1 What is the level of WTC as reported by the students?

2 Do students' WTC via speaking correlate with perceived communicative competence and beliefs in language classroom environment?

3 Do students' WTC via writing correlate with perceived communicative competence and beliefs in language classroom environment?

METHODOLOGY

Participants

All 75 students majoring in Business English at UEH took part in the study. They were the first intake of Business English majors at this university. In the first two years, they have been studying subjects related to General Business English language practice and some basic courses of Economics. Then, from year 3 onward, they will learn ESP courses and their concentration in English.

Instrumentation

This study employed a questionnaire to get information about WTC and the

other two variables: students' self-perceived communication and their beliefs in the classroom context. The questionnaire consists of three main parts. The first part was for the students' demographic and background information, namely their major, their year of study, and their frequency of communicating in English at the high school. In the second part, students rated their perceived communication ability (with the two productive skills speaking and writing separately). This part was followed by the WTC scale and the scale of beliefs in the classroom context (under (1) task orientation, (2) group cohesion, and (3) teacher support). It should be noted that the questionnaire was translated into Vietnamese with the researchers' validation, and piloted with a group of students who were not involved in the main data collection.

WTC: WTC was measured with the WTC scale modified from Peng (2007) which had been adapted from MacIntyre, Baker, Clément, and Conrod (2001). Items were changed and added to make it suitable for common communication situations in English major classrooms. There were 14 items in two basic productive skill areas (8 for speaking and 6 for writing) at first. Each of them was rated on a 6-point scale with a higher score showing a higher degree of WTC.

Perceived communication competence: Information about students' perceived communication competence was collected by way of a five-point scale: (1) very bad, (2) bad, (3) average, (4) good, or (5) very good.

Students' belief in good conditions for communication inside the classroom: The present study employed the questionnaire used by Peng and Woodrow (2010) which had three components: (1) task orientation with 5 items (adapted by Fraser, Treagust, & Dennis, 1996), (2) group cohesion with 4 items (adapted by Clément et al., 1994), and (3) teacher support with 4 items (adapted by Zhang & Octzel, 2006). In our study, item TS14 'teacher creates an English-speaking environment' was added because of its importance in encouraging students to speak the target language. The questionnaire was also checked for reliability, showing Cronbach's Alpha of .924; .880; and .903 respectively.

Reliability test with Cronbach's Alpha

1. WTC

Item-Total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
WTC_S Cronbach's Alpha = 0.906				
Readiness for asking questions in English	27.44000	51.925	.733	.892
Readiness for answering questions in English	27.22667	51.610	.805	.886
Readiness for talking about familiar topics in English	27.41333	50.273	.741	.891
Readiness for asking for instructions or explanations in English when you don't know or don't understand something	27.49333	51.388	.686	.896
Readiness for giving instructions in English to show how to do something	28.00000	51.054	.737	.891
Readiness for playing roles in conversations in English	27.66667	51.982	.619	.902
Readiness for participating in debates in English	27.78667	51.738	.690	.895
Readiness for presenting a speech in English	27.61333	53.943	.613	.902

Item-Total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
WTC_W Cronbach's Alpha = 0.868				
Readiness for taking notes in English for things that should be done or said	17.2933	24.534	.628	.852
Readiness for writing instructions in English	17.8400	24.136	.703	.839
Readiness for writing descriptions in English	17.7867	24.116	.672	.844
Readiness for writing stories in English	18.2000	23.676	.812	.821
Readiness for writing types of business correspondences such as letters, reports, or emails in English	17.9467	24.997	.621	.853
Readiness for writing articles in English	18.6000	25.027	.574	.862

The values in Corrected Item-Total Correlation of both variables WTC_S (WTC in English via Speaking) and WTC_W (WTC in English via Writing) are greater than 0.3 so they are both accepted. Furthermore, the Cronbach's Alpha values of WTC_S and WTC_W are .906 and .868 respectively, which are bigger than .70; hence, both factors WTC_S and WTC_W satisfactorily meet the requirements.

2. *Beliefs in classroom conditions*

Item-Total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
TaskO Cronbach's Alpha = 0.924				
The activities are useful	19.9600	14.444	.798	.908
The activities are attractive	19.8533	14.208	.848	.898
I know what I have to achieve in the class session	19.6400	15.882	.773	.913
The activities were clearly and carefully prepared	19.7333	14.198	.858	.896
The assignments are clearly explained and all of the students know what they are supposed to do	19.6400	15.801	.744	.918
Student C Cronbach's Alpha = 0.880				
I can work with my classmates	13.8533	7.911	.747	.844
I am friendly to my classmates	13.9733	7.513	.863	.799
I can make friends with	14.0667	8.009	.716	.856

my classmates			
I help the classmates who have difficulties	14.3867	8.240	.647	.883

TeacherS Cronbach's Alpha = 0.903

The teacher provides timely solutions for students' problems	20.1467	14.019	.672	.900
The teacher is patient in teaching	20.0800	13.075	.859	.859
The teacher smiles when talking to students	19.8400	13.731	.775	.877
The teacher makes questions to elicit students' opinions or points of view	19.9467	13.511	.819	.868
The teacher creates an environment where students can communicate in English	19.7200	14.177	.671	.900

The values in Corrected Item-Total Correlation of the three variables TaskO (Task Orientation), Student C (Student Cohesiveness), and Teacher S (Teacher Support) are all greater than 0.3 so they are all accepted. In addition, the Cronbach's Alpha values of Task O, Student C and Teacher S are .924, .880, and .903 respectively, which are bigger than .70; hence, three factors Task O, Student C and Teacher S satisfactorily meet the requirements.

Data analysis

Data collected through the questionnaire were analyzed with the use of

SPSS (version 17). Descriptive statistics and correlation analyses were employed. Besides, Liu and Jackson (2008)'s formula was used to calculate the levels of WTC, beliefs in the classroom environment, and frequency of using English for communication. A score of under 60% of the possible maximum will be categorized as low, 60-80% as moderate, and above 80% as strong.

RESULTS AND FINDINGS

1 Descriptive statistics

1.1 Willingness to communicate in English

	N	Min	Max	Mean	Standard Deviation
Readiness for asking questions in English	75	2.00	6.00	4.08	1.25
Readiness for answering questions in English	75	2.00	6.00	4.29	1.18
Readiness for talking about familiar topics in English	75	1.00	6.00	4.11	1.38
Readiness for asking for instructions or explanations in English when you don't know or don't understand something	75	1.00	6.00	4.03	1.37
Readiness for giving instructions in English to show how to do something	75	1.00	6.00	3.52	1.32
Readiness for playing roles in conversations in	75	1.00	6.00	3.85	1.42

	N	Min	Max	Mean	Standard Deviation
English Readiness for participating in debates in English	75	1.00	6.00	3.73	1.33
Readiness for presenting a speech in English	75	1.00	6.00	3.91	1.24
WTC_S	75	1.75	6.00	3.94	1.02
Readiness for taking notes in English for things that should be done or said	75	2.00	6.00	4.24	1.29
Readiness for writing instructions in English	75	1.00	6.00	3.69	1.24
Readiness for writing descriptions in English	75	1.00	6.00	3.75	1.28
Readiness for writing stories in English	75	1.00	6.00	3.33	1.17
Readiness for writing types of business correspondence such as letters, reports, or emails in English	75	1.00	6.00	3.59	1.24
Readiness for writing articles in English	75	1.00	6.00	2.93	1.31
WTC_W	75	1.50	6.00	3.59	.98

As clearly shown above, both speaking and writing skills have low mean scores and students' WTC via writing has a lower mean score of 3.59, which means that students are quite reluctant to communicate in English. In other words, it indicates that they have a really low degree of WTC and hesitate to use English in classroom contexts for information exchange.

More specifically, as for the speaking skill, students are most willing to answer questions in English and talk about familiar topics in English. Meanwhile, they are least willing to give instructions in English to show how to do something, participate in debates, and play role in conversations in English. As for the writing skill, students' highest level of WTC goes for taking notes in English for things that should be done or said and their lowest level of WTC lies in writing articles in English (with lower than the average mean of 2.93).

1.2 Perceived communicative competence

	N	Min	Max	Mean	Standard Deviation
Self-perceived levels of speaking for communication	75	1.00	5.00	2.79	1.00
Self-perceived levels of writing for communication	75	1.00	5.00	2.80	.79

Statistical information on how the students rated their levels of communicative competence is shown above. According to the results, there were hardly any students surveyed ranking themselves as excellent in any of the two productive skills. Generally speaking, with the mean score being 2.79 for speaking and 2.80 for writing, students' self-perception of communication stands at just the average level in which their levels of writing is rated slightly higher.

1.3 Beliefs in classroom conditions

	N	Min	Max	Mean	Standard Deviation
The activities are useful	75	1.00	6.00	4.75	1.16
The activities are attractive	75	1.00	6.00	4.85	1.15
I know what I have to achieve in the class session	75	1.00	6.00	5.07	.98
The activities were clearly and carefully prepared	75	1.00	6.00	4.97	1.14
The assignments are clearly explained and all of the students know what they are supposed to do	75	1.00	6.00	5.07	1.02
TaskO	75	1.00	6.00	4.94	.96
I can work with my classmates	75	1.00	6.00	4.91	1.07
I am friendly to my classmates	75	1.00	6.00	4.79	1.04
I can make friends with my classmates	75	1.00	6.00	4.69	1.08
I help the classmates who have difficulties	75	2.00	6.00	4.37	1.10
Student C	75	1.25	6.00	4.69	.92

	N	Min	Max	Mean	Standard Deviation
The teacher provides timely solutions for students' problems	75	1.00	6.00	4.79	1.12
The teacher is patient in teaching	75	1.00	6.00	4.85	1.07
The teacher smiles when talking to students	75	1.00	6.00	5.09	1.05
The teacher makes questions to elicit students' opinions or points of view	75	1.00	6.00	4.99	1.05
The teacher creates an environment where students can communicate in English	75	1.00	6.00	5.21	1.09
TeacherS	75	1.00	6.00	4.99	.91

Given that the mean scores for readiness to communicate in terms of task orientation, student cohesiveness, and teacher support are all high at 4.94, 4.69 and 4.99 respectively, it is acknowledged that these classroom conditions will help create a good English learning environment for students so that their levels of WTC will be easily boosted up. Besides, among them, the important role of teachers is strongly believed by the students and it will enable students to foster their communicative confidence and competence.

In more details, as for task orientation, if students know what aims they have to achieve in the class session (mean = 5.07) and if the assignments are clearly explained and they know what they are supposed to do (mean = 5.07), this will help raise their WTC in English. In the case of student

cohesiveness, students' levels of WTC will also benefit a lot if they can work together (mean = 4.91) and be friendly towards one another (mean = 4.79). As for teacher support, teachers' smiles (mean = 5.09) and their ability to create an environment where students can communicate in English (mean = 5.21) are put at the highest position.

2 Correlational analyses

2.1 WTC_S (WTC via Speaking)

Correlations

		WTC_S	TaskO	StudentC	TeacherS	Self-perceived levels of speaking for communication
WTC_S	Pearson Correlation	1	.335**	.319**	.274*	.589**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.003	.005	.018	.000
	N	75	75	75	75	75
TaskO	Pearson Correlation	.335**	1	.702**	.782**	.144
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.003		.000	.000	.216
	N	75	75	75	75	75
Student C	Pearson Correlation	.319**	.702**	1	.728**	.151

	Sig. (2-tailed)	.005	.000		.000	.197
	N	75	75	75	75	75
Teacher S	Pearson Correlation	.274[*]	.782[**]	.728[**]	1	.159
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.018	.000	.000		.174
	N	75	75	75	75	75
Self-perceived levels of speaking for communication	Pearson Correlation	.589[**]	.144	.151	.159	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.216	.197	.174	
	N	75	75	75	75	75

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

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

As demonstrated above, students' WTC via speaking significantly (sig. < .05) and positively correlates with students' self-perceived communication competence (r = .589), task orientation (r = .335), student cohesiveness (r = .319), and teacher support (r = .274). Students who highly rank their communicative competence via speaking tend to be more willing to communicate in English via speaking. In addition, positive and significant correlation (sig. < .01) is also found between task orientation and student cohesiveness (r = .702), between task orientation and teacher support (r = .782), between student cohesiveness and teacher support (r = .728). Students who hold a strong belief in their cohesiveness also hold a strong belief in teacher support.

2.2 WTC_W (WTC via Writing)

Correlations

		WTC_W	TaskO	StudentC	TeacherS	Self-perceived levels of writing for communication
WTC_W	Pearson Correlation	1	.283[*]	.263[*]	.172	.319[**]
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.014	.022	.140	.005
	N	75	75	75	75	75
TaskO	Pearson Correlation	.283[*]	1	.702[**]	.782[**]	.185
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.014		.000	.000	.112
	N	75	75	75	75	75
Student C	Pearson Correlation	.263[*]	.702[**]	1	.728[**]	.221
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.022	.000		.000	.057
	N	75	75	75	75	75
Teacher S	Pearson Correlation	.172	.782[**]	.728[**]	1	.150
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.140	.000	.000		.199
	N	75	75	75	75	75
Self-perceived levels of writing for communication	Pearson Correlation	.319[**]	.185	.221	.150	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.005	.112	.057	.199	
	N	75	75	75	75	75

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).
**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

The results show that students' WTC via writing significantly (sig. < .05) and positively correlates with students' self-perceived communication competence (r = .319), task orientation (r = .283), and student cohesiveness (r = .263). Students who highly rank their communicative competence via writing tend to be more willing to communicate in English via writing. However, there is no significant correlation found between students' WTC via writing and teacher support. For students, the level of belief they have for teacher support does not make any changes to their WTC.

DISCUSSION

Descriptive statistics indicated that students' willingness to communicate in English is quite low for both of the productive skills. This may be attributed to their in-class learning behavior. Vietnamese students rarely voice their own opinions in class; moreover, they have a habit of remaining quiet and listening to the teacher because they respect and consider the teacher the main source of knowledge (Tran, 2013). Another possible reason for such a low level of willingness is that the students are not accustomed to using Business English for opinion exchange. Just moving from the General English program at high school, students immediately come into direct contact with the Business English program at UEH, which is expected to cause difficulties for them to some extent.

The positive relationship between WTC and perceived communicative competence has been conveyed in this study. This confirms results of previous research such as Hashimoto (2002), Liu and Jackson (2008). It is very likely that students with higher self-rated communicative competence do not worry much about making mistakes when using English for any specific purpose; hence, they are more willing to participate in conversations.

Task orientation, group cohesion, and teacher support were found to correlate significantly with WTC in Peng and Woodrow (2010). Nevertheless, the exploration of the beliefs in those three factors in this study revealed some interesting information. Vietnamese undergraduates moderately think the first two factors may create good environments for communication and increasing the levels of beliefs may help improve their

readiness to communicate in the classroom. In the case of speaking, the role of the teacher is strongly believed to influence their willingness to communicate. Meanwhile, in the case of writing, the level of belief they have for teacher support does not seem to have any influence on their WTC.

On a different note, it might be that the five questions about the teacher support aim to encourage students' attitude, which suitably increase their WTC via speaking. In terms of WTC via writing, the questions should focus on creating forms of self-correction, peer correction and teacher correction.

CONCLUSION

The present study provides some evidence that Business English majors at HCMC University of Economics have low willingness level of communicating in English; their perceived communicative level is average, and they believe that classroom environment can offer good conditions for their WTC. In addition, it also reveals that their perceived level of communication competence, their beliefs in task orientation and group cohesiveness are predictors for WTC. Their belief in teacher support does predict their WTC via speaking, but it does not predict their WTC via writing.

Pedagogical implications

Some pedagogical implications were suggested based on the findings. First, the university, its teachers, and the students themselves should make efforts to not only improve students' levels of communicative competence but also increase their readiness for communication. Second, both the university and the teachers need to know students' beliefs in task orientation and group cohesion. Group cohesion should be promoted through different activities. On their side, teachers should work on improving the quality of tasks and frequently provide support to students. Besides, students need to be aware of the fact that willingness to exchange information in the target language will enhance their relationship with their fellows, and when working well in a group and helping friends, they will be more ready for communication, which later on will lead to their development of communication skills.

Limitations and suggestions for future research

The present study lent itself to the quantitative method and relied on students' self-reports. Its findings may be complemented with qualitative information through observation of students' behavior in actual communication or students' simulated-recall. Secondly, the study explored the relationships of WTC and only two factors: (1) perceived communicative competence, (2) classroom environment. There may be other factors that influence students WTC, so it is advisable that future research in WTC in Vietnamese contexts take this into consideration. Furthermore, the study was conducted with a limited number of samples due to the first intake of Business English majors at this university; hence, research with a lot more students on the same topic may yield interesting information.

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APPLYING READING MATERIALS TO ENHANCE WRITING SKILL FOR ENGLISH - MAJORED JUNIORS AT DONG THAP UNIVERSITY

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ABSTRACT

Reading lots of materials and references derive many benefits in learning languages, especially for ESL (English as Second Language) learners. Many students have been learning writing skills through the reading materials which help them with new knowledge in various fields, and then they can improve their writing gradually. However, how to use reading materials to enhance the writing skill among the students is still a problem to debate. For this reason, a research was conducted on 80 English-majored junior students at Dong Thap University. In this paper, the researchers will show the result of the survey on how to improve writing by reading. Moreover, the researchers will also share their experience that they had when they improved their English writing through reading materials at Dong Thap University.

THE AUTHORS

VO Tan Duyen, TRAN Thi Thien Ngan, TRAN Thi Tuyet Phung are senior students at Dong Thap University and their major is teaching English education. They are interested in exploring how English is learned, taught and used in Vietnam. They all want to be good teachers of English in the future.

INCORPORATING EXTENSIVE READING INTO THE READING COMPREHENSION SUBJECT FOR THE DEVELOPMENT OF READING ABILITIES

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ABSTRACT

The study aims at investigating the effects of incorporating Extensive Reading into reading lessons to enhance students' reading ability and increase their English proficiency on the whole. A quasi-experiment was conducted in two groups of first-year English majors at Military Science Academy: 16AD1 - the control group and 16AD2 - the experimental group. The main instruments deployed are pre-test and post-test. Also, to ensure the validity and reliability of the study, an introspective interview with 2 best, 2 good and 2 worst students was carried, transcribed and analyzed. The effect of incorporating Extensive Reading into reading lessons was measured through the T-test based on a pre-test - post-test comparison. The data obtained were generalized and analyzed by using percentage, mean, standard deviation, and dependent samples t-test. From the results of the study, practical suggestions on selecting appropriate extensive reading texts and assessing students' performance are made.

THE AUTHORS

Pham Thi Thuy is a Lecturer of English, Military Science Academy. She has taken in a variety of National Conferences held at Vietnam National University, University of Foreign Languages - Hue University, and Banking Academy.

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STRATEGIES FOR TEACHING READING IN SCIENCE CLASSES TAUGHT IN ENGLISH

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ABSTRACT

All over the world STEM education is becoming popular. According to the American Department of Commerce, occupations related to STEM (Science - Technology - Engineering - Maths) are growing 17%. The workers of those fields will play a key role in the sustained stability of the global economy. In Vietnam, STEM education is a new but very promising field. STEM education creates critical thinkers and increases science literacy, and as a certain result, enables the next generations to innovate and expand every aspect of life.

In many primary schools and language centers in Hanoi, subjects including Science and Maths are taught in English. Those CLIL lessons bring the students opportunities not only to learn the foreign language but obtain the knowledge concerning the subject matter. Obviously, with the chances have come many difficulties when the teachers must hit several birds at the same time: fluency, accuracy, and comprehension.

This paper studies various ways to integrate reading skills with teaching science in a class of third-grade students in WEST English Centre in Hanoi. It also figures out the benefits of hands-on activities, cooperative learning and literacy activities that stress fluency as well as accuracy.

THE AUTHOR

Hoang Hai Anh received a master degree in Language Teaching. She is now teaching Countries Studies in the University of Linguistics and International Studies, VNU. Her interests are on American Studies, Content and Language Integrated Learning and Teaching, and Children Education.

JAPANESE SYMPOSIUM

IMPROVING THE QUALITY OF TEACHING & LEARNING FOR JAPANESE-MAJOR STUDENTS AT HCMC OPEN UNIVERSITY

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ABSTRACT

From all my years of teaching Japanese Language at Ho Chi Minh City Open University, I have realized that the students' speaking skills are much weaker than other skills in language training: listening-speaking-reading-writing. Many graduated students have the N2 Japanese Language Proficiency Certificate but still cannot speak Japanese effectively. I think this issue should be seriously reviewed in the teaching and learning of foreign languages in general, and particularly in Japanese. In Vietnam, the materials for teaching Japanese, especially to improve skills are limited. This article will provide some useful methods for teaching to improve the speaking skill for Japanese Language's students.

Key words: *Speaking skills, teaching and learning speaking skills, teaching and learning Japanese language*

NÂNG CAO CHẤT LƯỢNG DẠY VÀ HỌC MÔN NÓI CHO SINH VIÊN NGÀNH NGÔN NGỮ NHẬT TẠI TRƯỜNG ĐẠI HỌC MỞ TP.HCM

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Với những kết quả và kinh nghiệm đúc kết được trong những năm thực hiện công tác giảng dạy tiếng Nhật tại trường Đại học Mở TP.HCM, tôi nhận thấy kỹ năng "Nói" của sinh viên là yếu hơn hẳn so với các kỹ năng "Nghe", "Nói", "Đọc", "Viết". Nhiều sinh viên có được chứng chỉ Năng lực Nhật ngữ N2 nhưng vẫn không thể giao tiếp được với người Nhật. Tôi cho rằng vấn đề này cần được nhìn nhận lại một cách nghiêm túc trong việc dạy và học ngoại ngữ nói chung hay tiếng Nhật nói riêng. Ở Việt Nam, những tài liệu nghiên cứu về giảng dạy tiếng Nhật đặc biệt là các môn kỹ năng vẫn chưa nhiều. Tác giả hy vọng bài viết sẽ đưa ra được một số phương pháp có ích cho dạy và học giúp nâng cao năng lực "Nói" cho sinh viên đang học tiếng Nhật tại trường.

1. Đặt vấn đề

Môn học "Kỹ năng Nói" là một trong các môn bắt buộc phải có trong chương trình đào tạo Ngôn ngữ Nhật thuộc khối kiến thức cơ sở. Môn học với mục đích cung cấp cho sinh viên không những kiến thức về từ vựng, ngữ pháp mà phải rèn được cho sinh viên khả năng nói, biết trình bày vấn đề. Việc dạy cho sinh viên biết trình bày vấn đề bằng ngôn ngữ khác tiếng mẹ đẻ là cả một quá trình cần sự nghiên cứu phương pháp phù hợp từ phía giáo viên, sự nỗ lực luyện tập từ phía sinh viên… Trên thực tế việc dạy và học môn nói tiếng Nhật tại trường Đại học Mở hiện vẫn còn nhiều vấn đề cần được phân tích, tìm ra nguyên nhân để giúp sinh viên nâng cao khả năng nói của bản thân.

Trong bài viết này, tôi sẽ tìm hiểu một số cơ sở lý luận có liên quan đến quá trình thực hiện hành vi nói, những năng lực cần thiết trong quá

trình giao tiếp, phân tích những nguyên nhân ảnh hưởng đến năng lực "nói" của sinh viên, trên cơ sở đó đề ra một số phương pháp để cải tiến chất lượng giảng dạy nhằm nâng cao năng lực hội thoại cho sinh viên.

2. Cơ sở lý luận

Làm thế nào để phát huy, nâng cao năng lực nói cho sinh viên? Trước khi suy nghĩ vấn đề này chúng ta cần biết trình tự các giai đoạn diễn ra trong quá trình "Nói"

2.1. *Quá trình thực hiện hành vi "nói":*

Theo "話すことを教える" của Quỹ giao lưu quốc tế Nhật Bản, qui trình của hành vi "nói" sẽ diễn ra theo trình tự: 1) suy nghĩ điều mình muốn nói (nội dung) → 2) suy nghĩ sẽ nói như thế nào (chọn cách diễn đạt) → 3) nói ra thành lời (phát thoại). Trong 3 bước trên thì 2) và 3) luôn đi liền với nhau như một qui tắc chung trong mỗi ngôn ngữ mà người phát ngôn phải hiểu rõ. Tuy nhiên, trong giai đoạn mới bắt đầu học ngôn ngữ thì luôn có khoảng cách giữa bước 1) với bước 2) và bước 3). Bài viết với mong muốn sẽ tìm ra được cách để làm giảm đi khoảng cách giữa các bước này trong quá trình thực hiện hành vi "nói" cho sinh viên.

2.2. *Đặc điểm của quá trình giao tiếp*

"Nói" là một quá trình hoạt động giao tiếp nhằm trao đổi thông tin giữa người nói và người nghe để đạt một mục đích nào đó, nghĩa là muốn thực hiện giao tiếp điều đầu tiên cần phải xác định được ***mục đích giao tiếp***.

Bàn về giao tiếp chúng ta có thể hiểu theo nhiều cách khác nhau, với G.A. Miller (1956), giao tiếp (communication) là việc một tin nào đó được truyền từ điểm này đến điểm khác. Trong *Nguyên lí ngữ nghĩa học,* Lyons giải thích giao tiếp thông qua tính từ "thuộc về giao tiếp" hay "có tính giao tiếp" (communicatif) và tính từ "có chứa tin" (informatif): "Một tín hiệu là có tính giao tiếp nếu nó nhằm báo cho người nhận về một cái gì đó mà cho đến lúc bấy giờ người ấy chưa biết". Qua hai phát biểu trên, có thể hiểu rằng trong quá trình giao tiếp sẽ tồn tại ***khoảng cách giao tiếp.*** Người nói sẽ truyền thông tin cho người nghe, thông tin đó có thể người nói đã biết hoặc chưa biết hoặc ngược lại người nghe sẽ truyền cho người nói thông tin mình đã biết.

Trong giao tiếp ngôn ngữ, tùy vào đối tượng, mục đích, hoàn cảnh…

mà người ta sử dụng các hình thức biểu đạt ngôn ngữ khác nhau. Người tham gia giao tiếp được *quyền chọn lựa* từ ngữ, cách diễn đạt ngôn từ, nội dung muốn nói và cũng được *quyền thể hiện thái độ*, phản ứng với các hành vi ngôn ngữ trong khi diễn ra qua trình giao tiếp.

Tùy vào mục đích mà hành vi "nói" được chia thành hai loại chính là đối thoại và độc thoại. Với hình thức đối thoại gồm có: thảo luận và hội thoại theo kỹ năng. Độc thoại thì gồm có: hùng biện, diễn thuyết; giải thích, phát biểu.

2.3. *Các tiêu chí đánh giá năng lực giao tiếp*

Để đánh giá năng lực nói của người học, hiện nay các tổ chức giáo dục Nhật Bản dựa trên tiêu chuẩn đánh giá của ACTFL – OPI (American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages – Oral Proficiency Interview). ACTFL – OPI không chỉ đơn thuần đánh giá về kiến thức ngôn ngữ là từ vựng, ngữ pháp mà còn đánh giá khả năng diễn đạt, tính chính xác trong các tình huống giao tiếp cụ thể, có nghĩa là ngoài năng lực ngôn ngữ cần có thêm năng lực giao tiếp (コミュニケーション能力) mới đạt yêu cầu. Canal (1983), cho rằng năng lực giao tiếp này gồm 4 phần: năng lực văn phạm (文法能力), năng lực ngôn ngữ xã hội (社会言語能力), năng lực đàm thoại (談話能力), năng lực chiến lược (ストラテジー能力).

- Năng lực văn phạm: bao gồm những yếu tố có liên quan đến kiến thức ngữ pháp, từ vựng, phát âm, chữ viết…, những yếu tố này luôn được các tổ chức giảng dạy tiếng nước ngoài chú trọng đào tạo.

- Năng lực ngôn ngữ xã hội: năng lực sử dụng các cách thức diễn đạt cho hành vi phát ngôn phải thích hợp với từng ngữ cảnh, với các mối quan hệ giao tiếp sao cho phù hợp với chuẩn mực văn hóa – phong tục của quốc gia của đối phương. Ví dụ đối với cấp trên hay với đối tác thì nên dùng kính ngữ. Năng lực ngôn ngữ xã hội là yếu tố quan trọng góp phần cho quá trình giao tiếp giữa hai bên được thuận lợi hơn.

- Năng lực đàm thoại: khả năng biết làm cho cuộc nói chuyện có mở đầu và kết thúc. Người nói phải biết cách gợi mở để bắt đầu cho mục đích giao tiếp, phải có khả năng làm cho cuộc giao tiếp được tiếp tục hay kết thúc như ý của mình.

- Năng lực chiến lược: còn được hiểu là năng lực xử lý tình huống.

Không phải tất cả các cuộc giao tiếp nào cũng đều diễn ra suôn sẽ, có những khi cả hai bên đều không hiểu về từ ngữ, cách diễn đạt… của đối phương.Trong trường hợp này "năng lực chiến lược" giữ vai trò vô cùng quan trọng. Người thực hiện giao tiếp có được năng lực này sẽ rất có lợi trong quá trình giao tiếp dù có vốn từ vựng hay văn phạm ít đi chăng nữa. Năng lực này rất cần thiết cho những sinh viên năm nhất, những người học ngoại ngữ ở giai đoạn sơ khởi.

Như vậy, muốn nâng cao năng lực "nói" cho sinh viên cũng cần phải chú trọng đến các tiêu chí đánh giá năng lực giao tiếp trên.

3. Nguyên nhân ảnh hưởng đến năng lực "nói" của sinh viên

Căn cứ vào cơ sở lý luận và những khó khăn gặp phải trong quá trình giảng dạy, tôi đã ghi nhận lại được những nguyên nhân như sau:

- Giáo trình giảng dạy mà chúng tôi chọn chủ yếu là luyện tập để nhớ mẫu câu, chưa hội đủ các tiêu chí đáp ứng chuẩn năng lực giao tiếp theo ACTFL – OPI.

- Sinh viên không có sự chủ động trong học tập, chưa tích cực luyện tập, chưa tự giác tìm cơ hội nói cho bản thân trong giờ học và sau giờ học, không nhớ, không học từ vựng.

- Sinh viên thiếu tự tin. Do xem trọng kiến thức ngôn ngữ dẫn đến tâm lý sợ sử dụng sai cấu trúc nên không dám nói.

- Sự khác nhau về trật tự các thành phần trong câu của hai ngôn ngữ, sự khác nhau về văn hóa trong cách diễn đạt khiến sinh viên hay nói ngược và sắp xếp trật tự câu bị sai nên cũng khiến sinh viên ngại nói.

- Sinh viên tại trường không có cơ hội gặp gỡ, trò chuyện với người bản xứ. Khi học ngoại ngữ thứ hai thì điều kiện tốt nhất cho người học là mỗi ngày được gặp gỡ trao đổi với người bản xứ.

- Các hình thức hoạt động ngoại khóa sử dụng tiếng Nhật còn ít, sỉ số lớp đông nên lượt nói của sinh viên cũng bị giảm và giáo viên cũng gặp khó khăn trong việc giúp sinh viên phát triển năng lực nói. Sinh viên thực hành nói chủ yếu là giờ học trên lớp.

- Số giờ thực hành nói ít. Do chủ trương giảm số tín chỉ trên lớp tăng số giờ cho sinh viên tự học nên số giờ thực hành nói thực tế của sinh

viên bị giảm. Sinh viên chỉ được học nói với giáo viên trên lớp là 4.5 tiết /tuần và tổng số giờ học nói trong 4 năm ở bậc đại học chỉ có 175 giờ, trong khi đó số giờ tối thiểu cho cấp độ nói sơ cấp là 150 giờ. Chúng tôi cũng đã thực hiện cuộc khảo sát nhanh thì thống kê được hơn 90% trong số 100 sinh viên năm nhất mỗi năm vào học đều chưa biết gì về tiếng Nhật nên khi vào học kỹ năng nghe, nói luôn kém so với sinh viên tiếng Anh, tiếng Trung tại Khoa mà đặc biệt là sinh viên năm nhất. Điều này đòi hỏi sinh viên phải có ý thức tự giác, tự thân nỗ lực luyện tập "nói", tự mở rộng các quan hệ giao tiếp nhưng điều này quả thật rất khó đối với sinh viên Việt Nam nói chung hay sinh viên ngành ngôn ngữ Nhật trường đại học Mở nói riêng.

-    Chúng tôi cũng ghi nhận thêm được ý kiến từ sinh viên như: giáo viên dạy nói nhiều hơn sinh viên, trong các giờ học khác như ngữ pháp, đọc hiểu, nghe…giáo viên ít sử dụng tiếng Nhật.

Với những nguyên nhân vừa nêu có thể tóm lại nguyên nhân chính là do giáo trình chưa phù hợp khiến phương pháp thiết kế hoạt động lớp chưa phù hợp, sinh viên thiếu cơ hội nói nên vụng trong cách diễn đạt và xử lý tình huống.

4. Hướng giải quyết để nâng cao chất lượng dạy và học môn nói cho sinh viên trường Đại học Mở Thành phố Hồ Chí Minh

4.1. Chọn lại giáo trình phù hợp

Người viết cho rằng giải pháp đầu tiên để nâng cao khả năng hội thoại cho sinh viên là *chọn lại giáo trình phù hợp hơn*. Như đã trình bày, đặc trưng của quá trình giao tiếp phải có mục đích giao tiếp, khoảng cách thông tin, quyền lựa chọn và quyền thể hiện thái độ nhưng nội dung các bài học nói của sinh viên học chưa được phân ra cụ thể thành các chủ đề mà chủ yếu là luyện tập theo nội dung có sẵn từ sách hoặc theo ý của giáo viên. Tuy giảng viên có để cho sinh viên nghĩ ra ngữ cảnh, đóng vai luyện tập với nhau nhưng vẫn theo mẫu câu đã học nên mục tiêu vẫn là nhớ và dùng chính xác mẫu câu. Người viết bài vẫn biết rằng luyện tập mang tính chính xác là cần thiết, tuy nhiên hình thức này có thể thích hợp với trình độ sơ cấp. Nếu dạy nói mà chỉ tập trung vào năng lực ngôn ngữ thì sinh viên chỉ có thể ứng dụng trên lớp mà thôi. Chúng ta cần tập cho sinh viên khả năng ứng đối nhanh và nói lưu loát ngay từ ban đầu.

Trên cơ sở đó, kể từ năm 2016, chúng tôi đã mạnh dạn thay mới giáo trình môn kỹ năng nói. Bộ giáo trình "Dekiru Nihongo" do Shimada Kazuko chủ biên đã được lựa chọn áp dụng cho sinh viên năm nhất để thử nghiệm cho kế hoạch nâng cao chất lượng môn nói cho sinh viên. Bộ sách giáo khoa này xuyên suốt các cấp độ từ sơ cấp lên trung cấp và được biên soạn theo chuẩn ACTFL – OPI.

4.2. Thiết kế giờ học đáp ứng nhu cầu xã hội.

Một thiệt thòi lớn cho sinh viên khi học ngoại ngữ thứ hai tại đất nước mình là sinh viên không có cơ hội được tiếp xúc nhiều với ngôn ngữ, với những người bản xứ hằng ngày. Do vậy, để giúp sinh viên nâng cao năng lực nói chúng ta nên cố gắng tạo ra môi trường tiếng trong giờ học, mội trường giống với môi trường bản ngữ. Theo bài viết đăng tạp chí khoa học của ThS. Dương Thị Thu Hà, môi trường tiếng trong giờ học là môi trường học tập sử dụng toàn bộ ngoại ngữ. Đây là hình thức giảng dạy mà các cơ sở đào tạo trên thế giới nói chung và ở Việt Nam nói riêng đang nỗ lực tạo môi trường ngôn ngữ cho người học ngay tại nước mình. Tiêu chí để xây dựng môi trường tiếng trong giờ học là nội dung dạy học trên lớp nên chú trọng ý nghĩa giao tiếp hơn là hình thức của ngôn ngữ; cần tăng cường quan hệ giao tiếp bằng cách tăng cường các hoạt động giao tiếp trong lớp học.

Có rất nhiều cách để thiết kế các hoạt động giao tiếp trong lớp học, chẳng hạn như thông qua các hoạt động phỏng vấn, thảo luận, bàn luận, hùng biện hay phân vai…Cho dù có chọn hình thức hoạt động nào thì cũng phải đảm bảo được những yếu tố sau:

1. Xác định trình độ của sinh viên (sơ cấp, sơ trung cấp, trung cấp…)

2. Tính thời sự của chủ đề, mức độ gần gũi với sinh viên

3. Quá trình thực hiện hành vi "Nói"

4. Đặc trưng của hành vi "Nói"

5. Những tiêu chí đạt năng lực giao tiếp

Ở mục 3,4,5 tôi đã trình bày bên trên trong phần cơ sở lý luận. Khi chọn hình thức luyện tập cho sinh viên nên xem xét loại mẫu câu nào sẽ

phù hợp với hình thức luyện tập nào, những lưu ý và những đặc điểm của hình thức ấy để xây dựng hoạt động luyện tập sao cho hiệu quả cao nhất.

Ví dụ: thiết kế bài giảng với nội dung: "Nhờ chuyển lời nhắn qua điện thoại"

- Bước 1: xác định trình độ của sinh viên là sơ trung cấp

- Bước 2: chọn đề tài . Đề là là "nhờ chuyển lời nhắn qua điện thoại". Trao đổi qua điện thoại là một hoạt động giao tiếp gần gũi với cuộc sống thường nhật.

- Bước 3: xác định hình thức tổ chức hoạt động phù hợp là phân vai (roleplay) vì cần người nghe và người trả lời điện thoại. Khi thiết kế hoạt động theo hình thức này cần hiểu rõ:

Đặc điểm của dạng Luyện tập phân vai

+ Luyện tập phân vai (roleplay) là dạng luyện tập mà trong đó, mỗi bên tham gia hội thoại được phân chia một vai trò khác nhau và mỗi bên phải tự chọn những cách diễn đạt sao cho hoàn thành nhiệm vụ giao tiếp của mình. Đây là một trong những biện pháp luyện tập rất hiệu quả trong việc nâng cao khả năng nói của sinh viên.

+ Có thể luyện *tập tất cả các năng lực cần thiết trong giao tiếp* qua hình thức phân vai này. Trong hoạt động này người tham gia hội thoại phải biết xây dựng cấu trúc hội thoại hợp lý, linh hoạt cách diễn đạt của mình tùy theo phản ứng của đối phương…nên cách luyện tập này sẽ giúp phát triển *năng lực đàm thoại*.

+ Hình thức luyện tập phân này có thể áp dụng cho tất cả các trình độ của người học dù là trình độ sơ cấp hay thượng cấp. Hình thức luyện tập này cũng có thể kết hợp cùng với các tình huống thảo luận, bàn bạc…do vậy tôi thường chọn hình thức luyện tập phân vai cho đối tượng là sinh viên năm thứ nhất và năm thứ hai. Với sinh viên năm ba, năm tư sẽ chuyển sang hướng luyện tập phân vai kết hợp với tranh luận và hình thức luyện tập hùng biện.

Một số điểm cần chú ý khi tiến hành luyện tập phân vai.

+ Khi trao thẻ phân vai cần tránh cho để hai sinh viên cho nhau xem thẻ phân vai vì nếu cho xem sẽ làm mất *khoảng cách thông tin* giữa hai

bên khiến cho cuộc hội thoại mất đi sự thú vị.

+ Không nên tạo căng thẳng khi sinh viên không thể thực hiện phần của mình mà nên cho một, hai cặp có khả năng lên làm mẫu cho lớp để sinh viên tìm ra hướng triển khai bài hội thoại.

Tập hợp những sinh viên có cùng roleplay card lại để cùng nhau thảo luận về những cách diễn đạt, từ vựng có thể dùng nhằm hoàn thành task đề ra. Sau đó trộn hai người có hai roleplay card khác nhau thành một cặp để luyện tập hội thoại. Với phương pháp này thì sinh viên có điều kiện để thảo luận, trao đổi ý kiến với những người có cùng task với mình. Như vậy, ngay cả những sinh viên có học lực kém hơn cũng sẽ bớt căng thẳng hơn, hoàn thành được task của mình. Khi nghe hội thoại của các nhóm khác, sinh viên cũng có thể luyện tập thêm khả năng nghe của mình.

+ Khi các cặp đã luyện tập xong với nhau có thể cho phát biểu trước ở những nhóm nhỏ để luyện tập và rút kinh nghiệm trước, sau đó mới gọi lên phát biểu trước lớp. Bằng cách này, sinh viên sẽ thấy tự tin hơn (vì đã được luyện tập và được góp ý trong nhóm) và tiết kiệm thời gian phát biểu của sinh viên khi được gọi phát biểu.

- Bước 4: triển khai nội dung bài hội thoại
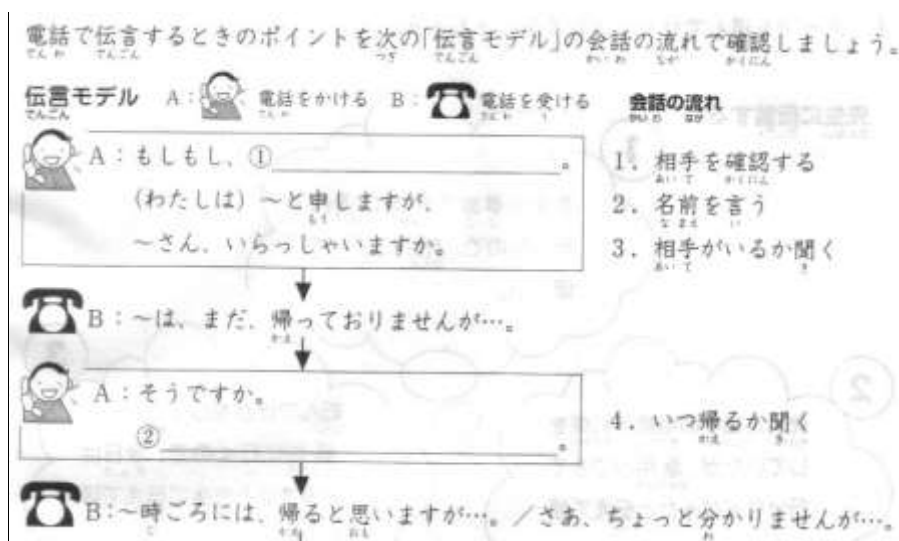
パターン①

A：そうですか。では、すみませんが（申し訳ありませんが）、Aから電話があったと③＿＿＿＿＿。

5．「伝言」（三つのパターン）

←名前の伝言を頼む

パターン②

A：そうですか。では、すみませんが、伝言をお願いできますか。「～」と伝えていただけませんか。

←用件の伝言を頼む

パターン③

A：そうですか。では、後ほど（～時ごろ）④＿＿＿＿＿

←「かけ直す」と伝える

B：分かりました。～と伝えておきます。

A：はい、よろしくお願いします。失礼します。

6．あいさつ

Mục tiêu

Biết cách nhờ người khác chuyển lời nhắn qua điện thoại. (Trong trường hợp gọi điện thoại đến mà không gặp được người mình cần gặp.)

Tiến trình hội thoại

Gọi điện, xác nhận địa điểm, số máy gọi đến, xin cho gặp người mình muốn gặp.

Người ở đầu dây bên kia thông báo rằng người mình cần gặp đang đi vắng, hỏi xem có cần nhắn gì với người đang đi vắng không

Nhờ chuyển lời nhắn đến người mình muốn gặp

Người nhận điện thoại xác nhận lại nội dung lời nhắn

Cảm ơn và kết thúc cuộc gọi

Gọi điện, xác nhận địa điểm, số máy gọi đến, xin cho gặp người mình muốn gặp.

（場所、人のお宅）でしょうか。

Xin lỗi, có phải nhà ~ không ạ?

～さんはいらっしゃいますか。

Cho hỏi có anh/ chị...ở nhà không ạ?

Người ở đầu dây bên kia thông báo rằng người mình cần gặp đang đi vắng

あいにく、～さんはいません／おりません。

Rất tiếc, anh/ chị...hiện đang không có ở đây.

Hỏi xem có cần nhắn lại gì không

～さんに何か伝えておきましょうか。

Anh/ chị có cần nhắn gì với anh/ chị...không?

何か伝えてほしいことがありますか。

Anh/ chị có muốn nhắn lại gì không?

何か伝言がありましたらどうぞ言ってください。

Nếu anh/ chị có lời nhắn gì xin mời cứ nói.

Nhờ chuyển lời nhắn đến người mình muốn gặp

～さんに伝言をお願いできますか。

Tôi có thể nhờ chuyển lời nhắn đến anh/ chị....được không?

～と伝えてもらいませんか／いただけませんか。

Có thể nhắn giúp tôi là....được không?

～と言ってくれませんか。

Anh/ chị có thể nói giúp là... được không?

伝言をお願いできるかな。

Không biết tôi có thể nhờ anh/ chị nhắn giúp được không nhỉ?

伝言よろしいでしょうか。

Tôi muốn nhờ anh/ chị nhắn giùm có được không?

伝言をお伝え願えませんか。

Tôi muốn nhờ anh/ chị nhắn giùm có được không?

Xác nhận lại nội dung lời nhắn

〜ということですね。

Nhắn là...đúng không ạ?

では、〜さんが帰ったらそのように伝えておきます。

Vâng, khi nào anh/ chị.....về tôi sẽ nhắn lại như vậy.

Kết thúc cuộc gọi

よろしくお願いします。失礼します

Tôi xin phép cúp máy nhé. Cảm ơn anh/ chị rất nhiều.

Lưu ý

Khi muốn nhắn lại rằng khi nào người kia về hãy gọi lại cho mình:

＋Nếu là người rất thân：「後で電話をかけてって言ってくれる」

Bảo giùm anh/ chị ấy là gọi lại cho tôi nhé.

「家に電話をかけるようにと伝えてもらえる」

Nhắn giùm anh/ chị ấy là gọi đến nhà cho tôi nhé.

「電話もらえるとうれしいんだけど」

Tôi rất vui nếu anh/ chị ấy gọi cho tôi

＋Là người không thân lắm hoặc là cấp trên：

「お帰りになりましたら、お電話をくださるように伝えていただけませんか」

Nhờ anh/ chị nhắm giùm với... là bao giờ về thì gọi điện cho tôi nhé.

「お戻りになりましたら、電話いただけるようにお願いできないでしょうか」

Có thể nhắn giùm tôi với anh/chị...là bao giờ về thì gọi điện cho tôi được không?

「折り返し電話いただけるとありがたいんですが」

Tôi rất vui nếu được anh/ chị...gọi lại.

4.3 Phương pháp đánh giá

Mỗi một hình thức hoạt động lớp có những đặc trưng riêng nên cũng sẽ có những hình thức đánh giá, tiêu chí đánh giá khác nhau. Vì vậy, chúng ta cũng phải chú ý đến những hình thức đánh giá sao cho phù hợp với mỗi hình thức nhằm có những kết quả chính xác, đánh giá đúng năng lực sinh viên và kịp thời điều chỉnh những thiếu sót góp phần nâng cao năng lực nói cho sinh viên. Chẳng hạn, với hoạt động hùng biện có thể tham khảo những tiêu chí đánh giá như sau:

Chủ đề và nội dung	Có thú vị không, có thông tin gì mới, thú vị không
Cấu trúc	Cách triển khai, tính liên kết, tính logic, cách bắt đầu, cách kết thúc bài hùng biện
Năng lực ngôn ngữ	Phát âm, ngữ pháp, cách dùng từ
Cách nói	Nói to, rõ ràng, tốc độ, phát âm, trơn tru, cách dùng filla
Có sự giao tiếp với người nghe hay không	Trong bài hùng biện có những câu hỏi để lôi kéo sự chú ý của người nghe hay không, có chú ý đến phản ứng của người nghe hay không
Tư thế hùng biện	Có hướng ánh nhìn về phía người nghe không, tư thế
Yếu tố khác	Sử dụng các phương tiện minh họa …

4.4. Tạo ra môi trường tiếng Nhật sau giờ học

Giờ học trên lớp sẽ luôn bị hạn chế về thời gian và không gian nên cần cố gắng xây dựng môi trường tiếng Nhật sau giờ học cho sinh viên càng nhiều càng tốt để sinh viên có hứng thú, vui vẻ thực tập sử dụng ngoại ngữ mình đang học .

Một hình thức luyện tập mà chúng tôi đã thực hiện cho sinh viên năm thứ nhất và thứ hai tại trường đó là cho sinh viên ghi âm/ghi hình lại chủ đề đã luyện tập của nhóm sau giờ thực hành nói trên lớp. Hoạt động này đòi hỏi sinh viên phải có máy ghi âm, ghi hình nhưng vấn đề này cũng không phải là quá khó khăn cho sinh viên trong xã hội ngày nay. Chúng tôi

nghĩ rằng có thể xem đây như một hình thức "học mà vui, vui mà học" rất có hiệu quả. Vì khi ghi hình/ghi âm lại sinh viên sẽ tự mình ôn tập lại những điều đã học, tự xây dựng thiết kế lại các bước để hành vi "nói" được thực hiện. Khi xem hay nghe lại "sản phẩm" của bản thân sẽ nhận ra lần nữa những lỗi sai về cách diễn đạt cũng như những lỗi chưa chính xác trong cách phát âm…Từ đó sẽ tự khắc phục dần dần sẽ cải thiện được mức độ lưu loát, giảm đi sự mất tự tin cho sinh viên.

Bên cạnh đó, cần phải tăng cường các hoạt động ngoại khóa có sử dụng tiếng Nhật như cuộc thi hùng biện tiếng Nhật, bản lĩnh Nhật ngữ tại trường. Mở rộng các hoạt động giao lưu văn hóa trao đổi sinh viên với các trường trong nước và ngoài nước.

5. Kết luận

"Nói" là một trong bốn kỹ năng mà bất cứ người học ngoại ngữ nào cũng luôn muốn đạt đến vì mục đích cuối cùng của người học ngoại ngữ là "nghe và nói". Đánh giá sự thông thạo ngoại ngữ của một người nào đó cũng căn cứ vào kỹ năng "Nói".

Để có thể nói hay nói giỏi ngoài yếu tố tích cực học từ vựng, chủ động trong giao tiếp, vượt qua tâm lý tự ti của bản thân… từ phía sinh viên thôi thì vẫn chưa đủ mà cần có phải có thêm rất nhiều điều kiện khác. Phương pháp nâng cao chất lượng "nói" cho người học rất khác nhau và phụ thuộc vào môi trường, hoàn cảnh thực tế của từng trường hợp. Trong bài viết này, tôi đã chỉ ra những nguyên nhân và nêu ra giải pháp cần thực hiện cho việc nâng cao năng lực hội thoại của sinh viên tại HOU như hiện nay. Ngoài yếu tố giáo trình thì vai trò của giáo viên vẫn luôn quan trọng nhất. Giáo viên cần lấy người học làm trung tâm, cố gắng tạo không khí lớp thật thoải mái, xây dựng môi trường tiếng trong giờ học thật nhiều và cần thay đổi trong cách suy nghĩ rằng giờ hội thoại trên lớp không phải đơn thuần là luyện tập để nhớ mẫu câu mà cần phải hướng đến thiết kế một giờ học hội đủ những yếu tố mà tôi đã trình bày để sinh viên hội đủ được những điều kiện đáp ứng nhu cầu xã hội trong thời đại hội nhập.

Ngoài ra, cũng cần giảm sỉ số sinh viên để giáo viên được tương tác với sinh viên nhiều hơn, kịp thời sửa cho sinh viên những lỗi sai trong cách diễn đạt.

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STUDENTS' DIFFICULTIES IN JAPANESE TRANSLATION

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ABSTRACT

In the University, I not only teach the subjects like: Grammar, Conversation, Writing, Listening Japanese but also the subjects specialized on Japanese Translation and Interpretation, for example Translation Theory subject, Business Translation subject, Tourism Translation. And during the time I let students study these subjects I realized the students' difficulties in Japanese translation. There are so many reasons. Firstly, Japanese is very different with other languages. Japanese is considered non-logic language. For students, Japanese is a difficult language. Moreover, translation from Japanese to Vietnamese or from Vietnamese to Japanese is totally different.

During the time to teach students, I understand the difficulties, the mistakes of students. Moreover, to make this study more effective, I made a survey to check students' difficulties in translation from Japanese to Vietnamese or from Vietnamese to Japanese. From that points, I found the ways to teach and help students to overcome these difficulties.

NHỮNG KHÓ KHĂN CỦA SINH VIÊN KHI BIÊN DỊCH TIẾNG NHẬT VÀ MỘT SỐ BIỆN PHÁP KHẮC PHỤC

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Cơ bản để học ngoại ngữ là phải nắm vững 4 kỹ năng: Nghe, Nói, Đọc, Viết. Khi dạy 4 kỹ năng này phương pháp giảng dạy của tôi chủ yếu là phương pháp trực tiếp giúp học viên có thể nghe, nói, đọc, viết một cách tự nhiên theo phong cách và văn phong của tiếng Nhật. Tuy nhiên, đối với sinh viên chuyên ngành ngôn ngữ Nhật thì tôi đã áp dụng phương pháp trực tiếp như trên và đồng thời sử dụng phương pháp truyền thống giảng bằng tiếng Việt để ôn tập lại những điều sinh viên đã học. Lý do là vì sinh viên ngành ngôn ngữ Nhật, các em cần nắm rõ cấu trúc ngữ pháp, hiểu rõ từ và ngữ tiếng Nhật để tránh khả năng hiểu nhầm về ngôn ngữ và tạo nền tảng tốt nhất cho sinh viên thực hành dịch khi bước vào giai đoạn chuyên ngành.

Sau khi sinh viên vào giai đoạn chuyên ngành, đặc biệt liên quan đến chuyên ngành biên phiên dịch tiếng Nhật có các môn học như sau: Lý thuyết dịch tiếng Nhật, Biên dịch thương mại tiếng Nhật, Biên dịch du lịch tiếng Nhật,…lúc này phương pháp dạy của tôi chủ yếu là phương pháp truyền thống giảng bằng tiếng Việt. Bằng phương pháp đó tôi hướng dẫn cho sinh viên cách dịch chính xác và dịch thuần Việt (khi dịch từ Nhật sang Việt) và dịch thuần Nhật (khi dịch từ Việt sang Nhật).

Trong quá trình giảng dạy và cho sinh viên thực hành biên dịch, tôi nhận thấy sinh viên gặp nhiều khó khăn khi biên dịch. Sinh viên có rất nhiều lỗi sai trong khi biên dịch từ tiếng Nhật sang tiếng Việt và ngược lại từ tiếng Việt sang tiếng Nhật. Từ đó tôi đã tìm ra phương pháp và biện pháp giúp các em khắc phục khó khăn, những lỗi sai các em mắc phải. Đó cũng là lý do thôi thúc tôi nghiên cứu đề tài này. Để đề tài nghiên cứu này được tốt và hiệu quả hơn, tôi sử dụng phương pháp phân tích, suy luận, tổng hợp và kết hợp với phương pháp khảo sát thực tế. Đối tượng khảo sát là sinh viên ngành ngôn ngữ Nhật của trường Đại học Mở Thành Phố Hồ Chí Minh.

I. CƠ SỞ LÝ LUẬN

Tiếng Nhật là một ngôn ngữ được hơn 130 triệu người sử dụng ở Nhật Bản và những cộng đồng dân di cư Nhật Bản khắp thế giới. Đây là một ngôn ngữ chắp dính (khác biệt với tiếng Việt vốn thuộc vào loại ngôn ngữ đơn lập phân tích cao). Tiếng Nhật nổi bật với một hệ thống các nghi thức nghiêm ngặt và rành mạch, đặc biệt là hệ thống kính ngữ phức tạp thể hiện bản chất thứ bậc của xã hội Nhật Bản. Ngoài ra, tiếng Nhật còn có những dạng biến đổi động từ và sự kết hợp một số từ vựng để chỉ mối quan hệ giữa người nói, người nghe và người được nói đến trong cuộc hội thoại.

Nói về tiếng Nhật thì có rất nhiều tài liệu đề cập đến. Tuy nhiên trong bài nghiên cứu này, tôi xin được nêu lên một số đặc trưng của tiếng Nhật đối với người học tiếng Nhật để làm cơ sơ lý luận cho vấn đề nghiên cứu của mình.

Đặc trưng của tiếng Nhật đối với người học tiếng Nhật như sau:

Chữ tiếng Nhật

Tiếng Nhật có 3 loại chữ: Hiragana, Katakana, Kanji (Hán tự). Mỗi loại chữ có vai trò khác nhau nên loại chữ nào cũng quan trọng và cần thiết.

ひらがな   => Chữ Hiragana

カタカナ   => Chữ Katakana

漢字   => Chữ Kanji

Văn phạm

- Trong tiếng Nhật không phân biệt nam và nữ, người và vật.

- Trong tiếng Nhật không phân biệt số ít và số nhiều.

- Trong tiếng nhật có 3 loại câu:

  - Loại câu 1: câu kết thúc bằng danh từ.

  - Loại câu 2: câu kết thúc bằng động từ.

  - Loại câu 3: câu kết thúc bằng tính từ.

Từng loại câu có cấu trúc khác nhau, có vai trò khác nhau trong khi hành văn tiếng Nhật. Trong từng loại câu, chúng ta nên xác định rõ danh từ, động từ và tính từ.

Trong 3 loại câu trên, ngoài danh từ, động từ và tính từ thì còn có phó từ. Hơn nữa còn có thêm trợ từ (tiếng Anh được dịch là giới từ). Giới

từ trong tiếng Anh có thể đứng một mình vẫn có nghĩa, tuy nhiên trợ từ trong tiếng Nhật phải đứng sau danh từ và nó có một ý nghĩa nhất định phụ thuộc vào động từ đi sau đó.

Ví dụ:花屋で買う (Hanaya de kau - Mua ở tiệm hoa) => trợ từ "で"(de) ở đây mang ý nghĩa là "ở".

花屋に行く (Hanaya ni iku - Đi đến tiệm hoa) => trợ từ "に"(ni) ở đây kết hợp với động từ行く (iku – đi) mang ý nghĩa chỉ đích đến.

花屋がある (Hanaya ga aru - Có tiệm hoa) => trợ từ " が" (ga) ở đây kết hợp với động từ ある (aru - có) thể hiện có tồn tại sự vật.

- Đặc trưng trong tiếng Nhật còn thể hiện ở cách sử dụng trợ từ và trình tự các từ trong câu tiếng Nhật thay đổi tùy vào dòng chảy của vấn đề hay đề tài được nói đến.

Ví dụ: 机の上にりんごがある[1]。でも、みかんは椅子の上にある。[2] (Tsukue no ue ni ringo ga aru. Demo, mikan wa isu no ue ni aru - Trên bàn có trái táo. Tuy nhiên, trái quýt lại ở trên ghế)

Động từ vẫn ở cuối câu nhưng trạng từ chỉ nơi chốn thay đổi vị trí. Câu có trạng từ "trên bàn" ở đầu câu nhưng câu có trạng từ "trên ghế" ở giữa câu.

Trợ từ đi sau danh từ cũng thay đổi:

りんごが => りんご (ringo - trái táo) sau đó là trợ từ "が" (ga)

みかんは=>みかん (mikan - trái quýt) sau đó là trợ từ "は"(wa)

Vì 2 câu trên thể hiện ý nghĩa khác nhau nên trình tự các từ trong câu thay đổi vị trí. "Trên bàn có trái táo" thể hiện sự tồn tại sự vật. "Tuy nhiên, trái quýt ở trên bàn" thể hiện vị trí của sự vật.

- Trong tiếng Nhật, ý nghĩa động từ sẽ thay đổi khi động từ được thêm chữ hoặc kết hợp với những từ khác.

Ví dụ: 書き・ます (Kakimasu - Viết) .

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[1] みんなの日本語初級1本冊．スリーエーネットワーク．Tạm dịch: Tiếng Nhật cho mọi người sơ cấp 1 quyển chính. Tác giả và nhà xuất bản Suriiee nettowaaku.

[2] みんなの日本語初級1本冊．スリーエーネットワーク．Tạm dịch: Tiếng Nhật cho mọi người sơ cấp 1 quyển chính. Tác giả và nhà xuất bản Suriiee nettowaaku.

書い・てもいい (Kaitemoii - Được phép viết).

書か・なければならない(Kakanakerebanaranai-Phải viết).

書け・ば (Kakeba - Nếu viết).

書こ・う (Kakou - Sẽ viết).

書け・る (Kakeru - Có thể viết).

書か・せる (Kakaseru - Cho phép viết).

書か・れる (Kakareru - Bị viết).

• Ngoài ra tiếng Nhật còn có thành phần bổ nghĩa. Thành phần này bổ nghĩa cho danh từ và luôn đứng trước danh từ. Thành phần bổ nghĩa này nếu đơn giản thì chỉ là tính từ và danh từ để bổ nghĩa cho danh từ đó. Tuy nhiên cũng có lúc là một mệnh đề nên sẽ làm cho câu trong tiếng Nhật dài và phức tạp hơn.

おいしい料理(Oishii ryouri – Thức ăn ngon)=> Tính từ bổ nghĩa cho danh từ.

有名な料理 (Yuumeina ryouri – Thức ăn nổi tiếng) => Tính từ bổ nghĩa cho danh từ.

日本の料理 (Nihon no ryouri – Thức ăn Nhật Bản) => Danh từ bổ nghĩa cho danh từ.

母が作った料理 (Haha ga tsukutta ryouri – Thức ăn mẹ nấu) => Mệnh đề bổ nghĩa cho danh từ.

Từ vựng

• Trong các từ xưng hô hay các từ đề cập đến nghề nghiệp có nhiều từ tiếng Nhật đồng nghĩa và gần nghĩa.

Chẳng hạn riêng một từ "bác sĩ" mà cũng có nhiều từ thể hiện:「医者」(isha),「お医者さん」(oishasan),「お医者様」(oishasama),「医師」(ishi).

Tuy nhiên phải biết cách sử dụng từ nào cho hợp với đối tượng mình cần nói đến.

• Có nhiều từ liên quan đến con số.

Đếm từ 1 đến 10 thôi mà cũng có nhiều cách thể hiện. Chẳng hạn, riêng con số 4 mà lúc đọc là「よん」(yon) lúc đọc là「し」(shi). Hơn nữa,

cũng tùy chữ đứng sau số 4 mà số 4 cũng có nhiều cách đọc. Chẳng hạn như: 400(bốn trăm) đọc là よんひゃく (yonhyaku) số 4 lúc này đọc là YON,4月 (tháng 4) đọc là しがつ (shigatsu) số 4 lúc này đọc là SHI,4円 (よえん) nghĩa là 4 yên, số 4 đọc là YO,4日(よっか) Nghĩa là ngày 4, số 4 đọc là YOK.

Hơn nữa, không chỉ cách đọc con số thay đổi mà có những từ thay đổi cách đọc những chữ đứng sau con số.

Chẳng hạn: 200 (hai trăm) đọc là にひゃく(nihyaku), chữ "trăm" lúc này đọc là "hyaku", 300 (ba trăm) đọc làさんびゃく(sambyaku), chữ "trăm" lúc này đọc là "byaku", 600 (sáu trăm) đọc là ろっぴゃく (roppyaku), chữ "trăm" lúc này đọc là "pyaku".

- Ngoài ra, về từ vựng, ngoài bộ từ vựng Yamato (từ cổ trong tiếng Nhật) thì tiếng Nhật sử dụng rất nhiều chữ Hán được du nhập từ Trung Quốc (thể hiện qua chữ Kanji). Ngoài ra, gần đây từ vựng phương Tây ngày càng nhiều hơn trong kho từ mượn của tiếng Nhật (thể hiện qua chữ Katakana).

- Về biểu thị thái độ, tiếng Nhật có một hệ thống kính ngữ đa dạng về ngữ pháp và từ vựng để biểu hiện mối quan hệ một cách khéo léo của người nói đối với người nghe và người được đề cập đến.

- Khi yêu cầu hoặc có chỉ thị dành cho khách hàng thì dùng mẫu văn phạm:

お／ご＋動詞＋ください[3]

Ví dụ: ベルスタッフにお渡しください。[4] (Berusutaffu ni owatashikudasai - Xin hãy quý khách đưa cho nhân viên trực tầng ạ)

- Khi xin lỗi khách hàng hoặc không đáp ứng được yêu cầu của khách hàng, trong tiếng Nhật có cách nói:

申し訳ございません。[5] (Moushiwakegozaimasen - Chúng tôi xin lỗi quý khách ạ.)

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[3] Jal Academy. Japanese for hotel staff. Bonjinsha. Tạm dịch: Tập đoàn Jal Academy. Tiếng Nhật cho nhân viên khách sạn. Nhà xuất bản: Bonjinsha. Trang 11

[4] Jal Academy. Japanese for hotel staff. Bonjinsha. Tạm dịch: Tập đoàn Jal Academy. Tiếng Nhật cho nhân viên khách sạn. Nhà xuất bản: Bonjinsha. Trang 11

[5] Jal Academy. Japanese for hotel staff. Bonjinsha. Tạm dịch: Tập đoàn Jal Academy. Tiếng Nhật cho nhân viên khách sạn. Nhà xuất bản: Bonjinsha. Trang 3

- Khi có sự nhầm lẫn lớn đối với khách hàng thì câu xin lỗi như sau:

大変申し訳ございません。[6] (Taihen moushiwakegozaimasen – Chúng tôi thành thật xin lỗi quý khách ạ.)

Thể văn

Thể văn trong tiếng Nhật khác nhau giữa văn viết và văn nói. Trong đó cần phải phân biệt câu, từ dùng trong văn viết và câu, từ dùng trong văn nói.

Trong quyển sách "Luyện thi năng lực tiếng Nhật về Văn phạm N3 Shinkanzen Master" (新完全マスター文法N3), ở trang 143 có liệt kê một số cách thể hiện tiếng Nhật sử dụng trong văn bản trang trọng và cách thể hiện tiếng Nhật sử dụng trong hội thoại thường ngày như sau:

Ý nghĩa	Cách thể hiện sử dụng trong văn bản trang trọng	Cách thể hiện sử dụng trong hội thoại thường ngày
Rất	非常(hijou)・大変(taihen)	すごく(sugoku)
Nhiều	多く(ooku)・大勢 (oozei)	いっぱい(ippai)
Một chút	少し (sukoshi)	ちょっと(chotto)
Quả là	やはり(yahari)	やっぱり(yappari)
Đa dạng	様々な (samazamana)・色々な(iroirona)	いろんな (ironna)
Nói lên	述べ(noberu)・話す (hanasu)・言う(iu)	しゃべる (shaberu)
Tiến hành	行う(okonau)	やる (yaru)
Thế nhưng	しかし (shikashi)・だが (daga)	でも (demo)・だけど (dakedo)
Tại sao	なぜ (naze)	なんで (nande)
Chẳng hạn như	〜など (nado)	なんか (nanka)
Nghe nói	〜と(to)・〜という(to iu)・〜そうだ (souda)	〜って (utte)
Hình như	〜ようだ (youda)・〜らしい (rashii)	〜みたいだ (mitaida)

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[6] Jal Academy. Japanese for hotel staff. Bonjinsha. Tạm dịch: Tập đoàn Jal Academy. Tiếng Nhật cho nhân viên khách sạn. Nhà xuất bản: Bonjinsha. Trang 3

II. NHỮNG KHÓ KHĂN CỦA SINH VIÊN KHI BIÊN DỊCH TIẾNG NHẬT

Tôi đã tiến hành khảo sát về những khó khăn của sinh viên khi biên dịch tiếng Nhật qua câu hỏi: "Những khó khăn khi bạn biên dịch từ tiếng Nhật sang tiếng Việt và từ tiếng Việt sang tiếng Nhật là gì?". Kết quả khảo sát thu được từ 95 sinh viên đang học chuyên ngành tiếng Nhật tại Trường (trong đó có 31 sinh viên năm 4 và 64 sinh viên năm 3) như sau:

1. Những khó khăn của sinh viên khi biên dịch từ tiếng Nhật sang tiếng Việt

Vấn đề	Khó khăn	Tổng số SV	Tỉ lệ (%)
Từ vựng	Thiếu vốn từ tiếng Nhật (không biết nghĩa tiếng Việt)	28	26,6
	Không hiểu hết nghĩa của từ tiếng Nhật vì một từ mang nhiều nghĩa	34	32,3
	Không có vốn từ chuyên ngành	4	3,8
	Nhiều Hán tự không nhớ, không biết	23	21,85
	Từ Ngoại lai và Hán tự có nhiều từ không đi đúng nghĩa thật (theo chữ Hán và theo tiếng nước ngoài) của nó nên nếu không hiểu nghĩa đúng của tiếng Nhật sẽ dịch sai	14	13,3
Ngữ pháp	Không nắm vững cấu trúc, ý nghĩa ngữ pháp tiếng Nhật	16	15,2
	Không biết xác định thành phần cấu trúc trong câu tiếng Nhật nên dịch sai ý	22	20,9
	Câu ghép, câu phức dài khó xác định loại câu, thành phần cấu trúc trong câu nên khó dịch	18	17,1
Diễn đạt	Phong tục, tập quán, suy nghĩ của người Nhật và người Việt khác nhau nên cách hành văn khác nhau. Vì thế dịch khó trôi chảy, đôi khi dịch không đúng ý	19	18,05
Khác	Văn phong tiếng Việt còn kém nên dịch không tự nhiên và không lưu loát	4	3,8

2. Những khó khăn của sinh viên khi biên dịch từ tiếng Việt sang tiếng Nhật

Vấn đề	Khó khăn	Tổng số SV	Tỉ lệ (%)
Từ vựng	Thiếu vốn từ tiếng Nhật	23	21,85
	Không biết dùng từ thích hợp, không biết chọn từ sử dụng cho hợp với ngữ cảnh	32	30,4
	Không có từ chuyên ngành	8	7,6
Ngữ pháp	Kết cấu, cấu trúc ngữ pháp tiếng Nhật và tiếng Việt khác nhau nên khi dịch theo văn phong tiếng Nhật rất khó	2	1,9
	Nhiều trợ từ nên dễ nhầm lẫn, dùng sai	3	2,85
	Chưa nắm rõ ý nghĩa và ngữ cảnh của ngữ pháp tiếng Nhật nên không biết áp dụng ngữ pháp nào để chuyển từ tiếng Việt sang tiếng Nhật cho hợp lý và tự nhiên đúng văn phong tiếng Nhật	52	49,4
Diễn đạt	Phong tục, tập quán, suy nghĩ của người Việt và người Nhật khác nhau nên cách hành văn khác nhau. Vì vậy khó dịch được thuần Nhật	13	12,35
	Câu, từ tiếng Việt quá thuần Việt nên khó tìm từ tiếng Nhật thích hợp	5	4,75

III. BIỆN PHÁP KHẮC PHỤC VÀ PHƯƠNG PHÁP BIÊN DỊCH TIẾNG NHẬT

Sau khi điều tra khảo sát sinh viên về khó khăn gặp phải khi biên dịch tiếng Nhật thì tôi đã nghiên cứu tìm ra cách khắc phục khó khăn cho sinh viên và đưa ra phương pháp biên dịch tiếng Nhật tốt nhất để áp dụng giảng dạy cho sinh viên.

Qua khảo sát điều tra, tôi nhận thấy những khó khăn cơ bản của sinh viên trong việc biên dịch tiếng Nhật đó là vốn từ vựng tiếng Nhật quá ít, không hiểu hết nghĩa của từ tiếng Nhật vì có những từ mang nhiều nghĩa.

Hơn nữa, sinh viên không biết dùng từ cho hợp với ngữ cảnh dù biết nghĩa của từ tiếng Nhật đó. Ngoài ra, ngữ pháp tiếng Nhật không nắm vững, cách diễn đạt tiếng Nhật lẫn tiếng Việt của sinh viên không được tự nhiên. Những khó khăn này có thể khắc phục được chỉ cần ngay từ năm nhất mới bắt đầu học (còn đang trong trình độ sơ cấp), sinh viên nên chuyên cần chăm chỉ học từ vựng và luyện tập, ôn tập mỗi ngày những mẫu văn phạm mình đã học. Đó là cách khắc phục đầu tiên và đơn giản nhất.

1. VẤN ĐỀ TỪ VỰNG

Sau khi bắt đầu lên giai đoạn trung cấp, sinh viên cần phải nỗ lực học từ vựng không chỉ đọc, viết được Hiragana, Katakana, Hán tự mà còn hiểu rõ nghĩa và cách sử dụng từ sao cho đúng ngữ cảnh.

➢ Dịch tiếng Nhật sang tiếng Việt

Vấn đề 1: Khi dịch tiếng Nhật sang tiếng Việt, có những từ tiếng Nhật không chỉ có một nghĩa mà còn có nhiều nghĩa và mỗi nghĩa sử dụng trong ngữ cảnh khác nhau. Hiểu được rõ như thế mới dịch được tự nhiên theo kiểu thuần Việt.

Chẳng hạn khi dịch từ tiếng Nhật sang tiếng Việt động từ 求める（motomeru，theo nghĩa gốc Hán tự thì động từ này có chữ Hán là CẦU, có nghĩa là "yêu cầu". Nghĩa này thích hợp để dịch câu tiếng Nhật sau:

▪ 組合は会社に賃上げを*求めた*。[7]（Kumiai wa kaisha ni chinage o motometa）nghĩa là "Công đoàn yêu cầu công ty tăng lương."

Tuy nhiên áp dụng nghĩa "yêu cầu" cho những câu sau liệu có đúng không:

▪ 彼女は職を*求めている*。[8]（Kanojo wa shoku o motometeiru）

Cô ấy đang *yêu cầu* công việc. => Dịch không thích hợp.

Cô ấy đang *tìm kiếm* công việc. => Dịch đúng

Bởi vì, 求める（motomeru）còn có nghĩa là "tìm kiếm" thích hợp với ngữ cảnh trên.

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[7]安藤栄里子．耳から覚える日本語能力試験語彙トレーニングN2．アルク．Tạm dịch: Tác giả Andou Eriko. Luyện tập từ vựng Miikara oboeru cho kỳ thi năng lực Nhật ngữ trình độ N2. Nhà xuất bản Aruku. Trang 158
[8]安藤栄里子．耳から覚える日本語能力試験語彙トレーニングN2．アルク．Tạm dịch: Tác giả Andou Eriko. Luyện tập từ vựng Miikara oboeru cho kỳ thi năng lực Nhật ngữ trình độ N2. Nhà xuất bản Aruku. Trang 158

- きっぷはご乗車になる前に*お求めください*。[9] (Kippu wa gojousha ni naru mae ni omotomekudasai).

Xin hãy *yêu cầu* vé trước khi lên xe. => Dịch không thích hợp.

Xin hãy *mua* vé trước khi lên xe. => Dịch đúng

Bởi vì, 求める (motomeru) còn có nghĩa là "mua" thích hợp với ngữ cảnh trên.

Vấn đề 2: Có những từ viết chữ Hán tự nhưng không đúng nghĩa theo âm Hán của nó. Nếu không hiểu đúng nghĩa sẽ dịch sai. Chẳng hạn những từ sau:

- 階段 (kaidan), âm Hán: Giai Đoạn, nghĩa tiếng Việt: cầu thang
- 理解 (rikai), âm Hán: Lý Giải, nghĩa tiếng Việt: hiểu
- 改装 (kaisou), âm Hán: Cải Trang, nghĩa tiếng Việt: sửa sang lại trong tòa nhà
- 企業 (kigyou), âm Hán: Xí Nghiệp, nghĩa tiếng Việt: doanh nghiệp, công ty
- 環境 (kankyou), âm Hán: Hoàn Cảnh, nghĩa tiếng Việt: môi trường

Vấn đề 3: Có những từ Katakana không đúng theo nghĩa gốc của từ vay mượn mà mang một nghĩa hoàn toàn khác.

- スマート (sumaato), bắt nguồn từ tiếng Anh "smart" nghĩa là thông minh, nhưng tiếng Nhật chỉ dáng vóc thon, gầy.
- ミニバー (minibaa), bắt nguồn từ chữ "mini bar" theo nghĩa tiếng Anh là quầy bar nhỏ, nhưng tiếng Nhật là tủ lạnh nhỏ.
- マンション (manshon), bắt nguồn từ chữ "mansion", theo phương Tây là một tòa biệt thự to, lớn, nhưng tiếng Nhật là khu chung cư.
- バイキング (baikingu) bắt nguồn từ chữ "Viking" (người Viking) nhưng nghĩa tiếng Nhật là kiểu ăn buffet.

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[9] 安藤栄里子．耳から覚える日本語能力試験語彙トレーニングN2．アルク．Tạm dịch: Tác giả Andou Eriko. Luyện tập từ vựng Miikara oboeru cho kỳ thi năng lực Nhật ngữ trình độ N2. Nhà xuất bản Aruku. Trang 158

- スナック(sunakku) tưởng là bánh Snack, nhưng tiếng Nhật là các quán Bar tại Nhật Bản.

  ➢ **Dịch tiếng Việt sang tiếng Nhật**

Khi dịch từ tiếng Việt sang tiếng Nhật chúng ta cần lưu ý có từ một nghĩa tiếng Việt nhưng có nhiều từ tiếng Nhật, nhưng mỗi từ tiếng Nhật đó lại sử dụng ngữ cảnh riêng của nó. Hiểu được rõ như thế mới dịch được tự nhiên theo kiểu thuần Nhật.

Ví dụ 1: Từ "Bổ sung" tiếng Nhật có những động từ sau: 補充する (hojuu suru), 補足する(hosoku suru).

- *Bổ sung* thông tin=> 情報を*補足*する。[10] (jouhou o hosoku suru)

- *Bổ sung* thêm sản phẩm＝＞商品を*補充*する。[11] (shouhin o hojuu suru)

Không phải từ nào mang nghĩa "bổ sung" cũng sử dụng được mà mỗi từ có đặc trưng riêng của nó.

- 補充する (hojuu suru) dùng để bổ sung vật.

- 補足する (hosoku suru) dùng để bổ sung cái không phải là vật.

Ví dụ 2: Từ "Chăm sóc bệnh" có những động từ sau: 看護する (kango suru) , 看病する (kanbyou suru).

Không phải từ nào mang ý nghĩa "chăm sóc bệnh" cũng sử dụng được mà mỗi từ có ngữ cảnh riêng để sử dụng.

- Khi còn nhỏ, lúc tôi bệnh, chị thường *chăm sóc bệnh* cho tôi.

＝＞ 子どもの頃、私が病気の時は、よく姉が*看病*してくれた。[12]

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[10]遊佐英寿 (2018). 日本語能力試験N2対策. ひので日本語センタ. Tạm dịch: Tác giả Yusa Hidehisha (2018). Đối sách cho kỳ thi năng lực Nhật ngữ trình độ N2. Tài liệu học tập của trung tâm Nhật ngữ Hinode.
[11]遊佐英寿 (2018). 日本語能力試験N2対策. ひので日本語センタ. Tạm dịch: Tác giả Yusa Hidehisha (2018). Đối sách cho kỳ thi năng lực Nhật ngữ trình độ N2. Tài liệu học tập của trung tâm Nhật ngữ Hinode.
[12]遊佐英寿 (2018). 日本語能力試験N2対策. ひので日本語センタ. Tạm dịch: Tác giả Yusa Hidehisha (2018). Đối sách cho kỳ thi năng lực Nhật ngữ trình độ N2. Tài liệu học tập của trung tâm Nhật ngữ Hinode.

(Kodomo no koro, watashi ga byouki no toki wa, yoku ane ga kambyoushitekureta).

⇨ 看病する (kanbyou suru) dùng trong ngữ cảnh chăm sóc người bệnh ở nhà.

▪ Chúng ta gọi nhân viên đảm nhận việc *chăm sóc bệnh* ở bệnh viện là y tá.

=> 病院で*看護*を担当するスタッフを、看護師と呼びます。[13]

(Byouin de kango o tantousuru sutaffu o, kangoushi to yobimasu)

⇨ 看護する (kango suru) dùng trong ngữ cảnh chăm sóc bệnh nhân ở bệnh viện.

2. VẤN ĐỀ VỀ NGỮ PHÁP VÀ CẤU TRÚC CÂU

Theo phần cơ sở lý luận có đề cập trong tiếng nhật có 3 loại câu:

- Loại câu 1: câu kết thúc bằng danh từ.

- Loại câu 2: câu kết thúc bằng động từ.

- Loại câu 3: câu kết thúc bằng tính từ.

Từng loại câu có cấu trúc khác nhau, có vai trò khác nhau trong khi hành văn tiếng Nhật. Trong từng loại câu chúng ta nên xác định rõ danh từ, động từ và tính từ. Tuy nhiên theo cuốn sách 速読の日本語 (Sokudoku no nihongo – Tiếng Nhật đọc nhanh), ở trang 48 có đề cập đến 6 loại cấu trúc văn phạm cơ bản trong tiếng Nhật sau đây:

X　は／が　Yです ⇨　　Vị ngữ là danh từ hoặc tính từ.	▪ 私は学生です。(Watashi wa gakusei desu - Tôi là học sinh.) ▪ 日本語はおもしろいです。(Nihongo wa omoshiroi desu - Tiếng Nhật thú vị.) ▪ 東京が有名です。(Tokyou ga yuumei desu - Tokyo nổi tiếng.)

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[13] 遊佐英寿 (2018). 日本語能力試験N2対策. ひので日本語センタ. Tạm dịch: Tác giả Yusa Hidehisha (2018). Đối sách cho kỳ thi năng lực Nhật ngữ trình độ N2. Tài liệu học tập của trung tâm Nhật ngữ Hinode.

X は Y が Z ⇨ Vị ngữ là động từ hoặc tính từ. ⇨ Có nhiều loại câu đặc định cho mẫu văn phạm này: Câu miêu tả sự vật, câu thể hiện giỏi, dở, yêu, thích, hiểu biết, khả năng, sở hữu,...	▪ 像は鼻が長いです。(Zou wa hana ga nagai desu - Con voi có mũi dài.) ▪ 友達はテニスが上手です。(Tomodachi wa tennisu ga jouzu desu - Bạn tôi chơi tennis giỏi.) ▪ 私は兄弟がいます。(Watashi wa kyoudai ga imasu - Tôi có anh chị em.)
X は／が ～を V（他動詞） ⇨ Vị ngữ là tha động từ.	▪ 私はドアを開けます。(Watashi wa doa o akemasu - Tôi mở cửa.) ▪ 友達がテニスをします。(Tomodachi ga tenisu o shimasu - Bạn tôi chơi tennis.)
X は／が V（自動詞） ⇨ Vị ngữ là tự động từ.	▪ ドアが開きます。(Doa ga akimasu - Cửa mở.) ▪ 私は8時に起きます。(Watashi wa hachiji ni okimasu - Tôi thức dậy lúc 8 giờ.)
X は ～に あります／います ⇨ Vị trí của sự vật.	▪ 辞書は図書館にあります。(Jisho wa toshokan ni arimasu - Từ điển có ở thư viện.) ▪ キリンはアフリカにいます。(Kirin wa afurika ni imasu - Hươu cao cổ có ở Châu Phi.)
X は ～で あります ⇨ Vị trí của sự việc.	▪ 授業はこの教室であります。(Jugyou wa konokyoushitsu de arimasu - Giờ học diễn ra ở phòng học này.) ▪ コンサートは公園であります。(Konsaato wa kouen de arimasu - Buổi hòa nhạc diễn ra ở công viên

	này.)
〜に　X　が　あります／います ⇨ Tồn tại sự vật ở đâu đó.	▪ ここに辞書があります。(Koko ni jisho ga arimasu - Ở đây có cuốn từ điển.) ▪ うちに犬がいます。(Uchi ni inu ga imasu - Ở nhà tôi có con chó.)
〜で　X　が　あります ⇨ Tồn tại sự việc ở đâu đó.	▪ このボールで卒業式があります。(Konobooru de sotsugyoushiki ga arimasu - Ở hội trường này có diễn ra buổi lễ tốt nghiệp.) ▪ メインストリートでパレードがあります。(Meinsutoriito de pareedo ga arimasu - Ở trên con đường lớn có buổi diễu hành.)

Nếu chúng ta nắm vững 6 cấu trúc văn phạm trên dùng trong trường hợp nào và xác định rõ thành phần chủ ngữ, vị ngữ thì chúng ta dịch từ tiếng Nhật sang tiếng Việt và ngược lại tiếng Việt sang tiếng Nhật rất lưu loát, trôi chảy và rất tự nhiên theo văn phong của tiếng Nhật và tiếng Việt.

3. ĐẶC TRƯNG CỦA MỖI CÁCH DỊCH

➢ **Dịch từ tiếng Nhật sang tiếng Việt.**

Khi dịch từ tiếng Nhật sang tiếng Việt, chúng ta cần lưu ý phải **bám sát câu chữ**. Có như vậy mới dịch đúng và không bị sai ý nghĩa của câu. Hơn nữa chúng ta cần xác định loại cấu trúc câu, thành phần chủ ngữ, vị ngữ trong câu thì mới dịch chính xác. Ban đầu câu dịch hơi bị lủng củng nhưng sau đó điều chỉnh lại theo văn phong tiếng Việt sẽ diễn đạt trôi chảy và tự nhiên hơn.

Ví dụ 1: 文章は一言一句読まなければならないという考えが変わった。[14] (Bunshou wa ichigenikku yomanakerebanaranai to iu kangae ga kawatta).

Nhiều trường hợp sinh viên không nắm vững mẫu câu căn bản và xác

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[14]岡まゆみ (2013). 中・上級者のための速読の日本語. The Japan Times. Tạm dịch: Tác giả Oka Mayumi (2013). Tiếng Nhật đọc nhanh giành cho trình độ trung cấp, cao cấp. Nhà xuất bản The Japan Times. , Trang 51

định sai thành phần chủ ngữ, xác định sai loại động từ và đã dịch như sau:

⇨ *Văn chương đã thay đổi suy nghĩ phải đọc từng câu từng chữ.* (*SVNB15*)

Sinh viên khác xác định được mẫu câu căn bản và dịch đúng nhưng còn lủng củng. Câu dịch như sau:

⇨ *Văn chương thì suy nghĩ phải đọc từng câu từng chữ đã thay đổi.* (*SVNB14*)

Giáo viên cần phải giúp sinh viên xác định đúng mẫu câu trên:

- Cấu trúc câu là : X　は／が　Ｖ（自動詞）

- Vị ngữ là tự động từ: 変わった (kawatta): đã thay đổi

- Chủ ngữ: 考え (kangae): cách suy nghĩ

- Thành câu: 考えが変わった (kangae ga kawatta): cách suy nghĩ đã thay đổi.

- Mệnh đề bổ nghĩa: 文章は一言一句読まなければならないという(Bunsyou wa ichigenikku yomanakerebanaranai to iu) bổ nghĩa cho danh từ là chủ ngữ考え (kangae): cách suy nghĩ

Câu dịch đúng là:

⇨ *Cách suy nghĩ cho rằng văn chương phải đọc từng câu từng chữ đã thay đổi.*

Ví dụ 2: 東京は昔と未来が同時に存在する不思議な町だという印象を持った。[15] (Tokyou wa mukashi to mirai ga douzi ni sonzaisuru fushigi na machida to iu inshou o motta)

Đa số sinh viên không xác định đúng mẫu câu căn bản, xác định sai thành phần chủ ngữ, hiểu sai ý nghĩa của cụm động từ đã dịch như sau:

⇨ *Tokyou mang ấn tượng là thành phố kỳ lạ tồn tại đồng thời quá khứ và tương lai.* (*SVNB12, NB13, NB14, NB15*).

Giáo viên cần phải giúp sinh viên xác định đúng mẫu câu trên:

- Cấu trúc câu: X　は／が　〜をV（他動詞）

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[15]岡まゆみ (2013). 中・上級者のための速読の日本語. The Japan Times. Tạm dịch: Tác giả Oka Mayumi (2013). Tiếng Nhật đọc nhanh giành cho trình độ trung cấp, cao cấp. Nhà xuất bản The Japan Times. , Trang 51

- Vị ngữ là tha động từ: 持った (motta): có

- Tân ngữ theo tha động từ: 印象 (inshou): ấn tượng

- Chủ ngữ: (bị ẩn) => thường chủ ngữ bị ẩn là ngôi thứ nhất (tôi, chúng tôi) hoặc chúng ta.

- Mệnh đề bổ nghĩa: 東京は昔と未来が同時に存在する不思議な町だという(Tokyou wa mukashi to mirai ga douzi ni sonzaisuru fushigi na machida to iu) bổ nghĩa cho danh từ là tân ngữ印象 (inshou): ấn tượng.

- Cụm động từ: 印象を持つ(inshou wo motsu) có nghĩa là思う (omou: nghĩ) ・ 感じる(kanjiru: cảm nhận) ・ 印象を受ける(inshou wo ukeru: có ấn tượng ・ 感想を抱く (kansou wo idaku: có cảm tưởng)・ 感じを持つ(kanji wo motsu: có cảm nhận) ・ 考える (kangaeru: suy nghĩa) => có ấn tượng, suy nghĩ về vấn đề, đối tượng nào đó.

Câu dịch đúng là:

⇨ *Tôi có ấn tượng Tokyo là thành phố kỳ lạ tồn tại đồng thời quá khứ và tương lai.*

➢ **Dịch từ tiếng Việt sang tiếng Nhật**

Ngược lại, khi dịch từ tiếng Việt sang tiếng Nhật, chúng ta cần lưu ý **không bám sát câu chữ**. Vì nếu dịch bám sát câu chữ sẽ dịch theo kiểu tiếng Việt là dịch từng từ, từng chữ sẽ không đúng văn phong tiếng Nhật. Chúng ta phải nắm ý câu muốn truyền đạt rồi xác định mẫu câu, từ vựng tiếng Nhật thích hợp với ngữ cảnh rồi mới dịch.

<u>Ví dụ 1:</u> Cái ví của tôi bị ăn trộm lấy.

Trường hợp sinh viên bám sát câu chữ tiếng Việt đã dịch như sau:

Cách dịch 1: 私の財布は泥棒に盗まれた。(*SVNB11)*

(Watashi no saifu wa dorobou ni nusumareta)

Dịch theo văn phong và ngữ cảnh của tiếng Nhật như sau:

Cách dịch 2: 私は泥棒に財布を盗まれた。

(Watashi wa dorobou ni saifu o nusumareta)

Trong tiếng Nhật không có cấu trúc "sự vật bị tác động" mà chỉ có cấu trúc "đối được bị ai đó tác động vào vật sở hữu". Vì thế cách dịch 1 là cách dịch sai, không theo văn phong tiếng Nhật.

Ví dụ 2: Mỗi ngày mẹ thường hay dọn dẹp phòng cho tôi.

Trường hợp sinh viên không linh hoạt chuyển đổi cho đúng văn phong của tiếng Nhật đã dịch như sau:

Cách dịch 1: 母は毎日私に部屋を掃除してくれる。(*dịch chưa chính xác*)

（Haha wa mainichi watashi ni heya o souzishitekureru）(*SVNB11*)

Dịch đúng văn phong của tiếng Nhật như sau:

Cách dịch 2: 母は毎日私の部屋を掃除してくれる。

（Haha wa mainichi watashi no heya o souzishitekureru）

Nếu theo câu chữ và theo mẫu văn phạm: A は私に〜Vてくれる[16], ý nghĩa mẫu văn phạm đó là: "ai làm gì cho mình" thì cách dịch 1 tương đối hiểu được ý, tuy nhiên không chính xác bởi vì để sử dụng mẫu câu này thì V (động từ) phải mang ý nghĩa hướng đến đối tượng; còn nếu là V (động từ) thể hiện ý nghĩa tác động lên vật sở hữu của đối tượng thì phải dùng hình thức khác: A は私のNを〜Vてくれる[17]。Vì vậy cách dịch 2 là cách dịch đúng và đúng văn phong tiếng Nhật.

Nói tóm lại, chỉ cần chúng ta hiểu ý nghĩa của từng mẫu văn phạm và biết vận dụng nó vào ngữ cảnh nào thì chúng ta có thể dịch chính xác và thuần Nhật hơn.

Kết luận

Vấn đề dịch đúng hay dịch sai, dịch hay hay dịch không hay, dịch lưu loát hay dịch không lưu loát thì có rất nhiều ý kiến tranh luận. Trong bài nghiên cứu này, với tư cách là một giảng viên dạy tiếng Nhật và dạy chuyên ngành biên phiên dịch tiếng Nhật thì tôi chỉ đưa ra cách khắc phục và phương pháp dịch từ kinh nghiệm giảng dạy của mình theo như trên. Tuy nhiên, ngoài ra để dịch lưu loát hơn thì chúng ta nên tự đào sâu thêm kiến thức cho bản thân mình bằng cách đọc nhiều và đọc nhiều lĩnh vực khác nhau bằng tiếng Việt cũng như tiếng Nhật.

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[16] みんなの日本語初級1本冊．スリーエーネットワーク．Tạm dịch: Tiếng Nhật cho mọi người sơ cấp 1 quyển chính. Tác giả và nhà xuất bản Suriieenettowaaku.

[17] みんなの日本語初級1本冊．スリーエーネットワーク．Tạm dịch: Tiếng Nhật cho mọi người sơ cấp 1 quyển chính. Tác giả và nhà xuất bản Suriieenettowaaku.

Trước hết là để chúng ta hiểu biết về sự khác nhau của văn hóa và tập quán của hai nước Nhật – Việt, hiểu được suy nghĩ của người Nhật cũng như người Việt. Ngoài ra đọc nhiều thì chúng ta còn tích lũy cho mình thêm nhiều kiến thức của từng lĩnh vực. Có như thế chúng ta mới hiểu và dịch được lưu loát hơn.

Đề tài "Những khó khăn của sinh viên khi biên dịch tiếng Nhật và một số biện pháp khắc phục" là đề tài tôi nghĩ rằng sẽ có rất nhiều vấn đề để đề cập đến. Tuy nhiên dưới sự hạn chế về mặt thời gian và nguồn tư liệu nên tôi chưa tìm hiểu hết về mọi mặt, mọi khía cạnh, nhưng qua những gì tôi tìm hiểu về khó khăn của sinh viên khi biên dịch thì tôi đã đưa ra biện pháp khắc phục, phương pháp biên dịch tốt hơn cho sinh viên như trên. Tôi mong bài nghiên cứu này có ích cho sinh viên ngành tiếng Nhật nói chung và sinh viên ngành ngôn ngữ Nhật của trường Đại học Mở Thành phố Hồ Chí Minh nói riêng. Hơn nữa đây cũng là cơ hội để tôi xem xét nhận định lại phương pháp giảng dạy của mình nhằm có sự đổi mới tốt hơn trong công việc giảng dạy tiếng Nhật, đặc biệt là phương pháp giảng dạy các môn liên quan đến kỹ năng biên dịch để giúp các em sinh viên có nền tảng biên dịch tiếng Nhật tốt vận dụng cho công việc sau này của các em.

TÀI LIỆU THAM KHẢO

安藤栄里子. 耳から覚える日本語能力試験語彙トレーニングN2. アルク.

Tạm dịch: Tác giả Andou Eriko. Luyện tập từ vựng Miikara oboeru cho kỳ thi năng lực Nhật ngữ trình độ N2. Nhà xuất bản Aruku.

安藤栄里子. 耳から覚える日本語能力試験語彙トレーニングN3. アルク.

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Tạm dịch: Tiếng Nhật cho mọi người sơ cấp 1 quyển chính. Tác giả và nhà xuất bản Suriiee nettowaaku.

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CHINESE SYMPOSIUM

CLASSIFICATION OF FUNCTION WORDS AND COMPARISON OF GRAMMATICAL TERMS IN CHINESE AND VIETNAMESE

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ABSTRACT

Both Chinese and Vietnamese are isolating language, the grammar of these two languages have a number of similarities. For instance, no inflection, function word and word order play the role of clarifying the grammatical relationships as well as the grammatical meanings of words and sentences. Function words classification and use of grammatical terms in Chinese and Vietnamese have many similarities, but there are also many differences. This paper generalizes the categorization of function words and compares related grammatical terms in order to point out the correspondences and dissimilarities in grammatical aspects between Chinese and Vietnamese.

Keywords: *Chinese; Vietnamese; Function Words; Terms; Similarities and differences*

VỀ VẤN ĐỀ PHÂN LOẠI HƯ TỪ KIÊM ĐỐI CHIẾU THUẬT NGỮ NGỮ PHÁP TRONG TIẾNG TRUNG VÀ TIẾNG VIỆT

TS. Châu A Phí
Đại học Sư phạm TP.Hồ Chí Minh

TÓM TẮT

Tiếng Trung và tiếng Việt đều là ngôn ngữ đơn lập, ngữ pháp của hai ngôn ngữ này có nhiều điểm tương đồng: Từ không biến đổi về hình thái, hư từ và trật tự từ đóng vai trò làm rõ quan hệ ngữ pháp cũng như ý nghĩa ngữ pháp của từ và của câu. Việc phân loại hư từ và sử dụng các thuật ngữ ngữ pháp trong tiếng Trung và tiếng Việt có nhiều điểm giống nhau, nhưng cũng có không ít điểm khác biệt. Bài viết khái quát tình hình phân loại hư từ và tiến hành đối chiếu các thuật ngữ ngữ pháp có liên quan, tìm ra những điểm tương đồng và dị biệt trong ngữ pháp của hai ngôn ngữ Trung-Việt.

Từ khóa: *Tiếng Trung; Tiếng Việt; Hư từ; Thuật ngữ; Tương đồng và dị biệt*

1. Phân loại hư từ trong tiếng Trung

Hiện nay, các nhà ngữ pháp học Trung Quốc vẫn còn tranh cãi về việc phân loại hư từ trong tiếng Trung. Trong phạm vi bài viết này, chúng tôi không thảo luận những quan điểm khác biệt đó, chúng tôi chỉ lựa chọn một trong số những cách phân loại có tầm ảnh hưởng rộng để làm cơ sở thảo luận. Xét từ góc độ giảng dạy tiếng Trung cho người nước ngoài, cụ thể là giảng dạy cho sinh viên Việt Nam, chúng tôi lựa chọn cách phân loại từ loại trong quyển "Ngữ pháp tiếng Trung hiện đại thực dụng"của ba tác giả Lưu Nguyệt Hoa, Phan Văn Ngu, Cố Vĩ (phiên bản năm 2002). Các tác giả này đã căn cứ vào chức năng ngữ pháp của từ chia từ thành hai loại lớn: Thực từ và hư từ. Thực từ chia làm bảy loại: Động từ, tính từ, danh từ (bao gồm từ chỉ thời gian và từ chỉ nơi chốn), số từ, lượng từ, đại từ, phó từ; Hư từ chia làm bốn loại: Giới từ, liên từ, trợ từ, từ tượng thanh; Thán từ được xem là loại từ đặc thù. Bốn loại hư từ này có đặc điểm chung là không thể độc lập làm thành phần câu, chỉ khi chúng kết hợp với thực từ thì chúng mới có thể biểu thị ý nghĩa ngữ pháp.

Bảng từ loại tiếng Trung

Thực từ	Thể từ	Danh từ
		Đại từ
		Số từ
		Lượng từ
	Vị từ	Động từ
		Tính từ
		Phó từ
Hư từ		Giới từ
		Liên từ
		Trợ từ (Trợ từ kết cấu, Trợ từ động thái, Trợ từ ngữ khí)
		Từ tượng thanh
Từ loại đặc thù		Thán từ

2. Phân loại hư từ trong tiếng Việt

Việc phân loại hư từ trong tiếng Việt cũng gần giống với việc phân loại hư từ trong tiếng Trung. Các nhà Việt ngữ học có quan điểm khác nhau về việc phân loại từ. Những quan điểm này đến nay vẫn chưa có sự thống nhất, nhưng nhìn chung các nhà ngữ pháp học tiếng Việt đều chủ trương chia từ thành hai loại lớn: Thực từ và hư từ. Các nhà ngữ pháp học khi tiến hành phân loại hư từ đều xét đến các yếu tố ý nghĩa ngữ pháp, chức năng ngữ pháp và yếu tố âm luật của hư từ. Từ góc độ giảng dạy, chúng tôi sử dụng cách phân loại từ loại trong quyển "Cơ sở ngữ pháp tiếng Việt" của tác giả Nguyễn Kim Thản (phiên bản năm 2008) để làm cơ sở đối chiếu. Tác giả đã chia hư từ thành bốn loại: Từ kèm, từ nối, từ đệm và từ cảm.

Bảng từ loại tiếng Việt

Thực từ	Danh từ
	Động từ
	Tính từ
	Số từ
	Đại từ
Hư từ	Từ kèm
	Từ nối
	Từ đệm
	Từ cảm

3. Đối chiếu thuật ngữ ngữ pháp trong tiếng Trung và tiếng Việt

Nhà ngôn ngữ học Trung Quốc Vương Hoàn đã từng nói: "Khi đối chiếu ngữ pháp của hai ngôn ngữ, cho dù hai ngôn ngữ có cùng chung thuật ngữ ngữ pháp, nhưng nội dung của chúng không hoàn toàn giống nhau. Mặc dù tư duy của con người có điểm tương thông, nhưng ngữ pháp và tư duy gắn kết chặt chẽ với logic, cho nên ngữ pháp của các ngôn ngữ khác nhau nhưng ít nhiều cũng có điểm giống nhau...Khi đối chiếu ngữ pháp của hai ngôn ngữ, điều quan trọng nhất là chỉ ra điểm khác biệt của hai ngôn ngữ có cùng chung một thuật ngữ ngữ pháp"(Wang Huan, 1993, 10). Chính vì lẽ đó, chúng tôi thấy cần phải thảo luận nội dung này. Tiếng Trung và tiếng Việt đều là ngôn ngữ đơn lập, ngữ pháp của hai ngôn ngữ này có nhiều điểm tương đồng: Từ không biến đổi về hình thái, hư từ và trật tự từ đóng vai trò làm rõ quan hệ ngữ pháp cũng như ý nghĩa ngữ pháp của từ và của câu. Do đặc điểm của tiếng Trung và tiếng Việt có nhiều điểm gần giống nhau và do nguyên nhân lịch sử, tiếng Việt có hơn 60% là từ Hán Việt. Các nhà nghiên cứu Việt ngữ đa số đều sử dụng các thuật ngữ ngữ pháp là từ Hán Việt để miêu tả, phân tích như: Chủ ngữ, vị ngữ, bổ ngữ, trạng ngữ, định ngữ...Trong các thuật ngữ tiếng Việt này, có một số thuật ngữ nội hàm của chúng hoàn toàn giống với tiếng Trung. Chẳng hạn như thuật ngữ định ngữ là thành phần bổ nghĩa cho danh từ hoặc cụm danh từ, nhưng chỉ khác về trật tự từ. Định ngữ trong tiếng Việt thường đứng sau trung tâm ngữ, còn định ngữ trong tiếng Trung được đứng trước trung tâm ngữ. Có một số thuật ngữ trong tiếng Việt nội hàm của chúng hoàn toàn khác với tiếng Trung. Chẳng hạn như thuật ngữ bổ ngữ là có sự khác biệt rất lớn. Chúng tôi tiến hành đối chiếu chúng trên hai phương diện: nội hàm bổ ngữ và thành phần làm bổ ngữ.

Bổ ngữ tiếng Trung và bổ ngữ tiếng Việt có nội hàm khác nhau. Bổ ngữ trong tiếng Việt tương đương với hai thành phần tân ngữ và bổ ngữ (bổ ngữ chỉ kết quả và bổ ngữ chỉ khả năng) trong tiếng Trung. Trong tiếng Việt không sử dụng thuật ngữ tân ngữ.

Tân ngữ, bổ ngữ trong tiếng Trung tương đương với thành phần trong tiếng Việt

Tân ngữ, bổ ngữ trong tiếng Trung		Tương đương với thành phần trong tiếng Việt	Ví dụ
Tân ngữ		Bổ ngữ	喜欢跳舞(thích khiêu vũ), 认识他(quen ông ấy), 买汽车(mua xe ô tô)...
Bổ ngữ chỉ kết quả		Bổ ngữ	看完(đọc xong),哭瞎(khóc mù), 推倒(đẩy đổ), 染红(nhuộm đỏ)...
Bổ ngữ chỉ khả năng		Bổ ngữ	听不清(không nghe rõ được), 去不了(không thể đi được), 猜得出来(có thể đoán được)...
Bổ ngữ chỉ mức độ		Trạng ngữ	高兴极了(vui cực kì), 疼得厉害(đau cực kì), 渴得要命(khát chết đi được)...
Bổ ngữ chỉ trạng thái		Trạng ngữ	写得很快(viết rất nhanh),说得很流利(nói rất lưu loát), 起得很早(dậy rất sớm)...
Bổ ngữ chỉ hướng		Trạng ngữ	拿出来(lấy ra), 走进去(đi vào), 跑下来(chạy xuống)
Bổ ngữ là cụm giới từ		Trạng ngữ	来源于实践(bắt nguồn từ thực tiễn), 来自美国(đến từ nước Mỹ), 住在北京(sống ở Bắc Kinh)...
Bổ ngữ chỉ số lượng	Bổ ngữ chỉ số lần của động tác	Trạng ngữ	看过几遍(đã xem mấy lượt), 请等一下(xin đợi một chút),来过两次了(đã đến hai lần)
	Bổ ngữ chỉ thời gian	Trạng ngữ	学了两年了(đã học hai năm), 病了三天(đã ốm ba hôm), 休息一天(nghỉ một ngày)...
	Bổ ngữ chỉ số lượng so sánh	Trạng ngữ	比他大三岁(lớn hơn cậu ấy ba tuổi), 比去年多一倍(nhiều gấp đôi so với năm ngoái)...

Bổ ngữ (bổ ngữ chỉ khả năng, bổ ngữ chỉ mức độ, bổ ngữ chỉ trạng thái) trong tiếng Trung có tiêu chí "de"(得) để nhận biết, còn bổ ngữ trong tiếng Việt không có tiêu chí để nhận biết. Bổ ngữ chỉ khả năng trong tiếng Việt thường được dùng "V+được" hoặc trợ động từ để diễn đạt; bổ ngữ chỉ mức độ hoặc bổ ngữ chỉ trạng thái thường dùng phó từ chỉ mức độ hoặc từ ngữ biểu thị mức độ để diễn đạt.

Bổ ngữ trong tiếng Trung luôn đứng sau trung tâm ngữ, thành phần làm bổ ngữ thường là thường là kết cấu vị từ hoặc kết cấu số lượng. Tân ngữ đứng sau động từ, thành phần làm tân ngữ thường là từ ngữ mang tính chất như thể từ.

Bổ ngữ và tân ngữ trong tiếng Trung

	Bổ ngữ	**Tân ngữ**
Vị trí	Đứng sau trung tâm ngữ	Đứng sau động từ
Thành phần cấu tạo	Từ ngữ mang tính chất như vị từ Cụm giới từ Cụm từ chỉ số lượng Một số ít phó từ	Từ ngữ mang tính chất như thể từ Thành phần mang tính chất như vị từ (hạn chế) Cụm từ chỉ số lượng

Ngoại diên của bổ ngữ trong tiếng Việt tương đối rộng, tương đương với tân ngữ và bổ ngữ chỉ kết quả, bổ ngữ chỉ khả năng trong tiếng Trung. Bổ ngữ trong tiếng Việt đứng sau trung tâm ngữ, thành phần làm bổ ngữ thường là thể từ, vị từ, cụm chủ vị...

Ví dụ:

Tương đương với tân ngữ trong tiếng Trung:

Tôi học tiếng phổ thông Trung Quốc. （我学中国普通话）

Cụm danh từ "tiếng phổ thông Trung Quốc" nói rõ đối tượng cho "học", làm bổ ngữ.

Tương đương với bổ ngữ trong tiếng Trung:

Tôi làm xong rồi. （我做完了。）

Vị từ "xong" nói rõ kết quả cho "làm", làm bổ ngữ chỉ kết quả.

Do khái niệm bổ ngữ trong tiếng Trung và bổ ngữ trong tiếng Việt có sự khác biệt, cho nên trong phạm vi bài viết này, chúng tôi chỉ sử dụng bổ ngữ trong tiếng Việt tương đương với phần tân ngữ trong tiếng Trung, không bao gồm phần tương đương với bổ ngữ trong tiếng Trung.

Thành phần cấu tạo bổ ngữ trong tiếng Việt

	Bổ ngữ
Trung tâm ngữ	Danh từ/cụm từ mang tính chất như danh từ Động từ/cụm từ mang tính chất như động từ Tính từ/cụm từ mang tính chất như tính từ Cụm chủ vị ...

Cấu tạo cụm vị từ trong tiếng Việt:

Thành phần phụ trước + Trung tâm ngữ + Thành phần phụ sau

Thành phần phụ trước thường là phó từ làm trạng ngữ. Thành phần phụ sau có các trường hợp sau đây:

(1) Trung tâm ngữ + Từ ngữ mang tính chất như danh từ/động từ, từ ngữ mang tính chất như tính từ/cụm chủ vị làm bổ ngữ (tương đương với phần tân ngữ trong tiếng Trung). Ví dụ: Ăn cơm (吃饭), đọc tiểu thuyết (看小说), thích bơi lội (喜欢游泳), cấm hút thuốc (禁止吸烟), tiến hành nghiên cứu (进行研究), tỏ vẻ bằng lòng (表示同意), đoán là hôm nay trời nắng (估计今天晴天) ...

(2) Trung tâm ngữ + động từ biểu thị sự hoàn thành, làm bổ ngữ (một phần tương đương với bổ ngữ chỉ kết quả trong tiếng Trung, một phần tương đương với bổ ngữ chỉ khả năng trong tiếng Trung). Ví dụ: Viết xong (写完), ăn hết (吃完), tìm được (找到), không xem hết được (看不完), không đi được (去不了) ...

(3) Trung tâm ngữ + động từ, tính từ, làm trạng ngữ (một phần tương đương với trạng ngữ trong tiếng Trung, một phần tương đương với bổ ngữ chỉ mức độ trong tiếng Trung). Ví dụ: Mua dùng (为了使用而买), chạy nhanh (跑得快), đi nhiều (去得多)...

(4) Trung tâm ngữ + cụm giới từ, làm trạng ngữ (một phần tương đương với trạng ngữ trong tiếng Trung, một phần tương đương với cụm giới từ làm bổ ngữ trong tiếng Trung). Ví du: Dạo mát ở công viên (在公园散步), bàn về vấn đề này (对这个问题进行讨论), chơi với tôi (跟我玩儿), sống ở nông thôn (生活在农村), gửi cho cậu ấy (寄给他)...

Bảng thành phần câu trong tiếng Trung và tiếng Việt

Thành phần câu	Tiếng Trung			Tiếng Việt		
	Chức năng	Thành phần cấu tạo	Vị trí	Chức năng	Thành phần cấu tạo	Vị trí
Chủ ngữ	Đối tượng được miêu tả ở vị ngữ.	Các loại thực từ như: Danh từ/cụm danh từ, đại từ, số từ/cụm số từ, động từ, tính từ, cụm chữ "de"(的), cụm chủ vị.	Thường đứng trước vị ngữ.	Đối tượng được miêu tả ở vị ngữ.	Danh từ/cụm danh từ; động từ /cụm động từ; tính từ /cụm tính từ; cụm từ chủ vị.	Thường đứng trước vị ngữ.
Vị ngữ	Miêu tả và nói rõ cho chủ ngữ.	Động từ/cụm động từ, tính từ/cụm tính từ, danh từ/cụm danh từ, cụm chủ vị.	Thường đứng sau chủ ngữ.	Miêu tả cho chủ ngữ.	Động từ /cụm động từ; tính từ /cụm tính từ; danh từ /cụm danh từ; cụm từ chủ vị.	Thường đứng sau chủ ngữ.

Tân ngữ	Sự vật, hoặc đối tượng được động từ đề cập để nói rõ cho động từ.	Danh từ/cụm danh từ, đại từ, cụm chữ "de"(的), số từ/số lượng từ, động từ/cụm động từ, tính từ/cụm tính từ, cụm chủ vị...	Thường đứng sau động từ.	Đối tượng bị động từ chi phối, biểu thị kết quả của sự thay đổi...; Sau tính từ có bổ ngữ, biểu thị tính chất, trạng thái, nơi chốn, phạm vi....	Danh từ /cụm danh từ; động từ /cụm động từ; tính từ /cụm tính từ; cụm từ chủ vị.	Đứng sau động từ, tính từ.
Bổ ngữ	Chủ yếu nói rõ người hoặc sự vật được động từ đề cập.	Đại đa số không phải là danh từ (trừ bổ ngữ chỉ số lượng)	Đứng sau động từ, tính từ			
Định ngữ	Thành phần bổ nghĩa, chủ yếu bổ nghĩa cho danh từ.	Danh từ, động từ /cụm động từ, cụm chủ vị, cụm giới từ, từ chỉ số lượng, đại từ...	Thường đứng trước trung tâm ngữ.	Thành phần phụ trong cụm danh từ là kết cấu chính phụ. Định ngữ có thể chỉ tính chất, nơi chốn, phạm vi, thời gian...	Danh từ, đại từ nhân xưng, tính từ, số từ, đại từ chỉ thị, các loại cụm từ.	Thường đứng sau trung tâm ngữ.
Trạng ngữ	Bổ nghĩa cho động từ, tính từ. Trong câu trạng ngữ là thành phần bổ	Phó từ, động từ/cụm động từ, tính từ /cụm tính từ, số từ/cụm số từ, cụm chủ vị...	Đứng trước trung tâm ngữ	Thành phần phụ trong cụm động từ, cụm tính từ là kết cấu chính	Phó từ, tính từ, động từ, đại từ, danh từ, các loại cụm từ.	Một số đứng trước động từ, tính từ; Một số đứng sau

nghĩa cho vị ngữ.			phụ nhằm xác định thời gian, nơi chốn, phương thức, phạm vi, mục đích, nguyên nhân, kết quả, điều kiện, khẳng định, phủ định,...		động từ, tính từ.

Bảng trên chúng tôi chỉ bước đầu đối chiếu các thuật ngữ thành phần câu trong tiếng Trung và tiếng Việt, đi vào chi tiết của từng vấn đề còn rất nhiều vấn đề phải thảo luận và nghiên cứu. Do khuôn khổ của bài viết có hạn, chúng tôi sẽ nghiên cứu đối chiếu cụ thể những vấn đề này vào dịp khác.

TÀI LIỆU THAM KHẢO

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COMPARING AND CONTRASTING THE FUNCTIONAL USES OF THE PREPOSITIONS: "给" (CHINESE) AND "CHO" (VIETNAMESE)

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ĐIỂM TƯƠNG ĐỒNG VÀ KHÁC BIỆT VỀ MẶT NGỮ DỤNG TRONG KẾT CẤU GIỚI TỪ "给" (Gěi) TIẾNG HÁN VÀ TƯƠNG ỨNG GIỚI TỪ "CHO" TRONG TIẾNG VIỆT

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TÓM TẮT

Giới từ "给" (Gěi) trong tiếng Hán và giới từ "Cho" trong tiếng Việt, về ngữ nghĩa có những nghĩa giống và khác nhau trong cách sử dụng. Những ngữ nghĩa của giới từ thường chỉ xét trong câu đơn ở trạng thái độc lập, không được xét trong ngữ cảnh cụ thể, do đó hình thức ngữ pháp của câu là hoàn toàn ở hình thức khái quát, nghĩa ngữ pháp của câu thì lại là nghĩa tường minh. Khi tiến hành hoạt động giao tiếp, nghĩa của câu sẽ có sự thay đổi bởi tình huống giao tiếp, đối tượng giao tiếp và ngữ cảnh.

Từ Khóa: *Ngữ dụng giới từ 给 cho kết cấu giới từ*

Do tiếng Hán là loại ngôn ngữ mang hình thái biến hóa không cố định về mặt ý nghĩa, cho nên cách thức quan trọng nhất đó là trật tự ngôn ngữ. Trong tiếng Hán, chức năng của giới từ "给" (gěi) là đưa những thành phần

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cần nêu ra đặt ở phía trước, đây chính là sự biến đổi trật tự ngôn ngữ, còn trong tiếng Viết thì vị trí của cụm kết cấu giới từ tương đối linh hoạt, tạo ra một đặc trưng ngữ nghĩa phong phú, hơn nữa bản thân đặc trưng về ngữ nghĩa của giới từ cũng đa dạng.

1. Điểm tương đồng

Giới từ "给" (gěi) và "Cho" đều chỉ sự và nêu ra đối tượng hành vi.

Kết cấu giới từ trong tiếng Hán vị trí xuất hiện trong câu tuy là không giống nhau, nhưng ý nghĩa ngữ pháp của chúng đều có giống nhau. Theo ông Chen Changlai trong quyển "Giới từ và chức năng dẫn dắt của nó" (năm 2000) cho rằng giới từ "给" là giới từ chỉ sự, giới từ chỉ sự là nêu ra đối tượng nhằm vào hành vi, động tác hoặc đối tượng tham dự cùng vào động tác, còn có thể gọi là giới từ "đương sự". Trong tiếng Việt cũng giới từ "Cho" cũng có nghĩa tương đồng. Ví dụ:

（1）老师　　给　小王　　　辩护。（引陈昌来例）

Nghĩa tiếng Việt: Thầy giáo biện hộ **cho** Tiểu Vương.

Trong ví dụ trên, tân ngữ giới từ "给" là Tiểu Vương, là đối tượng tham gia cùng trong động tác "biện hộ".

Giới từ "给" và "Cho" đều nêu ra đối tượng liên quan được động tác đề cập

Theo ông Chen Changlai trong quyển "Giới từ và chức năng dẫn dắt của nó" (năm 2000) cho rằng giới từ "给" là giới từ "quan sự", nghĩa là giới từ nêu ra đối tượng có liên quan, đối tượng được nêu ra mà động từ đề cập đến. Về chức năng này thì giới từ "cho" của tiếng Việt cũng có chức năng nêu ra đối tượng có liên quan, đối tượng được nêu ra mà động tác đề cập đến.

（2）我给他解释了半天，好不容易才让他明白。（北大CCL语料库）

Nghĩa tiếng Việt: Tôi giải thích ***cho anh ấy*** cả buổi trời, khó khăn lắm mới bảo cho anh ấy hiểu.

Trong ví dụ trên, tân ngữ anh ấy là đối tượng được giới từ "cho" nêu ra chịu sự tác động, đề cập của động từ "giải thích".

Giới từ "给" và "cho" vừa là giới từ chỉ sự vừa là giới từ đối tượng.

Chỉ sự thường là chỉ đối tượng tham gia cùng vào động tác, đối tượng

nhắm vào (hướng vào) động tác, đối tượng ban phát của động tác, đối tượng giành lấy từ động tác, những đối tượng này tương đối giống nhau ở động từ, động từ mang tính gián tiếp, và mức khống chế của động từ đối với những đối tượng này yếu hơn một chút. Do đó, trong các câu trừu tượng thì khi "chỉ sự" luôn có ký hiệu trong kết cấu ngữ pháp, ký hiệu đó là do sự dẫn dắt, nêu ra từ giới từ, đôi khi nó nằm ở vị trí tân ngữ gián tiếp.

Tại sao nói Giới từ "给" vừa là giới từ chỉ sự vừa là giới từ đối tượng, thì theo quan điểm của ông Chen Changlai: thành phần được nêu ra bởi giới từ chỉ sự là thành phần cần thiết phải có mặt tồn tại trong kết cấu ngữ nghĩa, trong câu trừu tượng cũng không được thiếu thành phần này; còn đối tượng được nêu ra bởi giới từ đối tượng là thành phần ngữ nghĩa có thể tồn tại trong kết cấu ngữ nghĩa của câu. Ở hai giới từ chỉ sự và giới từ đối tượng mặc dù có thể là cùng sử dụng một loại giới từ, và ý nghĩa ngữ pháp của nó cũng cơ bản giống nhau, nhưng do thành phần mà giới từ nêu ra có giá trị khác nhau cho nên chức năng của nó cũng có sự khác nhau.

（3）医生 给 老李 开刀。（北大CCL语料库）

Bác sĩ cho ông Lý phẫu thuật.

Nghĩa tiếng Việt: Bác sĩ phẫu thuật cho ông Lý.

（4）医生用特制的医疗器械给病人做割治的手术。（北大CCL语料库）

给 病人 做 割治 的手术

cho bệnh nhân làm mổ phẫu thuật

Nghĩa tiếng Việt: làm phẫu thuật (mổ) cho bệnh nhân

Cụm kết cấu giới từ trong ví dụ (3) không thể không xuất hiện, bởi vì nó là giới từ chỉ thị; còn trong ví dụ (4) thì cụm kết cấu giới từ có thể lược bỏ, không nêu ra, bởi vì đây là giới từ chỉ đối tượng.

Giới từ "给" đảm nhận vai trò là giới từ chỉ sự và giới từ đối tượng, giới từ "cho" trong tiếng Việt cũng hoàn toàn có thể đảm nhận vai trò là giới từ chỉ sự và giới từ đối tượng. Khi giới từ "给" và "cho" đảm nhận vai trò là giới từ chỉ sự thì cụm kết cấu giới từ không thể thiếu trong câu, nhưng khi giới từ "给" và "cho" dưới vai trò là giới từ đối tượng thì cụm kết cấu giới từ có thể không xuất hiện trong câu.

Ngoài ra, trong tiếng Hán và tiếng Việt không phải tất cả các động từ đều có thể nhận kết cấu giới từ "给 + N2", "cho + N2" làm một thành phần

trong câu, cả hai giới từ này đều có sự kén chọn đối với động từ. Có hai loại động từ không thể kết hợp được với cụm kết cấu giới từ "给 + N2" và "cho + N2", một là động từ biểu thị hoạt động tâm lý như: yêu, thích, ghét, hận ..., hai là những động từ đặc biệt như động từ là, có ...

2. Điểm khác biệt

Theo lý thuyết ngữ pháp cho rằng chủ ngữ, thể chủ động, chủ đề là ba khái niệm không giống nhau. Chủ ngữ là khái niệm về mặt cú pháp, thể chủ động là khái niệm về mặt ngữ nghĩa, và chủ đề là khái niệm về mặt ngữ dụng. Tính chất của cả ba khái niệm này cũng không giống nhau, có sự khác biệt rõ rệt, nhưng cũng có một mối quan hệ tương ứng nhau. Trong các tình huống thông thường, chủ ngữ chính là thể chủ động theo góc độ ngữ nghĩa, theo góc độ ngữ dụng thì chủ ngữ chính là chủ đề. Thông qua hình thức thay đổi trật tự ngôn ngữ, kết cấu giới từ có thể nhận một thành phần đứng đầu làm chủ đề, cũng có thể nói là kết cấu giới từ là một loại thay đổi ngữ dụng trong câu, mà sự thay đổi ngữ dụng này có sự hỗ trợ bởi kết cấu giới từ. Giới từ "cho" trong tiếng Việt cũng là một giới từ nêu ra chủ đề.

Thứ nhất, giới từ "cho" và vai trò chủ đề hóa:

Theo góc độ ngữ nghĩa, chủ đề thường sẽ xuất hiện cố định, là điều đã được biết; trong hình thức cú pháp thì nó ở vị trí đầu câu, hoặc là một thành phần trong câu nào đó cũng có thể là chủ đề hóa. Tân ngữ của giới từ "cho" là thành phần chỉ mục đích, và ở chức năng này thì giới từ "给" trong tiếng Hán hoàn toàn không có. Mục đích của chủ đề hóa là để làm cho vị ngữ động từ trở thành tiêu điểm. Ví dụ:

（5）Cho cuộc đời, cho tổ quốc yêu thương, ta đã làm gì? Và được bao nhiêu.

给　生命　给　祖国　　敬爱　我们已做什么？并得　多少？

（为人生、为敬爱的祖国，我们已经做了什么？以及做了多少？）

Cụm kết cấu giới từ trong ví dụ trên được đặt ở vị trí đầu câu, lúc này, cụm kết cấu giới từ đảm nhiệm vai trò là thành phần trạng ngữ trong câu, nếu như chuyển cụm kết cấu giới từ về cuối câu, thì sẽ không có sự thay đổi về mặt ngữ nghĩa, nhưng về mặt thông tin kết cấu thì có sự khác biệt rất lớn, cụm kết cấu giới từ đứng cuối câu biểu thị chủ đề sẽ không còn là chủ đề của cả câu nữa, lúc này chủ ngữ sẽ trở thành chủ đề, từ đó cũng

mất đi tính nhấn mạnh thông tin.

Thứ hai là giới từ "给" là giới từ mang ý nghĩa chủ động trong câu

Tác dụng của giới từ "给" là kết hợp với tân ngữ bị động và đứng trước động từ, biểu thị nghĩa bị động. Trong cấu trúc "N1+给+N2+Vp+N3" giới từ "给" mang ý nghĩa bị động, biểu thị N1 là thể bị động có một kết quả trạng thái nào đó bởi hành vi động tác của N2, do đó, từ góc độ logic có thể thấy được là những câu mang giới từ "给" theo nghĩa bị động này là biểu thị mối quan hệ nguyên nhân và kết quả. Và giới từ "cho" trong tiếng Việt thì không có chức năng này. Ví dụ:

（6）小李给小王打伤了。（引陈昌来例）

Tiểu Lý bị Tiểu Vương đánh bị thương rồi.

小李给小王打伤了。小王打小李（是原因）+　小李受伤了（结果）

Tiểu Lý bị tiểu Vương đánh bị thương rồi.

Tiểu Vương đánh tiểu Lý (là chỉ nguyên nhân) và tiểu Lý bị thương (là chỉ kết quả)

Trong câu ví dụ trên, Tiểu Vương đánh Tiểu Lý là nguyên nhân, và Tiểu Lý bị thương là kết quả xuất phát từ nguyên nhân trên.

Từ ví dụ nêu trên giới từ "给" là giới từ nêu ra và làm rõ vai trò của chủ thể, giới từ "cho" thì không có vai trò này. Khi phiên dịch thành tiếng Việt cần phải chú ý bổ ngữ chỉ kết quả đứng sau động từ, bổ ngữ chỉ kết quả này thường sẽ mang đến cho chủ ngữ N1 những kết quả nhận được ngoài sự mong muốn. Khi đó có thể trực tiếp dịch giới từ "给" thành từ "bị" trong tiếng Việt.

Thứ ba, giới từ "给" giới thiệu ra đối tượng của hành vi, động tác

Giới từ "给" giới thiệu ra đối tượng của hành vi, động tác, ý nghĩa tương đương với giới từ "跟" (mang nghĩa "với" hoặc "đối với" trong tiếng Việt).

Giới từ "给" vẫn là giới từ chỉ thị, có thể dùng để thay thế cho giới từ chỉ thị "跟", và cũng mang ý nghĩa tương đương với giới từ "跟". Ví dụ:

（7）明天　我　跟 你们　换　新的。

Ngày mai tôi với các bạn đổi cái mới

(Nghĩa tiếng Việt: "Ngày mai tôi đổi cái mới với các bạn". Hoặc nếu là câu nói của người bán hàng thì: Ngày mai tôi đổi cái mới cho các bạn.

（8）明天　我　给　你们　换　新的。

Ngày mai tôi cho các bạn đổi cái mới

(Nghĩa tiếng Việt: Ngày mai tôi đổi cho các bạn cái mới)

Trong hai ví dụ trên giới từ "跟" và "给", nếu theo nghĩa thứ hai trong câu ví dụ (7) thì chúng ta có thể nhận thấy rằng, giới từ "给" và "cho" đều có thể thay thế cho nhau, ngữ nghĩa cũng tương đồng. Nhưng khi dịch trực tiếp hai giới từ này sang tiếng Việt thì không thể sử dụng được, bởi vì giới từ "跟" sẽ được dịch thành "với" trong tiếng Việt, và giới từ "给" khi dịch thành tiếng Việt là "cho", từ "với" và từ "cho" không thể hoán đổi cho nhau. Trong tiếng Hán, giới từ "给" chuyển thành giới từ "跟" thường gặp trong khẩu ngữ.

（9）鲁四凤：我先跟你拿着周家第一个太太的相片，给您看。
我再跟你拿来点水来喝。（曹禺《雷雨》）

Nghĩa tiếng Việt: Lỗ Tứ Phượng: Tôi lấy tấm hình chụp người vợ đầu tiên của Chu gia, cho ông xem. Sau đó tôi rót tí nước đem lại cho ông dùng.

（10）周朴园：你告诉你的母亲，说我已经请法国的克大夫
来，跟他看病。（曹禺《雷雨》）

跟　他　看病

*với　bà ấy　khám bệnh

（Nghĩa tiếng Việt: Khám bệnh cho ông ấy）

Châu Phát viên: Em nói với mẹ của em, rằng tôi đã mời bác sĩ Khắc của nước Pháp đến rồi, khám bệnh cho bà ấy.

Trong hai ví dụ trên giới từ "跟" rõ ràng là mang nghĩ của giới từ "给", nhưng trong tiếng Việt chỉ có thể dịch thành giới từ "cho", không thể dịch thành giới từ "với".

Thứ tư là giới từ "cho" là giới từ mang nghĩa nguyên nhân, mục đích.

Giới từ mang nghĩa nguyên nhân biểu thị nguyên nhân và mục đích của hành vi động tác. Giới từ "cho" với vai trò là giới từ mang nghĩa

nguyên nhân và mục đích là thành phần nêu lên nguyên nhân và mục đích của cả câu.

（11）Chủ tịch Hồ Chí Minh cả đời người phấn đấu cho sự nghiệp độc lập dân tộc, cho sự ấm no hạnh phúc của nhân dân.[18]

Chủ tịch Hồ Chí Minh cả đời người phấn đấu cho sự nghiệp

胡志明主席　　一辈子　他　　奋斗　　给　　事业

độc lập dân tộc, cho sự ấm no hạnh phúc của nhân dân

独立　民族　给　　温饱幸福　　　的　人民

Dịch thành Hán ngữ: 胡志明主席一辈子<u>为</u>民族独立事业、<u>为</u>人民温饱幸福而奋斗。

Có thể thấy, giới từ "cho" kết hợp với tân ngữ mang nghĩa nêu ra mục đích thông thường ở cuối câu. Và khi dịch thành tiếng Hán, chúng ta có thể sử dụng mẫu "Vì ...mà ..."

3. Kết luận

Có thể thấy, những ý vừa nêu trên là những điểm khác nhau nổi bật nhất trên mặt ngữ dụng của cả hai giới từ, những phân tích nêu trên có thể giúp ích cho những người học tiếng Hán và tiếng Việt. Giới từ "给" mang nghĩa nêu ra thể chủ động trong câu bị động có thể tương đương với từ "bị"; giới từ "给" khi nêu ra đối tượng của hành vi động tác, ý nghĩa tương đương với giới từ "跟". Giới từ "cho" trong tiếng Việt không bao hàm hai nghĩa như trên. Ngoài ra, giới từ "cho" trong tiếng Việt, có thể kết hợp với tân ngữ của nó đứng đầu câu tạo làm chủ đề hóa cho cả câu; giới từ "cho" còn là giới từ đóng vai trò nêu lên mục đích nguyên nhân, và ở hai điểm này thì giới từ "给" trong tiếng Hán hoàn toàn không có.

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[18]　http://lyluanchinhtri.vn/home/index.php/bai-noi-bat/item/2389-quan-diem-ho-chi-minh-ve-nhiem-vu-cham-lo-doi-song-am-no-hanh-phuc-cho-nhan-dan.html

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TRAINING META-COGNITIVE STRATEGIES FOR CHINESE AS A SECOND FOREIGN LANGUAGE STUDENTS

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ABSTRACT

Meta-cognitive strategies play an important role in learning foreign languages. They also play an important role in learning Chinese as a second foreign language. This is one of the learning strategies that teachers and students need to know and apply. Based on the practice of Chinese as a second foreign language teaching, this paper discusses the training meta-cognitive strategies for Chinese as a Second Foreign Language students. Thereby, instruct students to use the corresponding learning autonomy techniques. This helps to improve students' learning ability and teaching effectiveness.

Key words: *meta-cognitive strategies; second foreign language; Chinese*

BÀN VỀ BỒI DƯỠNG CHIẾN LƯỢC SIÊU NHẬN THỨC CHO SINH VIÊN NGOẠI NGỮ THỨ HAI – TIẾNG TRUNG QUỐC

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Tóm tắt: Chiến lược siêu nhận thức có vai trò quan trọng trong quá trình học ngoại ngữ nói chung, quá trình học ngoại ngữ thứ hai – tiếng Trung Quốc nói riêng. Đây là một trong những chiến lược học tập mà giảng viên và sinh viên cần biết và vận dụng. Trên cơ sở thực tiễn giảng dạy ngoại ngữ thứ hai – tiếng Trung Quốc, bài viết thảo luận vấn đề bồi dưỡng chiến lược siêu nhận thức cho sinh viên. Qua đó, hướng dẫn sinh viên sử dụng các kĩ thuật tự chủ học tập tương ứng. Từ đó nâng cao năng lực học tập của sinh viên và hiệu quả giảng dạy của giảng viên.

Từ khoá: *chiến lược siêu nhận thức; ngoại ngữ thứ hai; tiếng Trung Quốc*

1. Mở đầu

Siêu nhận thức là một khái niệm quan trọng trong tâm lí học tri nhận và tâm lí học giáo dục. Theo định nghĩa của nhà tâm lí học Hoa Kì Flavell (1976), siêu nhận thức là nhận thức của nhận thức, là những hiểu biết của cá nhân liên quan đến quá trình nhận thức của bản thân, các sản phẩm và những yếu tố có liên quan, bao gồm nhận thức, theo dõi và điều chỉnh quá trình nhận thức, năng lực nhận thức và ảnh hưởng qua lại của chúng. Từ thập niên 80 của thế kỉ XX, kiến thức về siêu nhận thức đã được vận dụng vào lĩnh vực dạy và học ngoại ngữ (Wenden, 1987) và được xem là một trong những chiến lược học tập ngoại ngữ quan trọng (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990).

Chiến lược siêu nhận thức là kiến thức có liên quan đến quá trình tri nhận, là người học tiến hành điều chỉnh hoặc tự mình quản lí quá trình tri nhận thông qua các phương pháp như kế hoạch, giám sát và điều chỉnh (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990). Chiến lược siêu nhận thức bao gồm các chiến lược cụ thể như lập kế hoạch, lựa chọn chú ý, tự mình quản lí, tự mình giám sát và tự mình điều chỉnh, là điều kiện tất yếu cho sự thành công trong

lập kế hoạch, giám sát và điều chỉnh hoạt động học tập, có ảnh hưởng quan trọng trong việc cải thiện hiệu quả học tập. Các nghiên cứu cho thấy, việc sử dụng chiến lược siêu nhận thức có ảnh hưởng rất lớn đến sự thành bại trong học tập ngoại ngữ của người học (Railey, Devine & Boshoff 1993; Sheorey & Mokhtari, 2001; Fang Ling-ling, 2004; Wu Si-na, 2016), việc bồi dưỡng chiến lược siêu nhận thức cho người học cũng rất hữu ích trong việc nâng cao năng lực ngoại ngữ của người học (Wang Du-qin, 2002; Ji Kang-li, 2005; Wang Ying, 2007; Huang Mei, 2008).

Song, trong lĩnh vực giảng dạy ngoại ngữ cho sinh viên Việt Nam nói chung, giảng dạy ngoại ngữ thứ hai[19] nói riêng, hiện vẫn chưa có nhiều thảo luận và nghiên cứu về bồi dưỡng chiến lược siêu nhận thức cho sinh viên. Trong phạm vi bài viết này, chúng tôi tập trung thảo luận vấn đề bồi dưỡng chiến lược siêu nhận thức cho sinh viên học ngoại ngữ thứ hai – tiếng Trung Quốc[20].

2. Các loại chiến lược siêu nhận thức

Chiến lược siêu nhận thức thường được chia làm ba loại: chiến lược kế hoạch, chiến lược giám sát và chiến lược điều chỉnh.

2.1. Chiến lược kế hoạch

Chiến lược kế hoạch bao gồm xây dựng mục tiêu học tập, đọc lướt tài liệu học tập, đưa ra các câu hỏi chờ giải đáp và phân tích các biện pháp để hoàn thành nhiệm vụ học tập. Lập kế hoạch học tập là một bước quan trọng của quá trình học tập.

Dù là với mục đích hoàn thành bài tập hay với mục đích đối phó với kì thi hoặc các bài kiểm tra, sinh viên cần nên có "đối sách" phù hợp cho mỗi giờ học. Sinh viên thành công là sinh viên không chỉ biết nghe giảng, ghi chép và chờ đợi những bài đánh giá của giảng viên, mà còn phải biết dự đoán thời gian cần thiết để hoàn thành bài thi hoặc bài kiểm tra. Trước khi thi hoặc kiểm tra sinh viên cần tiến hành thu thập những thông tin liên quan, sắp xếp các ghi chép trong vở. Nếu cần thiết, sinh viên có thể tổ chức các nhóm tự học và sử dụng nhiều phương pháp học tập khác nhau.

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[19] Ngoại ngữ thứ hai là ngoại ngữ tự chọn dành cho sinh viên thuộc nhóm ngành Ngôn ngữ, văn học và văn hoá nước ngoài (Mã nhóm 72202).
[20] Ngoại ngữ thứ hai – tiếng Trung Quốc là ngoại ngữ tự chọn dành cho sinh viên thuộc nhóm ngành Ngôn ngữ, văn học và văn hoá nước ngoài (Mã nhóm 72202), nhưng không học ngành Ngôn ngữ Trung Quốc (Mã ngành 7220204).

2.2. Chiến lược giám sát

Chiến lược giám sát bao gồm theo dõi những vấn đề cần chú ý khi học, tự đặt câu hỏi về tài liệu học tập, giám sát tốc độ và thời gian của bản thân khi thi hoặc khi kiểm tra. Những chiến lược này giúp sinh viên dự báo được những vấn đề có thể xảy ra trên phương diện chú ý và hiểu, từ đó tiến hành sửa chữa và điều chỉnh.

2.3. Chiến lược điều chỉnh

Chiến lược điều chỉnh bao gồm tự đánh giá xem mình có hoàn thành các mục tiêu theo kế hoạch đã đề ra không, năng lực ngoại ngữ của bản thân có nâng cao hay tiến bộ không, đồng thời phân tích những vấn đề còn tồn tại, tìm kiếm các biện pháp cải tiến, từ đó tiến hành điều chỉnh hành vi học tập.

Cả ba loại chiến lược này đều có ảnh hưởng quan trọng đến quá trình học ngoại ngữ thứ hai – tiếng Trung Quốc của sinh viên Việt Nam.

3. Tầm quan trọng của chiến lược siêu nhận thức trong học tập ngoại ngữ thứ hai – tiếng Trung Quốc

Trong quá trình học tập ngoại ngữ thứ hai – tiếng Trung Quốc, kiến thức siêu nhận thức của sinh viên là tự nhận thức và tự phản hồi về việc học tập ngoại ngữ thứ hai – tiếng Trung Quốc của chính bản thân mình, đồng thời tiến hành giám sát, điều chỉnh một cách hữu hiệu trong suốt quá trình học tập ngoại ngữ thứ hai – tiếng Trung Quốc.

Kiến thức siêu nhận thức đã làm cho việc học ngoại ngữ thứ hai – tiếng Trung Quốc trở thành hoạt động tri nhận tự giác của sinh viên. Việc nắm vững các kiến thức siêu nhận thức là điều kiện bên trong cơ bản nhất của việc tự học ngoại ngữ thứ hai – tiếng Trung Quốc.

Vận dụng chiến lược kế hoạch của chiến lược siêu nhận thức sẽ giúp sinh viên lên kế hoạch, sắp xếp trình tự mục tiêu, đưa ra các bước thực hiện việc học tập ngoại ngữ thứ hai – tiếng Trung Quốc. Vận dụng chiến lược giám sát của chiến lược siêu nhận thức trên cơ sở mục tiêu, kế hoạch học tập ngoại ngữ thứ hai – tiếng Trung Quốc của sinh viên, sẽ giúp sinh viên giám sát có ý thức các phương pháp, tiến trình, hiệu quả học tập và tình hình thực hiện việc học tập theo kế hoạch đã đề ra. Vận dụng chiến lược điều chỉnh của chiến lược siêu nhận thức sẽ giúp sinh viên tiến hành đánh giá tiến trình học tập của chính mình, đồng thời căn cứ vào tình hình thực tế tiến hành điều chỉnh các chiến lược đã sử dụng trong việc lập kế hoạch và trong cả quá trình học tập ngoại ngữ thứ hai – tiếng Trung Quốc.

Có thể nói, chiến lược siêu nhận thức có vai trò quan trọng trong việc học ngoại ngữ thứ hai – tiếng Trung Quốc của sinh viên. Nếu sinh viên nắm vững chiến lược siêu nhận thức sẽ hình thành nên năng lực siêu nhận thức ở ngay bản thân sinh viên. Nếu sinh viên có năng lực siêu nhận thức thì sẽ biết cách học ngoại ngữ thứ hai – tiếng Trung Quốc như thế nào cho hiệu quả. Chỉ có chú trọng truyền thụ kiến thức siêu nhận thức cho sinh viên, dạy sinh viên chiến lược siêu nhận thức, thì mới có thể giúp sinh viên học tốt, mới có thể giúp sinh viên trở thành người học ngoại ngữ thứ hai – tiếng Trung Quốc thành công.

4. Bồi dưỡng chiến lược siêu nhận thức cho sinh viên học ngoại ngữ thứ hai – tiếng Trung Quốc

Mục tiêu của việc bồi dưỡng chiến lược siêu nhận thức là cung cấp cho sinh viên các kiến thức siêu nhận thức, tăng cường ý thức siêu nhận thức của sinh viên, giúp sinh viên lập kế hoạch, giám sát và điều chỉnh chiến lược học tập ngoại ngữ thứ hai – tiếng Trung Quốc. Trong quá trình giảng dạy ngoại ngữ thứ hai – tiếng Trung Quốc, giảng viên cần lồng ghép các nội dung bồi dưỡng chiến lược siêu nhận thức vào chương trình giảng dạy các học phần ngoại ngữ thứ hai – tiếng Trung Quốc. Việc này sẽ rất hữu ích cho việc nâng cao năng lực và hiệu quả học tập ngoại ngữ thứ hai – tiếng Trung Quốc của sinh viên.

4.1. Bồi dưỡng chiến lược kế hoạch

Đại đa số sinh viên thường không chú trọng việc xây dựng kế hoạch học tập ngoại ngữ thứ hai – tiếng Trung Quốc cho bản thân mình. Vì vậy, giảng viên cần có ý thức hỗ trợ sinh viên lập các kế hoạch học tập này.

Sau một thời gian học tập, đại đa số sinh viên đã quen với trình tự năm bước "chuẩn bị – học tập – luyện tập – ôn tập – kiểm tra". Trên cơ sở đó, giảng viên có thể hướng dẫn sinh viên xây dựng kế hoạch học tập phù hợp với tình hình thực tế của bản thân. Kế hoạch học tập bao gồm mục tiêu học tập và các bước thực hiện cụ thể, có kế hoạch dài hạn và kế hoạch ngắn hạn. Kế hoạch dài hạn có thể là kế hoạch cho một học kì, thậm chí là cho một năm học, kế hoạch ngắn hạn có thể là kế hoạch cho một bài học hoặc một giờ học. Trong buổi học đầu tiên, giảng viên cần cho sinh viên biết rõ kế hoạch giảng dạy học phần ngoại ngữ thứ hai – tiếng Trung Quốc của mình. Khi giảng từng bài cụ thể, giảng viên cũng cần nói rõ với sinh viên mục tiêu của bài và các bước giảng dạy cụ thể. Giảng viên cần giúp đỡ sinh viên xây dựng kế hoạch học tập phù hợp với bản thân mình, khi xây dựng kế hoạch học tập giảng viên cũng cần chú ý đến sự khác biệt cá thể của

người học.

Mỗi học phần ngoại ngữ thứ hai – tiếng Trung Quốc đều có kế hoạch học tập phù hợp với đại đa số sinh viên, song vì năng lực, phong cách và động cơ học tập ở các sinh viên khác nhau là khác nhau, cho nên giảng viên cần có hướng dẫn cụ thể trong việc lập kế hoạch học tập của mỗi cá nhân sinh viên. Trong học tập ngoại ngữ thứ hai – tiếng Trung Quốc, sinh viên cần tăng cường luyện viết chữ Hán, tăng cường các bài tập ngữ âm để chỉnh sửa những âm mà sinh viên phát âm không chính xác, tăng cường các bài tập ngữ pháp nhằm củng cố các kiến thức ngữ pháp chưa vững, tăng cường giảng giải về văn hoá Trung Quốc để giúp sinh viên xoá bỏ những rào cản liên văn hoá… Ngoài ra, giảng viên cũng cần hướng dẫn sinh viên xây dựng kế hoạch học tập của bản thân trong và ngoài lớp. Điều này sẽ giúp sinh viên nâng cao hiệu quả học tập, tăng cường tính tự chủ trong học tập.

Dưới đây, chúng tôi xin đưa ra một số câu hỏi để sinh viên tự hỏi khi xây dựng kế hoạch học tập ngoại ngữ thứ hai – tiếng Trung Quốc của mình. Những câu hỏi này sẽ giúp sinh viên hiểu rõ về bản thân mình hơn. Giảng viên cũng có thể căn cứ vào các câu trả lời của sinh viên hướng dẫn sinh viên xây dựng kế hoạch học tập ngoại ngữ thứ hai – tiếng Trung Quốc phù hợp.

- Tôi học ngoại ngữ thứ hai – tiếng Trung Quốc với mục đích gì?

- Tôi đã xây dựng kế hoạch học tập ngoại ngữ thứ hai – tiếng Trung Quốc cho bản thân mình chưa?

- Tôi đã có kế hoạch khắc phục những nhược điểm của bản thân mình chưa?

- Tôi có tiến hành dự đoán nội dung bài học ngoại ngữ thứ hai – tiếng Trung Quốc trước khi bắt đầu học không?

- Tôi có dự đoán độ khó của việc học ngoại ngữ thứ hai – tiếng Trung Quốc không?

- Tôi có sử dụng những phương pháp khác nhau trước những nhiệm vụ học tập khác nhau không?

4.2. Bồi dưỡng chiến lược giám sát

Giám sát là một quá trình phức tạp. Theo chúng tôi, trong quá trình học ngoại ngữ thứ hai – tiếng Trung quốc, sinh viên cần giám sát những nội dung như khả năng chú ý, ghi nhớ và hiểu. Ví dụ: sinh viên thường mất tập

trung khi giảng viên giảng dạy từ vựng của bài mới, vì hai nguyên nhân sau: một là lượng thông tin đưa vào nhiều nhưng lượng thông tin xuất ra ít; hai là số lượng từ vựng quá nhiều, sinh viên khó có thể nắm hết được, dễ dẫn đến trạng thái mệt mỏi nơi người học. Trong những trường hợp này, giảng viên có thể hướng dẫn sinh viên sử dụng một số kĩ thuật để tăng cường khả năng chú ý như ghi chép vào vở hoặc sách, chú ý những trọng tâm mà giảng viên nhấn mạnh, đặt câu hỏi với giảng viên, dùng ngôn ngữ của chính mình để ghi chép lại bài giảng của giảng viên…, qua đó giúp sinh viên sử dụng một cách hữu hiệu nhất thời gian quý báu trên lớp.

Một ví dụ khác là sinh viên rất sợ phải hoàn thành các nhiệm vụ đòi hỏi sự ghi nhớ như kiểm tra từ vựng vừa học, thuật lại nội dung bài hội thoại… Sinh viên có trí nhớ tốt sẽ học thuộc lòng, nhưng sẽ quên hết ngay sau khi tan học vì sinh viên không hiểu rõ bài. Sinh viên có trí nhớ không tốt, không thể nhớ hết các nội dung trong thời gian quy định, vì thế sẽ không tiến hành thực hiện nhiệm vụ, dẫn đến tình trạng lãng phí thời gian quý báu trên lớp. Và như thế, chỉ có một vài sinh viên tham gia thực hiện các nhiệm vụ này. Song, nếu sinh viên nắm được các phương pháp phù hợp, thì hoàn toàn có thể hoàn thành các nhiệm vụ kể trên. Điều này cần chiến lược giám sát trên các bình diện khác nhau.

Dưới đây là các bước giảng dạy của giảng viên và quá trình giám sát mà sinh viên cần thực hiện.

Các bước giảng dạy của giảng viên	Quá trình giám sát của sinh viên
Thông báo cho sinh viên những nội dung cần ghi nhớ, tạo sự chú ý cho sinh viên	Kế hoạch, chú ý
Hướng dẫn sinh viên đọc to các nội dung cần ghi nhớ, đồng thời tóm tắt đại ý các nội dung đó bằng hình thức giảng viên hỏi, sinh viên trả lời	Hiểu
Giảng viên đưa ra một số từ ngữ, yêu cầu sinh viên sử dụng các từ ngữ đó khi thuật lại nội dung cần ghi nhớ	Chú ý
Giảng viên tiến hành làm mẫu, thuật lại nội dung cần ghi nhớ, yêu cầu sinh viên đọc thầm nội dung đó	Chú ý, ghi nhớ, hiểu

Sinh viên chuẩn bị trong thời gian quy định	Ghi nhớ, hiểu
Sinh viên lần lượt thuật lại nội dung cần ghi nhớ, giảng viên chỉnh sửa các lỗi ngữ âm, từ vựng, ngữ pháp…	Ghi nhớ, chú ý
Giảng viên gọi bất kì sinh viên thuật lại nội dung cần ghi nhớ	Ghi nhớ, hiểu

Sau một thời gian sử dụng phương pháp này, sinh viên có thể sẽ tự mình tìm được từ khoá và hoàn thành các nhiệm vụ ghi nhớ, hình thành một quá trình học tập tự động hoá. Qua đó cho thấy, vai trò của giảng viên là hướng dẫn sinh viên xây dựng quá trình giám sát hợp lí, đồng thời hình thành ý thức tự học trong sinh viên.

4.3. Bồi dưỡng chiến lược điều chỉnh

Hai chiến lược giám sát và điều chỉnh có mối liên hệ mật thiết với nhau, khó có thể tách rời ra nhau. Trong phần này, chúng tôi chủ yếu đề cập đến nội dung tự đánh giá, vì đây là điểm xuất phát của các hành vi điều chỉnh. Ngoài ra, giảng viên khó có thể thông qua các hành vi bên ngoài của sinh viên để nhận biết sinh viên có sử dụng chiến lược điều chỉnh trong quá trình tri nhận hay không, vì vậy cách tốt nhất là tham khảo các câu trả lời của sinh viên.

Thông thường, chiến lược điều chỉnh được sử dụng khi gặp khó khăn hoặc trở ngại trong quá trình học. Nhiều trường hợp, sinh viên vận dụng chiến lược điều chỉnh một cách có ý thức để khống chế quá trình học tập. Ví dụ: khi làm kiểm tra nghe viết từ vựng ở bài này không tốt, sinh viên sẽ chuẩn bị kĩ hơn ở bài sau để đạt được điểm cao, nhưng sẽ có thể đạt điểm số không tốt ở bài sau nữa. Theo chúng tôi, đó là những hành vi điều chỉnh tiêu cực và thụ động, giảng viên nên hướng dẫn sinh viên tiến hành những hành vi điều chỉnh tích cực và chủ động.

Các hành vi điều chỉnh tích cực và chủ động đều bắt nguồn từ việc tự đánh giá một cách có ý thức. Nếu không có ý thức tự đánh giá, sẽ khó phát hiện vấn đề, khó tìm được cách sửa lỗi. Vì vậy, trong quá trình giảng dạy, giảng viên cần hướng dẫn sinh viên tiến hành đánh giá chính xác về kết quả học tập ngoại ngữ thứ hai – tiếng Trung Quốc của mình. Ví dụ: sau khi hoàn tất đánh giá bài tập hoặc bài kiểm tra, giảng viên cần dành thời gian giải thích cho sinh viên hiểu những lỗi sai của mình, giúp sinh viên có đánh giá hợp lí về kết quả học tập của mình, so sánh với kế hoạch học tập trước

đây, điều chỉnh kế hoạch học tập sau này. Với những nội dung đã hiểu, sinh viên không cần dành thời gian ôn tập. Với những nội dung chưa hiểu, sinh viên cần dành thời gian để làm rõ nguyên nhân sai, đồng thời củng cố lại các kiến thức này bằng các bài tập làm thêm. Giảng viên cần xem việc sửa lỗi và tự phản hồi của sinh viên là một phần của hoạt động giảng dạy.

Hiện nay, cùng với sự phát triển của khoa học kĩ thuật, nguồn tài nguyên học tập tiếng Trung Quốc ngày càng đa dạng và phong phú, việc học tiếng Trung Quốc cũng vì thế mà trở nên dễ dàng hơn. Những sinh viên có năng lực điều chỉnh mạnh, hoàn toàn có thể tự mình lựa chọn tài nguyên học tập phù hợp, giảng viên chỉ đóng vai trò là người đưa ra các kiến nghị.

5. Kết luận

Việc nghiên cứu và phân tích đặc điểm tâm lí và quy luật tri nhận của sinh viên trong quá trình học tập ngoại ngữ nói chung, ngoại ngữ thứ hai – tiếng Trung Quốc nói riêng, sẽ rất hữu ích cho việc hiểu rõ hơn về tính chất của dạy và học ngoại ngữ. Wenden (1991) đã từng chỉ ra rằng, trên thực tế những sinh viên học ngoại ngữ thành công, có kĩ năng và kiến thức chuyên môn tốt, đã nắm được các phương pháp học tập, các chiến lược học tập và những kiến thức, kĩ năng liên quan đến chiến lược học tập, đồng thời còn có thể tự tin, linh hoạt, tự chủ khi vận dụng những kiến thức, kĩ năng đó. Chiến lược siêu nhận thức của sinh viên phát triển theo hướng tích cực trong quá trình học tập. Trong đó, lập kế hoạch, giám sát và điều chỉnh là những chiến lược hữu hiệu nhất. Đồng thời, ở những giai đoạn học tập ngoại ngữ thứ hai – tiếng Trung Quốc khác nhau, sinh viên sẽ có sự khác biệt về mức độ và nội dung sử dụng chiến lược siêu nhận thức. Giúp sinh viên hiểu và sử dụng chiến lược học tập ngoại ngữ thứ hai – tiếng Trung Quốc là yếu tố quan trọng cho sự thành công của việc dạy học ngoại ngữ thứ hai – tiếng Trung Quốc. Từ đó, sinh viên có ý thức và thói quen sử dụng chiến lược siêu nhận thức, có vai trò quan trọng trong việc tự học của sinh viên.

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THE COURTESY OF CHINESE'S MODAL PARTICLES

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ABTRACT

The courtesy in language plays an important role in ensuring the interpersonal communication takes place smoothly. Any languages in the world have a form to express courtesy and Chinese is no exception. To express courtesy in Chinese, we use many ways such as: using stative verbs, adverbs, particles, interjections, intonation, in which we can not fail to mention the important role of tonal particles. In some special uses of Chinese's modal particles, it is a means of expression that is both important and not detrimental to others and helps communication runs well. At some levels, Chinese's modal particles display their courtesy function, not only making the rigid speech become more flexible but also reducing distance of two parties, so that communication is more convenient.

TÍNH LỊCH SỰ CỦA TRỢ TỪ NGỮ KHÍ
(NGỮ KHÍ TỪ) TIẾNG TRUNG

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Tính lịch sự trong ngôn ngữ chiếm một vai trò hết sức quan trọng trong việc đảm bảo giao tiếp nói qua lại giữa người với người diễn ra một cách thuận lợi. Bất kỳ ngôn ngữ nào trên thế giới đều có hình thức biểu đạt tính lịch sự và tiếng Trung cũng không ngoại lệ. Tiếng Trung để biểu thị tính lịch sự có rất nhiều cách thức biểu đạt như sử dụng động từ tình thái, phó từ, trợ từ, thán từ, ngữ điệu câu trong đó không thể không nhắc đến vai trò quan trọng của trợ từ ngữ khí (ngữ khí từ). Trợ từ ngữ khí tiếng Trung trong một vài cách dùng đặc biệt của mình là phương tiện biểu đạt quan trọng vừa không gây ảnh hưởng tiêu cực đến người khác vừa giúp đôi bên có thể giao tiếp thuận lợi. Ở một vài mức độ khác nhau, trợ từ ngữ khí trong tiếng Trung thể hiện chức năng lịch sự của mình, không chỉ khiến cho lời nói vốn dĩ khô cứng có thể trở nên mềm mại uyển chuyển hơn, hơn nữa còn có thể kéo gần khoảng cách hai bên, từ đó giúp cho giao tiếp được thuận lợi hơn.

1.   Cơ sở lý luận những qui tắc về tính lịch sự

Tính lịch sự là một hiện tượng xã hội đặc biệt, là cách để người ta duy trì mối quan hệ giao tiếp hài hòa. Những nguyên tắc về tính lịch sự là một bộ bao gồm những qui tắc qui định về những hành vi ứng xử thể hiện tính lịch sự của con người trong giao tiếp hằng ngày được các nhà nghiên cứu đề cập đến trong một vài nguyên tắc, tiêu chí. Con người trong giao tiếp hằng ngày sẽ thông qua ngôn ngữ lời nói để thể hiện những qui tắc này. Tính lịch sự trong ngôn ngữ cũng là một hiện tượng ngữ dụng phổ biến được giới học giả nghiên cứu ngôn ngữ và ngữ dụng thừa nhận. Rất nhiều những học giả phương Tây đứng từ nhiều góc độ như xã hội học, nhân loại học, tâm lý học, ngữ dụng học,v..v.. đã tiến hành những nghiên cứu về tính lịch sự trong giao tiếp, tiêu biểu có R.Lakoff, G.N.Leech, P. Brown và S. Levinson. Họ đã đưa ra những nguyên tắc và tiêu chí về tính lịch sự hay những qui chuẩn về giữ thể diện cho đối phương mà cho đến ngày nay vẫn

mang sức ảnh hưởng nhất định.

a. R.Lakoff và qui tắc lịch sự trong giao tiếp. Nhà ngôn ngữ học-xã hội học người Mỹ R.Lakoff năm 1973 đã đưa ra 3 qui tắc lịch sự giao tiếp[21]: Qui tắc 1: Không dồn ép áp đặt đối phương, không can dự việc người khác. (dùng trong nghi lễ chính thức hoặc ngoại giao). Qui tắc 2: Để ngỏ sự lựa chọn, cho người nghe được lựa chọn và quyết định (dùng trong bối cảnh không nghi lễ chính thức). Qui tắc 3: Khiến cho đối phương cảm thấy thoải mái, không cảm thấy bất cứ sự áp đặt nào, cùng nhau xây dựng một mối quan hệ bình đẳng thân ái. (dùng trong mối quan hệ gần gũi thân mật)

b. P. Brown và S. Levinson và nguyên tắc về "thể diện". Hai nhà nhân loại học người Mỹ P. Brown và S. Levinson năm 1978 kế thừa khung lí thuyết về thể diện của nhà xã hôi học Goffman đã đề ra những qui tắc về "thể diện" của chính mình[22] : Họ chú trọng đến việc dùng ngôn ngữ để thể hiện sự tôn trọng thể diện người khác. Cái được gọi là "thể diện" chính là hình tượng của chính bản thân mình mong được người khác thừa nhận và tôn trọng. "Thể diện" theo P. Brown và S. Levinson lại được phân ra làm 2 loại: thể diện tích cực (Positive Face) và thể diện tiêu cực (Negative Face). Thể diện tích cực chính là làm gì hay nói ra điều gì cũng mong muốn có được sự đồng ý tán thành của người khác. Thể diện tiêu cực là không mong muốn điều nói ra hay việc mình làm bị người khác phản đối. Trong lí thuyết về thể diện của P. Brown và S. Levinson còn chỉ ra những hành vi ngôn ngữ có thể ảnh hưởng đến mối quan hệ giao tiếp hai bên, thường được gọi "hành vi tổn hại thể diện" (Face Threatening Acts, gọi tắt là FTA) , được ra thành 4 kiểu :

(1)   Những hành vi ngôn ngữ làm tổn hại thể diện tiêu cực của người nghe: mệnh lệnh, thỉnh cầu, kiến nghị, khuyên giải, nhắc nhở, uy hiếp, cảnh cáo...

(2)   Những hành vi ngôn ngữ gây ảnh hưởng thể diện tích cực của người nghe: Phủ nhận, phê bình, phản bác, không đồng ý...

(3)   Những hành vi ngôn ngữ gây ảnh hưởng thể diện tiêu cực của người nói: thể hiện cảm ơn, mong được tha thứ, xin lỗi...

[21] R.Lakoff. The Logic of Politeness [M]. Chicago: Chicago Linguistics Society, 1973
[22] Brown and Levinson. Universal in Language Usage: Politeness Phenomena. Ine. Goody(ed), Question and Politeness: Strategiesin Social Interaction. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1978

(4) Những hành vi ngôn ngữ gây ảnh hưởng thể diện tích cực của người nói: xin lỗi, công nhận, tự mâu thuẫn...

c. G.N.Leech và qui chuẩn về phép lịch sự: Năm 1983, nhà ngôn ngữ học người Anh G.N.Leech đã bổ sung và kế thừa lý thuyết về hợp tác của nhà ngôn ngữ học triết học người Mỹ H.P.Grice năm 1967, G.N.Leech đã đề ra 6 tiêu chí về phép lịch sự như sau[23]:

(1) Tiêu chí khôn khéo, đúng lúc (Tact Maxim): Giảm thiểu những biểu đạt gây gây ảnh hưởng tiêu cực cho người khác. Tăng tối đa những điều có lợi cho người khác.

(2) Tiêu chí khẳng khái, hào phóng (Generosity Maxim): Giảm thiểu những điều có lợi cho mình, cố gắng nhận phần bất lợi về phía mình.

(3) Tiêu chí tán dương (Approbation Maxim): Giảm thiểu tối đa những lời chê bai, tránh làm tổn thương người khác. Tăng tối đa những lời khen người khác.

(4) Tiêu chí khiêm tốn (Modesty Maxim): Giảm thiểu tối đa tán dương mình. Tăng tối đa việc chê bai mình .

(5) Tiêu chí đồng thuận (Agreement Maxim): Giảm thiểu tối đa sự bất đồng quan điểm 2 bên, cố gắng tìm thấy sự đồng nhất hai bên.

(6) Tiêu chí đồng tình (Sympathy Maxim): Giảm thiểu sự đối lập về mặt tình cảm giữa mình và người khác. Tăng sự đồng tình giữa hai bên.

Từ những quan điểm của các học giả phương Tây nói trên, ta có thể thấy được trong quan hệ giao tế người với người, họ rất coi trọng những nguyên tắc lịch sự và sự cảm nhận cá nhân của người tiếp nhận. Người nói sử dụng ngôn ngữ phải sao cho phù hợp, sao cho không gây ra những ảnh hưởng tiêu cực đến người tiếp nhận để đảm bảo quá trình giao tiếp diễn ra thuận lợi đạt được hiệu quả cao.

2. Tính lịch sự của trợ từ ngữ khí tiếng Trung

Trợ từ ngữ khí tiếng Trung là một trong những công cụ biểu hiện tính lịch sự quan trọng. Do số lượng trợ từ ngữ khí trong tiếng Trung cũng tương đối nhiều, do đó trong bài viết này tôi chỉ đề cập đến tính lịch sự của

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[23] G.N.Leech. Principle of Pragmatic[M]. London: Longman, 1983

một số trợ từ ngữ khí tiếng Trung thông dụng nhất, được sử dụng nhiều bao gồm **"吗", "吧", "了", "啊", "的", "呢"**.

2.1 Trợ từ ngữ khí "吗"

Chức năng chủ yếu của "吗" là để hỏi nhưng nếu được dùng trong câu thương lượng thì sẽ mang tính lịch sự . "Câu thương lượng" là loại câu người nói không trực tiếp sử dụng ngữ khí cầu khiến hay mệnh lệnh mà sử dụng ngữ khí thương lượng để yêu cầu người nghe thực hiện 1 hành động nào đó [24]. Trong "câu thương lượng" sẽ sử dụng các cụm từ như *"好吗, 行 吗, 可以吗"*.

例：   *（1）你给我一个杯子来，好吗？(Bạn đưa cho tôi 1 cái ly, được chứ ?)*

（2）帮我去买一点点心，行吗？(Giúp tôi mua 1 ít đồ ăn, được không ?)

（3）那我就到宾馆门口送你，可以吗？(Vậy tôi đến trước cửa khách sạn tiễn anh có được không ?)

Những ví dụ trên về hình thức là những câu hỏi nghi vấn nhưng thực ra mục đích giao tiếp của người nói không phải để hỏi mà để đưa ra 1 yêu cầu hay đề nghị với người nghe. Người nói khi nói lên quan điểm mình sử dụng những cụm như **"好吗、行吗、可以吗"** sẽ làm tăng ngữ khí thương lượng của câu, khiến cho không khí giao tiếp hài hòa hơn. Khẩu khí trong câu thương lượng rõ ràng uyển chuyển nhẹ nhàng hơn câu không đem lại cảm giác dồn ép cho đối phương. Có thể nói ngữ khí từ "吗" trong câu thương lượng phù hợp với nguyên tắc về tính lịch sự của Lakoff và Leech.

2.2　Trợ từ ngữ khí "吧"

Trợ từ ngữ khí "吧"dùng trong câu khẳng định có chức năng giảm nhẹ mức độ khẳng định trong câu, dùng trong câu hỏi đúng sai có tác dụng làm giảm mức độ nghi vấn của câu, mang nghĩa dự đoán。"吧" dùng cuối câu cầu khiến có thể khiến ngữ khí cầu khiến, khuyên bảo, mệnh lệnh thúc giục…khiến ngữ khí câu trở nên nhẹ nhàng uyển chuyển hơn. 吕叔湘 cũng

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[24] 刘平.论汉语中的委婉表达句[J]. 宜春学院学报, 2002 (5)

đã nhận định rằng ngữ khí "吧" thể hiện quan điểm của người phát ngôn nhưng không dám khẳng định, chủ yếu tìm kiếm sự sự đồng ý của đối phương, thể hiện ý thương lượng và kiến nghị nhẹ nhàng[25]。冉永平 năm 2004 trong 《言语交际中"吧"的语用功能及其语境顺应性的特征》từ góc độ ngữ dụng đã nhận định rằng trợ từ ngữ khí "吧" trong câu mang "tiêu chí nhẹ nhàng" (mitigator), về tổng thể có thể tránh được trực tiếp biểu đạt một quan điểm hay tư tưởng nào đó của người nói, tăng tính thương lượng, chấp nhận của đối phương. Trong rất nhiều ngữ cảnh, sau khi thêm "吧", quan điểm người nói sẽ tránh được sự tuyệt đối hóa, tăng tính chấp nhận nôi dung giao tiếp[26].

Vd : *(1）a.天也不早了，们走。(Không còn sớm nữa, chúng ta đi)*

b. 天也不早了，们走！Không còn sớm nữa, chúng ta đi nhé!）

（2）a.不用写信，你去告诉他。(Đừng viết thư, tự bạn nói với anh ấy.)

b.不用写信，你去告诉他！（Đừng viết thư, tự bạn nói với anh ấy đi.）

（3）a.你如果不喜欢蓝色的，那就买红色的。 (Nếu không thích màu xanh thì mua cái áo màu đỏ)

b.你如果不喜欢蓝色的，那就买红色的吧！（Nếu không thích màu xanh thì mua cái áo màu đỏ đi ）

Mục đích giao tiếp quan trọng nhất của câu cầu khiến là yêu cầu đối phương làm một việc gì đó hoặc người nói đề ra ý kiến của mình, người nói sẽ hướng về phía đối phương một ngữ khí yêu cầu, khuyên can, mệnh lệnh hay thúc giục. Ta thấy các câu ví dụ (1) (2) (3) ở nhóm a, không có trợ từ ngữ khí "吧" còn nhóm b thì có trợ từ ngữ khí "吧", sự khác biệt giữa nhóm a và nhóm b ở chỗ nhóm a người nói có thể thành công trong việc truyền tải thông tin cầu khiến đến người nghe nhưng ngữ khí câu tương đối

[25] 吕叔湘.语法学习[M].北京：中国青年出版社,1953
[26]冉永平. 言语交际中"吧"的语用功能及其语境顺应性的特征[J]. 现代外语（季刊），2004 (4)

thẳng thắn và khô cứng còn ở nhóm b khi có sự xuất hiện của trợ từ ngữ khí "吧" ngữ khí câu nhẹ nhàng uyển chuyển hơn. Trong những câu ở nhóm a, khi không có "吧", người nói mặc dù đề ra những ý kiến của mình với hi vọng được đối phương tiếp nhận nhưng câu không mang tính thương lượng, không cho người nghe có sự lựa chọn nào khác, khẩu khí câu rất nặng. Nhóm câu a là nhóm câu mệnh lệnh trực tiếp khiến đối phương không dễ dàng chấp nhận, nó đi ngược lại với những nguyên tắc về tính lịch sự. Trong những câu ở nhóm b, sau khi cuối câu sử dụng trợ từ ngữ khí "吧", ngữ khí câu nhẹ nhàng uyển chuyển hơn, câu mang tính nhẹ nhàng thương lượng chứ không thể hiện "yêu cầu", thái độ yêu cầu chủ quan của người nói được giảm bớt. Nhóm câu b cho người nghe được nhiều sự lựa chọn (có thể đi hoặc không đi, có thể nói với anh ấy hoặc không nói với anh ấy, có thể mua hoặc không mua màu đỏ.), nó thể hiện tính "tính thương lượng" trong giao tiếp. Đứng từ góc độ hiệu quả trong giao tiếp thì nhóm câu b (cuối câu có trợ từ ngữ khí "吧") dễ dàng được chấp nhận hơn.

Từ những phân tích ở trên cho thấy, trợ từ ngữ khí "吧" về mặt ngữ dụng trong câu cầu khiến thể hiện "tính thương lượng" trong giao tiếp. Gọi là "tính thương lượng" có nghĩa là khi thực hiện hành vi ngôn ngữ mang tính "mệnh lệnh" thì sẽ cho đối phương nhiều sự lựa chọn, từ đó giảm thiểu những ảnh hưởng tiêu cực trong việc thực thi hành vi ngôn ngữ, tăng tính chấp nhận, từ đó có được sự hợp tác hiệu quả nhất của người nghe. Như vậy có thể thấy trợ từ ngữ khí "吧" dùng trong câu cầu khiến phù hợp với các nguyên tắc về tính lịch sự ở trên đặc biệt là phù hợp với tiêu chí khôn khéo, đúng lúc của Leech (yêu cầu không thông qua lời nói làm phiền hoặc tổn hại người khác.)

2.3   Trợ từ ngữ khí "了"

Trợ từ ngữ khí "了" trong câu cảm thán biểu hiện ngữ khí ca thán, kinh ngạc hay không vừa lòng. Khi được đưa ra một lời mời hay yêu cầu người phát ngôn muốn từ chối một cách khéo léo nhẹ nhàng sẽ dùng "了"cuối câu. Trong câu cảm thán, sử dụng trợ từ ngữ khí "了" trong cụm **"不+V+了"** sẽ thể hiện chức năng lịch sự này.

Vd: (1)   A：吃了饭再走吧。(Ăn cơm rồi hãy đi nhé.)

B：不用，我还有事呢。(Không cần, tôi còn có việc rồi.)

(2) A：吃了饭再走吧。(Ăn cơm rồi hãy đi nhé.)

*B: 不用了，我还有事呢。(Không cần **đâu** , tôi còn có việc rồi.)*

Từ hai ví dụ trên có thể thấy, nếu người trả lời chỉ dùng "不用" là thể hiện một thái độ từ chối dứt khoát, một thái độ không thương lượng khoan nhượng, ngữ khí câu tương đối nặng và sẽ khiến người nghe khó chịu. Khi thêm "了" sẽ giảm đi khẩu khí từ chối dứt khoát, người nghe sẽ cảm thấy dễ chịu và dễ chấp nhận hơn. Có thể thấy cụm **"不+V+了"** khi được sử dụng sẽ dễ được cảm tình của người nghe hơn cụm "不+V", như vậy trợ từ ngữ khí "了" trong cụm **"不+V+了"** thể hiện chức năng lịch sự của mình.

2.4   Trợ từ ngữ khí "啊"

Trợ từ ngữ khí "啊" thường được dùng ở cuối câu trần thuật, cầu khiến, nghi vấn và cảm thán. Khi "啊" được dùng trong câu trần thuật biểu thị ý truyền đạt thông tin giải thích hoặc nhắc nhở đối phương. Kiểu ngữ khí này trong câu trần thuật hoàn toàn không biểu thị thái thân thiết giữa người nói và người nghe, và có đôi khi khiến người nghe không có sự tôn trọng .Khi được dùng trong nghi vấn,"啊" biểu thị người nói muốn có được một sự xác nhận chân thực từ người nghe, đôi khi thể hiện tính bắt buộc đối với người nghe, điều này không phù hợp với các nguyên tắc về tính lịch sự . Còn "啊" được sử dụng trong câu cầu khiến biểu thị yêu cầu, thúc giục, mệnh lệnh, cảnh cáo v…v...các loại ngữ khí trên thể hiện những yêu cầu có tính bắt buộc mạnh, điều này ảnh hưởng đến người nghe. "啊" dùng trong câu cảm thán tuy không thể hiện yêu cầu có tính bắt buộc mạnh mẽ hoặc truyền đạt một nội dung thông tin nào đó nhưng nó mang cảm tính chủ quan của người nói, không phù hợp các nguyên tắc về tính lịch sự.

2.5   Trợ từ ngữ khí "的"

Trợ từ ngữ khí "的"chủ yếu dùng trong khẳng định biểu thị ngữ khí khẳng định chắc chắn. Hai tác giả齐沪扬 và 张秋杭 năm 2005 trong bài báo《"是…的"句研究述评》đã tổng kết những công năng ngữ dụng của "的"như sau[27]: Thứ 1, có tác dụng nhấn mạnh trọng tâm, người nói sẽ thông qua nó truyền tải thông tin mình biết đến người nghe với tư cách thông tin mới. Thứ 2, có tác dụng nhấn mạnh chủ đề, biểu thị sự quyết đoán, nhấn mạnh vào sự thật. Như vậy trợ từ ngữ khí "的" không thể hiện chức năng

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[27]齐沪扬-张秋杭. "是 的"句研究述评[J]. 广播电视大学学报, 2005 (4)

tính lịch sự.

2.6   Trợ từ ngữ khí "呢"

Trợ từ ngữ khí "呢" dùng ở cuối câu trần thuật hay cuối câu cảm thán mang ngữ khí chỉ rõ sự thật kèm một chút khuếch trương ngữ khí câu. Dùng trong cuối câu nghi vấn (câu hỏi lựa chọn, câu hỏi đặc chỉ hay câu phản vấn) có tác dụng làm tăng khẩu khí "tìm kiếm truy vấn", yêu cầu đối phương phải đưa ra câu trả lời một cách mạnh mẽ. Trợ từ ngữ khí "呢" về mặt ngữ dụng có 2 đặc trưng lớn: thứ 1, người nói nhấn mạnh một bộ phận thông tin nào đó trong nội dung được nói đến; thứ 2, thể hiện thái độ " nhấn mạnh sự chú ý của người nói với đối phương. Qua hai đặc trưng vừa rồi có thể thấy rằng trợ từ ngữ khí "呢" trong một mức độ nào đó mang thái độ chủ quan người nói, mang một chút ngữ khí gò bó đối phương, như vậy ngữ khí từ "呢 cũng không thể hiện chức năng về lịch sự.

3. Kết luận

Từ những phân tích trên cho thấy trợ từ ngữ khí trong tiếng Trung trong một vài trường hợp cũng thể hiện chức năng lịch sự mạnh mẽ. Cụ thể là ngữ khí từ **"吗"** sử dụng trong cụm **"好吗""行吗""可以吗"**đưa ra lời đề nghị nhẹ nhàng. **"吧"**trong câu trần thuật và câu cầu khiến mang "tính thương lượng" , có tác dụng khiến ngữ khí câu trở nên nhẹ nhàng uyển chuyển hơn hay **"了"** trong cụm **"不+V+了"** thể hiện 1 thái độ khoan nhượng. Như vậy trong ba trợ từ ngữ khí **"吗" "吧" "了"** ta có thể thấy mức độ thể hiện tính lịch sự của **"吧"** mạnh hơn hai trợ từ ngữ khí còn lại, **"吧"** có thể đứng độc lập một mình cuối câu cầu khiến thể hiện vai trò "thương lượng" của mình, còn hai trợ từ ngữ khí còn lại phải kết hợp với các từ khác mới thể hiện tính lịch sự. Trong quá trình giảng dạy tiếng Trung khi dạy đến kiến thức về trợ từ ngữ khí, giáo viên nên chú ý đến đặc điểm về tính lịch sự này và lưu ý cho người học có thể vận dụng nó như là một công cụ quan trọng để nâng cao hiệu quả giao tiếp.

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TOURISM TRANSLATION-INTERPRETATION: STRATEGIES THAT WORK

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ABSTRACT

Due to difficulties in learning language skills of Chinese language, we recognize that when students enter the major translation such as Business translation and Tourism translation, they often encountered difficulties in acquiring knowledge and practical skills. Within the framework of this article, we would like to find out as well as provide effective solutions to help learners be active, excited and more active in learning to shape occupational skills in the work. This is specifically Tourism translation skills. The paper is designed to solve the following issues: Find out what factors influence the motivation of the student; Propose some effective methods and methods to help students have an interest in learning.

Key word: *skill; effective teaching; Tourism translation; Chinese language*

VÀI KỸ NĂNG VỀ TỔ CHỨC GIẢNG DẠY HIỆU QUẢ MÔN DỊCH DU LỊCH Ở KHOA NGOẠI NGỮ TRƯỜNG ĐẠI HỌC MỞ TP. HỒ CHÍ MINH.

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Tóm tắt

Xuất phát từ những khó khăn trong quá trình học tập các kỹ năng ngôn ngữ của sinh viên ngành ngôn ngữ Trung Quốc, chúng tôi nhận thấy khi sinh viên bước vào giai đoạn chuyên ngành biên phiên dịch như các môn Dịch du lịch, thương mại thường gặp phải những khó khăn nhất định trong việc nắm bắt kiến thức và kỹ năng thực hành. Trong khuôn khổ bài viết này, chúng tôi muốn tìm hiểu cũng như đưa ra các giải pháp hữu hiệu nhằm giúp người học chủ động, hứng thú và tích cực hơn trong việc học tập để hình thành các kỹ năng nghề nghiệp sau này, ở đây cụ thể là kỹ năng dịch du lịch. Bài viết được thực hiện nhằm đánh giá lại quá trình dạy học theo tính tích cực, qua đó tìm ra những nhân tố ảnh hưởng đến động cơ học tập của sinh viên; Đề xuất một số giải pháp và phương pháp học tập hiệu quả giúp sinh viên có hứng thú trong học tập.

Từ khóa: *Kỹ năng; giảng dạy hiệu quả; Dịch du lịch; tiếng Trung Quốc*

1. Đặt vấn đề:

Liên tục trong một hai năm gần đây, lượng khách du lịch đến từ những vùng, lãnh thổ có sử dụng tiếng Trung không ngừng tăng lên. Theo thống kê của Tổng cục Du lịch Việt Nam, trong năm 2017, Trung Quốc là nước có tỷ lệ khách du lịch đến Đà Nẵng tăng cao nhất trong thị trường khách quốc tế của thành phố này, với tỷ lệ tăng 25,26%[28]. Cụ thể trong tháng 3 năm 2018, Trung Quốc dẫn đầu với hơn 454.000 lượt khách, tăng 52,6% so với cùng kỳ năm ngoái. Nhóm khách Trung Quốc và Hàn Quốc đã góp phần đưa tổng số khách quốc tế đến Việt Nam trong tháng 3-2018

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[28] https://tuoitre.vn/luong-du-khach-trung-quoc-den-da-nang-tang-manh-2018011914465843.htm

tăng 33,6% so với cùng kỳ năm ngoái, đạt hơn 1,34 triệu lượt khách.[29] Chưa đề cập đến việc kéo theo những dịch vụ có liên quan phát triển, nhưng nhu cầu nhân lực sử dụng tiếng Trung trong ngành du lịch là có thật. Tại Việt Nam, rất nhiều trường đại học trên toàn quốc đã mở ngành đào tạo ngôn ngữ Trung Quốc và hằng năm đều thu hút được hàng trăm nghìn thí sinh đăng kí dự tuyển và theo học. Tuy nhiên, hiện nay lượng sinh viên tốt nghiệp ngành tiếng Trung từ các trường đại học vẫn chưa đáp ứng đủ nhu cầu tuyển dụng của các doanh nghiệp có sử dụng tiếng Trung, từ đó cho thấy đây là những thuận lợi dành cho sinh viên theo học ngành tiếng Trung.

Nắm bắt được nhu cầu xã hội đó, từ năm học 2005, khoa Ngoại ngữ trường ĐH Mở TP.HCM đã mở ngành Cử nhân ngôn ngữ Trung Quốc (mã ngành 52220204), đáp ứng được nhu cầu người học và tỉ lệ có việc làm sau khi tốt nghiệp luôn ở mức cao. Điều này phản ánh chương trình đào tạo của ngành tương đối sát với yêu cầu thực tế, và hướng sinh viên vào các kỹ năng nghề nghiệp thực tiễn nhiều hơn. Bên cạnh đó, một hiện thực cho thấy dường như tiếng Trung không phải là ngôn ngữ dễ học, nhiều sinh viên sau khi nhập học một thời gian thường có dấu hiệu chán nản, muốn từ bỏ vì độ khó của ngành học. Mặt khác, xuất phát từ những khó khăn trong quá trình học tập các kỹ năng ngôn ngữ của sinh viên, chúng tôi còn nhận thấy khi sinh viên bước vào giai đoạn chuyên ngành biên phiên dịch như các môn biên phiên dịch du lịch, biên phiên dịch thương mại thường gặp phải những khó khăn nhất định trong việc nắm bắt kiến thức và kỹ năng thực hành.

Vì vậy, những vấn đề chúng tôi trình bày về môn Dịch du lịch trong khuôn khổ bài viết này như là bước đầu khảo sát lại thực trạng dạy và học, qua đó mong muốn tìm hiểu cũng như đưa ra các giải pháp hữu hiệu nhằm giúp người học chủ động, hứng thú và tích cực hơn trong việc học tập để hình thành các kỹ năng nghề nghiệp sau này. Bài viết được thực hiện nhằm giải quyết các vấn đề như: Tìm ra những nhân tố ảnh hưởng đến động cơ học tập của sinh viên; Phân tích những những khó khăn trong quá trình học tập của sinh viên qua môn học; Đề xuất một số giải pháp và phương pháp học tập hiệu quả giúp sinh viên có hứng thú trong học tập.

2. Một số quan niệm về kỹ năng tổ chức giảng dạy hiệu quả.

Quá trình dạy học đại học là một hệ thống mang tính phức hợp đa chiều, đó là sự tương tác qua lại giữa giảng viên – sinh viên, giảng viên – nội dung – sinh viên, giảng viên – môi trường – sinh viên..., từng thành tố trong

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[29]   https://tuoitre.vn/du-khach-trung-quoc-nuom-nuop-den-viet-nam-20180402133341654.htm

hệ thống đều có giá trị như nhau, nhưng nổi bật hơn cả là hoạt động dạy và học, vì đó là hai yếu tố mang tính quyết định cho chất lượng dạy và học. Khi xét đến cấu trúc dạy học trong chương trình đại học, chúng ta thường phải xét đến bốn yếu tố giảng viên, sinh viên, môi trường, nội dung (chương trình đào tạo). Các yếu tố ở đây được hiểu như những thành tố cơ bản để tạo nên hệ thống phức hợp đa chiều, thiếu đi một thành tố nào thì hệ thống đó cũng sẽ trở nên khiếm khuyết.

Trong quá trình dạy học ở đại học, giảng viên luôn là chủ thể trong hoạt động giảng dạy, với vai trò chủ đạo trong hoạt động dạy, giảng viên có chức năng tổ chức, điều khiển, lãnh đạo các hoạt động của sinh viên, hướng dẫn sinh viên thực hiện những yêu cầu đã được quy định trong nội dung giảng dạy, nhằm giúp sinh viên từng bước hoàn thiện các kỹ năng, lĩnh hội tri thức tương quan đến nghề nghiệp tương lai của sinh viên.

Song song đó, sinh viên vừa là khách thể của hoạt động dạy, vừa là chủ thể của hoạt động học mang tính chất nghiên cứu. Trong quá trình học tập, sinh viên phải học tập theo nội dung đã được hoạch định trong chương trình đào tạo, kết hợp với tự học, tự nghiên cứu dưới sự hướng dẫn của giảng viên là chính, nhằm từng bước chiếm lĩnh được các kỹ năng, tri thức liên qua đến nghề nghiệp trong tương lai.

Hoạt động dạy – học phải là sự tương tác qua lại với nhau chứ không thực hiện theo kiểu một chiều, vì phải như vậy thì trong quá trình dạy – học mới nảy sinh những tình huống có vấn đề, buộc giảng viên đưa ra các tình huống vừa sức, người học sẽ tổng hợp các kỹ năng tri thức để giải quyết vấn đề, như vậy các kiến thức mà sinh viên lĩnh hội sẽ được thực hành, để lại một ấn tượng sâu sắc và từng bước hình thành kỹ năng áp dụng những tri thức đã học vào việc giải quyết vấn đề trong cuộc sống thực tế sau này.

Trong dạy học truyền thống, hoạt động dạy – học chỉ được thực hiện theo kiểu một chiều, chức năng dạy trở thành chủ đạo trong quá trình dạy và học, kiến thức mà giảnh viên truyền thụ trở thành kênh cung cấp kiến thức duy nhất, cho nên mới nảy sinh hiện tượng ghi-chép-học thuộc lòng. Một phần cũng do cách thức đánh giá kết quả học tập nặng về tính tái hiện kiến thức mà không chú trọng kỹ năng giải quyết tình huống, do chịu sự ảnh hưởng bởi quan điểm trên trong một thời gian dài, việc đổi mới phương pháp giảng dạy là một yêu cầu cấp thiết.

Trong quá trình hội nhập với thế giới, nhất là từ khi có sự giao lưu với các trường đại học trên thế giới, chưa bao giờ chất lượng giáo dục đại học Việt Nam lại được các nhà chuyên môn đặt lên bàn thảo luận với sự cấp

thiết và trở thành thời sự nóng bỏng như hiện nay. Chất lượng giáo dục đại học hiện nay quả là có nhiều điểm cần bàn cãi, nhưng cũng đáng ghi nhận những gì mà các nhà hoạch định giáo dục đã và đang cố gắng làm trong lâu nay. Nhưng theo tôi, để giải được bài toán đảm bảo hiệu quả và chất lượng hoạt động dạy học đại học, tựu trung lại là nên giải quyết mối quan hệ biện chứng giữa hoạt động dạy và học. Nói đến đổi mới trong giảng dạy, thì phương pháp dạy học của giảng viên được chú ý đến nhiều nhất, vì từ đây nó sẽ mang tính quyết định đến chất lượng đào tạo của giảng viên. Trong quá trình giảng dạy, giảng viên sẽ là người hướng dẫn, giới thiệu các khái niệm tri thức cơ bản cho sinh viên, thông qua nội dung môn học, giảng viên sẽ hướng dẫn các kỹ năng để giúp sinh viên giải quyết các bài tập, từ đó hình thành nên tri thức – kỹ năng để sinh viên có đủ năng lực để giải quyết một tình huống có vấn đề. Khác với phương pháp giảng dạy truyền thống theo kiểu nhồi nhét kiến thức, nếu như giảng viên vẫn sợ sinh viên của mình bị "đói" kiến thức thì đó là một suy nghĩ thật là đáng tiếc. Vì với tri thức khoa học của nhân loại đang bùng nổ theo cấp số nhân trong từng ngày từng giờ, thì quãng thời gian 4 đến 5 năm trong trường đại học quả thật khá ít ỏi để sinh viên tiếp thu hết kiến thức của nhân loại, để rồi cuối cùng những kiến thức tiếp thu được chỉ là những gì cũ kỹ, lỗi thời.

Những năm gần đây, các trường đại học đã mạnh dạn cải tiến biên soạn chương trình đào tạo hướng đến nghề nghiệp thực tế, nhưng các trường vẫn phải dựa vào Quy chế đào tạo theo tín chỉ (Số: 43/2007/QĐ-BGD&ĐT) của Bộ Giáo dục và đào tạo ban hành từ năm 2007, như vậy hiển nhiên giảng viên không thể tự chủ trong việc đưa ra nội dung để giảng dạy cho sinh viên; mặt khác chương trình đào tạo của các trường luôn phải khống chế tổng số tín chỉ ở mức khoảng 140 tín chỉ, nếu như học theo kiểu truyền thống thì chắc chắn người thầy không thể nào dạy kịp và đủ chương trình, trong khi ngành ngoại ngữ nói chung và ngôn ngữ Trung Quốc nói riêng lại là ngành đặc thù phải đào tạo các kỹ năng ngôn ngữ từ đầu, vậy làm thế nào để giải quyết được khó khăn đó? Vấn đề lại quay trở lại thành tố giảng viên, giảng viên có thể dựa vào nội dung của chương trình mà soạn thành đề cương bài giảng, trong đó nêu ra các nội dung chính mà sinh viên cần học, qua đó lựa chọn phương pháp giảng dạy làm sao phải khơi dậy tính tích cực của sinh viên, hình thành các kỹ năng thảo luận, thuyết trình, làm việc theo nhóm cho sinh viên, làm được như vậy, vừa có thể tạo hứng thú cho người học, vừa có thể đảm bảo dạy đủ và đúng nội dung chương trình, và quan trọng hơn hết là có thể hình thành kỹ năng sống và làm việc nơi người học – một trong những tiêu chí về giáo dục đã được UNESCO nhận định.

Trong khi đó, với tư cách là người thụ hưởng nền giáo dục, đóng vai trò trung tâm trong hoạt động học, người sinh viên cũng cần phải thay đổi thói quen học tập bấy lâu nay. Do hệ thống giáo dục phổ thông vẫn còn chưa tạo được sự tiếp nối, kế thừa lên bậc học cao hơn là đại học, cho nên khi đã trở thành sinh viên, các em vẫn còn khá bỡ ngỡ hoặc lúng túng ở môi trường đại học, một phần các em bị choáng ngợp trước nội dung kiến thức quá đồ sộ, một phần các em vẫn chưa có phương pháp học tập khoa học đúng đắn, cho nên thường xảy ra tình trạng bội thực kiến thức, hoặc vẫn theo phương pháp học tập cũ, nên cuối cùng thành tích học tập không như mong muốn. Trong quá trình học tập, trước tiên sinh viên nên có thái độ học tập đúng đắn, học là để chiếm lĩnh tri thức khoa học, kỹ năng làm việc để phục vụ cho nghề nghiệp trong tương lai. Cho nên, ngoài việc lĩnh hội tri thức ở giảng đường, sinh viên có thể tự học ở bất kỳ chỗ nào, giờ nào với các phương tiện công nghệ thông tin như hiện nay. Nếu như vẫn giữ lấy suy nghĩ rằng sẽ được nghe những kiến thức có thể ứng dụng ngay trên giảng đường, ngoài ra không cần có các kỹ năng tự học thì dù có học trong bao lâu đi nữa thì việc chiếm lĩnh được tri thức khoa học cũng rất hạn chế.

Một điều cần đề cập thêm ở đây chính là phương pháp đánh giá kết quả học tập của sinh viên, nếu như chỉ dừng lại ở mức độ tái hiện các kiến thức đã học trong sách vở thôi thì chưa đủ, mà còn phải hình thành các kỹ năng giải quyết vấn đề trong cuộc sống, kỹ năng sáng tạo độc lập, kỹ năng trao đổi bàn bạc … nếu như giải quyết được khâu đánh giá theo hướng khách quan, thì các hiện tượng như học thuộc lòng, gian lận trong thi cử bấy lâu nay sẽ dần nhường chỗ sự sáng tạo, kỹ năng giải quyết vấn đề của sinh viên.

Như vậy, có thể nói được rằng để đảm bảo hiệu quả và chất lượng hoạt động dạy học ở đại học, cần phải đặt hoạt động dạy – học bên cạnh các thành tố trong cấu trúc dạy học đại học, vì dạy sẽ tác động trực tiếp lên học, và học cũng sẽ phản hồi lại kết quả của sự tác động đó, từ đó giúp cho giáo viên có thể điều chỉnh các phương pháp giảng dạy sao cho học có hiệu quả và nó sẽ quay trở lại phản ánh đúng thực trạng của chất lượng dạy. Vì vậy, mối quan hệ giữa dạy học và các yếu tố nội dung và môi trường không hề đứng độc lập nhau, mà là một quá trình tồn tại với tư cách như là một hệ thống phức hợp được cấu trúc bởi nhiều nhân tố có mối quan hệ tương tác với nhau.

3. Thực hiện một số kỹ năng tổ chức giảng dạy hiệu quả môn Dịch du lịch tại khoa Ngoại ngữ.

Môn Dịch du lịch 《旅游翻译》là môn học thuộc kiến thức chuyên

ngành trong chương trình đào tạo với thời lượng 3 tín chỉ (45 tiết). Học phần Dịch du lịch được đưa vào giảng dạy ở học kỳ 7. Ở giai đoạn này, người học hầu như đã học hết các học phần về các môn khoa học xã hội, đồng thời cũng đã nắm vững các kỹ năng ngôn ngữ ở mức độ thuần thục. Môn học được thiết kế trong chương trình nhằm trang bị kiến thức nghề nghiệp thực tiễn và ứng dụng, với tính đặc thù của nghề hướng dẫn du lịch là một nghề dịch vụ, người học sẽ được tiếp cận các kiến thức nghề nghiệp và thực hành ở từng nội dung cụ thể. Tuy nhiên do môn học nằm trong phạm trù "phiên dịch", nên sẽ có một lượng lớn từ vựng chuyên ngành du lịch và văn bản du lịch sẽ được cung cấp cho người học, cũng như toàn bộ các hoạt động trong lớp đều phải sử dụng ngôn ngữ tiếng Trung Quốc khi tiến hành thực hành.

Môn học nhằm trang bị kiến thức nghiệp vụ hướng dẫn du lịch với tình hình thực tế là ở Việt Nam. Sau khi học xong môn này, người học sẽ có kiến thức tổng quát và hệ thống về nghiệp vụ hướng dẫn du lịch, cũng như thực hành được các kỹ năng về nghiệp vụ như hướng dẫn tour, xử lý được các tình huống trong quá trình tác nghiệp v.v... Thông qua từng bài học cụ thể, người học được trang bị các kiến thức về nghiệp vụ hướng dẫn du lịch （导游业务） như: đón khách, check-in khách sạn, tham quan các tuyến điểm du lịch, shopping và được trang bị kiến thức về một số tuyến điểm du lịch nổi tiếng ở khắp ba miền Việt Nam （景点导游）, cũng như có kiến thức về khả năng ứng xử trong những tình huống đặt thù như trễ chuyến (tàu, xe...), hoặc khả năng cộng tác với những đồng nghiệp khác. Trong quá trình học môn này, tùy theo yêu cầu của từng nội dung bài, người học sẽ phải làm việc theo nhóm để từng bước thực hành cọ xát với thực tế, thông qua các hoạt động thực hành như thảo luận nhóm, làm việc theo nhóm, thuyết trình và tự mình hoạch định một chương trình tham quan, người học sẽ từng bước hình thành các kỹ năng nghề nghiệp, có khả năng ứng xử những tình huống ngoài dự kiến.

Môn học này được điều chỉnh lại thời lượng và sắp xếp lại các đơn vị bài theo đề cương chi tiết môn học, được đưa vào chương trình giảng dạy cho sinh viên năm thứ 3 ngành Ngôn ngữ Trung Quốc từ năm học 2015-2016. Điều đáng nói là trong những năm học trước đây, môn Dịch du lịch với đặc thù là môn kỹ năng dịch, được các giảng viên trong khoa giảng dạy với hình thức là dịch văn bản là chính, giảng viên sẽ giới thiệu cho sinh viên các nội dung về một số tuyến điểm tham quan trên cả nước. Sau đó thiết kế thành từng bài đọc hiểu, có phần giải thích và chuyển ngữ từ vựng, giảng một số cấu trúc ngữ pháp sau đó cho sinh viên lần lượt tiến hành dịch

tại lớp. Cách thức tiến hành bài giảng và phương pháp mà giảng viên sử dụng là phương pháp thuyết giảng là chính, chưa tạo được sự hứng thú và phát huy tính tích cực cho sinh viên, vì việc tìm hiểu và chuyển ngữ từ vựng, sinh viên hoàn toàn có thể thực hiện khi tự học. Hơn nữa, tuy là môn nghiệp vụ của ngành ngoại ngữ, sinh viên chưa bao giờ được thực hành tại lớp.

Theo M.I.Macmutov: "tạo ra một chuỗi tình huống có vấn đề và điều khiển hoạt động của người học nhằm độc lập giải quyết các vấn đề học tập, đó là thực chất quá trình dạy học nêu vấn đề."[30] Và cũng để cải tiến phương pháp ngoài cách diễn giảng truyền thống thì "dạy học giải quyết vấn đề là phương pháp dạy học nhằm khắc phục hạn chế của phương pháp diễn giảng truyền thống, phát triển tư duy biện chứng, tư duy sáng tạo, năng lực giải quyết vấn đề cho thế hệ trẻ trong xã hội hiện đại."[31] Với tiêu chí lấy người học làm trung tâm, giúp người học chủ động trong việc học tập, chuyển hóa kiến thức thành kỹ năng thực hành, tạo động cơ và kích thích sự hứng thú của người học, chúng tôi đã thử nghiệm nội dung môn học cho khóa sinh viên 2013 và 2014 bằng những công việc cụ thể sau:

- Sử dụng 20% thời lượng môn học (8-9 tiết) để giới thiệu kiến thức Nghiệp vụ hướng dẫn du lịch cho sinh viên gồm các phần như: Tiếp đón, Check-in khách sạn, xử lý các tình huống diễn ra tại khách sạn, nghiệp vụ tham quan... Và dĩ nhiên, sinh viên sẽ được giảng viên gửi nội dung bài học đọc trước khi lên lớp. Tất cả tài liệu này được thể hiện bằng tiếng Trung, qua đó sinh viên sẽ nắm được các thuật ngữ chuyên ngành du lịch. Khi lên lớp, giảng viên chỉ dùng một thời lượng nhỏ để giới thiệu mục tiêu của bài học, sau đó đưa ra các tình huống để các nhóm sinh viên thực hiện đóng vai người hướng dẫn và du khách, trong đó ngôn ngữ sử dụng là tiếng Trung. Qua các buổi học tại lớp, các nhóm sinh viên đã tham gia tích cực và rất hứng thú với phương pháp dạy học giải quyết vấn đề này.

- Sử dụng 65% thời lượng môn học (khoảng 30 tiết) để giới thiệu lịch sử, văn hóa, phong cảnh của các tuyến điểm có trong bài học. Nội dung này ngoài cung cấp kiến thức, từ vựng cho sinh viên, chúng tôi còn sử dụng các phương tiện kỹ thuật nghe nhìn để hỗ trợ trực quan cho sinh viên, sau đó yêu cầu các nhóm sinh viên dịch theo các thuyết minh trong video. Để làm được phần này, trước đó giảng viên đã cung cấp nội dung từ vựng và dàn ý, để khi lên lớp sẽ có thời gian cho sinh viên lập dàn bài sau khi xem

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[30] Trần Thị Hương, Nguyễn Đức Danh: "Giáo trình tổ chức hoạt động dạy học đại học", trang 133, NXB.ĐHSP TP.HCM
[31] Như trên

xong video thuyết minh, sau đó giảng viên cho từng nhóm sinh viên vừa xem lại video vừa dịch theo thuyết minh. Việc này đòi hỏi sinh viên phải tập trung cao độ, và giảng viên sẽ ghi nhận lại các lỗi sai trong quá trình dịch. Sau khi kết thúc phần dịch của từng nhóm, giảng viên sẽ phân tích các lỗi sai để sinh viên hiểu vấn đề. Lúc mới thực hiện phương pháp giảng dạy này, chúng tôi cũng nhận được sự than phiền về độ khó của nội dung môn học, nhưng nhờ sự khuyến khích động viên kịp thời, sinh viên đã tích cực hợp tác với giảng viên.

- Sau khi đã tiến hành được gần 80% khối lượng môn học, chúng tôi sẽ dành khoảng 15% thời lượng (khoảng 6 tiết) cho phần đánh giá giữa kỳ. Các nội dung tình huống thực tế này đã được giảng viên phổ biến từ tuần thứ 4 để sinh viên có thời gian chuẩn bị từ trước. Các nhóm sinh viên sẽ bốc thăm một địa điểm tham quan trong phạm vi thành phố Hồ Chí Minh như đền Hùng, Bảo tàng mỹ thuật, dinh Thống Nhất... để tiến hành phần thuyết minh bằng ngôn ngữ Trung Quốc mà nội dung học chưa đề cập đến. Sau đó các nhóm sẽ tự lên kế hoạch trong thời gian quy định, đến các địa điểm tham quan và thuyết minh hoàn toàn bằng tiếng Trung, có quay lại video clip trong quá trình tham quan, các thành viên trong nhóm sẽ lần lượt đóng vai người hướng dẫn thuyết minh và các thành viên đặt ra các câu hỏi. Sau đó video clip của các nhóm sẽ được chiếu lại trên lớp, giảng viên sẽ mời các nhóm khác nhận xét, góp ý, sau đó giảng viên sẽ tổng kết lại các ý cho nhóm tham khảo.

Sau khi thực hiện nội dung bài giảng trong 45 tiết, chúng tôi đã nhận được rất nhiều phản hồi từ sinh viên. Trong phạm vi khảo sát ý kiến kết thúc môn học, có đến 93.4% ý kiến rất hứng khởi và yêu cầu tăng thời lượng môn học này lên, nhưng rất tiếc là môn học chỉ là một học phần nằm trong các môn học biên phiên dịch chuyên ngành. Nhưng qua đó cũng đủ giúp chúng tôi thấy rằng, việc đổi mới phương pháp giảng dạy để giúp người học chủ động giải quyết các tình huống trong môn học sẽ kích thích tư duy sáng tạo và tạo động lực cho người học, từ đó thông qua các bài học sẽ hình thành kỹ năng nghề nghiệp trong tương lai.

4. Đề xuất các biện pháp nâng cao hiệu quả thực hiện một số kỹ năng tổ chức giảng dạy hiệu quả môn Dịch du lịch.

Qua việc trình bày cách thức tiến hành môn học Dịch du lịch trong chương trình đào tạo ngành ngôn ngữ Trung Quốc, chúng tôi nhận thấy rằng các phương pháp truyền thống như diễn giảng, giảng viên thuyết trình sẽ có một số hạn chế trong việc giảng dạy ngoại ngữ, nhất là đối với sinh viên chuyên ngữ ở trình độ cao hơn, các phương pháp này sẽ khiến cho

sinh viên trở nên thụ động ngồi nghe giảng mà không được tham gia một cách tích cực vào bài học, từ đó sẽ ảnh hưởng đến sự hứng thú và đồng thời tác động đến động cơ học tập của sinh viên. Vì vậy chúng tôi mạnh dạn đề xuất các giải pháp như:

- Dạy học theo tình huống.

- Tăng tính chủ động cho người học dưới sự dẫn dắt hướng dẫn của giảng viên.

- Đổi mới phương pháp dạy học để phát huy khả năng tự học của sinh viên.

- Ngoài học trên lớp, giảng viên còn có thể tương tác với sinh viên qua hệ thống e-learning, group thảo luận trên facebook...

- Tận dụng phương tiện công nghệ thông tin trong dạy học.

5. Kết luận

Chúng ta biết rằng, tri thức của nhân loại không ngừng tiến bộ và được thay đổi hàng ngày, nhu cầu thỏa mãn và nắm bắt hết toàn bộ kiến thức của một ngành nghề - lĩnh vực trong một khoảng thời gian có hạn là điều không thể thực hiện được, có chăng là người học sẽ học được các kiến thức nền tảng, nắm vững các kỹ năng nghề nghiệp để sau khi kết thúc quá trình đào tạo ở trường đại học, người học sẽ có khả năng tự học và nắm bắt được các phương pháp tìm tòi kiến thức mới để phục vụ cho công việc, cuộc sống của mình. Với tiền đề ấy, nhiệm vụ của giáo dục và nhất là giáo dục đại học cần phải hoàn thành sứ mệnh và nhiệm vụ để đào tạo ra con người có tri thức, có kỹ năng và có thái độ sống đúng đắn theo tiến trình tiến bộ của nhân loại. Nói một cách khác, việc cải cách giáo dục đào tạo đã trở nên vô cùng cấp thiết, theo lời của giáo sư Hoàng Tụy thì đó chính là "mệnh lệnh của cuộc sống". Theo chúng tôi, việc thay đổi việc dạy và học cho có hiệu quả nhất căn cơ nhất vẫn là bắt đầu thay đổi từ phương pháp giảng dạy.

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EXAMINING BORROWED WORDS IN CHINESE AND APPROACHES TO TRANSLATING BORROWED WORDS

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ABSTRACT

With the development of society, the language of each nation is constantly influenced by other languages from many different countries to enrich. It is the vocabulary, which is the most basic unit of language, reflecting social development in the most sensitive way. Thus, along with the development of society, new phenomena, concepts, human perceptions of the phenomenon of change before, new words will be formed ceaselessly. This has led to the introduction of foreign language into the native language, making the vocabulary of the national language become richer and more lively. The translation of a borrowed word can be divided into four ways: 1. Translating sounds, 2. Translating meaning, 3. Translating sounds and meaning, 4. Mixed translation.

When translating Chinese text to Vietnamese, for the borrowed words in Chinese, once again the methods, called the "reverted Latin" or "transliteration" are applied. These two methods can also be applied at the same time. At the moment, there are no specific regulations on how to translate the borrowed words in Chinese into Vietnamese, which is mainly based on the personal and emotional understanding of the translators. Therefore, there are still not strict in terms of norms and science. In the article, we will try to analyze both mentioned translation methods.

Key words: *borrowed words, new words, translating sounds, translating meaning, translating sounds and meaning, mixed translation.*

TÌM HIỂU DỊCH TỪ MƯỢN TRONG TIẾNG TRUNG VÀ PHƯƠNG PHÁP DỊCH TỪ MƯỢN TIẾNG TRUNG SANG TIẾNG VIỆT

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TÓM TẮT

Theo sự phát triển của xã hội, ngôn ngữ mỗi dân tộc không ngừng tiếp thu từ ngôn ngữ khác để làm phong phú hơn khả năng diễn đạt của mình. Trong ngôn ngữ, từ vựng là đơn vị ngôn ngữ cơ bản nhất, có khả năng phản ánh sự phát triển xã hội một cách nhạy cảm nhất. Do đó, cùng với sự phát triển của xã hội, những sự vật hiện tượng, khái niệm mới xuất hiện, nhận thức của con người với sự vật hiện tượng trước đây thay đổi, từ mới sẽ không ngừng xuất hiện. Từ đó dẫn đến sự du nhập từ mượn nước ngoài vào ngôn ngữ, làm cho vốn từ vựng của ngôn ngữ dân tộc ấy trở nên phong phú sinh động hơn. Việc dịch một từ mượn tiếng ước ngoài có thể chia làm 4 cách: 1. Dịch âm, 2. Dịch nghĩa, 3. Dịch âm kết hợp nghĩa, 4. Dịch hỗn hợp

Khi dịch văn bản Trung sang Việt, những từ mượn trong Hán ngữ một lần nữa được sử dụng phương pháp "hoàn nguyên chữ la-tinh" hoặc "dịch nghĩa". Cũng có thể vận dụng cùng lúc hai phương pháp trên. Trước mắt, vẫn chưa có quy định cụ thể nào về việc sẽ vận dụng phương pháp nào việc dịch từ mượn tiếng nước ngoài trong tiếng Trung sang tiếng Việt, chủ yếu dựa vào hiểu biết cá nhân và ngữ cảm của người dịch. Do vậy, vẫn có chưa chặc chẽ về mặt quy phạm và tính khoa học. Trong khuôn khổ bài viết, chúng tôi sẽ thử phân tích cả hai cách dịch trên.

Từ khóa: *Từ mượn, từ mới, dịch, dịch âm, dịch nghĩa*

1. Dẫn nhập

1.1 Cơ sở lý luận

Từ mượn, từ ngoại lai (loan-word) là một hiện tượng ngôn ngữ mang tính phổ quát trong hầu hết các ngôn ngữ. Một mặt, đây là hệ quả tất

yếu khi xã hội phát triển, khoa học kỹ thuật tiến bộ chế tạo ra những sản phẩm mang tên gọi mới, tìm ra những dạng vật chất mới, những khái niệm mới…, ngôn ngữ được sử dụng trong một quốc gia xuất hiện những khái niệm, định danh mới đó sẽ xuất hiện những lớp từ mới và sẽ nhanh chóng được dịch sang những ngôn ngữ khác như một sự tất yếu của hiện tượng tiếp thu tri thức nhân loại. Mặt khác, từ mượn được tạo thành qua quá trình tiếp xúc, giao lưu văn hóa ngôn ngữ, hiện tượng này thường diễn ra giữa ngôn ngữ các dân tộc lân bang, ngôn ngữ giữa các quốc gia chung khu vực, hay giữa ngôn ngữ của dân tộc đi xâm lược và dân tộc bị xâm lược… trong trường hợp này, chúng ta sẽ có được từ mượn mới cho những khái niệm, sự vật, hiện tượng đã cũ (đã tồn tại sẵn trong ngôn ngữ đi vay mượn), hiện tượng này tạo nên lớp từ đồng nghĩa.

Việc dịch từ mượn từ Ấn Âu sang tiếng Trung diễn ra khá phức tạp, do đặc điểm văn tự tượng hình, mặt khác, chính sách ngôn ngữ Trung Quốc là hán tự hóa tất cả các từ ngoại lai dốc La tinh sang tiếng Trung, do vậy, tùy vào đặc điểm từng từ cụ thể, việc từ vựng từ tiếng nước ngoài sử dụng văn tự chữ La Tinh thường chọn một trong 4 phương pháp sau: Dịch âm, dịch nghĩa, dịch âm kết hợp nghĩa và phương pháp dịch hỗn hợp.

Khi học tập và dịch thuật tiếng Trung sang tiếng Việt, đứng trước hiện tượng ngôn ngữ này, người học Việt Nam những từ mượn trong Hán ngữ một lần nữa được sử dụng phương pháp "hoàn nguyên chữ Latinh" hoặc "dịch nghĩa". Cũng có thể vận dụng cùng lúc hai phương pháp trên. Trước mắt, vẫn chưa có quy định cụ thể nào về việc sẽ vận dụng phương pháp nào việc dịch từ mượn tiếng nước ngoài trong tiếng Trung sang tiếng Việt, chủ yếu dựa vào hiểu biết cá nhân và ngữ cảm của người dịch. Do vậy, vẫn có chưa chặc chẽ về mặt quy phạm và tính khoa học. Trong khuôn khổ bài viết, chúng tôi sẽ thử phân tích cả hai cách dịch trên.

1.2 Lịch sử vấn đề

Tại Trung Quốc, "từ ngoại lai" đã xuất hiện với tư cách là một đơn vị chương (phần) trong tất cả giáo trình môn học "Từ vựng học Hán ngữ". Trong các sách chuyên khảo từ vựng học Hán ngữ cũng đều có đề cập đến như một đối tượng nghiên cứu cơ bản của môn từ vựng học. Các giáo trình Hán ngữ hiện tại có uy tín tại Trung Quốc đều đồn nhất đề cập đến hiện tượng ngôn ngữ này.

Theo tác giả 卢惠惠, từ ngoại lai là một thành tố trong tập hợp từ mới, là đối tượng nghiên cứu của từ vựng học. Theo tác giả, "từ sau cải cách mở cửa Trung Quốc năm 1978, từ gốc nước ngoài du nhập vào Trung

Quốc với một tốc độ mạnh mẽ và nhanh chóng, trong đó, từ mượn tiếng Anh chiếm tỷ lệ lớn nhất trong giai đoạn này."

Tại Việt Nam, cũng có nhiều nhà ngôn ngữ học nghiên cứu về từ ngoại lai nói chung và từ ngoại lai gốc Hán nói riêng. Theo tác giả Nguyễn Văn Khang, hiện tượng vay mượn từ vựng được chia thành hai dạng chính, thứ nhất "Vay mượn do không có, thiếu ", Với nội dung "thiếu thì phải vay mượn", "thiếu cái gì thì vay mượn cái đó", trong tiếng Việt, hiện tượng này được phản ánh trong lớp từ Việt mượn tiếng Anh, tiếng Pháp. Thứ hai là có sẵn rồi nhưng vẫn vay mượn, đó là vay mượn những đơn vị từ nước ngoài mà bản thân hệ thống từ vựng ngôn ngữ đó đã có từ biểu thị, hiện tượng này sẽ tạo thành những từ đồng nghĩa trong tiếng Việt.

Trong công trình "Giảng dạy từ Hán Việt trong trường phổ thông", tác giả đặng Đức siêu đề cập đến các vấn đề lịch sử từ Hán Việt, nhận diện từ Hán Việt, phương hướng nắm vững vốn từ Hán Việt...

Trong công trình "từ vựng học tiếng Việt", phần 4 chương 1 "Phân tích từ vựng tiếng Việt về mặt nguồn gốc", Tác giả Nguyễn Thiện Giáp có đề cập đến 3 nguồn gốc chủ yếu từ vựng tiếng Việt, bao gồm: các từ thuần Việt, các từ gốc Hán và các từ tiếng Ấn-Âu.

Về vấn đề dịch thuật, trong phần công trình "Giáo trình ngôn ngữ học", tác giả Nguyễn Thiện Giáp có đề cập trong *chương 12. Ứng dụng ngôn ngữ học, phần 2, Ngôn ngữ và dịch thuật* những vần đề liên quan đến 3 kiểu dịch bao gồm *dịch nội ngôn, dịch liên ngôn, dịch liên tín hiệu, những yếu tố dụng học trong dịch thuật.*

Qua trên có thể thấy, tại Việt Nam và Trung Quốc, đã có nhiều học giả nghiên cứu về dịch từ ngoại mượn la tinh trong Hán ngữ, từ ngoại lai gốc Hán trong tiếng Việt, các vấn đề về dịch thuật...

Tuy nhiên, cho đến nay, trên những tài liệu chúng tôi tham khảo được, chưa có công trình hay báo cáo khoa học nào nghiên cứu quá trình: Dịch từ gốc La tin vào tiếng Trung - dịch từ mượn tiếng La tin trong văn bản tiếng Trung sang tiếng Việt.

Do đó, từ thực tiễn quá trình giảng dạy lý thuyết và thực tiễn công tác biên phiên dịch Trung Việt, tác giả bước đầu hệ thống, đúc kết một số quy luật cho quá trình nêu trên nhằm cung cấp thêm một tài liệu tham khảo cho ngành lý luận và thực tiễn biên phiên dịch tại Việt Nam nói chung và ngành học biên phiên dịch Trung-Việt nói riêng.

Trong quá trình nghiên cứu, tác giả thống nhất sử dụng thuật ngữ

"Từ mượn"

Vấn đề dịch từ mượn từ ngôn ngữ Ấn Âu trong tiếng Trung.

Như đã phân tích ở trên, Việc dịch từ mượn từ ngôn ngữ la tinh sang tiếng Trung diễn ra khá phức tạp, do đặc điểm văn tự tượng hình, mặt khác, chính sách ngôn ngữ Trung Quốc là Hán tự hóa tất cả các từ ngoại lai La tinh sang tiếng Trung, do vậy, tùy vào đặc điểm từng từ cụ thể, việc mượn từ theo hệ chữ viết Latinh thường chọn một trong 4 phương pháp sau: Dịch âm, dịch nghĩa, dịch âm kết hợp nghĩa và phương pháp dịch hỗn hợp.

Dịch âm:

Đây là hình thức dịch dựa vào phương thức phát âm bản gốc, tiếng Trung sử dụng một từ có âm gần giống với các phát âm từ mượn sao cho khi phát âm người nghe nhận thấy sự gần gũi về âm thanh, thông thường cách dịch này thường có thể thấy trong cách dịch tên người, địa danh, tên các thương hiệu Âu Mỹ như: "Kim Young Un" dịch thành "金正恩 Jin Zheng En"、*Donald Trump* dịch thành"唐纳德·**特朗普** Tang Na De-te lang Pu" "NewYork" dịch thành "纽约Niu Yue", Malaysia dịch thành "马来西亚Ma lai xi ya", Adidas dịch thành*阿迪达斯 A di da si*, thương hiệu mỹ phẩm "Shiseido" dịch thành"*资生堂 si sheng tang*".

Ngoài ra cách dịch này còn được sử dụng để dịch một số danh từ, khái niệm trước đó sẵn chưa có tại Trung Quốc, như : "sofa" dịch thành "沙发 Sha fa"，"guiltar" dịch thành "吉他 Qí ta"，"copy" dịch thành "拷贝 Kao bei"、"SARS"译成"萨斯 Sha si"、"Email" dịch thành "伊妹尔Yi mei er"、"Pizza" dịch thành "比萨 Bi sha", 等等。

Có thể nhận thấy, ưu điểm của cách dịch này là dễ dàng liên tưởng khi phát âm, nhưng bên cạnh đó lại tồn tại một hạn chế lớn là nếu người sử dụng tiếng Trung không biết nghĩa từ này trước thì sẽ không có cơ sở để suy đoán nghĩa được.

Ngược lại với phương pháp dịch âm là phương pháp dịch nghĩa.

Dịch nghĩa: Đây là cách dịch giới thiệu nghĩa trong từ mượn tiếng nước ngoài, cách dịch này chấp nhận hạn chế không có sự gần gũi về phát âm giữa từ gốc và từ trong bản dịch, chúng ta có thể tìm thấy cách dịch này trong các từ như。如"White house" dịch thành "白宫 Bạch Cung"、

"UFO" dịch thành "**不明**飞行物 Bất minh phi hành vật"、"SOS" dịch thành "**海上呼救信号**Hải thượng hô cứu tín hiệu"、"oven" dịch thành "电磁炉 Điện từ lư"。"demoeraey" dịch thành "**民主** Dân chủ"、"test-tubebaby" dịch thành "试管婴儿 Trẻ sinh ống nghiệm"、"soeiety" dịch thành "**社会** Xã hội"、"honey-moon" dịch thành "**蜜月**Mật nguyệt (trăng mật)", "coldwar" dịch thành "冷战 Lãnh chiến (chiến tranh lạnh)"、"globalvillage" dịch thành "**地球村** Địa cầu thôn (Thôn toàn cầu)", trí tuệ nhân tạo "**智能化**Trí năng hóa"**等等**。

Có thể thấy phương pháp trên tạo thuận lợi cho người đọc hiểu nghĩa bản dịch tiếng Trung. Xét về chức năng chuyển nghĩa, cách dịch này có tính ưu việt hơn cách dịch âm, tuy nhiên để thực hiện phương pháp này đòi hỏi người dịch, ngoài kiến thức ngôn ngữ, còn phải am hiểu kiến thức thuộc nhiều lĩnh vực khác trong xã hội, bên cạnh đó, người dịch cũng không thể thực hiện sứ mệnh là "sứ giả văn hóa" khi chọn cách dịch này, do không thể tái hiện dấu ấn văn hóa, ngữ âm của dân tộc sử dụng "ngôn ngữ cho vay" trong ngôn ngữ bản dịch của "ngôn ngữ đi vay"

Xét về mặt được và hạn chế, chúng ta có thể thấy cả hai cách dịch âm và dịch nghĩa đều có ít nhiều tính cực đoan. Để khắc phục và dung hòa những hạn chế của hai cách dịch trên, một số dịch giả Trung Quốc đã sử dụng phương pháp dịch âm kết hợp dịch nghĩa.

Kết hợp dịch âm-dịch nghĩa

Phương pháp dịch âm kết hợp nghĩa là cách dịch giữ lại một phần từ dịch có âm liên tưởng từ trong bản gốc. Đây là trường hợp 1 từ gồm có hai thành tố nghĩa trở lên, phần đầu từ dịch tương ứng sẽ biểu thị âm, phần sau thể hiện nghĩa, hoặc thep trật tự ngược lại. Có thể thấy hiện tượng này trong một số từ dịch như: "Romanism" dịch thành "**浪漫主**义 Lãng mạn chủ nghĩa", "Cambridge" dịch thành "剑桥", "miniskirt" dịch thành "**迷你裙** Mi ni quần Váy ngắn", "kilometre" 译成"**千米** ngàn mét", "multimedia" dịch thành "**多媒体**Đa mei ti Đa phương tiện", "car" dịch thành "卡车 Ka xa (Xe Ka)", "ballet" dịch thành "**芭蕾舞** Ba lei vũ (vũ ba lê)", "pingpong" dịch thành "乒乓球 Ping Pang cầu", "beer" dịch thành "啤**酒** Bei tửu (bia)", "AIDS" dịch thành "**艾滋病** Ái tư bệnh (bệnh aids)"

, "sardine" dịch thành "沙丁鱼 Sha ding Ngư", "soda" dịch thành "苏打水 su da Thủy (Nước so da)".

2.4. Phương pháp hỗn hợp

Phương pháp hỗn hợp thường giữ lại một chữ cái hoặc âm la tinh, như : "Marxism" dịch thành "马克思主义 Chủ nghĩa Ma si ke", "Domino effect" dịch thành "多米诺效应 Hiệu ứng Duo mi nuo", "NewZealand" dịch thành "新西兰 Tân Xi Lan (Tân Tây Lan)", "T-shirt" dịch thành "T恤", X-ray" dịch thành " X 光 (X quang)",

3. Phương pháp dịch từ ngoại lai tiếng Trung sang tiếng Việt

Quá trình dịch văn bản Trung sang Việt, do đặc điểm ngôn ngữ tiếng Việt theo hệ chữ viết Latinh, những từ mượn trong tiếng Trung một lần nữa được sử dụng phương pháp "hoàn nguyên chữ la-tinh" hoặc "dịch nghĩa" để chuyển sang tiếng Việt. Cũng có thể vận dụng cùng lúc hai phương pháp trên. Trước mắt, vẫn chưa có quy định cụ thể về việc sẽ vận dụng phương pháp nào việc dịch từ mượn tiếng nước ngoài trong tiếng Trung sang tiếng Việt, chủ yếu dựa vào hiểu biết cá nhân và ngữ cảm của người dịch. Có thể thấy, đây còn là một vấn đề chờ đợi sự quy chuẩn và khoa học hóa. Sau đây chúng tôi sẽ thử nêu ra một số trường hợp vận dụng độc lập một trong hai phương pháp trên hoặc kết hợp cả hai phương pháp.

Hoàn nguyên tiếng La tinh	Dịch nghĩa	Hai phương pháp kết hợp
苏打 So-da	卡通 Phim hoạt hình	安装Cài đặt, install
威士忌烈 Whistky	鼠标 Chuột (máy tính)	计算机轴断层摄影术 CT (citi), chụp cắt lớp
尼龙 Ni-lon	分辨率Độ phân giải	耳机Headphone, tay nghe
莫斯科 Max-cơ-va	数码 Kỹ thuật số	手机 Handphone, điện thoại di động

西马来亚 Hymalaia	半导体 bán dẫn	复制 Copy, sao chép
牛津 Oxfort	电磁炉Bếp từ	扫描 Scan, Chụp
摄像头 Webcam	冰箱Tủ lạnh	微波炉Lò viba, Lò vi sóng
演示文稿 Pownpoint	洗碗机Máy rửa chén	笔记本laptop, máy tính xách tay
耶稣 Giê-su	Máy giặt	论坛Forum, diễn dàn
比利亚 Bilya	城市管理	重起Restart, khởi động lại
奥巴马 Obama	吹风机Máy sấy tóc	晚会party Dạ tiệc, dạ yến
拿破仑 Napoleon	母语(与第二语言相对应) tiếng mẹ đẻ	酒吧bar, quán rượu
巴黎 Pa-ri	地球村ngôi nhà trái đất	伊妹儿：email, thư điện tử
新西兰 NewZealand	多米诺效应Hiệu ứng nhà kính	吉他：guilta, Tây Ban cầm
咖啡Cà phê	无性生殖Sinh sản vô tính	洋琴：Violon, dương cầm
迷你 Mi ni	冷战chiến tranh lạnh	迷你裙： váy ngắn, mini Juyp
马来西亚Malaisia	Trí tuệ nhân tạo 智能化	浪漫主义 Chủ nghĩa Lãng mạn

Ngoài ra, có một hiện tượng từ dịch từ mượn Trung sang Việt cần chú ý, đó là vào khoảng những năm 1960-1970, sách giáo khoa, truyền thông ở miền nam Việt Nam sử dụng phương pháp trực dịch (dịch trực tiếp) âm Hán Việt đối với những một số danh từ mượn trong tiếng Trung, mà cho đến giai đoạn hiện nay, trong bản dịch hầu hết đều sử dụng phương pháp dịch hoàn nguyên chữ Latinh, ví dụ như : "拿破仑"- Nã Phá Luân – Napoleon", "巴黎 -Ba Lê – Paris", "莫斯科-Mạc Tư Khoa-Max Cơ Va"," 华盛顿-Hoa Thịnh Đốn-Oa sinh ton", "西马来亚-Hy Mã Lạp Sơn-Himalaya"、 "NewZealand - Tân Tây Lan-Niu Di Lân"。

Từ hiện tượng này, chúng ta có thể nhìn thấy lịch sử quá trình phát triển của kỹ năng dịch thuật tại Việt Nam, cũng như chúng minh phương pháp dịch thuật một hiện tượng ngôn ngữ mang tính động và mở, có sự biến đổi căn bản qua các giai đoạn lịch sử khác nhau.

Kết luận

Từ mượn du nhập và tiếng Trung trong giai đoạn hiện đại là một minh chứng cho sự du nhập văn hóa nhanh chóng và toàn diện từ xã hội phương Tây vào Trung Quốc, cũng như từ mượn nước ngoài tồn tại trong các ngôn ngữ cũng chính là minh chứng cho sự phát triển và giao lưu giữa các quốc gia trên toàn thế giới. Trong giai đoạn mở cửa hội nhập, từ mượn du nhập từ ngôn ngữ các quốc gia phương tây nói chung và từ tiếng Anh nói riêng ngày càng phát triển về cả lượng và chất, trong quá trình sử dụng thực tiễn đời sống xã hội, những từ này được phát hiện, điều chỉnh, hấp thu, sử dụng và lưu truyền lại.

Việc tiếp nhận và thống nhất trong cách dịch từ mượn nói chung và từ mượn tiếng Trung sang tiếng Việt nói riêng, không thể trong một thời gian nhất định có thể thống nhất hoàn toàn. Để đạt đến sự dễ hiểu, trong sáng trong ngôn ngữ dịch tiếng Việt, cần thiết tiến hành quy phạm hiện tượng ngôn ngữ này, cần có những quy định trong chính sách ngôn ngữ được nhà nước ban hành. Song song đó, cần đặc biệt chú ý việc chọn lọc phổ cập những mượn tiếng Trung đối với những từ đã tồn tại và được công nhận rộng rãi trong tiếng Việt (hiện tượng có rồi nhưng vẫn vay tạo ra lớp từ đồng nghĩa trong ngôn ngữ đi vay), Ban tuyên giáo TW cũng cần lưu ý những định hướng, hướng dẫn cho từ dịch Trung sang Việt được sự dụng trên các phương tiện truyền thông chính thống như báo, đài, bao gồm cả báo giấy và báo mạng.

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