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PROCEEDINGS EDITORS

**TEACHING METHODOLOGY
AND LEARNING OUTCOMES**
in Ho Chi Minh City



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4th TESOL Conference 2016

Theme: **TEACHING METHODOLOGIES AND
LEARNING OUTCOMES IN HO CHI MINH
CITY**

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Vietnam

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A MESSAGE FROM A CONFERENCE EXECUTIVE

On behalf of the organizing committee, I have an honor to welcome all of the delegates to the 4th HCMC OU TESOL Conference 2016 at Ho Chi Minh City Open University. The purpose of the TESOL Conference is to create a forum for lecturers and instructors to come and share their instructional models or experiences in teaching languages in Ho Chi Minh City areas.



I am delighted to express my deepest thanks to delegates from Sai Gon University, University of Social Sciences and Humanities, Suranaree University of Technology, Thailand, Ho Chi Minh City University of Technology and Education, Assumption University, Bangkok, Thailand, Banking University of Ho Chi Minh City, University of Finance – Marketing, Ho Chi Minh City University of Foreign Languages and Information Technology (HUFLIT), Tri Viet English Center, Australian Centre for Education and Training, and of course, delegates from HCMC Open University.

I would like to express my acknowledgement to the two Keynote speakers, particularly to Prof. Joseph Foley, Director of the PhD program at Assumption University, in Bangkok, Thailand. Your valuable knowledge will bring all the delegates of the TESOL Conference 2016 to a new aspect of teaching profession.

I hereby express my gratitude to Assoc. Prof. Dr. Nguyen Van Phuc, Rector of HCMC Open University, who supports and provides opportunities for us to run the TESOL Conference Program this year.

My appreciation also goes to Dr. Le Thi Thanh Thu, Dean of the Graduate School, and Dr. Nguyen Thuy Nga, Dean of the Faculty Foreign languages. Your hard work and supports for the Conference are highly valuable. Without your assistance, the conference might not work well.

Last but not least, I take this chance to express my thanks to Mai Minh Tien, Dr. Tran Quoc Thao and all the staff for your dedication and time to help run all the major work successfully.

Pham Vu Phi Ho, PhD
Vice president of AsiaCALL
Coordinator of MA Program in TESOL
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KEYNOTE SPEAKER

EFL Classroom and Translanguaging



Prof. Joseph Foley

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Abstract

This paper highlights how translanguaging can be used in the language classroom and considers its value in an educational context. Translanguaging is an umbrella term which is more than hybrid 'languaging', such as code-switching and code-mixing. It involves an individual's full range of linguistic repertoire to convey meaning. Creese and Blackledge (2010) describe translanguaging as a fluid linguistic tool that is shaped according to the socio-cultural and historical environment where the communication is being practiced.

The focus of this paper is about the way 'languaging' can be used to empower students by understanding how in the classroom, choice shapes language and language choice.

Since education is regarded as one of the main phases for change, having some degree of control over more than one language is a major factor in the acquisition of knowledge. Examples of translanguaging will be given to support the fact that this 'languaging' process is quite natural in society.

The use of translanguaging in the classroom therefore, has a major role to play in changing how teachers and students view 'language' not as separate and parallel forms of learning languages but as making up the students complete language repertoire.



HO CHI MINH CITY OPEN UNIVERSITY

THE 4TH TESOL CONFERENCE 2016

TEACHING METHODOLOGY AND LEARNING OUTCOMES IN HO CHI MINH CITY

CONFERENCE PROGRAM

| Time | EVENT | | | |
|------------------|---|---|---|---|
| 8:00' – 8:15' | REGISTRATION | | | |
| 8:15' – 8: 25' | OPENING CEREMONY | | | |
| 8:25' – 8:55' | Keynote 1 (R.601): Prof. Dr. Joseph Foley , The Graduate School of English, Assumption University, Bangkok, Thailand. Title: EFL CLASSROOM AND TRANSLANGUAGING | | | |
| 8:55' – 9: 25' | Keynote 2 (R.601): Dr. Luu Trong Tuan , The Graduate School of English, HCMC Open University, Vietnam. Title: TRANSLATION-INTERPRETATION METHODOLOGY | | | |
| 9.25' – 9.40' | COFFEE BREAK | | | |
| | Session 1 (R. 601) RESEARCH STREAM <u>Moderator:</u> <i>Dr. Huynh Cong Minh Hung</i> | Session 2 (R.505) TEACHING SPEAKING SKILLS <u>Moderator:</u> <i>Bui Do Cong Thanh</i> | Session 3 (R.506) LANGUAGE LEARNING STRATEGIES <u>Moderator:</u> <i>Tran Vu Diem Thuy</i> | Session 4 (R.604) TEACHING MODELS <u>Moderator:</u> <i>Dr. Tran Quoc Thao</i> |
| | Session 1 (R. 601) | Session 2 (R.505) | Session 3 (R.506) | Session 4 (R.604) |
| 10:05' – 10: 25' | Translanguaging in Child Second Language | In my Phonetics and Phonology class, you need | The Effects of Self-regulated Learning Strategy on Non- | Improving English Majored-Students' Learning Outcomes |

| | | | | |
|-----------------|---|---|--|---|
| | Acquisition: A Case Study of an Intercultural Family in Vietnam <i>Dr. Cao Thi Quynh Loan</i> | to talk and ask, students! <i>Dao Nguyen Anh Duc</i> | English majors' Oral Communication Performance at Bach Viet College <i>Le Thi Thu Dan</i> | via the Inclusion of Entrepreneurship Education and Training at the Tertiary Level in Vietnam <i>Chu Quang Phe</i> |
| 10:30' – 10:50' | Teacher-Learner Interactions in the Realization of Learner-Centeredness in IELTS Writing Classes <i>Nguyen Xuan Minh</i> | Ứng Dụng Phương Pháp Dạy Học Theo Nhiệm Vụ Trong Giảng Dạy Môn Nói Tiếng Trung Quốc <i>Luu Hon Vu</i> | An Investigation into English-major Freshman's Passive Attitude in Learning English Listening and Speaking 1 <i>Nguyen T.A. Tho, Mai T. Chung, Nguyen T.H. Giang, Nguyen T.N. Phuc, and Nguyen M.N. Phu</i> | The Changes to Boost the Young Learner Classroom at ACET HCMC <i>Bui Y Nhi</i> |
| 10:55' – 11:15' | Types of Peer Feedback in Text and Voice Chat <i>Do Thi Ha</i> | The Obstacles of Students in English Speaking Skill and the Ultimate Solutions of Teachers in English Speaking Class <i>Nguyen Chau Bich Tuyen</i> | Demand High Learning: From 'covering material' to deep practice <i>Mai Minh Tien</i> | Teachers' Use of Facebook to Motivate Vietnamese Students to Improve their English Language Learning <i>La Thanh Triet</i> |
| 11:20' – 11:40' | Errors Help the Ninth-graders in Vietnam Acquire Sentence Transformation <i>Truong Van Anh</i> | A Review of Designing End-Of-Term Speaking Tests for English Major Students at Ho Chi Minh City Open University <i>Doan Kim Khoa</i> | | |
| 11:40' – 12:00 | Professor Dr. Patrick Chura: Literature in Language Teaching CLOSING | | | |

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The Expertise-Reversal Effect in Reading Comprehension: A Case of English as a Foreign Language

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Abstract

Cognitive load theory uses human cognitive architecture to develop instructional procedures. The theory assists researchers to design instructional procedures that can lead to improvements in reading skills. The aim of the paper is to examine cognitive load effect such as expertise reversal effect in reading comprehension of English as Foreign Language (EFL) learners. The expertise reversal effect occurs when instructional procedures that facilitate learning for novices become relatively less effective as levels of expertise increase. An experiment was designed to investigate whether the expertise reversal effect applied to reading comprehension with EFL learners. Novice and expert participants were used. In the experiment participants received one of the two instructional text formats: reduced and expanded versions. Results of the experiment indicated that the effectiveness of reading comprehension depended on levels of participants' expertise. For novices, the expanded version was superior while for experts, the reduced version was superior. Appropriate reading instructions that facilitate learning with novice readers can have negative results with expert readers. Hence the use of expanded and reduced versions of text may be very useful in improving reading comprehension depending on the expertise of the learners. The implications of the findings from the experiment can be used in teaching and learning reading comprehension. The findings will assist instructors to design more

appropriate reading comprehension instructions with alternative versions and to integrate different domains such as English for Geography and History effectively in reading comprehension.

Keywords: reading comprehension, cognitive load theory, expertise reversal effect.

Introduction and Literature Review

In learning a foreign language, reading is one of four skills, namely, reading, writing, speaking, and listening. Slater and Burch (2001) found that language instructions have encouragement of a functional approach to language learning that develop learners' competence in four skills. Reading comprehension is considered as a process having information from context and connects different elements into a new whole (McNeild, 1987). The aim of this process is to obtain one's existing knowledge to interpret text for comprehension (McNeild, 1987). Clarke (1979) showed differences between mother tongue (first language – L1) reading and foreign language (second language- L2) reading. Their differences are difficult for L1 learners to comprehend L2 reading and English as a second language (ESL) reading theory will assist L1 learners facilitate L2 reading comprehension (Carrell, 1983, Goldman, Varma, & Cote, 1996). This theory focused top down and bottom up approach in L2 reading comprehension of text with common knowledge as top down approach and with linguistic structures as bottom up approach (Goldman, 1967). The interactive models that are based on the connection between top down and bottom up approaches make ESL reading more intelligible, precise and logical (Eskey & Grabe, 1988). Although the interactive models include both top down and bottom up processing, bottom up processing plays a crucial role in ESL reading comprehension (Eskey & Grabe, 1988), because bottom up processing assists learners understand vocabulary and grammar in comprehending ESL reading texts (Carrell, 1987).

Cognitive load theory is concerned with the process of ESL reading comprehension that is appropriate for the schema theory (Barlett, 1932; Anderson, 1977; Adams & Collins, 1977; Rumelhart & Ortony, 1977; Slater & Varney- Burch, 2001). In this theory, schemas are defined as

memory constructs (Rumelhart & Ortony, 1977) that are classified as data structures in relation with memory becoming substantial concepts for comprehension processes (Rumelhart & Ortony, 1977). Like the interactive models in the ESL reading there are two modes of processes in the schema theory: top down and bottom up (Rumelhart & Ortony, 1977; Rumelhart, 1980). In the schema theory, reading comprehension is defined when a process of constraints of a limited working memory occurs (Eskey & Grabe, 1988), because working memory in reading comprehension is limited and when working memory goes over limitation, reading comprehension will be more difficult for learners (Goldman, Varma, & Cote, 1996). More specifically, Carrell (1988) explained some causes interfering reading process or schema theory as schema availability, schema activation, and skill deficiency. Schema availability occurs when learners lack knowledge to comprehend reading with top down. Schema activation may cause difficult in reading because they are not activating. The last cause is skill deficiency that makes learners hard in reading process. It can be showed that working memory plays a very important role not only in reading comprehension but also in ESL reading comprehension (Koda, 1992).

Another cause of being difficult in reading comprehension is levels of learners, as Daneman and Carpenter (1983) and Perfetti (1985) stated that low level learners who do not have enough automation of schemas in reading comprehension may generate increased cognitive load. As a result, McCutchen (2000) considered that automation of schemas helps learners overcome the limitation of working memory. L2 reading comprehension is more cognitively demanding than L1 reading comprehension (Berquist, 1997), then there are some cognitive load effects occurring in L2 reading comprehension, especially, in EFL reading comprehension. Yeung, Jin, and Sweller (1998) examined some cognitive load effects in EFL reading comprehension as split attention and redundancy effects in passage comprehension. Yeung et al. (1998) showed that it is not necessary for high level readers to use the separate list of vocabulary definitions in passage comprehension. Obviously, an interaction between level of expertise and cognitive effects in reading comprehension has been examined by Yeung et al. (1998), Kalyuga and Renkl (2010), Oksa, Kalyuga, Chandler (2010). Level of expertise plays a very important role in considering what

information is appropriate to readers (Chi & Glasser, 1985). Differences between experts and novices are explained by using level of expertise (Chi, Feltovich, & Glasser, 1981; Reinann & Chi, 1989). Furthermore, the level of expertise may effect instructions, and then the interaction between levels of learners' prior knowledge and effectiveness of instructions is investigated (Kalyuga & Renkl, 2010). A cognitive effect is so called as expertise reversal effect when instructions that are useful for novice learners may be not beneficial to more expert learners (Kalyuga, Ayres, Chandler, & Sweller, 2007). This effect is examined not only in many areas, as in natural science, e.g. Mathematics, but also in well-structured domain, e.g. literacy text (Kalyuga & Renkl, 2010). In literary text, McNamara, Kintsch, Songer, Kintsch's (1996) used biology texts in high school for the experiments. Their results showed that adding more information in original instructional text was effective for novice readers; however, expert readers were beneficial to original instructional text (McNamara, Kintsch, Songer, 1996). Using two kinds of text such as coherent text and explanatory text in two experiments, McNamara et al. (1996) investigated interactions among global and local text coherence; as a result, "*minimal coherent text*" was also useful for experts. While McNamara et al. (1996) used biology text, Oksa et al. (2010) used Shakespearean text in order to differentiate instructional effectiveness of Modern English explanatory interpretations of Shakespearean play extracts. Oksa et al. (2010) found that novices find it difficult to comprehend the text because the text was used by the sophisticated Elizabethan English language; moreover extraneous cognitive load was generated by glossaries and footnotes added to the text.

ESL reading text may be quite different from English scientific text used in McNamara et al. (1996) or literary text used in Oksa et al. (2010) because based on the second language acquisition, the process moves from the L1 reading to ESL (L2) reading. Comprehension of EFL text may be depended on two factors such as English levels and content of text.

Experiment

This Experiment was a preliminary experiment designed to investigate whether the expertise reversal effect as a cognitive effect occurs in ESL/ EFL reading comprehension for both novices and experts. The Experiment tested the hypothesis that reduced and expanded versions of an original text would affect novices and experts. The reduced version would be effective for experts and ineffective for novices. This Experiment was conducted in order to confirm the results from Experiments conducted by McNamara, Kintsch, Songer, Kintsch's (1996); however, target population in the Experiment consisted of Vietnamese students at University and a target text was an instructional geography text composed for the Vietnamese students at the department of Geography.

Also, the Experiment used the techniques suggested by Paas and Van Merriënboer (1993), which measured learners' perceived difficulty in comprehension and the relative efficiency of reading instructions and using both performance and effort scores (Yeung, Jin, Sweller, 1997). In this Experiment, participants were required to respond on a 9-point scale with points varying from 1 "*very very easy*" to 9 "*very very difficult*". Paas and Van Merriënboer (1993) found that these techniques have been a reasonable means to estimate instructional efficiency.

Method

Participants

120 Vietnamese students included 60 students studying at the department of Geography and 60 students studying at the department of Mathematics, Hochiminh City University of Education. Their English of proficiency was quite different, because the students have studied English for specific purposes (ESP), as English for Geography in the department of Geography and English for Mathematics in the department of Mathematics. The participants were divided into two groups: expert group and novice group. The expert group consisted of 60 students at the department of Geography, because materials used in this Experiment was a geographical text that required them to have

appropriate English proficiency in Geography. The novice group also included 60 students at the department of Mathematics. They were novices because they were not familiar to the materials used in the Experiment. Both experts and novices were randomly divided assigned to four groups (reduced and expanded version groups for both)

Materials

The Geographical text entitled “What killed the dinosaurs?” extracted from the book “Earth Science” (Feather R.M., Snyder S.L., 1993) An original text (124 words) was used as an instructional text. A reduced version included a text in which some sentences were removed from the original text. For example, the first and the second sentences were connected by replacing the phrase “*the collision threw*” with “*throwing*”. Last sentence in each paragraph in the original text was removed. Then, the reduced version included only 60 words.

An expanded version consisted of adding seven sentences in the reduced version to explain more the dinosaur extinction. The length of the expanded version was 237 words.

Procedure

Experts and novices were randomly allocated to one of the two versions (reduced and expanded versions). Prior to reading, participants were required to answer pretext questions, as multiple choice questions. The pretext questions were used to evaluate the prior background level of participants. The pretext multiple choice questions consisted of 6 questions. There were two phases: the learning and test phases. In the learning phase, participants were required to read two versions and answer the questions in 12 minutes (2 minutes/ per question). A clock was used to indicate the time remaining.

After the learning phase, participants were given the test questions. They were required to answer the test questions without the text being present. There were 5 questions, 2 of which were identical to 5 of the questions presented during the learning phase for two versions. The 2 identical questions were: *When did the last species of dinosaurs become extinct? How long had species of dinosaurs dominated the land?.* These 2 questions were chosen because they were basic to an

understanding of both versions.

After the learning phase, participant ranked the difficulty subjective score from 1 (very very easy) to 9 (very very difficult).

The duration of the test phase was 10 minutes (2 minutes per each question).

Scoring

For pretext questions, each choice was scored “1” (correct) or “0” (incorrect). For both phases, one mark was given for a correct answer and a score of “0” was given for an incorrect answer. An incorrect answer included wrong choice or lack key words for a correct answer. The maximum total score was 6 scores in the learning phase and 5 scores in the test phase. All scores were converted to proportion correct in this and the subsequent experiments.

Results

The questions scores were analyzed by a 2 (instructional text versions: reduced and expanded version) x 2 (expert and novice groups). An analysis of variance (ANOVA), including the between subjects factor of text (reduced, and expanded versions) and the within subjects factor of learning and test phases, was conducted on reading comprehension. The 0.05 significance level was used throughout this paper.

Pretext scores indicated the superiority of the experts than the novices, as expected, the experts ($M= 4.00$, $SD= .883$) had better prior knowledge than those of novices ($M= 1.83$, $SD= 1.005$), thus there was a significant difference between the experts and novices, $F(1, 118)= 154.885$, $MSE= .895$, $p<.001$.

Table 1 showed the mean percentages and standard deviations of correct answers in the learning and test phases. There was a significant difference between the two groups $F(1, 116)= 225.5$, $MSE= 151.01$; indicating that the expert group yielded superior scores. Similarly, there was also a significant effect for the two phases $F(1,116)= 8.4$, $sig.= .004$ and two versions $F(1,116)= 31.7$, $p< .001$, indicating that the

learning phase yielded significantly different results than the test phase, and the reduced version differed significantly than the expanded version. A significant interaction occurred between groups and versions $F(1,116) = 74.9, p < .001$. Following the significant interaction, simple main effects tests indicated that in the learning phase, for the expert group, the reduced version led to higher mean scores than those of the expanded version and the reduced version differed significantly than the expanded version $F(1,116) = 34.061, p < .001$; Also for the novice group in the learning phase, the expanded version did not differ significantly than the reduced version $F(1,116) = 1.551, sig = .215$. In the test phase, the simple main effects tests showed that for the expert group the reduced version had significantly higher mean scores than those of the expanded version $F(1,116) = 93.9, sig = .000$, also for the novice group, the expanded version was more significant than the reduced version, $F(1,116) = 4.16, p = .044$.

Table 2 indicated the means and standard deviations of the students' effort scores. A similar 2 x 2 ANOVA was conducted using the effort scores. The main effect of groups was significant $F(1,116) = 22.5, p < .001$. The main effect of the groups \times versions was significant $F(1,116) = 18.7$.

According to Paas and Van Merriënboer (1993), an efficiency score was generated by using the difference between the z score of performance and the z score of effort. The means and standard deviations of the efficiency scores are also presented in Table 2. The main effect of groups was significant, $F(1,116) = 23.7, p = .000 < .05$ due largely to the difference in efficiency for novices and experts, however the main effect of versions was non-significant, $F(1,116) = 2.82, p = .09$ and the groups \times versions interaction was significant $F(1,116) = 6.72, p = .011$

Discussion

As expected, the results showed that in both phases, the expert group was significantly better than the novice group. There was a significant interaction between the two groups and the two versions. The experts might have better English proficiency in Geography; they were

provided enough English terms in Geography. Thus, the experts were able to find an answer to the question quickly. In contrast, novices may have spent much more time reading and finding answers to the questions, because their English proficiency was not enough to answer all questions. As a result, novices were more difficult to answer questions in the learning phase.

Furthermore, in the learning phase, participants may have answered significantly better than those in the test phase, because in the test phase participants were not able to look at the text to find key words to answer the questions. Their working memory, as mentioned above, was limited, they could not remember totally the content of each version to answer the questions. Moreover, in the learning phase, the results revealed that the expanded version of the novices did not significantly outperformed the novices' reduced version because the novices with lower prior background knowledge were not able to get enough schemata to comprehend both versions, although in the expanded version more information was added, the novices still found difficult comprehending because of limited time (2 minutes/ per question). In the test phase, the expanded version was quite useful for the novices while this version was significantly different from the reduced version, because the novices who read the expanded version in the learning phase may remember and had enough schemata to answer the questions in the test phase without the text being present.

Results showed the expertise reversal effect between two versions. According to McNamara, Kintsch, Songer, and Kintsch's (1996), the different versions of text depended on the level of expertise. In the Experiment, the expanded version that helped effectively novices comprehend its content exerted the opposite effect on experts. Some added sentences in the expanded version were redundant that generate extraneous cognitive load for the experts. In contrast, novices lacked suitable schemas that generated extraneous cognitive load while reading the reduced version.

Mental efforts scores showed a significant interaction (group x version) due largely to the superiority of level of expertise in each version associated with differences in reading comprehension. Instructional efficiency scores indicated a significant interaction due largely to the superiority of the experts in the reduced version associated with differences in reading comprehension.

TABLE 1: Means and Standard deviations of 2 groups in 2 phases
(in percentage) in the Experiment

| Phase | Group | Version | Mean | Std. Deviation | N |
|----------------------|--------------------|---------------|-----------|-------------------|------|
| Learning | expert group | Expanded | 51.6 | 25.6 | 30 |
| | | Reduced | 77.7 64.6 | 11 | 30 |
| | novice group | Total | 37.7 32.1 | 23.5 15.1 | 60 |
| | | Expanded | 34.9 44.6 | 13.8 | 30 |
| | Total | Expanded | 54.9 | 14.6 | 30 |
| | | Reduced | | 22 | 30 |
| | | Total | | 26 | 60 |
| | | Expanded | | | 60 |
| | | Reduced | | | 60 |
| | | Total | 49.8 | 24.5 | 120 |
| Testing 30 | expert group | Expanded | | 44 | 19.2 |
| | | Reduced 30 | | 82 | 12.1 |
| | | Total 60 | | 63 | 24.9 |
| | novice group 30 | Expanded | | 29.3 | 13.6 |
| | | Reduced 30 | | 21.3 | 14.7 |
| | | Total 60 | | 25.3 | 14.6 |
| | Total 60 | Expanded | | 36.6 | 18.1 |
| | | Reduced 60 | | 51.6 | 33.4 |
| | | Total 120 | | 44.1 | 27.7 |

TABLE 2: Effort and relative instructional efficiency in the Experiment

| Group | Version | Effort | | Efficiency | |
|---------------|----------|--------|-------|------------|---------|
| | | Mean | SD | Mean | SD |
| Expert | Expanded | 5.53 | 0.937 | .0520 | 1.18703 |
| | Reduced | 4.83 | 0.648 | .8025 | .83503 |
| | Total | 5.18 | 0.837 | .4273 | 1.08561 |
| Novice | Expanded | 5.60 | 1.102 | -.3472 | .82794 |
| | Reduced | 6.27 | 0.691 | -.5074 | .95412 |
| | Total | 5.93 | 0.972 | -.4273 | .88933 |
| Total | Expanded | 5.57 | 1.015 | -.1476 | 1.03442 |
| | Reduced | 5.55 | .982 | .1476 | 1.17745 |
| | Total | 5.56 | .994 | .0000 | 1.07729 |

General Discussion and Conclusion

The present study found that reading instructions used by different level learners could yield expertise reversal effect. The results of the Experiment indicated a superiority of reduced version for experts and expanded version for novice. Using novice readers in the Experiment, the expanded version facilitated reading comprehension by adding more necessary information. Adding necessary information may help novices to activate schemata better. In contrast, the experts used in the Experiment did not need more information in the process of reading comprehension; the experts have had enough background information to comprehend the reduced version. The reduced version was comprehended better than the expanded version, because in the expanded version adding more information was redundant and led to an extraneous cognitive load. The significant interaction between the two groups and the two versions in the Experiment indicated that the interaction between the versions and the students' expertise occurred by reverse directions. The results seem to indicate that the expanded version did not enhance reading comprehension for experts, but the reduced version may enhance comprehension for experts, because as mentioned above, experts were equipped with more sophisticated schemas for reading comprehension.

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Translanguaging in Child Second Language Acquisition: A Case Study of an Intercultural Family in Vietnam

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Abstract

This paper argues that translanguaging (García and Baetens Beardsmore, 2009) can be conceived of as a method bilingual children can employ in their bilingual practice, especially where their parents are from different cultures. Translanguaging functions as bilinguals' selection of linguistic and cultural resources available to them to realise their communicative intentions. My data are taken from a longitudinal investigation of the request realization of a bilingual child in her spontaneous interactions with her Vietnamese mother and her European-American father over a period of approximately eleven months. In spite of language-specific differences between Vietnamese and American English, the two languages provide a similar range of linguistic and cultural resources for the child to draw on to realise her communicative intentions. My findings suggest that translanguaging can be perceived as an inclusive means of bilinguals.

Keywords: translanguaging; child second language acquisition; requests; multivocality; identity

Note: This is part of the author's thesis at La Trobe University for her Doctor of Education entitled "Features of English and Vietnamese request strategies in a bilingual child".

Introduction

Our contemporary situation is marked by the unprecedented mobility of the world's populations with subsequent diverse problems of adjustment. This has resulted in a significantly increased need to communicate across national borders and between different cultural groups. A key feature of intercultural communication is translanguaging (García and Baetens Beardsmore, 2009). This bilingual practice is further elaborated into translanguaging theory (García and Wei, 2014a). García and Wei (2014c: 22) posit that “bilinguals have *one linguistic repertoire* from which they select features *strategically* to communicate effectively.” From this translanguaging lens, my paper is outlined as follows: I begin with a selective and relevant review of translanguaging in relationship with child second language acquisition, multivocality and identity, with a particular focus on request realization by a bilingual child in an intercultural family context. Then, I describe and discuss two examples in which this child used translanguaging in her spontaneous interactions with her parents to display her positionings (intentions). This paper concludes with some implications for future research.

Background

Translanguaging in child second language acquisition

Child second language acquisition (child SLA) stems from the view of childhood bilingualism as a continuum rather than the classic dichotomy of simultaneous and successive. Thus, child SLA can be differentiated from both bilingual first language acquisition and adult second language acquisition (Montrul, 2008; Nicholas and Lightbown, 2008; Philp, Mackey and Oliver, 2008). The differentiation lies in the acquisition of Language and a particular language in bilingual first language acquisition, on the one hand, and the acquisition only of a particular language in adult second language acquisition, on the other. Consequently, in the case of child SLA, bilingual children translanguage between their two linguistic repertoires as they socialize

to “learn how to behave in a way that is acceptable to the other members” (Harris, 2006: 183) of their two cultural worlds.

My study examined my daughter, Pumpkin, who is mixed European-American and Vietnamese. My family has lived in Ho Chi Minh City, Vietnam since Pumpkin was born. In my family, my husband and I speak English to each other (my husband has basic Vietnamese abilities). For the first two years of Pumpkin’s life, my husband spoke Vietnamese to her. She was visited by her paternal grandfather twice: when she was 0;5 (year; month) and 2;0 for three weeks each time. After her grandfather’s second visit, we have practiced OPOL (one parent one language) with Pumpkin. At first, English was exclusively associated with Daddy’s language for Pumpkin, and she would not admit the fact that Mommy could speak English. Only after her visit to the US when she was 3;11 for three weeks did she acknowledge that Mommy can speak some English. She also code-switches when changing from conversing with Asian people to conversing with Caucasian people. She speaks Vietnamese to Asian people and English to Caucasian people. She feels inhibited when Vietnamese people ask her to teach them English and usually hides behind my back. From time to time, she asks me how to say some words in English, but never talks to me in English, unless her father is present.

In Pumpkin’s particular case, Vietnamese is her majority language (Parsons’ (2005) term) since it is spoken in her environment, part of her school language and is her first and also her mother’s language. English is her minority language, since it is part of her school language (only in the classroom setting) and is her father’s language, but for less time each day than with her mother. Therefore, the two languages under examination are Vietnamese and American English which are bound up with two cultures quite differently shaped (Nguyễn, 2008).

Multivocality and identity

According to García and Wei (2014c: 39), multivocality refers to “the multiplicities of meanings of multilingual utterances.” Translanguaging constructs “the social space within the multilingual user that makes it possible to go between different linguistic structures and beyond them. It is *the speakers*, not the space, who are in control of the language

performance (ibid).

Pumpkin's translanguaging practice can be seen as part of her identity formation associated with her entering the various cultural situations that constitute her life. In her case, identities "should be perceived as negotiated and emergent in interpersonal communication" (Golden and Lanza 2013: 297). Identity is viewed as:

performed rather than as prior to language, as dynamic rather than fixed, as culturally and historically located, as constructed in interaction with other people and institutional structures, as continuously remade, and as contradictory and situational. (Benwell and Stokoe 2006: 138)

Pumpkin seems to have two main poles of her identities that are related to the two languages she speaks: the American pole of her identity that is associated with the English language, and the Vietnamese pole of her identity that is related to the Vietnamese language. Her varied identities seem to be negotiated as she manipulates her language(s) in varied but particular contexts. In order to find ways to explain Pumpkin's linguistic behavior, I'm going to use an intercultural pragmatic perspective, which is appropriate in this situation since two languages and their associated cultural behaviors are available to all participants (even if not equally) in most situations.

"Identity construction" (Golden and Lanza 2013: 295) is not an easy process for Pumpkin since she has to negotiate her identities in relationship to both her two parents whose identities are locally situated and constructed in no less complicated ways.

Requests

Children use language(s) to interact with multiple groups in society, such as their peers, families, teachers, and others (Bryant 2009, Harris 2006). In order to be able to communicate effectively, children need to learn to draw on language(s) for different purposes such as to ask questions, make requests, express opinions, apologize, refuse, joke, praise and so on. Among these pragmatic functions, requests are especially fascinating for the following reasons. First, requests are very common and important among language learners. It would be hard for learners to get along without performing requests. Second, requests

demonstrate the highly versatile nature of speech acts. Speakers can select among a variety of linguistic forms to express their intentions. Thus, request realizations can mirror speakers' pragmatic development. Third, requests have been fairly well-studied. Consequently, there is a solid framework to base further study upon. Last, it is believed that "requesting is close to being the prototype case of a social transaction" (Bruner et al. 1982: 93). Therefore, requests can give us some understanding of learners' acquisition of pragmatic competence.

Requests, in this paper, are defined inclusively (Becker, 1982). That is, requests are equivalent to the term 'directives' in Searle's (1976) speech act theory. In other words, requests can perform functions ranging from ordering, requesting, suggesting, begging, pleading, etc. There are different levels of directness available to speakers when they seek to make requests. The choices that are available to speakers help to constitute the culture associated with the language. So, in learning to make requests, children become socialized into a particular culture, which means that what they do and how they do it will ultimately become constrained by the particular cultural repertoire associated with the particular language. When a child is learning two languages at the same time, there is potential for the two cultures to be quite differently shaped, which seems likely to be the case for Vietnamese and English (Nguyễn 2008).

From García and Wei's (2014) translanguaging lens, bilinguals are capable "to shuttle between languages, treating the diverse languages that form their repertoire as an integrated system" (Canagarajah, 2011: 401). In the following part, I will describe and discuss two examples of translanguaging practices in our family on the same day, May 23, 2011: at meal and during play time.

Translanguaging in an intercultural family

In this part, I describe and discuss two examples of what Pumpkin did during meal time and play time on May 23, 2011. My unit of analysis is a request identifiable at an utterance level. For the purpose of this study, I adopted the simple definition of utterances as a "stretch of talk" (Hurford

and Heasley 1983: 15) bounded by pauses and/or constituting a single semantic unit (Crookes 1990: 187). All the requests in this study are given a notation such as [M-V-230511-1], or [F-E-230511-4]. The first letter shows the interlocutor to whom the request appeared to be directed, for example mother (M), or father (F). The next letter indicates whether the request was made in English (E), Vietnamese (V) or mixed (M). The context of the request is coded with numbers denoting the date of recording. For example, 230511 means the request was recorded on day 23 of May of the year 2011. The request number in the transcription follows the context. If the request was made a second time or third time, an additional number 2 or 3 is attached in the notation.

Example 1: at meal

- P: *cho con giật cái đó ra đi.* [M-V-230511-1]
{let me pull that out.}
(Pumpkin wants to pull a lid out of a juice box.)
- M: *để chút nữa mẹ dỡ ra cho. coi chừng.*
{I will do it later. be careful.}
- P: *được thêm một cái nắp nữa rồi.*
{I got another lid.}
(Pumpkin opens a new juice box, so that she can have the lid of the old one.)
- M: *con coi chừng.*
{you watch out.}
- P: *sợ nhất là giật cái này ra luôn đó.*
{pulling this out is very scary.}
- M: *thôi đưa đây mẹ giựt cho .. để tay sạch ăn cơm.*
{let me pull it out.. keep your hands clean to eat.}
- P: *mới nặng quá nên con phải cầm hai tay.*
{it's new so heavy that's why I have to hold with two hands.}
- M: *ừ/ mà coi chừng.*
{yes/ but be careful.}
- P: *ối.*
{ouch.}
- G: *nặng lắm (xxx).*

- {very heavy.}
- P: (singing) (*tò..tí..tí..tò..tí..tí....*)
cái muỗng này giành cho cái gì vậy?
 {what is this spoon for?}
- M: *để cho con múc cái cơm đó đó.*
 {for you to get that rice.}
sợ là con - có cơm cứng con thích.
 {think that you - there is hard rice that you like.}
- F: you got food?
- P: yes../ I../ already ate.
- F: thank you. oh/ one glass....
 (remarking that there is only one glass of juice for Pumpkin.)
- P: (laughing)
- F: am I supposed to drink at the little table over there?
- P: hah?
- F: am I supposed to drink over there and eat over here?
- P: (laughing) no.
- F: oh/ ok/ good. [thank you lord for this food].
- P: [thank you lord for this food].
- M: *sao hôm nay tự nhiên lại thèm bơ đậu phộng?*
 {why today in the mood for peanut butter?}
- P: *um/ con vét cho hết luôn.*
 {uh/ I clean the jar.}
con hết vét được rồi đó. [M-V-230511-2]
 {I cannot clean it anymore.}
- M: *thì thôi.*
 {it's ok.}
- P: *mẹ/ nếu mẹ vét được thì mẹ cho con nha. [M-V-230511-3-2]*
 {mommy/ if you can get something out of that jar, give it to me.}
- M: *chắc mẹ không - chưa có thời giờ vét đâu.*
 {maybe I don't - haven't got time to do that yet.}
- P: *cơm cứng đây rồi.*
 {here is hard rice.}

- M: *ăn vừa vừa. (laughing) thấy - ăn cơm cứng thôi.*
 {don't eat too much. see - don't eat too much hard rice.}
 do you want the/ cranberries? (to the father)
- F: huh? no thanks.
- P: **don't eat the craisins.** [F-E-230511-4]
 if you eat them/ you'll be crazy!
- F: too late.
- P: why?
- F: I'm already crazy.
- M: already ate it/ or already crazy?
- P: (laughing)

In this stretch of conversation, Pumpkin used English with her father and Vietnamese with me. The code-switch that occurred in this context was associated with the change of the intended addressee of the utterance. There are four requests identified in this excerpt: three in Vietnamese and one in English (in bold). On that day, Pumpkin was in the mood for peanut butter. However, there was not much peanut butter left in the jar. To respond to my remark about her craving for peanut butter, she first said that she would clean the jar. Then, she made an indirect request to ask me to help her get the remaining peanut butter out of the jar ([M-V-230511-2]). When her first request was not complied with, she made a repeated request ([M-V-230511-3-2]) directed at me again with the same purpose. Yet, her repeated request was not complied with either, since I had to attend to other things such as serving food for my mother, so Pumpkin turned her attention to getting hard rice. In this case, I coded the requests according to the language they were made in, plus included a number to indicate that it was a repeated request.

Code-switching is a particular form of translanguaging. Code-switching refers to “the child’s change of the language of interaction” and the change can be “within an utterance or between utterances” (Rontu 2007: 339). Below is another extract, also on May 23, 2011 when Pumpkin asked my husband and me to play a card game that she had invented. It combined playing cards and throwing a ball. The rules to play that game were not very clear (I suspected they were not even clear to Pumpkin herself).

Example 2: during play time (playing cards)

P: **can we play bowl/ bowling cards?** [F-E-230511-64]

F: bowling cards?

M: (xxx).

P: **I ask can we?** [F-E-230511-65-2]

F: bowling cards?

P: **trong này con có ghi nè/ đọc đi.** [M-V-230511-66]

{I wrote in this/ read it.}

F: I haven't heard of bowling cards.

P: **mẹ đọc đi.** [RW-M-V-230511-67-2]

{mommy read it.}

bowling cards/ mẹ đọc phần bowling cards đi. [M-M-230511-68-3]

{bowling cards/ mommy read the bowling cards part.}

M: *đâu có đeo mắt kiếng đâu mà đọc.*

{I don't have my glasses, can't read.}

P: *đọc cho mà nghe nha.*

{I read it to you.}

mỗi người có hai lá/ người thua sẽ ném quả banh vào lá/ bài đã/ giúp mình.

{everybody has two cards/ the loser will throw the ball at the card that helped him/her.}

ý quên/ giúp mình/ thua - à đúng rồi/ con hiểu rồi.

{oh I forgot/ helped us lose - ah that's right/ I understand now.}

lá bài lớn/ hơn/ chỉ được/ ném một lần.

{the bigger card/ can throw only once.}

như vậy thôi/ rồi ghi date/ thứ bảy/ ngày 12 tháng 3 năm 2011.

{that's all/ then the date/ Saturday/ March 12, 2011.}

cái này là tờ cũ rồi/ con lấy ra để xem có game gì hay không đó.

{this is an old sheet/ I took it out to see whether there is any game.}

M: *ừ.*

{yes.}

- P: *bây giờ chơi bowling cards không?* [M-M-230511-69]
{now can we play bowling cards?}
- M: *đâu có biết chơi/ cũng chưa hiểu.*
{don't know how to play/ also not understand.}

In this interaction, there are six requests identified: two in English, two in Vietnamese, and two having both English and Vietnamese. The examples that are mixed are where the name of the game (designed in English) is incorporated into a Vietnamese request. In this case, there is at least one element from each of the two languages, that is why they are coded as mixed. The first request ([F-E-230511-64]) in English and the last one ([M-M-230511-69]) coded as mixed seem to have similar proposition and goal (joint activity) but are directed at different interlocutors (my husband and me respectively), that is why they are counted as two first requests. The third ([M-V-230511-66]), the fourth ([M-V-230511-67-2]) and the fifth ([M-M-230511-68-3]) requests in the extract have similar proposition, goal and are directed at the same addressee, me in this case, that is why the third request ([M-V-230511-66]) is counted as first request, the fourth ([M-V-230511-67-2]) and the fifth ([M-M-230511-68-3]) are repeated requests. A code-switch occurred between the fourth and the fifth requests. Pumpkin used only Vietnamese in the fourth while she used mixed elements in the fifth. Consequently, I coded the fourth as Vietnamese, and the fifth as mixed. All these requests need to be considered in sequential interactions to determine their communicative function and also the perceptions of different interlocutors from different cultural backgrounds.

Conclusion

As discussed above, in my family, translanguaging seems to be the “discursive norm” (García and Wei, 2014c: 23). Bilinguals can traslanguage “through complex communicative interactions” (García and Wei, 2014b: 16) to achieve their goal for communication. Since my husband’s Vietnamese practices are limited, English is the language of inclusion that Pumpkin employs when she wants to address both of her parents.

I hope that the findings of this paper in the field of intercultural communication within a family from the translanguaging approach can be extended to other research areas such as children’s intercultural perceived (im)politeness.

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An Intercultural Communicative Language Teaching Model for EFL Learners

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Abstract

There has been incremental attention to the intercultural communicative competence (ICC) which is identified as one of the key competencies for the twenty-first century citizens. This has entailed a radical shift of the ultimate goals in the ambience of English language education from training ESL/EFL learners to become native-like English speakers to educating ESL/EFL learners to become intercultural speakers with ICC who can function effectively and appropriately in multicultural situations. ESL/EFL educators in multifarious contexts, however, still do not acknowledge the importance of ICC in ELT and are still alien to the intercultural language education since they lack a framework for intercultural communicative language teaching (ICLT), resulting in the negligence of the incorporation of intercultural content into ELT. This paper, therefore, purports to present an ICLT model for EFL learners, apart from discussing the definitions of ICC and models of ICC development, which is an evidence-based model in the context of Vietnam. This paper, hopefully, will contribute its part to raising ESL/EFL educators' awareness of the importance of ICC in ELT and shed light on the inclusion of the teaching of intercultural content in ELT in Vietnamese context and other similar ones.

Keywords: ELT; intercultural communicative language teaching; intercultural communicative competence; model.

Introduction

The English language, due to its hegemony throughout the world, has become an international language, a lingua franca, or a world language, so educators in the ambiance of English language education have witnessed changes of ultimate goals in educating English language learners. Recently, the issue of the development of intercultural communicative competence (ICC) to ESL/EFL learners has been identified as one of the ultimate goals in the field of English language education (Byram, 1997; Chen & Starosta, 1999; Deardoff, 2009; Fantini, 2000; Lázár et al., 2007) in an attempt to present cultural differences which assist learners to be interculturally aware of their own culture and the presence of otherness as well as to appreciate and respect them. English language education, more importantly, should equip learners with the knowledge of intercultural communication and the ability to use it effectively can bridge cultural differences and achieve more harmonious, productive relations (Samovar, Porter & McDaniel, 2012).

It is, however, not always seen that the role of culture and intercultural communication in English language education is well acknowledged. Gonen and Saglam (2012) point out that “teachers in different classrooms in different parts of the world still ignore the importance of teaching culture as a part of language study” (p. 26). That is, teachers endeavor to promote only their learners’ language proficiency instead of endowing them with ICC in order to function effectively and appropriately in multicultural situations. The reasons underlying teachers’ ignorance of inclusion of culture and intercultural communication in English language education are that teachers are “more interested in practical aspects of communication” (Onalan, 2005, p. 217); teachers feel they do not have enough time to talk about cultural elements in their teaching practices due to the demanding curriculum (e.g., Gonen & Saglam, 2012; Hong, 2008); teachers do not know how to incorporate culture and intercultural communication into their lessons since they lack adequate training on how to incorporate culture into their teaching practices as well as how to measure learners’ IC and changes in their attitudes as a result of culture teaching (Gonen & Saglam, 2012); and most teachers have limited knowledge about intercultural communication (Sercu, 2005).

ICC, furthermore, is one of the key competences in the 21st century (Delors, 1996; Sudhoff, 2010; UNESCO, 2006), so it is widely agreed that one of the ultimate goals in language training programs is to educate learners to become intercultural speakers who can deal with linguistic and cultural complexity and take part in multicultural situations (Deardoff, 2009; Jæger, 2001). It is imperative, accordingly, that the development of ICC to EFL/ESL learners should be taken into serious consideration in English language training programs so as to assist English learners to become intercultural speakers who can function effectively and appropriately in the 21st century. This paper, hence, aims to present a developed intercultural communicative language teaching (ICLT) model to enhance EFL learners' ICC. Besides, it also discusses the definitions of ICC and introduces some models of ICC development, and suggests some implications in the context of Vietnam and other similar ones.

What is intercultural communicative competence?

It is noticed that a variety of terms has been used in intercultural communication such as ICC (e.g., Byram, 1997; Deardorff, 2009), intercultural competence (IC) (e.g., Fantini, 2001; Kim, 2009; Rathje, 2007; Sercu et al., 2005), intercultural communication competence (e.g., Chen & Starosta, 1999; Wiseman, 2002; Zaharna, 2009), multicultural competence (e.g., Pope & Reynolds, 1997), cross-cultural competence (e.g., Magala, 2005; Norhayati, 2000; Williams et al., 2009), and many of these terms have been interchangeably used. This paper, nevertheless, focuses mainly on the notion of ICC which is coined from the combination of IC and communicative competence (CC).

Byram (1997), among many scholars attempting to define the term of ICC, points out that ICC is an umbrella term that covers many components including linguistic competence, sociolinguistic competence, discourse competence, and IC. He further explains the term ICC is the ability which enables one to interact in a foreign language effectively and appropriately with people from different cultures. Chen and Starosta (1999), likewise, define intercultural communication (or communicative) competence as “the ability to effectively and appropriately execute communication behaviors that negotiate each other's cultural identity or identities in a culturally

diverse environment” (p. 28). Wiseman (2002), in another aspect, includes motivation as an additional element in his definition of ICC apart from knowledge and skills. This unique element, which is not commonly found in other definitions of ICC, is defined as “the set of feelings, intentions, needs and drives associated with the anticipation of or actual engagement in intercultural communication” (p. 4). He suggests these three elements are essential for effective and appropriate interaction in intercultural situations.

Based on different definitions, Lázár et al. (2007), an international team of experts involved in carrying out projects within the framework of the European Centre for Modern Languages, define ICC as “the ability to communicate effectively in cross-cultural situations and to relate appropriately in a variety of cultural contexts” (p. 9), which is used as a guideline for language teachers and teacher educators. This definition emphasizes two main components: skills and attitudes. The former involves development “in the areas of observation, interpreting and relating, mediation and discovery” (ibid., p. 9); the latter is “to increase respect, empathy and tolerance for ambiguity, to raise interest in, curiosity about, and openness towards people from other cultures, and to encourage a willingness to suspend judgment” (ibid., pp. 9-10).

From this brief aforementioned review of definitions of ICC and its constructs, it can be seen that due to the existence of various definitions and constructs of ICC, scholars have not yet reached a consensus on how ICC should be defined and what construct it should be composed of. Yet in this paper, ICC can be understood in the following terms:

ICC is the ability which enables one to effectively and appropriately interact in a language other than one’s native language with others from different linguistic and cultural backgrounds. It consists of language competence (linguistic, sociolinguistic, and discourse competence) and intercultural competence (attitudes, knowledge, skills, and awareness) that help one to be able to successfully integrate in a multicultural society.

(Tran, 2015, p. 30)

Models for Intercultural Communicative Competence Development

From different views on ICC, it is seen that various models of ICC have been proposed to address many aspects of ICC, representatively, model of ICC (Byram, 1997); IC model (Fantini, 2000); pyramid model of IC (Deardorff, 2006).

Byram's (1997) model of ICC is one of the most comprehensive frameworks to develop as well as evaluate learners' ICC in different contexts. In his ICC model (see Figure 1), Byram (1997) highlights that IC, which relates to other competences, namely linguistic competence, sociolinguistic competence and discourse competence, consists of five components such as attitudes, knowledge, skills of interpreting and relating, skills of discovery and interaction, and critical cultural awareness/political education. Based upon this model, he formulates specific educational objectives which are designed for language and culture learning and serve as guiding criteria to develop and assess learners' IC in the foreign language class. Those educational objectives are specific and detailed, but they do not specify the different levels of IC to be obtained at different stages through the process of education since he argues that establishing levels is quite problematic for the attitude factor.

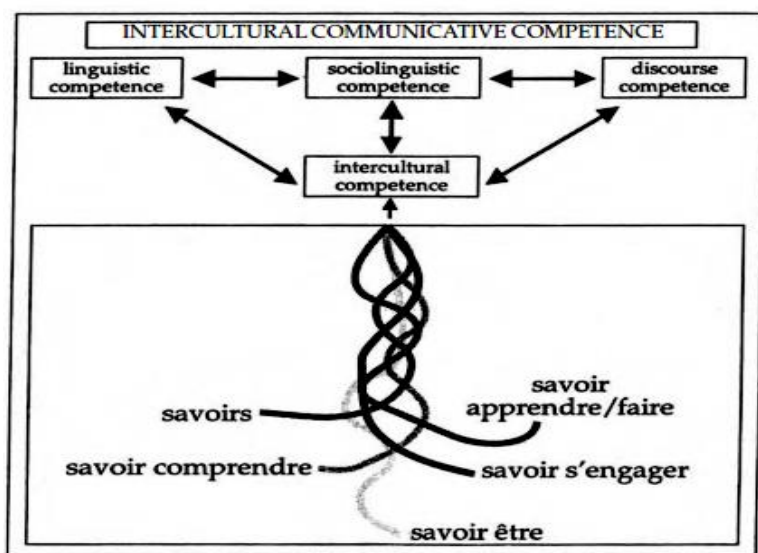
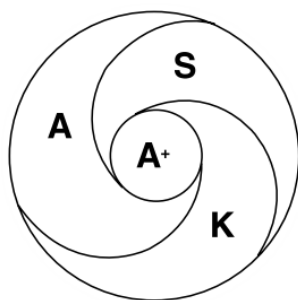


Figure 1. Model of ICC (Byram, 1997, p.73)

In respect of the Fantani's (2000) IC model (see Figure 2) which includes awareness, attitudes, skills, and knowledge, it is seen that this IC model is likely to overlap with Byram's (1997) intercultural components. Albeit the IC model does not include explicitly the element of language in the IC model, Fantini (1995) argues that proficiency in the host language plays an important part in enhancing one's IC. He adds that language education should focus more on intercultural aspects so that learners can develop "awareness, attitudes, skills, and knowledge that will make [them] better participants on a local and global level, able to understand and to empathize with others in new ways" (ibid., pp. 13-14). Fantani (2000), in another aspect, explains that awareness which refers to self-awareness and reflection leads "deeper cognition, skills, and attitudes just as it is also enhanced by their development" (p. 29). Awareness, in other words, helps to develop other components of IC while it simultaneously benefits from their development. Furthermore, he points out that the development of IC is an on-going and lifelong process inasmuch as one is always in the process of 'becoming' and is never completely interculturally competent. He emphasizes that although one may develop and expand one's competencies, new challenges always appear, and a good condition for one to develop their IC is the contact and experience with people of other languages and cultures in a positive setting.



Note. A+: Awareness; A: Attitudes; S: Skills; K: Knowledge

Figure 2. Fantani's IC Model (2000)

Regarding the Deardorff's (2006) pyramid model of IC, as seen from Figure 3, which is a research-based one, the pyramid model of IC has two other different elements of internal outcomes and external outcomes apart from three elements of attitudes, knowledge, and skills

as in Byram’s (1997) and Fantini’s (2000) models. All of these five elements are arranged in levels of the pyramid lower levels of which are the basis to enhance the higher ones.

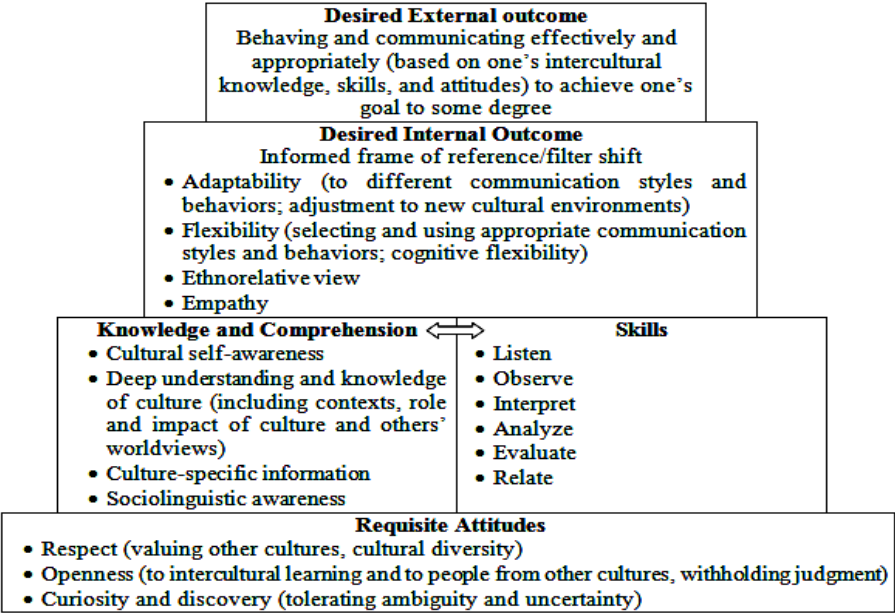


Figure 3. Deardorff’s Pyramid Model of Intercultural Competence (2006)

Deardorff (2006), however, develops another way to organize and display the data in the process model of IC, which contains the same elements as her pyramid model of IC. This process model of IC describes the complexity of acquiring IC from “attitudes and/or attitudes and skills/knowledge directly to the external outcome, but the degree of appropriateness and effectiveness of the outcome may not be nearly as high as when the entire cycle is completed and begins again” (ibid., p. 257).

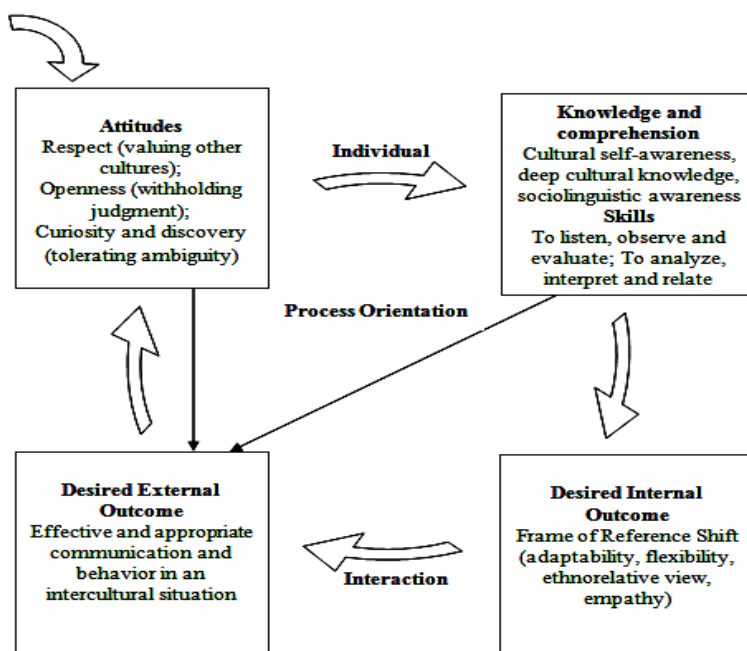


Figure 4. Deardorff's Process Model of Intercultural Competence (2006)

To sum up, although the three discussed models look different in shapes, they all have basic components such as intercultural knowledge, attitudes, and skills. Nonetheless, two of the three models, which are Byram's (1997) model of ICC and Fantani's (2000) model of IC, have another component in common that is intercultural awareness, and they illustrate that awareness is a vital element among intercultural elements (attitudes, knowledge, skills, and awareness) because it reflects other components, namely attitudes, knowledge, and skills.

Intercultural Communicative Language Teaching Model

In response to the needs to develop EFL learners' ICC in the context of Vietnam, a theoretical framework, which is an instructional design (ISD) model ADDIE with five stages (Analyze – Design – Develop – Implement – Evaluate) is employed as a guideline in order to construct the ICLT model for EFL learners. The ICLT model is an on-going process of ICC acquisition. There are three parts (Figure 5): Language-Culture, the main training process (*Input – Notice – Practice – Output*), and the ICC, which are systematically integrated. The second part is the main part consisting of four teaching steps to facilitate learners' ICC

development, and each step reflects a step of the knowledge scaffolding and constructing process to facilitate learners' ICC development.

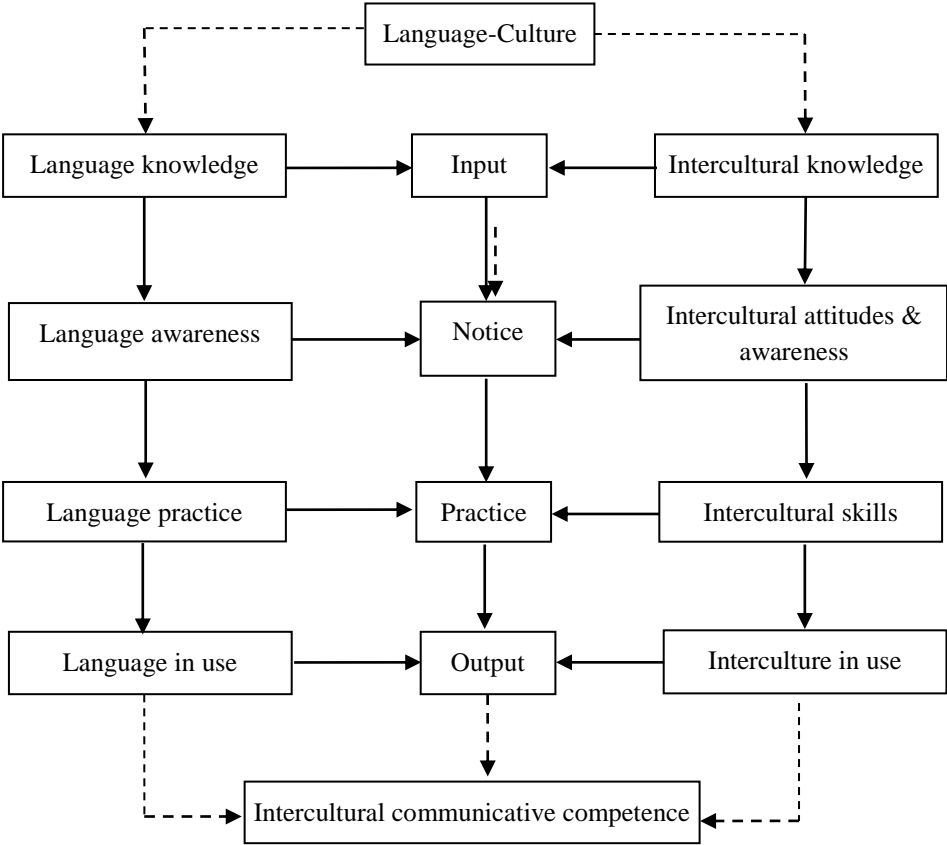


Figure 5. ICLT model (Tran, 2015, p. 205)

Language-Culture: This reflects the view of language and culture which is closely intertwined, and it is the foundation for the ICLT model.

Input: This teaching step is aimed at providing learners with language knowledge and intercultural knowledge by exposing learners to a wide range of authentic texts and sources (oral, written, and visual) about language and different cultures. The theory of Krashen's Comprehensible Input Hypothesis (Krashen, 1985) is embedded in this teaching step to increase learners' learning motivation by exposing learners to comprehensible input that is understandable but one step beyond their understanding.

Notice: Based on their previous knowledge of language and intercultural, learners are encouraged to notice and make comparisons between unfamiliar features with known ones. In addition, learners discuss the reasons for language and intercultural features as well as their personal response to those language and intercultural features. This teaching step, which is the next step of the knowledge scaffolding and constructing process, utilizes the theory of Schmidt's Noticing Hypothesis (Schmidt, 1995, 2001) to help to raise learners' language awareness and intercultural awareness and adjust their intercultural attitudes by exposing learners to more authentic learning tasks / activities so that they can attend to and notice unknown features of the input.

Practice: Learners have a variety of opportunities to practice short, supported and guided communicative tasks about elements of the new knowledge in the two previous teaching steps. Moreover, they have chances to practice using intercultural language strategies for communication in accordance to their language and cultural needs. The theory of Long's Interaction Hypothesis (Long, 1985, 1996) is employed in this teaching step foster learners' ICC development by assisting learners to make use of their previous comprehensible input to enhance their language skills (e.g., speaking, listening, reading, and reading) and intercultural skills (e.g., abilities to interpret the meanings in the target culture and relate them to one's own and to interact with people from different cultures).

Output: At this stage, learners are able to produce the earlier input features and reflect on their effectiveness and appropriateness. Furthermore, learners are able to explore further in the new language and intercultural features by trying out new forms, expressions, or strategies derived from the earlier input in actual language use through language and intercultural tasks (e.g., project, drama, presentation, etc.). The underlying learning theory is the theory of Swain's Output Hypothesis (Swain, 1995, 2000) which aims to raise learners' awareness of a gap in his/her learning process. This may trigger a new input for another process of the ICLT model as learners' output is a process rather than a product of their ICC learning.

Intercultural communicative competence: The ultimate goal of ICLT is to help learners to become intercultural speakers with ICC who can interact effectively and appropriately with others from different cultures.

Within this ICLT model, the arrows among the components indicate the sequence of the process, and the dotted arrows depict the interrelationship between the main part and the foundation and the ultimate goal of the ICLT process.

Since the ICLT model is ISD-based, the ICLT model has its strengths. The ICLT model, first, is designed based on the needs and goals in English language education in a specific context of Vietnam. The goal of the ICLT model is one of ultimate the goals set by English language education in the twenty-first century to educate learners to become intercultural speakers who can deal with linguistic and cultural complexity and take part in multicultural situations (e.g., Deardoff, 2009; Jæger, 2001). Second, the ICLT model is designed with a learner-centered approach, so it focuses on learners and their interactivities. Third, the ICLT model has three parts which indicate a long-term process of developing learners' ICC and can be used at different learning levels. The first part is the foundation of the model, which indicates the view of seeing the interrelationship between of language and culture. The second part is the teaching procedure with four teaching steps (*Input – Notice – Practice – Output*). These four teaching steps reflect an on-going process of developing learners' ICC. The last part indicates the ultimate goal of the model. All of three parts of the model are interdependent and interrelated. Last but not least, the ICLT model can help to change learners' perceptions of the ICLT positively and develop their ICC. Specifically, learners can know more about other cultures (Knowledge), adjust their attitudes to other cultures (Attitudes), be aware of cultural differences (Awareness), be able to function appropriately and effectively with people from other cultures (Skills), and communicate appropriately and effectively with others in a language other than their mother tongue (Language proficiency).

Conclusion

The ICLT model for EFL learners is evidence-based because it has been implemented in a real context and generated positive results in enhancing EFL learners' ICC. However, in order to make the ICLT happen in the Vietnamese context, there should be radical changes in teaching methodology which shifts its current approach to intercultural language approach. In order to assist EFL teachers to change their current teaching practice, there should be regular training sessions or

seminars relating to the new intercultural language practice so that teachers will gradually acknowledge the importance of integrating intercultural content into English language class, and they will understand the underlying reasons why they should change their current teaching approach to the intercultural language approach, for what purposes and with what benefits. In addition, the new intercultural language approach should be included in the teacher training programs so that the pre-service teachers will be aware of it, practice it, and be familiar with it before they will be able to apply it in the real teaching context. In addition, as agreed that learners play a significant role in the learning process (e.g., Rickinson, Lundholm & Hopwood, 2009; Wallace, 2015), learners should be both intrinsically and extrinsically motivated so that they can develop interest and positive attitudes to intercultural language learning. Moreover, as the acquisition process of ICC seems to be a long-life learning, so learners should be encouraged and motivated to be autonomous learners.

Furthermore, the chosen learning materials for ICLT should promote learners' ICC, and the content of the learning materials should be authentic, up-to-date, informative, and appropriate with learners' age and interest. What is more, English in the ASEAN context is an official language for business, so it is advisable that English textbooks used in ASEAN countries should be developed based on the view of intercultural language education, i.e., the learning of culture is explicitly embedded into the learning of language. Intercultural content in new English textbooks should focus on not only culture from English speaking countries but also other cultures around the world, especially diverse cultures of ASEAN community should be strongly emphasized, and both visible and invisible cultural content should be taken into equal account in new English textbooks.

Besides, policy makers, leaders, administrators, and relevant parties in the field should have action plans in order to foster EFL teachers' ICC as well. There should be more cultural exchange programs for EFL teachers to different countries, especially to ASEAN countries so that they would have more opportunities to experience language use and cultural differences so that they may develop their ICC. Intercultural language institutions / centers which are aimed at doing research on ICLT and assisting EFL teachers and learners to develop their ICC should be encouraged to be established.

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Types of Peer Feedback in Text and Voice Chat

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Abstract

The paper explores how non-native speakers of English gave each other feedback in two online communication modes. Six pairs of students participated in three spot-the-difference tasks using the text and voice chat. The data was analyzed and coded for Language-Related Episodes. The results show that students provided more diverse feedback in voice chat. Lexical triggers were not found in text chat, and less dynamic than spelling/phonological ones in voice chat. The task-based synchronous exchanges tend to encourage fluency rather than accuracy. They seemed to ignore each other's mistakes, focusing more on meaning than on form.

Keywords: Synchronous Computer-Mediated Communication (SCMC); peer feedback; Language-Related Episodes (LRE); information-gap tasks

Introduction

Traditionally, language learning used to take place in the classroom through face-to-face interaction between learners and teachers. These days, students are able to achieve their learning goals through the Internet, regardless of time and geographic boundaries (Swan, 2003). Thanks to the development of Internet technology, computer-mediated communication (CMC) has been integrated into language teaching and learning with two distinct formats: synchronous and asynchronous (Hines & Pearl, 2004). Synchronous computer-mediated communication (SCMC) resembles face-to-face conversation in that immediate responses are given to the interlocutors (Murray, 2000). SCMC can happen in such contexts as instant messengers, IRC

(Internet Relay Chat), and other online chat systems. Language functions used online are similar to those in face-to-face communications (Warschauer, 1997). Asynchronous CMC occurs in delayed time and does not require instant reactions, which is not the concern of this study.

Recent research suggests that SCMC is facilitative to second language acquisition (SLA) (Smith, 2003). Payne and Whitney's (2002) study reported a significant difference between the oral proficiency of a group that spent two of four hours of classroom time per week chatting, and a control group which did not have the chat session. The SCMC group demonstrated greater gains in oral proficiency than the control group thanks to slower pace and longer processing time compared to normal conversations (Lai & Zhao, 2006). Some other general positive effects of SCMC are to reduce interlocutors' anxiety and to motivate the use of target language, both of which promote communicative competence (Kern, 1995). It has been proved that the students who often stayed quiet in face-to-face discussions turned out to be much active in SCMC (Warschauer, 1996). The differences between text and voice chat (Do, 2015) also imply that each provides distinctive language learning opportunities. Therefore, further research is needed to shed some light on the impacts of online interaction on students' language production.

Literature Review

Language-focused peer feedback in SCMC

A research by Skehan (2003) has documented the positive effect of form-focused feedback on language acquisition within communicative contexts. Gass (1997) also argued that negotiation of meaning steered students' attention to linguistic form and they could receive feedback on their output, which is a condition for learning. Some recent studies suggest that CMC may promote language-focused peer feedback which involves language features such as pronunciation, spelling, vocabulary, grammar and discourse (Nation, 2007).

It has been claimed that lexical patterns cause the most difficulty in learners' interactions; phonological, morphological, and syntactic errors also contribute to miscommunication, but much less often than lexical confusion (Smith, 2003). On one hand, qualitative analysis by Jepson (2005) revealed that voice chat often focuses on correcting

pronunciation. Text chat, on the other hand, has been found to promote form-noticing (Lai & Zhao, 2006) and collaborative dialogue (Zeng & Takatsuka, 2009). This is because it is easier for the interlocutors to notice and fix any linguistic problems by scrolling the text messages backward and forward. Kern (1995), in addition, indicated that sentences turned out to be simpler and shorter in computer sessions since such sentences tended to elicit more responses than long complex ones.

However, there has not been much research considering the amount of “language-focused learning” (Nation, 2007) in text-based versus voice online chat when students give each other feedback in information-gap tasks. For instance, spot-the-difference tasks are supposed to induce the use of precise lexical items and grammar points (e.g. description of specific objects or scenes in the picture) to achieve the common goal (Lee, 2008). As Swain contended, this kind of task can “encourage learners to reflect on language form while still being oriented to meaning making” (2000, p. 112).

Previous research into text-based and voice online chat

There have not been many researchers who are interested in the impact of information-gap tasks on students’ language-focused feedback during two communication modes: text and voice chat. Following are some related research:

Jepson (2005) investigated the characteristics of modifications in text-based and voice online chat of non-native speakers. The results revealed that the number of repair moves in voice chat was significantly higher than that in text chat. According to the qualitative analysis, most repair work in voice chat concerned phonological problems. Although ten sessions of text and voice chat were conducted, the durations were short (five minutes each) and the participants’ levels of proficiency were not controlled, which might have influenced the number of repair moves.

A study by Lai and Zhao (2006) explored the role of text-based online chat in enhancing learners’ noticing of their mistakes and of the interactional feedback. In this study, twelve ESL learners were put in six mixed-proficiency dyads working on two spot-the-difference tasks, one via text and the other through face-to-face conversations.

Stimulated recall sessions were held afterwards to identify instances of noticing. It was found that text-based online chat promotes noticing more than face-to-face conversations. However, the results might have been skewed due to students' different levels of language proficiency. Familiarity with the technology was another problem as four of the participants admitted to not chatting online before.

Research questions

The current study is to compare the kinds of peer feedback that students provide in text-based and voice-based synchronous interaction, with a particular focus on language-focused feedback. Therefore, it aims at answering these two questions:

What kinds of peer feedback occur in an information-gap task in the two communication modes?

Is there any significant difference between the two chat modes? To what extent are they different?

Methodology

Setting

The setting for the online chat group was a language computer lab. In this study, seats were arranged so that members of the same pair were not placed in close proximity to one another.

Participants

Twelve ESL/EFL learners of intermediate English proficiency participated in this study. There were an equal number of males and females with diverse first language (L1) backgrounds: Arabic (3), Thai (3), Vietnamese (3), Chinese (1), French (1), and Persian (1). They were recruited from the English Proficiency Program (EPP), a preparation language course for their undergraduate and postgraduate study in a university in New Zealand. All participants had previous online chat experience.

Task type

The participants were instructed to spot the differences in three sets of paired pictures (see Appendix): a pair based on a beach scene (1a and

1b), a pair based on a picnic scene (2a and 2b) and another pair based on a traffic jam scene (3a and 3b). These pictures were modified from three originals by Heaton (1966) using The Adobe® *Photoshop*®. The picture selection followed the guidelines of Gass and Mackey (2007):

- Picture items and their locations are appropriate for the intended level
- Pictures with great detail help promote negotiation and interactional feedback

This kind of task was used as it has the motivating feature of split information and helps students to achieve the goal of the speaking activity (Nation, 1989). Each dyad worked on three tasks via a chat tool in Blackboard (Blackboard Learn™, <http://www.blackboard.com>) and voice chat using Sony Virtuoso™.

Data collection

Experimental task design

Participants worked in pairs spotting the differences between two corresponding pictures (two-way information-gap task) in three picture sets. They were not allowed to see each other's pictures. Half the pairs did text-based chat first, and the other half conducted the voice chat first in order to eliminate sequencing effects. The third task completed by the participants was in the same chat mode as the first task (see Tables 1 and 2). The three sets of pictures which were selected to be equal in difficulty level were printed out and assigned to each dyad randomly to release any contaminating effect caused by the pictures. A time limit of 20 minutes was imposed on the three tasks.

There were two sessions in a Latin square design as follows:

Table 1. *Session one*

| Student | Task 1 | | Task 2 | | Task 3 | |
|----------|---------|------|---------|-------|---------|------|
| | Picture | Chat | Picture | Chat | Picture | Chat |
| A | 1a | Text | 2a | Voice | 3a | Text |
| B | 1b | Text | 2b | Voice | 3b | Text |
| C | 2a | Text | 3a | Voice | 1a | Text |
| D | 2b | Text | 3b | Voice | 1b | Text |
| E | 3a | Text | 1a | Voice | 2a | Text |
| F | 3b | Text | 1b | Voice | 2b | Text |

Table 2. *Session two*

| Student | Task 1 | | Task 2 | | Task 3 | |
|----------|---------|-------|---------|-------------|---------|-------|
| | Picture | Chat | Picture | Chat | Picture | Chat |
| G | 1a | Voice | 2a | Text | 3a | Voice |
| H | 1b | Voice | 2b | Text | 3b | Voice |
| I | 2a | Voice | 3a | Text | 1a | Voice |
| J | 2b | Voice | 3b | Text | 1b | Voice |
| K | 3a | Voice | 1a | Text | 2a | Voice |
| L | 3b | Voice | 1b | Text | 2b | Voice |

Data transcription and coding

The data was collected and the voice chat was transcribed. This was not a phonological transcription, but the spoken text was simply recorded "as is" in a written form. Students' names had been replaced with pseudonyms (letters from A to L). The excerpts of text chat remained unchanged with a date and time stamp.

Language-Related Episodes (LRE) or Metatalk

The data collected from the tasks was analysed and coded for Language-Related Episodes (LRE). LRE is defined as "any part of a dialogue where the students talk about the language they are producing, question their language use, or correct themselves or others" (Swain & Lapkin, 1998, p. 326).

Outcomes of LRE

According to Swain (1998), the LRE falls into one of three possible outcomes: outcome 1 is when the problem or question was solved correctly; outcome 2 is when LREs were left unresolved or abandoned; outcome 3 is when LREs were resolved incorrectly. Examples follow:

Outcome 1 – Solved correctly (*phonological-based LRE*)

H: OK. Let's talk about the boats. In your picture, how many the boats in the sea?

G: How many bots?

H: Boats. Yes.

G: 1,2,3,4,5,6.

H: OK. The same.

Outcome 2 – Unsolved/Abandoned (*lexical-based LRE*)

C: Yeah, yeah, yeah. It's vehicle.

D: I don't know.

C: Vehicle?

D: Vehicle. What is vehicle?

C: It's vehicle. Wheel.

D: So what next?

Outcome 3 – Solved incorrectly (*content-based LRE*)

H: No, not a baby and a woman.

G: What?

H: I have a man besides him.

G: Another man?

H: No, just a man besides the camera man.

G: I don't have that one.

The LRE coding followed Smith's (2003) expanded model with categories of lexical, morphosyntactic, discourse and content. Further problems inherent in text and voice chat are spelling and phonological respectively. Four types of triggers were found in this study: *lexical* as shown in Outcome 2, where the listener had no idea of the lexical item "vehicle" in the speaker's utterance; *content* as shown in Outcome 3, where the content of the whole previous message was wrongly processed; *phonological* as shown in outcome 1, where the pronunciation of the word "boats" was triggered; and *spelling* found in text chat only.

Types of feedback

In this study, feedback was classified according to how the interlocutors responded to the initiations (or signals of problem). Statements of agreement and disagreement were taken for granted as they conformed the nature of the task (finding the differences between the two pictures). Below are other common types of feedback found based on the discourse moves (Zeng & Takatsuka, 2009):

Recasts were episodes in which the interlocutors implicitly corrected the mistakes without breaking the flow of the communication.

Correcting spelling/pronunciation was when non-target-like spelling/pronunciation was repaired.

Giving examples was when speakers used examples or situations to clarify their ideas.

Spelling was found in voice chat when the interlocutors spelled the unclear words.

Paraphrasing was when the ideas or words were expressed in another way.

Code-switching/Translating was the practice of moving between L1 and L2.

Abandoning was when speakers failed to explain and decided to shift the topic.

Repeating/Repeating with elaboration was when the speakers repeated the words/sentences without/with more detail.

Proving was when the speakers indicated that they had knowledge of the items.

Using synonyms

Incorporating were when speakers repaired utterance based on interlocutor feedback (Lin & Hedgcock, 1996), or in this case, trigger.

Self-correcting occurred when the participants corrected their own vocabulary, grammatical, spelling, and phonological mistakes without prompts from their partners.

Data Analysis

Statistical testing procedures were conducted on the numbers for comparison and contrast in the two different communication modes.

Research question 1. *What kinds of peer feedback occur in an information-gap task in the two communication modes?*

Based on Table 3, it can be concluded that, for both modes, the LRE heavily focused on content, and voice chat is more conducive to language-focused feedback (phonological and lexical) than text chat.

Table 3. Focus of LRE in negotiation routines (NR) during CMC

| | | Text chat | | | | Voice chat | | | |
|---------------------------|---------|-----------|-------|----|-------|------------|-------|-----|-------|
| LRE | Outcome | N | % | N | % | N | % | N | % |
| Lexical | 1 | | | | | 19 | 79.17 | 24 | 11.06 |
| | 2 | | | | | 5 | 20.83 | | |
| | 3 | | | | | 0 | 0 | | |
| Spelling/ Phonological | 1 | 1 | 100 | 1 | 3.13 | 25 | 92.59 | 27 | 12.44 |
| | 2 | 0 | 0 | | | 2 | 7.41 | | |
| | 3 | 0 | 0 | | | 0 | 0 | | |
| Content | 1 | 23 | 74.19 | 31 | 96.87 | 149 | 89.76 | 166 | 76.5 |
| | 2 | 6 | 19.35 | | | 7 | 4.22 | | |
| | 3 | 2 | 6.46 | | | 10 | 6.02 | | |
| Total NR | | | | 32 | 100 | | | 217 | 100 |

Notes: **Outcome 1** - Solved correctly, **Outcome 2** – Abandoned, **Outcome 3** - Resolved incorrectly

Table 4 below contains types, numbers of feedback occurrences through an analysis of all negotiations in the text and voice chat of the six dyads. Students using voice chat produced more diverse responses than text users. It was noted that repeating (38), repeating with elaboration (17), abandoning (14) and paraphrasing (12) were the most common feedback in voice chat while in text chat, there was no such case as paraphrasing or repeating. One of the explanations is that text users could easily scroll up and down the chat logs to review any previous utterances, thus eliminating the need for repetition. Instead, students repeated their utterances with elaboration (3) when giving each other feedback in text chat. The instances of repeating with elaboration in voice chat were considerable (17). Students were supposed to stick to the target language more in text chat with no report of code-switching. A larger sample of students with the same L1 may give different results.

Table 4. Types of feedback across media

| | Types of feedback | Text chat | Voice chat |
|----|--|-----------|------------|
| 1 | <i>Recasting</i> | 2 | 4 |
| 2 | <i>Correcting spelling/pronunciation</i> | 1 | 8 |
| 3 | <i>Giving examples</i> | 0 | 1 |
| 4 | <i>Spelling</i> | 0 | 5 |
| 5 | <i>Paraphrasing</i> | 0 | 12 |
| 6 | <i>Code-switching</i> | 0 | 2 |
| 7 | <i>Abandoning</i> | 6 | 14 |
| 8 | <i>Repeating</i> | 0 | 38 |
| 9 | <i>Repeating with elaboration</i> | 3 | 17 |
| 10 | <i>Proving</i> | 1 | 0 |
| 11 | <i>Using synonyms</i> | 0 | 2 |
| 12 | <i>Incorporating</i> | 0 | 4 |
| 13 | <i>Self-correcting</i> | 1 | 1 |
| | Total | 14 | 108 |

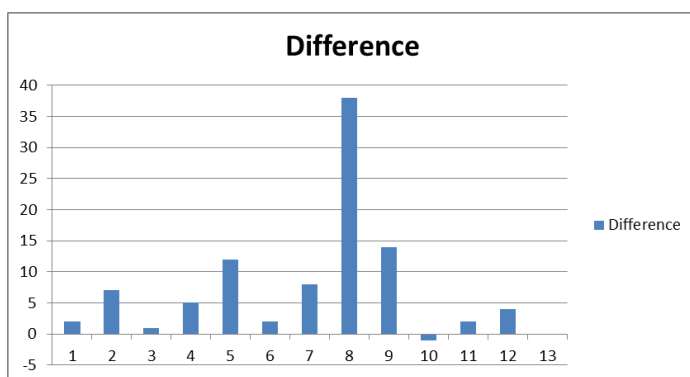
Research question 2. *Is there any significant difference between the two chat modes? To what extent are they different?*

In order to answer the first question, t-test was used to compare the two groups when it comes to each type of feedback. The results in Table 5 (with p-value <5%) suggest that there is significant difference in the types of feedback when students are involved in text and voice chat.

Table 5. t-Test: Paired Two Sample for Means

| | <i>Text chat</i> | <i>Voice chat</i> |
|------------------------------|------------------|-------------------|
| Mean | 1.0769231 | 8.307692308 |
| Variance | 3.0769231 | 108.8974359 |
| Observations | 13 | 13 |
| Hypothesized Mean Difference | 0 | |
| P(T<=t) two-tail | 0.0263262 | |

The following bar chart gives a clear overview of the difference levels for each type of feedback across media.



Being independent of the sample size, effect size was then calculated for the magnitude of the difference. The effect size of 4.12217269, according to Cohen's standard (1988), indicates that the difference between text-based and voice online communications is very large.

Discussion

As Blake (2000) acknowledged, chat negotiations focused more on lexical items, which have positive effect on vocabulary development rather than grammatical competence. It was observed that the learners explicitly asked the meaning of certain words to each other. However, Meskill and Anthony (2005) were right to say that learners tended to continue with discussions rather than pay attention to each other's mistakes. There were fewer numbers of repair moves in text chat in comparison to voice chat contexts as in Jepson's (2005) study. The results suggest that students in the chat room did not see the need for accuracy, especially when they got engaged in reaching the task goal with no worries about teacher's assessment.

In this study, correctly solved LRE constituted the highest percentage of all LRE (87.15%). This result supports previous studies on face-to-face communication. Leeser (2004) reported that between 60% and 75% of the total LRE was solved correctly. Nevertheless, it was inferred from Table 3 that 4.82% of the total LRE (all content-based) was incorrectly solved, and a considerable number of LRE (8.03%) was left unresolved. It is interesting to find that spelling/phonological LRE did not cause any misleading effect. One of the advantages of cyber interactions is that teachers can monitor and give assistance anytime through a single computer screen. Pedagogically, language

teaching aims at correctly solved LRE, but other LRE outcome types can be of value for research.

Pedagogical Implications of the Research

This project provides useful insights into students' language-focused feedback during text-based and voice online chat. The findings suggest that students pay attention to meaning rather than form in information-gap tasks. Information-gap tasks, therefore, are suitable for fluency practice, one of the four strands in language learning (Nation, 2007). Despite the importance of promoting communication and fluency, which is the key for SLA, students should be aware of the need to maintain a balance between fluency and linguistic accuracy in CMC (Nation, 2007). It is contended that if the task is more structured, it will draw more learners' attention to forms, and create more language-related talk (Storch, 1998).

Due to the learners' restricted vocabulary and low listening capability, the counterpart needs to either explain a concept in the target language in several ways or repeat the information numerous times and in a slower pace. The voice chat was found to have a higher number of total repair moves than the text chats, so the voice chat can be used to support and enrich second language development. It is believed that if the results and the suggestions of this research are taken into consideration, major improvements could occur in the language teaching programs, resulting in students' higher speaking competence.

Limitations and Directions for Future Study

This article reports on a small-scale study (six dyads) in one specific context (language lab room), lasting for a short period of only two hours. Further research might examine students' speaking development over a greater period of time across other online contexts. A longitudinal study of the long term effects of these two communication modes would contribute important data to the current investigation. Opportunities to interact with native speakers of the target language may be limited for some language learners. SCMC provides a chance for L2 production occurs outside the classroom, which research has shown to be beneficial to language learners.

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APPENDIX: Spot-the-difference tasks

The three sets of pictures were modified from three original ones on pages 1, 9, 15 respectively by Heaton (1966).

Picture 1a



Picture 1b



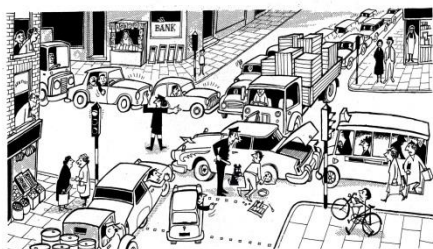
Picture 2a



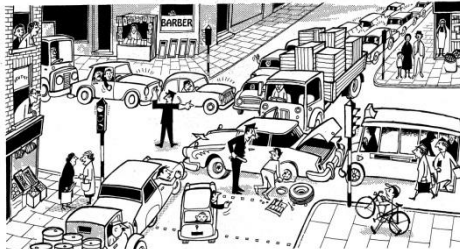
Picture 2b



Picture 3a



Picture 3b



In my Phonetics and Phonology class, you need to talk and ask, students!

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Abstract

Teaching linguistic subjects is always a challenge for English teachers, no matter how old and experienced they are. In her paper, the writer focuses on the teaching of Phonetics and Phonology to English majors. With some humble experience in this job, she attempts to identify her specific problems in teaching the subject, ones that pertain to the study programme, her students' attitude towards the subject as well as its nature. Once the problems have been pinpointed, the writer then goes on to describe the actions she has taken and the activities she has created for her class. The writer is also delighted to share some rewarding outcomes she has achieved in her Phonetics and Phonology classes as a result of the changes she has made.

Keywords: phonetics and phonology; English majors; action research; students' talk.

"... one should not deny the role of phonetics and phonology in the teaching of pronunciation since the more students are aware of the precepts and underpinnings of these branches of study, the more they will become aware of the idiosyncrasies of the target language and the more they are likely to achieve a native-like pronunciation." (Said, n.d., p.5)

Introduction

When interviewed by Anna Linthe from Cambridge University Press, Peter Roach, author of English Phonetics and Phonology – a book widely used, at least in Vietnam, as the course book for courses in Phonetics and Phonology, said:

“It is really a matter of the importance of having some background knowledge that helps you to understand the learners’ problems.”

From the point of view of an English teacher, the author totally agrees with the above statement. Moreover, she would also like to highlight the importance of learning phonetics and phonology to her students. Her viewpoint is supported by Forel & Puskás (2005) who say that these two bodies of linguistics are worth studying for some reasons. The two most significant are that “the study of phonology gives us insight into how the human mind works,” while “the study of phonetics of a foreign language gives us a much better ability both to hear and to correct mistakes that we make...” (p.3).

In this paper, the author would like to describe what has been happening in her Phonetics and Phonology class in the hope that she would receive constructive feedback on the approaches and activities she has been using. She will first give an overview of the teaching context and the challenges she faced in the first few years. The writer will then attempt to analyze the problems before describing her action plan to deal with those problems. Finally, she will mention the positive changes, however small they are, in the students’ learning outcomes and attitudes.

The Situation and the Challenges

The author works at a university specializing in business, banking and finance. Therefore, the existence of the bachelor program in Business English often makes people question its quality and potential for success. Nevertheless, every year the program has recruited an increasing number of students who need to have at least a Good ranking at high school and a relatively strong English competence to be admitted.

Originally, there were two courses in Phonetics and Phonology. Phonetics and Phonology 1, with a focus on basic phonetic issues, was taught in the very first semester of the program. Then Phonetics and Phonology 2 was conducted in the fifth semester when junior students had to deal with phonological topics. Five years ago, the author suggested replacing the first course with Pronunciation Practice; since then the single course of Phonetics and Phonology has been taught in

the fifth semester of the study program. There may be a question as to why the number of instructional hours of the course was reduced while the author previously stressed the importance of teaching phonetics and phonology. This controversial action will be justified in the next section.

In this context, the author, as an instructor of the course, encountered a number of challenges stemming from her own work style, her students' attitudes and the course itself.

First of all, it is indispensable for the author to recognize that the teaching method she used was not very effective, to say the least. While she spent a lot of time preparing her lesson plans, they seemed to be overwhelming to both her students and herself. These two problems made her stressed and tense any time she had to deliver a new lesson.

Secondly, the students added more weight to her concerns. Many of them expressed that they did not like the subject, nor did they understand much from the lessons, however hard she tried to improve her plans. They reluctantly engaged in class activities, and neglected assigned homework and further readings. As a result, while a considerable number of them failed the course, many others were happy with just a passing grade.

Lastly, the course itself made the teacher's job harder. Within 30 instructional hours delivered in 6 weeks, students needed to take in a huge amount of knowledge from phonetic concepts to phonological issues. The course book – English Phonetics and Phonology, 3rd edition – though a comprehensive one, was not easy for anybody to read and understand, let alone to master and explain its content to others.

An Analysis of the Problems and Subsequent Implications

After two years trying to survive every single class, the author stopped teaching the subject for a couple of years. During these two years, she had the opportunity to look back at what had happened in her classes and attempted to analyze her problems before working out any appropriate solutions. This is a critical period of time to the author / teacher as

“...if teachers must ensure successful learning for students who learn in different ways and may encounter a variety of

difficulties, then teachers need to be diagnosticians and planners who know a great deal about the learning process and have a repertoire of tools at their disposal.” (Darling-Hammond, 2006, cited in St. George & Bourke, 2008)

One of the biggest problems originates in the teacher’s philosophy in teaching theoretical subjects, in this case being linguistic theories. In just a limited time, to impart such an amount of linguistic knowledge to students, the author did what she now considers boring and useless: putting lots of information on the slides and explaining all the concepts to the students, then asking them to do exercises. The assumption that this subject was too hard for the students to study by themselves and that, as a consequence, they always needed the teacher’s presence and support made her turn her class into a boring theater where she was the only actor and the majority of the audience was just drowsing most of the time.

The teacher wondered if she could encourage her students to learn in a more constructive way in which they “do not passively absorb information but, rather, meaningful learning involves the active creation and modification of knowledge structures.” (Carey, 1985; cited in Palmer, 2005) This means that she needs to let her students read the course book, understand it in their own ways, SPEAK out their minds and ASK if they have difficulties. Some may refute this idea, claiming that she is contradicting herself after previously mentioning that the book is very hard. This will be justified in her action plan, which will be described in the new section.

Instead of moving on to discussing only the learner factor, the author would like to simultaneously analyze issues related to the program and, within that program, the course itself. This analysis is believed to facilitate the understanding of the challenges posed by the students.

One common question asked by the students is why they have to study linguistic subjects if they major in Business English and are likely to get a job in a business-related field. This view is rooted in the misconception that they are doing a business program, not a language program. Moreover, more often than not students do not see the value of learning about these theoretical aspects of linguistics, while they very much appreciate the time spent on practical subjects in both macro and micro skills (i.e. listening, speaking, reading, writing, grammar,

vocabulary and pronunciation). Hence, all courses in linguistic theory are not well-received by the students, which leads to a lack of interest and motivation in learning.

In light of this finding, the author sees the need to provide the students with adequate orientation towards the language major and the course. The former will not be discussed in this paper as it is out of the intended scope; the latter, however, is an important component in the action plan.

Another point worth considering is to understand how the students are learning and how they view their own learning. On one hand, they are familiar with a learning process in which the teacher explains the lessons while they just listen, take notes and then do the assigned exercises. Studying these theoretical subjects, they think of themselves as having no knowledge, skills or experience, thus raising no voice during the class meetings. Furthermore, they do not have the habit of and the chance for collaborating learning, which “center(s) on students’ exploration or application of the course material, not simply the teacher’s presentation or explication of it.” (Smith & MacGregor, 1992) The teacher therefore realized that she had to encourage, or even force her students to ask questions, share their opinions and help each other.

The Action Plan

Following the analytical task, the author started to plan for improvements, taking a number of actions to change the course delivery, her students’ attitudes and learning approach as well as her own teaching method. The changes, which correspond with the aforementioned implications, are described as follows.

Firstly, she insists that the students understand the significance of the course, the importance of self-study and reading, and the value of collaborative learning. This is done by her plan for the course, including the course objectives, which highlight how the course relates to and impacts on others. The plan also defines a detailed schedule of class work and reading assignments, her expectations of the students and several course regulations which both the teacher and the learner are supposed to discuss and agree on for effective cooperation. All of these must be clearly communicated to the students in the very first meeting. In addition, the teacher plans to keep reminding them of the

practical use of learning phonetics and phonology in developing other skills such as pronunciation, and hence speaking and listening. It is hoped that through this orientation, the students will prepare themselves both academically and behaviorally for the course.

Secondly, the author planned a sequence of lessons, each of which starts with a review of the previous one and ends with some preparation for the next one. One significant change she made to the lesson plans is a reduction in the amount of knowledge presentation the teacher herself has to do in class. Instead, the teacher will just step in to help students correct their misunderstanding, clarify confusing points and monitor group discussions. She has realized that “lack of understanding is not the learner’s fault” and as a learning facilitator, the teacher is “responsible for creating the conditions and environment that is most beneficial for learning.” (Clapper, 2009)

In order for collaborative learning to take place regularly, there is a “significant shift away from the typical teacher-centered or lecture-centered milieu” in her class. (Smith & MacGregor, 1992) All the lessons have the following agenda of activities in which students work in groups, mutually searching for understanding, solutions or meanings.

- 1 – The teacher and her students review the old lesson.
- 2 – Groups of students check their understanding of reading assignments and share their problems.
- 3 – The teacher raises questions about key points in the new lesson.
- 4 – Groups of students work together to answer the questions.
- 5 – Students volunteer to answer the questions.
- 6 – Students raise their concerns to the class; others try to help solve the problems.
- 7 – The teacher summarizes and consolidates the key points of the lesson by asking students to restate the knowledge, or to do reinforcement exercises, not by lecturing it herself.

Of utmost importance to the approach is that all class activities center around two actions: students TALK and students ASK!

| STUDENTS TALK | STUDENTS ASK |
|--|---|
| to explain terminologies and concepts | to check if their teammates have done the assigned work |
| to share their problems with group members | to seek help from the teacher |
| to discuss the lesson with group members | to seek explanation or clarification of a term or concept |
| to answer questions raised by the teacher and their classmates | to invite opinions from their teammates |
| to recite learnt knowledge | etc. |
| to evaluate their teammates | |
| etc. | |

Finally, her plan also includes assessment tasks and criteria, the details of which are informed to the students on the first day of the course. One point worth noting here is the group assessment has been revised three times to ensure its effectiveness in evaluating the students accurately and fairly.

The Outcome

The plan has been in practice for three years, yet it has brought quite rewarding outcomes. Although there has been no official collection of data to prove its effectiveness, the author can see improvements in two aspects.

First of all, there has been an increase in the number of students who got a good score (7 or higher) in the exams.

Secondly, students left positive comments, both formally in the end-of-course survey and informally on the teacher's page, saying they were no longer afraid of the subject and were quite surprised to find

themselves interested in learning and to see how practical the subject is for their language skill development. Nevertheless, most of them admitted that they had worked very hard throughout the course, maybe the hardest in all the courses of the semester.

Conclusion

Teaching is not a routine; it is an on-going process which requires constant updates and improvements. The author wants to repeat Clapper's (2009) view that a "lack of understanding is not the learner's fault" and that the teacher has to do research and take actions to make understanding happen. No matter what approach the teacher is using, the learner must be the center. In the author's classroom, the learner must safeguard their position and exercise their power by TALKing and ASKing.

The author would also like to stress that her action plan is not yet complete. There are a number of issues she is still working on, such as finding appropriate extra readings, encouraging students to read more about the subjects, facilitating a variety of views towards a concept, improving learner motivating, etc. All of these are both motivation and threat to the teacher herself, making her never stop reflecting, thinking creatively and trying new ideas.

*"To ensure students learn at higher levels, simply improve teaching."
(Dufour, 2009)*

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The Effects of Self-regulated Learning Strategy on Non-English majors' Oral Communication Performance at Bach Viet College

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Abstract

The ultimate aim of language learning is communication and self-regulated learning has displayed strong impacts on language learners' oral communication. In essence, metacognitive and cognitive strategies, the two major elements of self-regulated learning, have positively impacted learners' oral communication. However, few studies on self-regulated strategy and its impacts on learners' oral communication were conducted or those studies did focus on motivational factors rather than the actual strategies. Thus, the study on 'The Effects of Self-regulated Learning Strategy on Non-English Majors' Oral Communication Performance at Bach Viet College' in Ho Chi Minh city was carried out. The sample size consisted of 86 pre-intermediate non-English majors, 43 each in experimental and control groups. The study made use of qualitative and quantitative methods to test the effectiveness of the treatment. Basically, communicative language teaching was applied to the control group and communicative language teaching. Plus, self-regulated learning strategy was implemented to the experimental group. The study found self-regulated learning strategies can be operationalized by directly or indirectly infusing metacognitive and cognitive strategies into the lessons. Remarkably, positive impacts of metacognitive and cognitive strategies on students' oral communication were discovered in this study, and students' positive attitudes towards self-regulated strategy were explored.

Furthermore, self-regulated strategy and its impacts on specific skills and areas of English language are recommended for further research to facilitate students' language learning and lifelong learning.

Keywords: cognitive strategy; metacognitive strategy; oral communication; self-regulated learning

Introduction

The ultimate aim of language learning is communication and self-regulated learning is believed to have positive impacts on students' oral communication (Cohen, Weaver and Li 1998; Wu, 2012). In fact, the study was conducted with multiple reasons. The first and foremost is from the researcher's concern to foster self-regulated learning (SRL) among students. Second, strong correlations between self-regulated learning strategy (SRLS) and students' language achievement have been proved; however, whether or not SLR positively impacts students' oral communication is still in vague, and SRL research, especially under quasi-experiment, is completely absent from the literature in Vietnam. Third, previous studies did focus on motivational factors rather than metacognitive and cognitive strategies though the two help enhance students' speaking achievement (Cohen, 2010). Next, it is said that Vietnamese students are ranked the fifth in the extra learning and teaching in the world (Người lao động, 2014), which has raised an urgent ring bell to educators because it seems that Vietnamese students have been overly dependent upon their teachers and therefore they lack SRLS. Last but not least, it resulted from the teacher researcher's observations. As carefully noted, students' trouble shootings are of (1) lack of necessary skills and strategies (2) over dependence on their teachers, (3) low motivation in language learning, (4) lack of critical skills and (5) poor oral communication performance (OCP). In essence, communicative language teaching (CLT) is efficient to enhance students' oral communication because it is one of the methods designed to help language learners use the target language in their daily conversations (Nurhayati, 2011). CLT approach works with the current context, indeed. However, most of the students in the current context expose a low level of self-regulation which is necessary for their learning. They seem to lean on their teachers and make little effort to improve their speaking performance. As a result, they fail to achieve high in the speaking performance.

In addition to an investigation of students' attitudes towards SRLS in a college, Daklak, Vietnam, the finding displayed that most participants showed their very low level of SRLS although they had positive attitudes towards SRLS (Tran and Duong, 2013). As such, the scenario has added to the rooted belief that Vietnamese students are passive learners since the teaching and learning English in Vietnam is limited to 'giving students a fish' and far from 'teaching them how to fish' (Trinh, 2005) and hence the main task of a teacher of English is to transmit knowledge to his or her students (Trinh, 2005) rather than teaching students to be self-regulatory for their own learning. Moreover, Vietnamese learners are influenced by Confucian perspectives in that they are "traditional beliefs of relational hierarchy" in classrooms (Humphreys and Wyatt, 2014; Nguyen, Terlouw, and Pilot, 2006), which has ascribed to the aforesaid viewpoints.

Meanwhile, Vietnamese learners do not reflect their real characteristics, and they are not that passive but "they would like to be active and independent" in their learning (Littlewood, 2000, p.34). This belief brings a new direction of thinking about how students learn and want to learn in Vietnam. In addition, Tomlinson and Dat (2004) report that learners would welcome changes to the culture of their classrooms. It means whether or not Vietnamese students can become independent to self-regulate their own learning is basically of teacher's accountability to create active and self-regulatory learning environments. For that reason, the study has embraced ambitions to test whether or not SRLS positively enhance students' OCP within English language learning of Vietnamese contexts and ultimately to make significant contributions into the teaching and researching of English as a foreign language (EFL) in Vietnam and worldwide.

Research Question

Based on the research aims, the current study seeks to answer two questions:

1. To what extent do the self-regulated learning strategies enhance students' achievement regarding their oral communication performance?
2. What are students' attitudes towards the self-regulated learning strategies?

Research Methodology

Setting and Participants

The current study involved two classes of freshmen whose majors are Medicine and Nursing, enrolling in the third semester (BE3) of the English course of Bach Viet College in Ho Chi Minh City, Vietnam.

Bach Viet College has put the foci on students' English working environments for students' future jobs; thus, English has been one of the main concerns of the school. Students at Bach Viet College have different social backgrounds. Most of them, as far as the researcher's extent, come from countryside areas or provinces nearby in which they used to be inherited English of traditional or grammatically focused teaching methods. Moreover, English is not put into account by most students because it is not counted in their university entrance exam. Thereby, most of them had put English aside for a long time in order to focus on their entrance exam subjects to be. As a result, their English OCP is generally at an average to a low level. Moreover, the teacher researcher notices that majority of students fail to pronounce a simple word or even they could not express their simplest ideas in English correctly. This may explain for the Grammar-focused or written-test curriculum. In essence, this situation has been commonly shared among the ESL contexts in Vietnam, which is similar to other countries in ASEAN (Gordon, 2002; Riemer, 2002; Cowling, 2007).

The study involved the majority of population of female students whose ages range from 18 to 19. The oral communication level of participants is comparatively ranked at a pre-intermediated level. The two classes meet twice a week on Tuesday and Thursday mornings, scheduled from 7:00 to 9:15 for the EG and from 9:30 to 11:45 to the CG. Students' OCP is evaluated in oral tests with five topics embedded in the course and all of the tasks must be related to the suggested topics.

In terms of oral assessment, based on criteria of Language Testing by Alderson (1991) with some adaptation to suit the current level of students and the objectives of the course, oral tests are used to assess students' OCP. Students' oral assessment is based on the distribution Scale of Oral Test, designed by the school as follows:

Table 1: The distribution scale of oral test of Bach Viet College

| Part 1 | Criteria | | | |
|---------------|----------------------|----------------|-----------------|-----------------|
| | Pronunciation | Fluency | Accuracy | Response |
| I | 2 marks | | | |
| II | 1 mark | 1 mark | 1 mark | 1 mark |
| III | 1 mark | 1 mark | 1 mark | 1 mark |
| Total | | | | |

The grade punctuation includes four level of achievement as below:

Excellent = from 9.0 onwards

Good = from 7.0 to less than 9.0

Rather good = from 5.0 to less than 7.0

Under average = under 5.0.

At level 4, students are treated as a failure in the exam and have to retake another test. If they constantly fail in the second, they are supposed to repeat the class in the next semester. The school context has already been analyzed, which highlights the setting where the study was conducted. And it's important to draw out the procedures of the SRLS lesson plans.

Procedures of the SRLS lesson plan

As previously stated, CLT is an ideal approach for students to obtain oral communication; however, CLT is not enough for the students in the current context. Meanwhile, communicative competence may involve the interactions between metacognitive and cognitive strategies and language competence (Bachman, 1990). Thus, the current study holds the ambitions to better students' oral communication through SRLS implementation.

The lesson plans of the experimental group (EG) differentiate from the control group's (CG) in some features. First, in the EG class, the teacher did not go directly into the lesson as the opposed. She introduced self-regulated learning strategies to make sure that all of the participants were willing to take part in the experiment. Then, she provided the main contents to the lesson and set the objectives to the lessons. Next, she had the students set goals to the course and to the lesson then. Afterwards, individual SRLS was eventually implemented

according to certain topics or tasks. Students were supposed to make acquainted with the use of new strategies and had further practice on those. Once students were fluent in the use of a strategy, others were subsequently infused and practiced till fluency.

Data Collection and Analysis

In order to gather information of the study, the teacher researcher made good use of triangulation instruments including test, observation, interview and questionnaire.

Pre-and-post-oral tests were applied to the two groups. All examiners were advertently appointed by the faculty to examine students' oral performance. Maximum speaking time for each examinee was five minutes and their speaking performance was carefully recorded to make sure the reliability of the assessment. Observations were also employed to record all the happenings in the classes and to ascertain the teacher stringently followed the principles and procedures of the implementation. The questions of the interview were designed by the researcher followed by the procedures of the implementation and based on the components of the SRLS. Questionnaire adapted from Wang (2004) consisted of 20 items which were rigorously translated then piloted and delivered to the whole population. The Cronbach's Alpha rose to 0.791 after the third piloting. The English and Vietnamese versions were included and the aims of the items in the questionnaire are figured out as below.

Table 2: The aims of the items in the questionnaire

| Clusters | Number of items | The items aim to measure: |
|-----------------|------------------------|---|
| Meta-cognitive | 15, 17, 20 | Self-evaluation |
| | 6,7, 8 | Goal setting and planning |
| Cognitive | 2, 9, 16 | Keeping records and monitoring |
| | 13,18 | Rehearsal and memorizing |
| | 5,12 | Reviewing records |
| | 3,11,14 | Organizing and transforming |
| Attitudes | 1,4, 19 | Students' attitudes towards SRLS implementation |

In brief, multiple instruments were made best uses to collect the information of the study. And it’s necessary to clarify the results of the study basing on the two reseach questions.

Results/ Findings and Discussions

Research question 1: To what extent do the SRLS enhance students’ oral communication performance?

In an attempt to answer the first research question, the researcher was about to conduct the necessary steps as follows.

First, the researcher drew a comparison between the pre-and-post-test scores of the CG to check if there were any differences in the OCP within the group before and after the course. The results of the pre-and-post tests of the CG via Paired sample T-test were illustrated in table 3.

Table 3: Summary of the pre-and-post-oral test results of the CG

| Tests | M | SD | Correlation | Mean difference | <i>t</i> | <i>df</i> | <i>p</i> |
|------------------|-------|------|-------------|-----------------|----------|-----------|----------|
| Pre-test of CG | 53.26 | 8.51 | .814 | 1.51 | -2.005 | 42 | .051 |
| Post- test of CG | 54.77 | 6.72 | | | | | |

Table 3 exposed the pre-and-post oral test scores of the CG. As showed, the mean score of the post-test of the CG was 54.77, which was a little higher than that of its pre-test score of 53.26. In other words, there was some improvement in students’ oral communication after two months working with CLT. Moreover, *p* value of the pre-and-post-oral tests of the CG was 0.051, which was equivalent to the standard value of 0.05. Accordingly, the CG had their scores improved regardless of SRLS treatment, which helped approve the efficiency of the CLT in the previous studies (Littlewood, 1981; Canale, 1983; Nurhayati, 2011).

Next, the pre-test score of the EG was used to compare with its post-test score, which was displayed via Paired sample T-test in table 4.

Table 4: Summary of the pre-and-post-oral test results of the EG

| Tests | M | SD | Correlation | Mean difference | <i>t</i> | <i>df</i> | <i>p</i> |
|------------------|-------|---------|-------------|-----------------|----------|-----------|----------|
| Pre-test of EG | 51.63 | 8.07118 | .564 | 10.23 | -9.172 | 42 | .000 |
| Post- test of EG | 61.86 | 7.56112 | | | | | |

Table 4 exposed the pre-and-post-test scores of the EG. As clearly figured out, the EG had positive changes in their tests scores since the mean scores of the post-test (61.86) exceeded that of the pre-test (51.63), which proved a big difference in students' oral communication after the treatment. And the p value (the Sig. 2-tailed) was .000, which was smaller than 0.05. For that reason, we were confident to confirm that the SRLS did enhance students' oral communication performance.

Next, to make sure the efficiency of the treatment, the comparison of the post-test scores of the EG and the CG was conducted with Paired Sample Test to seek for the dissimilarities (if any) of the two groups (see table 5).

Table 5: Summary of the post-test results of the EG and CG

| Variables | M | SD | Correlation | Mean difference | <i>t</i> | <i>df</i> | <i>p</i> |
|----------------------|-------|------|-------------|-----------------|----------|-----------|----------|
| Post-oral test of EG | 61.86 | 7.56 | .144 | 7.09 | 4.301 | 42 | .000 |
| Post-oral test of CG | 54.77 | 6.72 | | | | | |

Table 5 presented the post-test results of the two groups. As a whole, it saw an improvement in the EG and CG's means of the post-tests. Particularly, the mean score of the EG (M=61.86) was much higher than that of the CG (M=54.77) though the CG initially exceeded the EG in the pre-test. This revealed that the former had their OCP improved more remarkably than the latter. Moreover, the p value (Sig. 2-tailed) was .000, which was smaller than .05, inferred a significant difference in the OCP of the two groups. Hence, it came to conclusion that the EG outperformed the CG in their oral test scores after the treatment. In other words, the SRLS significantly contributed into students' OCP,

which partially helped answer the first research question. More importantly, this result admitted the findings of the previous research of Purpura (1999), Vrugt and Oort (2007) and Ocak and Yamac (2013).

However, to find whether or not a good correlation between students' OCP and the level use of SRLS reflected in questionnaire existed; the reliability of the questionnaire is checked with Reliability Statistics with Cronbach's Alpha coefficients. There were 20 items left which were grouped into three components: Metacognitive, Cognitive and Attitude.

Then, to measure students' level use of SRLS, metacognitive and cognitive strategies were analyzed separately and as a whole since the two are believed to be separated or interwoven depending on speaking activities. In terms of Metacognitive, students preferred goal setting and planning to self-evaluation with 3.80 and 3.20, respectively. Cognitive strategies include four components: recording and monitoring, reviewing records, rehearsal and memorizing and organization and transforming. Overall, all the mean scores of between 3.50 and 3.60 were significant; they were not very noticeable, though. It can infer that cognitive strategies were equally paid attention by students except for the highest ranking (3.80) of reviewing records. After that, there was a difference between the two since the mean scores of cognitive items (3.70) exceeded that of metacognitive (3.48). As such, a large number of the students were more likely to use cognitive strategies than its opponents, which proved the more facility in the use of cognitive strategies.

Last, SPSS Correlation Linear Regression with ANOVA was computed to discover the relationship between the level use of SRLS and the EG's oral test results. But at first, ANOVA regression was run to check the overall appropriateness of the SRLS model applied in the research.

Table 6: The ANOVA regression

| Model | Sum of Squares | df | Mean Square | F | Sig. |
|--------------|----------------|----|-------------|-------|-------------------|
| 1 Regression | 159.751 | 3 | | | |
| Residual | 4150.714 | 39 | 53.250 | 4.500 | .000 ^b |
| Total | 4310.465 | 42 | 106.429 | | |

a. Dependent Variable: post_speaking_test

b. Predictors: (Constant), MCOG, ATT, COG

Table 6 showed the overall appropriateness of the SRLS model applied in the current research. As we can see, Sig (F) = 0.000 < 0.05 indicated that there was at least a correlated value #0. Thus, the Linear Regression statistically valued and positively impacted students' OCP. Overall, the SRLS model was appropriate for the implementation and thus the coefficients of the variable were regressed and exposed in table 7.

Table 7: Model summary

| Model | R | R Square | Adjusted R Square | Std. Error of the Estimate |
|-------|-------|----------|-------------------|----------------------------|
| 1 | .593a | .752 | .751 | 1.31642 |

Table 7 reported a change in OCP after the treatment. The Adjusted R Square for this model was .751, which meant the treatment contributed 75% into the students' improvement. In other words, the SRLS implementation explained 75% of the change in the students' OCP and the coefficients of the model were drawn out in table 8.

Table 8: The coefficients in SPSS regression

| Model | Unstandardized Coefficients | t | Sig. | Collinearity Statistics |
|------------|-----------------------------|-------|------|-------------------------|
| | B | | | VIF |
| (Constant) | 45.249 | 2.487 | .017 | 1.777 |
| COG | .602 | 3.102 | .020 | 1.672 |
| MCOG | .737 | 3.023 | .013 | |

a. Dependent Variable: post_speaking_test

In table 8, VIF values of the two independent variables were less than 10. Thus, there was no multicollinearity of variables and accordingly all the variables were linear regressed.

In sum, metacognitive and cognitive strategies were frequently used by the students and the level use of SRLS positively correlated with their oral communication performance. Specifically, significance difference of the cognitive and metacognitive strategies were .02 and .013 (<.05), respectively. Thus, it can be concluded that SRLS enhanced students'

OCP, which matched the results of the studies of Eshe and Kohavi (2003); and Ocak and Yamaç (2013).

Research question 2: What are students' attitudes towards the self-regulated learning strategies?

To answer the second research question, the students' attitudes towards SRLS were exposed in table 9 as follow:

Table 9: Students' attitudes towards SRLS

| Measurable scales | Applying (%) | Usefulness (%) | Future use (%) |
|---------------------|--------------|----------------|----------------|
| Completely agree | 23.3 | 18.6 | 30.2 |
| Agree | 62.8 | 62.8 | 41.9 |
| Undecided | 14.0 | 16.3 | 25.6 |
| Disagree | 0 | 0 | 2.3 |
| Completely disagree | 0 | 2.3 | 0 |

Table 9 performed students' attitudes towards the SRLS. As can be seen, there were three components in the attitude items, which measured the applying, usefulness and future use of SRLS. When asked about how frequently they applied the trained strategies, 86% revealed that they had applied SRLS in their speaking tasks. Significantly, this fact was shared by the interviewees as a majority of students applied the trained strategies. However, there was 14 % undecided whether they have applied SRLS or not. Similarly, the participants showed their positive attitudes towards the usefulness of the SRLS when 81.4% admitted the usefulness of the SRLS to their OCP. In contrast, 16.3% of the students were unsure of the usefulness of the SRLS and 1% completely disagreed with that. In addition, the proportion of students who committed to apply SRLS in their speaking accounted for 72.1%, and 25.6% undecided and 2.3% disagreed to use SRLS in the future.

Through observations and interviews, the teacher realized that most of the interviewees displayed their high level of engagement in the SRLS. Especially, many students agreed that rehearsing and memorizing were

used at hands to compensate for their limited range of vocabulary, grammar structures and ideas. This is shared by Cohen (2010)'s viewpoint since he affirms that metacognitive and cognitive strategies help engage in conversations and compensate for students' linguistics shortcomings. In short, students displayed positive attitudes towards and actively joined in the SRLS activities. Remarkably, this matched the finding of the research on the students' attitudes towards SRLS carried out in a university in Daklak, Vietnam by Tran and Duong (2013).

Conclusion

As previously explained, this study was conducted to replicate the study of the effects of SRLS on academic achievement in Ethiopia context with the foci on motivational beliefs. The current study emphasized metacognitive and cognitive strategies rather than motivational beliefs since "a combination of cognitive and metacognitive strategy training more effectively enhances learning" (Purpura, 1999, p.31). Also, Cohen (2010) affirms metacognitive can be used to engage in conversations and cognitive strategies can compensate for a lack in students' linguistics while practicing speaking. Furthermore, the term 'academic achievement' in the aforesaid studies seemed too broad in EFL field for the researcher to relate two variables of a study in a certain time. In this study, 'achievement' is clearly defined as students' oral communication performance and metacognitive and cognitive strategies were strongly believed to better students' oral communication performance. In fact, the results of the study correlated with that of the prior research because it showed good correlations between SRLS and students' OCP. The results of the present study was equivalent to that of Ocak and Yamaç (2013)'s.

The triangulation instruments of the study shared the similarities in the results. In fact, CLT exposes the effects to students' oral communication. However, it seems that CLT fails to complete the lacks in students' strategies and skills to foster their speaking performance. And SRLS is believed to turn students' mental process into actions, into skills and into oral communication achievement (Zimmerman, 2000). Indeed, significant correlations of cognitive and metacognitive strategies and students' OCP found in this study was harmonious with the studies by Lam (2009) and Bekele (2013).

Moreover, in a SRLS class, students show their strong interest and motivation to complete the speaking tasks. Self-regulated students actively engaged in the speaking tasks. They often seated themselves in front of the classroom and eargly raised questions and answered to the teacher's questions with certainty. Furthermore, SRLS students showed a higher level of confidence when seating in the oral exam. In essence, these facts hardly happened to the opposed group, who had no ideas of SRLS.

In terms of EFL teachers, we should be aware the utmost position of communication in language learning. In essence, Metacognitive and cognitive strategies in this study prove the focal roles in bettering students' OCP. Especially, SRLS is teachable and effectively used for overloading curricular since it helps students and teachers save a lot of time to deal with challenging tasks. And, a teacher must play different roles to offer help. He or she can be an instructor, a facilitator, an evaluator or a friend of students. Accordingly, teachers and students can change the mindset of relational hierarchy in classrooms by a more dynamic and autonomous learning atmosphere. Moreover, teacher and peer's oral feedback is a vital instrument since it helps timely consolidate students' knowledge and speaking skills. Also, it increases the interactions among students and between students and teachers in classrooms.

Above all, the consistence of the findings from different instruments significantly contributes to the reliability of the study. In other words, self-regulated students know how and when to use metacognitive and cognitive strategies effectively, positively controled their attitudes to monitor their learning process and achieved their set goals. Accordingly, they are able to self-manage the learning. Thus, it can be concluded that SRL can make the difference between academic success and failure among the students (Graham and Harris, 2000; Kistner, Rakoczy, and Otto, 2010).

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Teacher-Learner Interactions in the Realization of Learner-Centeredness in IELTS Writing Classes

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Abstract

Learner-centeredness has been hailed as an effective approach to stimulate learners' active role in the learning process. People usually understand that the approach puts learners at the center of learning activities, and teachers at the back stage as facilitators. However, there are cases that teachers have to be leaders who control activities in the class, which seems not very much in favor of the spirit of learner-centered education. This study indicates circumstances where the teacher initiates the exchange and teacher-led interactions then brings about learner-centeredness in IELTS writing classes. The interactions were recorded, transcribed and then analyzed in accordance with five dimensions of learner-centeredness devised by Weimer to demonstrate that with reasonable implementations, teacher-led interactions with learners can create a learner-centered environment in IELTS writing classes. Then a survey was conducted to find out that most learners liked such interactions in their leaning.

Keywords: learner-centeredness, IELTS writing; interactions; Zone of Proximal Development

Background of the Study

Learner-centered approach

Learner- centered Education is defined as: “The perspective that couples a focus on individual learners (their heredity experiences, perspectives, backgrounds, talents, interests, capacities, and needs) with a focus on learning (the best available knowledge about learning and

how it occurs and about teaching practices that are most effective in promoting the highest levels of motivation, learning, and achievement for all learners.)” (Macombs, B. L & Whisler, J. S., 1997, p. 9)

According to Weimer (2002, pp. 21-22), five practices that need changing to achieve learner- centeredness in teaching are the balance of power, the function of content, the role of the teacher, the responsibility for learning, and the purpose and processes of evaluation.

The five dimensions are then analyzed by Blumberg (2009) into 29 components which are accompanied by rubrics for measurement to decide the level of learner-centeredness of a course or an institution. The components are distributed into five dimensions as follows:

The function of content: In addition to building a knowledge base, the content facilitates students to:

- Practice using inquiry or ways of thinking in the discipline
- Learn to solve real problems
- Understand the function of the content, why it is learned
- Build discipline-specific learning methodologies
- Build an appreciation for value of content
- Content can help students develop a way to learn in this discipline
- Content is framed so that students see how it can be applied in the future
- Students engage in most of the content to make it their own, students make meaning out of the content

The role of the instructor: The teacher can:

- Foster students learning
- Accommodate different learning styles
- Motivate students to accept responsibility for learning
- Explicitly align objectives, teaching methods and assessment consistently
- Utilize multiple teaching techniques appropriate for student learning goals
- Design activities in which students interact with the material, the teacher and each other
- Inspire and encourages student ownership of learning

The responsibility for learning

Responsibility is shared between the teacher and the students

- Students develop learning skills for further learning
- Students become self-directed lifelong learners
- Students can and do assess their own learning
- Students become proficient at self-assessment
- Students become proficient with all information literacy skills (e.g., accessing and evaluating sources, using information legally)

The Processes and Purposes of Assessment

- Use of assessment within the learning process
- Formative assessment with constructive feedback
- Peer and self-assessment
- Multiple opportunities learn and demonstrate mastery
- Students encouraged to justify their answers
- Students and teachers agree on feedback timeframes
- Authentic assessment (what practitioners/professionals do) is used

The Balance of Power (control issues)

- Students are encouraged to explore additional content
- Students are encouraged to express alternative perspectives whenever appropriate
- Use mastery or contract grading
- Assignments are open ended
- Policies, deadlines are negotiated and adhered to
- Students take advantage of opportunities to learn
- In the study, the interactions between the teacher and learners will be analyzed in accordance with the components above to justify the learner-centeredness achieved.

Teacher-learner interactions

Sinclair and Coulthard (1975, pp.54-55) studied the teacher-pupil talks in lessons of the first language and drew a common pattern for this interaction in the formula known as IRF (teacher initiation, learner response and teacher feedback). This sequence was mentioned by

Webster et al (1996,) as “recitation” which kept students’ attention, but reflected “high teacher management” (p.39).

However, Irit Cohen (2011, p.273) asserted that such interactions can be made much more diverse in classrooms. Also, this position was echoed by Marta Antón (1999) claiming that teacher-learner interactions could facilitate “the negotiation of forms, content and classroom rules of behaviours”, together with self and peer correction, and learning responsibility. The process of teachers’ questioning helps learners make meaning through reflection, the establishment of new connections and interpretations (Rallis, 1995, p. 226), and this process can be implemented with such questions as “ What do you do? How did you do that? Why do you say that? How does that fit in with what she just said? Could you give me an example? How did you figure that?” as suggested by Duckworth (1987, p.96).

As regards error correction, when learners make mistakes, if teachers give the correction right away, as in a teacher-centered class, learners will not have opportunities to go through the thinking process of utilizing old knowledge, or bridging between theories and practice, and this reduces their critical thinking. A survey mentioned in “A course in language teaching” (Ur, 2012, pp. 93-94) shows that learners preferred correcting their own mistakes or being corrected by the teacher rather than by friends. This explicitly reveals that priority of error correction employed through classroom interactions should be granted to the mistake makers first. However, the problem is that teachers need to have effective questions to suit students’ level, and students also need to have certain knowledge to understand and give expected answers to finalize the question-answer process (Freed, A. F. & Ehrlich, S., 2010, p. 184) in a time-saving mode. This leads to the area of discourse efficiency of teachers, in which Steve Walsh (2006) acknowledge the need for teachers to have ability to “observe, analyze, and evaluate their own classroom discourse” (p. 158). This process can be done with “Reflection on practice” or “Reflection in practice”, which includes careful planning and after-class evaluation and in-class note-taking of necessary improvements in question sequence, key words, or even time allotment for answers.

The Zone of Proximal Development

As defined by Vygotsky, the Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD) is the difference between the child's developmental level as determined by the independent problem solving and the higher level of potential development as determined through problem solving under adult guidance or in collaboration with more capable peers. (Vygotsky, 1978, p. 86)

Regarding interactions within ZPD, it is the higher cognitive process that emerges as a result of the interaction that is more important than the completion of the task (Lantolf, J. P., & Appel, G. (Eds.), 1994, p. 10).

In IELTS writing, most materials are authentic, and the test requires learners to have great exposure to English use in real life. Therefore, it is common to have situations where the knowledge is beyond the understanding of learners, and this is when ZPD kicks in for teachers to act as guides showing learners steps to acquire new knowledge or skills.

IELTS writing

IELTS is an international English test run by Cambridge University, British Council, and IDP Australia to test candidates' English for admission to educational and professional organizations in English speaking countries. It has four subtests of listening, speaking, reading, and writing. The test is divided into 2 modules namely academic module and general training module. In academic module, the writing test comprises two tasks. Task 1 is about chart description of at least 150 words while task 2 is an academic essay of at least 250 words. The writing products are marked according to band descriptors of two tasks with four criteria: task response/achievement, coherence-cohesion, grammatical range-accuracy, and lexical resource. The topics of writing range from family, economy, technology to social issues and education to set standard for entrance level of English users to meet requirements at school or at work. Band descriptors can be found at <http://takeielts.britishcouncil.org/find-out-about-results/ielts-assessment-criteria>.

Statement of the Problem

English language education has put increasing emphasis on the learner - centered approach. However, in the circumstance that requires teachers to convey knowledge quickly to save time for exercises and test practice, this approach can be considered as highly challenging. This scheme of teaching and learning is often reflected in the objectives of test-oriented courses at many schools and English centers in Vietnam. The difficulties in the approach stem from such factors as fixed programs, assessment schemes, policies, curricula, and so on. Similarly, for an IELTS course, with time limit and demand for intensive test practice, it is understandable for teacher - centeredness to be easily accepted. To ameliorate this problem, one of the factors creating learner-centeredness, the interaction between teachers and learners and among the learners themselves, can be employed. The learner-learner interaction is taken for granted in CLT approach to boost learners' activeness in learning and is highly used in IELTS classes, but the role of teacher-learner interaction in helping the learning process has seemingly unclear relation to learner-centeredness. That is why the study was conducted to find out the possibility of learner-centeredness as created by teacher-learner interactions. Through the analysis of interactions between the teacher and learners, the answers to two following questions will be given:

How is learner-centeredness realized in teacher-learner interactions?
What do learners like teacher-learner interactions for?

Methodology

Participants

Two classes of IELTS: IELTS 6.0 with 3 learners of at IELTS Vietop center, IELTS 5.0 with 8 learners at SEAMEO RETRAC, both in Ho Chi Minh City, Vietnam.

The reason why we chose these classes is that for learners at the beginning stages of IELTS learning like IELTS 1, IELTS 2 (4 – 5 points or 5 -6 points) in a 5-level IELTS curriculum, teachers' guidance is very essential for learners. Therefore, teachers can easily fall into the role of authority in class when learners do not really know much about what they need to do for their learning. In the common temptation of

one-way knowledge transmission from teacher to learners, especially in academic writing, we explore the possibility of learner-centeredness which brings activeness to learners' in their learning process.

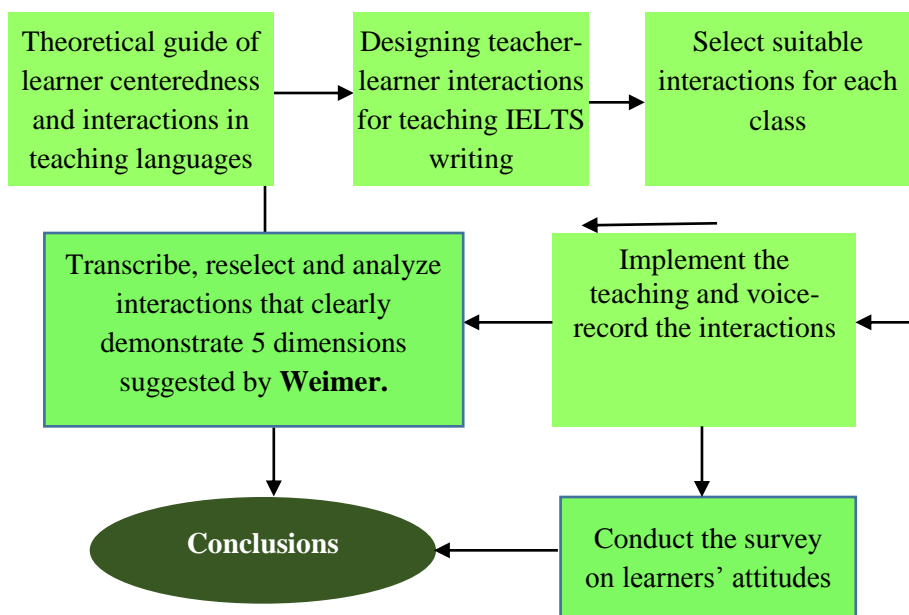
Research methods

The study used ethnographic method including voice recording and discourse analysis with the awareness of the teacher to minimize the existence of a voice recorder in the class to produce real interactions. Then questionnaires were issued to collect data on learners' preference of teacher-learner interactions.

Procedure

At first, the teacher selected suitable topics of interactions for 2 classes according to some of the 29 criteria of Phyllis Blumberg (2009) distributed in Weimer's 5 dimensions of learner-centeredness. Then he selected suitable interactions to conduct in each class according to learners' level, and class duration. In particular, IELTS 6.0 dealt with the most interactions including the correction of writing paper according to the band descriptor because learners had known quite well about the test already and had more time (2 hours/class) and more chance to interact quickly in a small class (of 3 learners). Whereas, the interactions to demonstrate the function of content (the real-life application of graph description), and the balance of power (out-of-class learning opportunities on Facebook) were done for the SEAMEO 90- minute class with 8 learners. The author then carried out the teaching and recorded interactions. Finally, the dialogues were transcribed, reselected and analyzed in accordance with the components in five dimensions of learner-centeredness. After that a questionnaire was issued to collect learners' attitudes towards teacher-learner interactions.

Design of the study



Findings and Discussions

5 interactions are analyzed according to 5 dimensions of learner-centered approach suggested by Weimer (2002), in accordance with some of the 29 criteria of learner-centeredness devised by Phyllis Blumberg (2009).

The function of content: In conversation 1 below, besides using the content to build a knowledge base for learners, the instructor also helped learners figure out why they needed to learn the content.

Conversation 1:

T: Why do you have to learn chart description for IELTS writing task 1? Does it have any application in your real life?

S1: ... to do research, to study academic courses.

T: Do you need to know chart description to do your thesis?

SS: [silence]

T: When you do the survey, how can you present data?

SS: Draw charts

T: and then write...[raising voice]

SS: description.

T: Yes, it illustrates your analysis of data collected to come to a conclusion for your thesis... And in business, where can people get data?

S1: Researchers.

T: Good, market research, for example, but in what form?

SS: [silence]

T: What do companies do to get data?

S2: They ask people, get the answers

T: And after that they have to make?

S3: charts

T: And chart description. So chart description has its application, right?

SS: Yes.

T: So sometimes in your future job, do you think you have to use chart description?

SS: [nod] Maybe

T: Learning chart description is useful for your life, right?

SS: [Nod] Yes.

Most learners in the experimented classes are students at Vietnamese universities, and in the chat, the teacher recognized that they did not write academic assignments with citations and references. Also, using charts was not in their concern because they had not learned about writing theses for their graduation. Therefore, the teacher asked guided questions to lead learners to recognize the use of chart description in their studies, and also in solving problems in their future job with an example of market research. In the conversation, turn 3 and 11 are both followed by silence, but it seems that the former touches a new item (thesis) unknown to learners while turn 11 sounds like an ineffective way to ask for the expected answer. This was, therefore, solved by follow-up questions in turn 5 and 7 as well as 13 and 15 before the agreement of learners at the use of chart description in studying and working was reached.

The role of the instructor: The use of strategies that motivate learners to learn will be demonstrated in the following conversation.

Conversation 2: [a learner wrote the following sentence for a textbook exercise on the board: The graphs illustrate the percentages of four modes of transport use by people ages 37 to 43.]

T: Do you want to make any corrections for your own sentence Yen?

S1: Yes, but... [silence]
 T: OK, if you can't correct it, then tell me which part of the sentence you think is wrong.
 S1: ages
 T: Good recognition. Can you correct it?
 S1: [silence]
 T: Can anyone help her?
 S2: age with -ed?
 T: Good. Duh, aged is the word. Good job.

In the interaction, the first learner had a chance to point out and correct her mistakes. This opportunity that the teacher created for the learner did motivate her thinking, and effort in making correction for herself. At least, she could feel pleased that she knew what the problem was, and faced less embarrassment when corrected by her friends. After that the whole class were involved in the error correction. Those exchanges obviously motivated interactions of the teacher, content, and learners (as individuals and as the whole class) in both meaning and form correction. By doing so, the teacher encouraged individuals' responsibility, concentration, and contribution into the lesson. Moreover, the compliments from the teacher in turn 5 and 9 made learners motivated to contribute in the learning process.

The responsibility for learning: The use of self-directed, lifelong learning skills including determining a personal need to know more, knowing whom to ask or where to seek information is a part of building up learners' autonomy and will be presented in the following dialogue.

Conversation 3:

[T gave learners band descriptor for writing task 1 of IELTS]
 T: Could you look at the column of lexical resource and tell me what you need to do in learning vocabulary?
 S1: Use of synonyms.
 T: And then, what kind of vocabulary would you need to have? Wide range of vocabulary or less common vocabulary?
 S1: A wide range of vocabulary.
 T: OK, synonyms and a wide range of vocabulary. How can you get it? Do you remember the book Cambridge Vocabulary for IELTS I gave you?
 S2: Read it and highlight and learn the new words.

- T: Good, make sure you do it every week. How about grammatical range and accuracy? What would you like me to do for you?
- S3: I have no idea.
- T: You need me to correct your writing? And suggest the grammatical points that you need to work more with, right?
- S3: [nod]
- T: And do you know simple or complex sentences?
- S3: Yes, they are if, not only but also sentence.
- T: But there are more than that, the simple, compound, complex, and compound-complex sentences. Have you learned about them?
- S3: Yes, I can search the web more for them (where to find information)
- T: Good, but if you have any problem, just tell me. (who to ask)

The teacher asked questions to help learners identify what they should do to improve their weaknesses. For example, in turn 1 and 3, the teacher assisted learners to point out that they needed to learn more vocabulary in a wide range of topics, but in turn 5 and 7, suggestions on how to learn new words were given. In addition, in turn 8, learners showed that they did not understand the criteria of grammatical range in the band descriptor, so the teacher clarified the key word by asking guided questions in turn 9 and 11. In brief, learners claimed that vocabulary and grammar were their problems, so through conversations, the teacher helped them know what materials they should work with (Cambridge vocabulary for IELTS and grammar lessons provided by the teacher if requested), where to find answers (the internet), and who to ask for help (the teacher). These assertions from learners are important in promoting life-long learning with their development of the need to know more, the habit to search for information, and the relationship with experts to consult when problems arise.

Moreover, the use of students' self-assessment of their strengths and weaknesses is employed in the following conversation.

Conversation 4. [After the learners look at the criteria for the expected score, the teacher asked them to figure out their own strong and weak points]

- T: Duy, what are your problems in achieving your target band score of 6.0?

- S: sometimes I have problems with my task achievement, and coherence and cohesion. Sometimes I cannot translate the ideas in Vietnamese into English logically. As for lexical resource I can read books, but for grammar for band 6, I think I am OK.
- T: I can see that in your writing, grammar is your strong point, yeah, and you know you need to read more books for ideas and vocabulary. Good.

The exchange explored the strengths and weaknesses of the learner, and triggered his initiative in planning what to do to improve his shortcomings. The job of the teacher in the conversation above was only to initiate the learner's self-evaluation and confirm the accuracy of it.

The processes and purposes of Assessment.

The use of authentic assessment within the learning process will be introduced to familiarize learners with the use of the marking scheme in the following excerpt.

Conversation 5:

[After looking at the writing and commenting on the parts of it, learners compared the essay with the band descriptor]

T: what band score should we give to the essay for task achievement?

S1: band 5

T: what makes you say band 5?

S1: it addresses the task [as in the band descriptor]

T: does it address the task? Can it help you understand the graph correctly?

S2: Yes

T: I don't think so. The introduction and overview are misleading.

S 2 talk to S1 [in Vietnamese]: But it is wrong only in the structure, not the information.

T: Does it make us misunderstand what the graph is about?

S2: Yes.

T: So it is a serious mistake. So band?

S 2: band 4

T: OK. That is an example for you to know how you compare your writing with the band descriptor. It will help you understand my comments for your paper and keep track of your progress from now on.

The interaction guides learners to use the official and authentic band descriptor as a check list for their own learning. Thanks to the criteria in the band descriptor, learners can understand the teacher's remarks on their essays and also can watch their own progress and have plans to develop their skills and knowledge.

In turns 3 and 5, the teacher wanted to make the learner justify his answer. However, this attempt failed when he did not recognize the problem, which prompted the teacher to give a comment in turn 7. The learner still did not agree then and talked to his friend in Vietnamese, and this led the teacher to asking the whole class more questions in turn 9 and 11 to come to a complete persuasion.

The Balance of Power (control issues): The balance of power is shown via providing opportunities to learn even after classes. Following is a sequence of comments between the teacher and a learner after she had posted her homework essay on the Facebook group of the class.

Đ. Q. Trâm

March 26 at 2:24am

Teacher, please have a look at my homework. I'm sorry for the time-consuming practice. [Followed by the essay of the learner]

Xuan Minh Nguyen: [teacher comments on every sentence of the whole essay]

Đ. Q. Trâm I got it teacher thank you. The fact that I have done some research on the internet and they said that in the introduction, "given" could be used, so...:-?

[Liked by the teacher]

Xuan Minh Nguyen "Given" could be used, but without it the meaning does not change, so why do we have to waste time writing a word that does not contribute to make any difference?

[Liked by the learner]

This interaction is not limited by the time, or space, so it provides a great opportunity for learners to have the most practice, and receive the most correction from friends and guidance from the teacher. In giving

comments back to their friends, they will have to do their research. This also helps learners increase their active learning.

The survey results

The author distributed 11 questionnaires to two classes and collected the data in the following table. The learners were asked to tick in different level of reference they have for different purposes of teacher-learner interactions. The options are from 1 for “Do not like it at all”, 2 for “Do not like it a little”, 3 for “ Neutral”, 4 for “ Like it a little”, and 5 for “ Like it a lot”.

| Questions | | Option 1 | Option 2 | Option 3 | Option 4 | Option 5 |
|--|------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|
| Question 1: Teachers ask questions to help you correct your own mistakes | Frequency | 0 | 0 | 2 | 4 | 5 |
| | Percentage | 0 | | 18.18 | 81.82 | |
| Question 2: Teachers ask questions to ask friends to correct your mistakes. | Frequency | 0 | 1 | 3 | 4 | 3 |
| | Percentage | 9.09 | | 27.27 | 63.64 | |
| Question 3: Teachers ask questions so that you can build up your own lessons | Frequency | 0 | 0 | 1 | 8 | 2 |
| | Percentage | 0 | | 9.09 | 90.91 | |
| Question 4: Teachers ask questions to help you relate new lessons to the old ones | Frequency | 0 | 0 | 1 | 6 | 4 |
| | Percentage | 0 | | 9.09 | 90.91 | |
| Question 5: Teachers ask questions to check if you have understood the lesson or not. | Frequency | 0 | 0 | 0 | 8 | 3 |
| | Percentage | 0 | | 0 | 100 | |
| Question 6: Teachers ask questions to help you see how the learned knowledge or skills are used in real life | Frequency | 0 | 0 | 1 | 5 | 5 |
| | Percentage | 0 | | 9.09 | 90.91 | |
| Question 7: Teachers ask questions to provide weaker learners opportunity to participate | Frequency | 0 | 1 | 0 | 4 | 6 |
| | Percentage | 9,09 | | 0 | 90.91 | |

| Questions | | Option 1 | Option 2 | Option 3 | Option 4 | Option 5 |
|--|------------|----------|----------|----------|----------|----------|
| Question 8: Teachers ask questions to stimulate your logical, critical or imaginative thinking | Frequency | 0 | 0 | 3 | 5 | 3 |
| | Percentage | 0 | | 27.27 | 72.73 | |
| Question 9: Teachers ask questions to get you relate your own story to an issue | Frequency | 0 | 0 | 3 | 6 | 2 |
| | Percentage | 0 | | 27.27 | 72.73 | |
| Question 10: Teachers give the answer right away about new knowledge and do not ask guided questions for learners to find the answer themselves. | Frequency | 0 | 4 | 1 | 5 | 0 |
| | Percentage | 45.45 | | 9.09 | 45.45 | |
| Question 11: Teachers create closed groups on Facebook for learners to communicate after class. | Frequency | 0 | 0 | 0 | 9 | 2 |
| | Percentage | 0 | | 0 | 100 | |

Table 1. Attitudes of learners towards teacher-learner interactions.

As can be seen in the table above, the majority of learners (from around 63% to 100 %) advocated teacher-learner interactions to guide them in a variety of activities in class ranging from correcting mistakes, constructing lessons, relating old and new lessons, checking learners' understanding, figuring out real life application of the lesson, involving weaker learners in the lesson, personalizing the lessons with learners' shared stories, and creating channels for communication after class. These are the activities that are essential in any classrooms, but instead of making them more teacher-controlled, the teacher can involve learners in the process to transfer the main role in the problem solving process to them. That consequentially makes the class more learner-centered.

As regards question 10, only 45.45% of students believed that teachers should be the authority in giving explanations of new knowledge, but the same percentage of respondents were against this practice. This shows an equal share between learners who wanted it to be directly

transferred from the teacher and those who wanted to explore the new knowledge with the teacher's guidance.

In brief, the result of the survey illustrates an overwhelming preference of learners for interactions with the teacher to contribute to their learning process.

Conclusions

The findings of the study shed light on two questions raised in the study. As for the first question (How is learner-centeredness realized through teacher-learner interactions?), the analysis of the interactions between the teacher and learners explained the achievement of some components in five dimensions of learner-centeredness as follows:

Dimension 1: The function of content.

Learners understand the function of the content, why it is learned.

Dimension 2: The role of the instructor.

The teacher creates an environment that motivates students' learning.

Dimension 3: The responsibility for learning

Students can and do assess their own learning.

Dimension 4: The process and purposes of Assessment.

Authentic assessment (what practitioners/professionals do) is used

Dimension 5: The balance of power.

Students take advantage of opportunities to learn.

In general, what was gained from teacher-learner interactions can be briefly summarized. First, the interactions obviously facilitated more learners' contribution into building up their own lesson, correcting themselves, feeling motivated with the guided questions, confirmation, correction or compliments from the teacher. Second, through teacher-learner interactions, the learners themselves could recognize the link between the knowledge and skills they got and real life applications. Third, interactions helped learners increase autonomy through having good understanding of the assessment criteria, pointing out their own weaknesses, guiding them to keep track of their own progress and actively having plans for self-improvement. Finally, out-of-class interaction on Facebook creates another channel for learners to be more responsible in posting, sharing, discussing, and correcting for each other as required by the class rules besides receiving remarks from the teacher.

The answer for the second question (What do learners like teacher-learner interactions for?) is revealed in the data of the survey. In particular, interactions can perform a wide range of functions from error corrections to constructing the lesson, exploring new knowledge and many others. Most learners agreed that, in classroom instructions, teacher-led interactions should be promoted in the way that results in more learners' involvement in their learning. Even in exploring new knowledge, such exchanges are still appreciated by learners. Therefore, the role of teachers as facilitators in IELTS writing classes is clearly justified when they know how to explore different aspects of the five dimensions of learner-centeredness through teacher-learner interactions.

Implications

Through observing two classes, the author recognized that the closer the relationship between the teacher and learners was, the faster the answers would come and the more willing the learners were in answering questions. Therefore, to do teacher-learner interactions more effectively, teachers should build up rapport with their learners at the beginning. However, teacher-learner interactions should be done with the whole class more often than with individuals because teachers do not want only one or two learners can learn. Moreover, teachers should be patient when giving leading questions until learners can answer properly, unless they will give answers themselves and turn the class into a more teacher-centered environment. Last but not least, teachers should be aware that such interactions may be time-consuming, so they should keep reasonable time for certain activities.

Limitations

The study did not have the lessons video recorded to observe non - language interactions, so the effect of body language in interactions were not clearly described. Besides, five dimensions of learner centeredness could only be partially realized in each class, with some typical selected examples, which cannot prove the learner-centeredness of the whole lesson. Finally, the study was done on writing skill only; therefore, more research needs to be implemented with other skills of IELTS and other general English courses to explore the use of teacher-learner interactions in improving learner-centeredness.

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Errors Help the Ninth-graders in Vietnam Acquire Sentence Transformation

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Abstract

Sentence transformation, an important grammar item, exists in most English tests and examinations from grade 9 to upper grades in Vietnam. Statistically, 60% of the candidates in the national general high school graduation examination was not able to complete the writing part that involved sentence transformation. This research focuses on how to help the ninth-graders acquire sentence transformation thanks to the errors the students tried in their learning. The appropriate ways to correct the errors and to motivate the students prove helpful.

Key words: sentence transformation; error; correction; motivation

Introduction

Sentence transformation, one of the most difficult items in English grammar, has been available in all tests and examination in primary school, junior and senior high school as of grade 3. This item is so hard that over half of students cannot transform one structure into the other. As a result, over 60% students was not able to complete the sentence transformation in the national general high school graduation examination in 2015. Having applied many modern methods to teaching it, teachers have been trying to support their students to overcome this difficulty; however, the result has not been improved. Only a few students who can afford to take tutors' courses, especially the ones in big cities, and the ones at foreign language centers can find it easy to learn the passive voice and do this kind of test well.

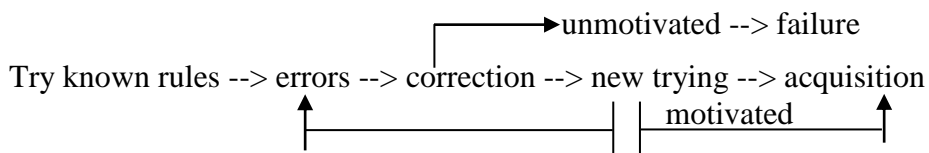
When students first learn sentence transformation, they try their known ways and make some errors. Teachers often blame them for errors and correct them at once, which makes students unmotivated. In a pleasant atmosphere, students are encouraged to make errors and find the best way to acquire sentence transformation with the teacher's help. The positive result in the research is shown through the marks of the tests that students get. Above all, the linguistic reactions of the students which were obtained from the observation questionnaire afterwards testified that the students could acquire basic sentence transformation.

Literature Review

Making errors in learning a foreign language is inevitable. Students try new rules and make errors to acquire the new language, which is a research topic in second language acquisition (Corder, 1971; Ellis, 2008).

Errors were considered problems that had to be deleted at once. On the contrary, Corder (1967) thought that errors are tools that students use to acquire the language; AbiSamra (2003), Gass and Selinker (1983) found errors evidence to show students' levels in acquiring the second language.

Learning a foreign language, students often apply the knowledge of their native language to learning the second language wrongly. These errors may lead to two results: (1) students are encouraged thanks to teacher's appropriate correction and try new rules to acquire the second language better, and (2) students are unmotivated due to teacher's rude correction and acquire worse and worse.



Dulay, Burt and Krashen (1982) proposed errors according to surface structure. They thought that students applied inappropriate rules when they change the surface structure in particular and systematic way. The

errors include omission, adding, false information, wrong order, wrong vocabulary, blending, false analogy, misanalysis, undergeneralization, redundancy, acculturation, etc.

Doff (1988) mentioned the following principles for correcting language errors: "Encouraging students to acquire academic language knowledge; praising students when they are successful in communication, making students feel their progress; avoiding causing students to be ashamed when they make errors; finally, correcting language errors in minimal time the most effectively; if it takes a lot of time to correct errors and teachers pay much attention to correction, the progress of learning and the classroom atmosphere will be affected".

Hendrickson (1978) proposed questions with words "should", "when", "which", "how" and "who" to study the progress of correction in the classroom. For three decades, the researchers looked for the answers to these questions; however, up to now there have not been clear answers. These questions are: (1) Should students' errors be corrected? (2) When are these errors corrected, if applicable? (3) Which errors should be corrected? (4) How are they corrected? And (5) Who corrects?

Hedge (2000, p.13) shows that interaction encourages students to produce more accurate and appropriate language. While interacting with each other, students try to make themselves understood by using the language resources they have already acquired in different ways, such as speaking slowly, repeating or clarifying their ideas through rephrasing to produce comprehensible output and to provide input for other students. Interaction between student and student is great motivation so that students can learn better. It is the reason why group work has become common features of contemporary classrooms.

Research and Result

To orientate the research, the following four questions are designed:

1. What kinds of errors do students make?
2. How and when do teachers correct the errors?
3. What linguistic reactions do students have after they have acquired sentence transformation?

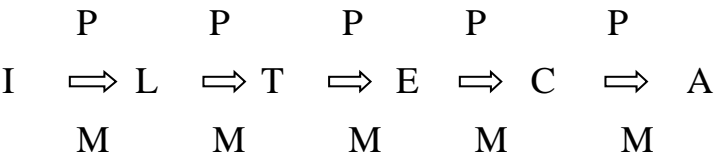
Ten students were chosen to attend a five-period course to study sentence transformation in English 9. During the time, they took five fifteen-minute tests: tests 1 and 2 were composed of the basic sentence transformation (beginning); tests 3 and 4 consisted of the ones at the pre-intermediate level; and test 5 was the mixture of the ones in two tenses. In this limited research, only the transformation between the active voice and passive voice is done.

The teacher flexibly applied different ways of error correction to teaching students sentence transformation. In the first test, some students got weak marks and none got the highest. The teacher did not announce these marks and intimately called each student to discuss and help them recognize and self-correct their errors. The same activities took place in the third test. In the second and fourth tests, students could improve their marks and the teacher announced and copied them in the class-book. The teacher let the students discuss the errors and correct them in groups. The last test that was the summary proved that students could make good progress in learning sentence transformation. The classroom atmosphere was always kept pleasant and friendly. No student felt face-lost and all of them actively engaged in the learning process.

The result of the means in the five tests:

| Test | Mean |
|--------|------|
| Test 1 | 5,9 |
| Test 2 | 7,5 |
| Test 3 | 6,4 |
| Test 4 | 7,6 |
| Test 5 | 7,9 |

In this table, the progress is clear between test 2 (7,5) and test 1 (5,9) and between test 4 (7,6) and test 3 (6,4). The result of the summary test 5 (7,9) is the highest. It is proved that in the process of learning, practicing, making errors, recognizing them and correcting them, students have acquired sentence transformation. The process took place, as follows:



In which:

I: Teacher's introduction

L: Students' learning

T: Students' trying

E: Students' errors

C: student's, students' and teacher's correction

A: students' acquisition

The analysis of the errors

The US First Lady, Eleanor Roosevelt, stated "Confidence comes not from always being right but from not fearing to be wrong". Teachers should create this confidence through motivating them to try known rules to solve the problems they face.

Teaching basic sentence transformation of the passive voice, we found out students' following errors:

+ Omission:

Students often omit TO BE and do not use articles in the passive voice.

Ex: Jack plays the guitar.

The guitar played by Jack. (IS is omitted)

Guitar is played by Jack. (THE is omitted)

The guitar is played. (B~~O~~ BY JACK)

+ Addition:

Bound to linguistic rules, students apply too many rules to a passive sentence at the same time. This error is composed of the following subclasses:

- Overgeneralization: Not paying attention to the exceptions and irregular cases, students apply new rules to every case even though it does not make use of general rule.

Ex: Kathy draws two pictures.

Two pictures are drawn by Kathy. (Draw is an irregular verb, so its past participle must be DRAWN).

They read books.

Books are readed. (Read 1 is an irregular verb, so its past participle must be READ /red/).

- Double use: Students apply a rule twice in a passive sentence.

Ex: She doesn't like music.

Music isn't doesn't liked by her. (Using *isn't* but not *doesn't*)

They read books.

Books are been read. (Using ARE but not BEEN)

- Fossilization: Students unintentionally add new grammatical rules.

Ex: He never eats snake.

Snake isn't never eaten. (Using NEVER but not N'T)

+ False information:

According to Dulay (1982) [5], students wrongly use structures or morphological forms, including the following subclasses:

- Wrong application:

Ex: Do they help you?

Do you are helped? (Using ARE at the beginning of the interrogative sentences but not DO).

Could they pass the exam?

Were the exam could be passed? (Using COULD at the beginning of the interrogative sentences but not WERE)

- Wrong form:

Ex: I help him.

He is helped by I. (We should use personal object ME rather than I)

Him is helped by me. (We should use personal object HE rather than HIM)

Mary makes two cakes.

Two cakes is made by Mary. (IS is used because of singular form Mary, instead of ARE)

- Wrong alternation:

Ex: I don' like music.

Music is no liked by me. (Students should use NO rather than NOT in the passive)

+ Wrong order:

The passive sentence is grammatically right, but the word order is syntactically wrong.

Ex: Mike takes some flowers into the room.

Some flowers are taken by Mike into the room. (Phrase BY MIKE must be behind INTO THE ROOM).

He takes some flowers into the room today.

Some flowers are taken today into the room. (TODAY [adverb of time] must be behind INTO THE ROOM [adverb of place]).

Thomas never drinks beer.

Beer never is drunk by Thomas. (NEVER must be behind IS and before DRUNK)

+ Wrong vocabulary:

Students often choose “to be” wrongly which does not suit new subject due to thinking about the subject in the active sentence.

Ex: Kathy draws three pictures.

Three pictures is drawn by Kathy. (IS is used under the impact of Kathy [singular form], instead of ARE which suits the new subject).

+ Blending: Students make use of two or more grammatical forms in a sentence.

Ex: Kathy draws three pictures.

Three pictures are drawned by Kathy. (Students apply both regular and irregular to a verb).

Jack can repair the bike.

The bike is caned repaired by Jack. (Instead of *can be repaired*)

+ False analogy: Comparing the similar forms, students coin equivalent form.

Ex: Hoa says a sentence.

A sentence is said by Hoa. (Bearing PLAY and PLAYED in minds, students try SAY and SAYED)

+ Misanalysis: Students misunderstand the concept when they make up wrong hypothesis.

Ex: Daisy washes the feet.

The feet is washed by Daisy. (Considering FEET singular, students use IS instead of ARE)

+ Undergeneralization: In this case students use insufficient rules.

Ex: Mr. Tan has someone repair his car.

Someone is had repair his car by Mr. Tan. (Not knowing that this is a causative form, students use the human object for the subject in the passive, instead of: Mr. Tan has his car repaired)

+ Redundancy: Students make use of the rules more times. Usually, affixes are morphologically used redundantly. This error is similar to blending.

Ex: Everyone knows Mr. Obama.

Mr. Obama is knowned by everyone. (Students write KNOWNED instead of KNOWN, so ED is redundant).

+ Acculturation: Under the impact of the native language, students transfer Vietnamese structure to English ones. This error is called *transfer*.

Ex: Anh ta giành được hai hai huy chương.

He is won two medals. (Due to thinking about *bị, được* in the passive structures, students use these structures in English).

The ways the errors were corrected

The most important rule of second language acquisition is creating every favorable condition for students to acquire lessons maximally. In this study, we focus on how students acquire and apply their knowledge to transforming English active and passive sentences.

This is a difficult item, so students often dislike it. To encourage students to learn and acquire well, we concentrate on the following points:

- Creating pleasant atmosphere in the classroom.
- Making students confident to try their known knowledge.
- Applying learner-centred method.
- Correcting their errors flexibly, combining all the ways suggested by the scholars.

Specifically, we correct the errors according to each kind of them.

+ Omission:

When a student omit TO BE in the passive voice, I remind him/her of the difference between the active and the passive besides changing the position of the subject and the object. They recognize the existence of “*bị*” and “*được*” which are added. “*Bị*” and “*được*” are equal to “*to be*”. I ask them to check “*to be*” and they add it to the sentence. We discuss very intimately, so students do not feel unhappy or “losing face”.

Jack plays the guitar.

The guitar is played by Jack.

As for the error of lacking “*the*”, I do not mention, but underline “*the guitar*” in the active. It is a minor error, and student can self-correct.

Jack plays the guitar.

+ Addition:

- Overgeneralization: When a student makes this error, I comment: “You are right. However, you should note that draw is an irregular verb. You only adjust some more, then your sentence is perfect”. As for “*read*” I correct the error the same way. The student who makes errors feel pleasant and he/she adjusts the verb.

Kathy draws two pictures.

Two pictures are drawn by Kathy.

They read books.

Books are read.

It should be noted that although students make errors, I told them: “You are right. However,...”. This motivation causes them to be confident in learning.

The errors should be corrected at the suitable times. At first, students and teachers discuss the errors in a friendly way and the marks are not given publicly, but they are secretly noted down by the teacher. Then students are asked to discuss the errors in groups and the representative will come to the board to correct them under teachers' monitoring. Every student feel that they can make some contribution to the correction. When the students become confident enough, the marks are given publicly.

The linguistic reactions of the students

After three weeks' acquiring sentence transformation, through the observation and monitoring, the students, thanks to the acquisition of basic sentence transformation, show the following linguistics reactions in the process of learning the next parts of the curricula.

The survey is done both in learning places: through communications in the groups (Vietnamese and English) and outside the classroom: at home and in others. The result is obtained from a questionnaire that was distributed to students in academic week 30, that is, two weeks later. The result shows students' linguistic reactions in different environment.

The linguistic elements cause students to be wrong

+ Influence of “bị” and “được” in Vietnamese:

Because students translate English passive sentences into Vietnamese ones with two auxiliaries “bị” and “được” (in the basic period, students are introduced only these two words), students think that any Vietnamese sentences which have these two words are passive sentences. In these cases, the following explanation is given to students:

“Bị” and “được” may be verbs: They are transitive verbs and require two objects.

Ex: Nông dân được mùa. (Farmers harvest a good crop)

Việt Nam bị hạn hán. (It is draught in Vietnam)

“Bị” and “được” are two auxiliaries: They play the role of modifiers for main verbs which affect the subjects.

Ex: Hoa is helped by Nam.

Nam is punished by the teacher.

This is a kind of analogy when students think about the equivalent forms in the acquired passive sentences. Students' making this error testifies that they have acquired the passive voice; however, they are not skilled.

It is supposed that in advanced period when they are grown up, they will contact other auxiliaries such as “phải”, “chịu”, “mắc”, “khả”, etc. Then they continue to express these analogy errors with these auxiliaries. In fact, these words often play the role of verbs in Vietnamese. (Different ages influence second language acquisition at different levels).

+ Influence of “bị” and “được” in English:

After acquiring English passive sentences, students think that “is” “am”, “are”, “was” and “were” mean “bị” or “được” if after them are other verbs. In English grammar, behind the forms of TO BE in present simple and past simple there are non-finite verbs: infinitive with “TO”, infinitive without “TO” and present participle.

In the continuing process, meeting sentences in present progressive and past progressive, some students translate them into passive Vietnamese sentences.

Ex: You are arriving on Saturday 20th. (p.97, English 8)

Students translate “Bạn được đến vào ngày thứ bảy 20”.

Ba was taking a shower at eight o'clock last night. (P.119, English 8)

Students translate “Ba được tắm vòi sen lúc 8 giờ tối hôm qua”.

This is a kind of overgeneralization with the formula: BE + V-ED (past participle) which is used instead of the formula: BE + V-ING (present participle). Students apply their knowledge to other rules even though these rules are partly similar.

It is hypothesized that later learning the passive voice in other tenses, students will make other errors of overgeneralization. Then they will be of different ages.

Besides, under the influence of “*to be*” meaning “*bị*” and “*được*”, translating into Vietnamese, students abuse this lexical semantics in the following cases.

Ex: The prince was sinful.

(Hoàng tử bị tội)

The correct translation is: “Hoàng tử có tội”.

Ex: The princess was famous.

(Công chúa được nổi tiếng)

The correct translation is: “Công chúa nổi tiếng”.

Through acquiring the passive voice, students can differentiate active meaning “*được*” from negative meaning “*bị*”. Therefore, their translation of “was sinful” is “*bị tội*” and “was famous” is “*được nổi tiếng*”. However, only element “*to be*” is not a passive sentence and in the above sentences “*to be*” is before the words showing quality, it is not translated into Vietnamese. (“Hoàng tử có tội” instead of “Hoàng tử **thì** có tội”)

+ Students do not differentiate suffix ED of past simple from the one of past participle in English:

Through the observing and monitoring, two weeks’ acquiring basic passive sentences later, students make the error of omission. In this case, students regard past simple of regular verbs as past participle and BE is contracted.

Ex: The radio played.

Students translate: “Đài được hát/Đài được mở” because they think that it is a passive sentence. In fact, it is an active sentence and verb “play” is an intransitive verb. They see “played” and consider it a passive sentence. Acquiring the basic form of the passive voice, students mechanically think that “played” is in the passive voice.

Furthermore, students also make the error of analogy between past simple and past participle of regular verbs in English.

Ex: The case weighed two kilos.

Students translate: “Cái va li được cân hai kí lô” because they think that “weighed” is a past participle. In practice “weigh” is classified into the verbs which are not allowed to use in the passive voice. It is an

arbitrary rule in English. In the above sentence “weigh” is an intransitive verb and it is normally translated: “Cái va li nặng hai kí lô”.

+ Influence of “BY” in English:

Some students make the error of preposition “BY” after acquiring passive sentences. In the passive sentences the agent of the action is moved to the position of an object behind “BY”. In most cases, especially in the first basic forms, “BY” is translated into “*bởi*”. Meeting this preposition in other sentences, students translate “BY” into “*bởi*”. In the classification, it is an error of fossilization.

Ex: The car stopped by some policemen.

(Xe bị dừng lại bởi vài công an)

In fact, the above sentence is in the active form, “*stop*” is an intransitive verb and “*by*” is a proposition of place. Therefore, the above sentence must be translated into “Xe dừng lại bên cạnh vài công an”.

Some students translate these following sentences wrongly due to fossilized acquisition of the passive voice.

Ex: The train has arrived at the station by nine o’clock.

(Tàu đến ga bởi chín giờ)

Instead of: “Tàu đến ga khoảng chín giờ”.

It is supposed that this innocent error only takes place in the adolescent (from 13 to 14). At later ages, this kind of error will not appear.

3.3.2. The linguistic elements cause students to be right

+ The equivalent models of active-passive sentences between English and Vietnamese.

English: Active: S + V + O

Passive: S + Be PP + By O

Vietnamese: Act: CN + ĐT + BN

Pass.: CN + Bị/Được ĐT + Bởi + BN

In the above models the equivalent elements can be seen: S \equiv CN, V \equiv ĐT, Be \equiv Bị/Được, By \equiv Bởi, O \equiv BN. On the basis, the order of the models is similar. These linguistic characteristics help students write

and translate right sentences between English and Vietnamese.

+ Students can clearly differentiate present participle from past participle in lexical semantics.

In the aspect of lexical semantics, present participle is active meaning and past participle is passive one.

Ex: A killing man: Kẻ giết người (kẻ gây ra hành động).

A killed man: Người bị giết/người bị ai đó giết.

In this lexical semantics, students easily use adjectives derived from participles to modify nouns in English.

Ex: Interesting films - interested audience, boring books – bored readers, ...

+ Positive-negative meanings of preposition “by”

Thanks to the lexical semantics of main verbs, it is easy for students to understand and translate the positive-negative meanings of preposition “by” into “được” or “bị”.

Ex: Hoa is praised by the teacher.

(Hoa được thầy khen).

Hoa is punished by the teacher.

(Hoa bị thầy chê)

Conclusion

Through the results of the former tests and examinations, learning sentence transformation is “incurable”. Students, especially the ones in the remote places, cannot do these kinds of grammatical problems. Encouraging students to try their known rules and make errors that teachers guide them to self-correct or correct in groups is gradually useful in supporting students to acquire sentence transformation. The teacher’s patience, flexible guidance and friendly attitude helps students overcome their complex and timidity in order to engage in self-study and group work. These are the decisive elements to motivate students to reach their goal: the acquisition of sentence transformation. The linguistic reactions afterwards show that sentence transformation has come into students’ mind and they behave to sentence transformation differently from what they have done before.

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Improving English Majored-Students' Learning Outcomes via the Inclusion of Entrepreneurship Education and Training at the Tertiary Level in Vietnam

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Abstract

This paper centers on exploring the trend and practice of including entrepreneurship education and training (hereinafter called EET) in the higher education curriculum in the world. Its author also supports the idea that entrepreneurship can be learnt through EET programs under certain circumstances. After examining the true condition of Vietnam for private entrepreneurs since it became independent in 1945, his analysis shows that Vietnam is the prospective market not only for domestic business people but also for foreign investors. Then, he highly recommends some proper measures for Vietnamese universities and colleges to introduce EET programs to English-majored students formally. It is supposed that the inclusion of EET programs at the tertiary level not only helps minimize the unemployment rate among new graduates on the present-day labor market but also contributes to generating jobs for others.

Keywords: entrepreneurship; intrapreneurs; micropreneurs; entrepreneurship; education and training; enterprise; start-up; graduate; incubator; enterprise zone; mindsets

Introduction

Entrepreneurship has long existed and is the most powerful economic force known to humans (Certo & Certo, 2009). The history of the

United States is the history of entrepreneurs, (Nickels *et al*, 2012); besides, Greenfield and Strickson (1981) attached the role to the economic growth, creating business and fostering innovation, (cited in Hoang & Dung, 2009). Although literature and practice have worked out that entrepreneurship is important in national economic development (Napier *et al*, 2012), it has just got researchers' interest for the last fifty to thirty years. Aware of its importance, universities and colleges, (hereinafter called *universities*) in various parts of the world have introduced EET to equip their students with certain knowledge and skills and nurture their aspiration to become entrepreneurs, the active part of a business generating jobs rather than the passive one (Wilson, 2008).

In Vietnam, many universities have been granted permission to offer BA degrees in English, English Studies, Teacher Education in English, English Linguistics and Literature, English Translating and Interpreting, Business-oriented English (hereinafter called English). They conventionally effort to help their undergraduates master a certain amount of skills and knowledge in their major and for some universities, they offer job-seeking skills as extra-curricular courses; thus, entrepreneurship is still excluded from the curriculum. Though the need for recruiting graduates of English is still growing, especially at the period of international integration, the labor market has become more selective and even choosy, and seeking an appropriate job turns out to be much more competitive than ever; thus, a creative and proactive graduate might be wise to choose to enter into entrepreneurship.

As a result, this paper reviews various scientific works on EET programs, especially at the tertiary level. Then, the author discusses the specific conditions in Vietnam for new graduates in general and English majored-students in particular to become entrepreneurs. Finally, he proposes some recommendations for universities to put into consideration in the hope that they can take advantage of EET.

Entrepreneurial Opportunities in Vietnam

After President Ho Chi Minh read the Independence Declaration on September 2nd, 1945 to give birth to the People's Democratic Republic of Vietnam, currently known as the Socialist Republic of Vietnam (hereinafter called Vietnam), the centrally planned economic model

prevailed for a long time. Despite the fact that Vietnam was faced with difficulties such as War of National Reunification (1954-1975), Cambodian-Vietnamese Border War with the Khmer (1977-1979) and Chinese-Vietnamese Border War (1979-1990), some big economic reforms such as Land Reforms (1956-1958), Collectivization of Farms (1959-1970), or Rehabilitation of Private Industries and Trade (1964-1975) were still introduced to reinforce the dominance of the state economic sector and simultaneously eliminated illegally-recognized private ownership. During the time, entrepreneurship was kept from growing and developing, (Hoang & Dung, 2009). However, 1986 was often considered by many as a turning point for Vietnam when the command economy was officially replaced after the 6th Communist Party Congress introduced the Reform or *Đổi Mới*. According to Hoang and Dung (2009), this “revived the private sector economy and hence encouraged private capital investments in legally recognized private entrepreneurial operations.

Then, on the way towards international integration, after normalizing the diplomatic relation with the USA in 1995, especially with the embargo on foreign trade lifted, and joining the World Trade Organization (WTO) in 2006, the Association of Southeast Asian Nations (ASEAN) in 1995, Asia-Pacific Economic Cooperation (APEC) in 1998, Asia-Europe Meeting (ASEM) in 1997, ASEAN Economic Community (AEC) in 2015, and Trans-Pacific Strategic Economic Partnership Agreement (TTP) in 2016, Vietnam not only has recognized and helped the private sector grow and develop but also has attracted more foreign development investments (FDI). The centrally planned economy was replaced by market-oriented one, liberalizing the workforce and making most out of its creativity. In fact, Vietnam is proceeding closer to developed countries, taking advantage of their advances in almost all the domains and becoming a cosmopolitan labor market for FDI, which speeds the generation of jobs and wealth for its residents.

The Reform has proven to be the right way for Vietnam to get out of poverty, obsolescence, and red-tape and has changed the structure of its society. It has brought about the phenomenal transition to a market-driven model. Thanks to the international cooperation and effective reforms, Vietnam had 488.148 businesses (updated on January 31, 2015), over 95% of which are legally recognized as small- and

medium- sized enterprises¹. Numerous as they might be, Vũ Tiến Lộc, Chairman of Vietnam Chamber of Commerce and Industry stressed that for privately-owned businesses to grow and develop in the international integration, Vietnam needs an entrepreneurial revolution with the objective of starting up five million enterprises, tenfold compared to the existing number of operational ones². The government of Vietnam also issued a lot of documents on facilitating enterprises, especially start-ups and Vietnam is arousing national entrepreneurial spirits for businesses or individuals³. Deputy Prime Minister Vũ Đức Đam also reveals that the government always generates favorable conditions for start-ups in order that entrepreneurship can spread nationwide⁴. As a result, entrepreneurship is quite prospective in Vietnam currently not only for domestic business people but also for foreign investors, especially when it has a population of over 90 million, many of whom wish to be rich in a fast growing economy (Napier *et al*, 2012).

Entrepreneurship Education and Training

Entrepreneurship

There is growing interest in the role that entrepreneurship can play as a catalyst to achieve economic and social objectives, including innovation, employment, growth and equity (Valerio *et al*, 2014, p.11). The United States, Canada, and New Zealand have passed acts which offers priority to those prospective entrepreneurs who want to get their visas or permanent residence. The United States Immigration Act passed in 1990 created a category of “investor visas” because many people believe that the more entrepreneurs come, the more jobs will be created and the more the economy will grow (Nickels *et al*, 2012). Scholarly, there has been a great amount of literature on entrepreneurship discussed by various authors in economics, sociology anthropology, business management and political science since the mid-20th century, especially Joseph Schumpeter who attached entrepreneurship to the progress of human society and economic growth (Hoang & Dung, 2009). Below are different areas of literature on entrepreneurship suggested by different scholars.

¹ The Saigon Economic Times (Online), posted on March 5, 2015

² VN Express (Online), posted on October 4, 2015

³ VGP News, posted on February 14, 2016

⁴ VN Express (Online), posted on March 30, 2016

Entrepreneurship is accepting the risk of starting and running a business (Nickels *et al*, 2012; Snell, 1999). This risk taking is an attribute of entrepreneurs and they take moderate, calculated risks, not gambling, (Nickels *et al*, 2012). Besides the risks, entrepreneurs are also defined as those individuals who start a new business on identifying, evaluating and exploiting opportunities.

Nickels *et al* (2012) and Certo and Certo (2009) have contended that forming a new business would enjoy a greater chance of survival and success for entrepreneurial teams. Statistically, approximately 70% of new organizations are started by entrepreneurial teams (Certo & Certo, 2009). The entrepreneurial firm is a particular type of organization that results from the entrepreneurship process, which could be either a totally new firm or the transformation of the existing organization (Stroke & Wilson, 2010). In general, entrepreneurs normally take risks to seize opportunities to form a legally recognized enterprise.

Entrepreneurship is creating new products, either goods or services and is described as the process of discovery (Schumpeter 1934, cited in Valerio *et al*, 2014). To introduce new things, people need to be creative and innovative because “creativity is the ultimate resource for economic development” (Peters, 2009; as cited in Napier *et al*, 2012). During the entrepreneurial management, entrepreneurs must engage in specific management behaviors to drive the market or to produce innovation (Stroke and Wilson, 2010). Placing the emphasis on entrepreneurial creativity, Certo and Certo (2009) also describe entrepreneurs as those with their own ability to identify and exploit information pinpointing business opportunities that others fail to capitalize on.

Entrepreneurship is self-employment. Nickels *et al* (2012) point out that many people enjoy a greater extent of independence and freedom when working for themselves than working for others. Valerio *et al* cite that self-employment demands the differentiation between the incorporated self-employed (formed into an official company or organization with legal status) and the unincorporated self-employed (not formed into an official company or organization with legal status) (Rubinstein, 2013; ascited in Valerio *et al*, 2014). European Commission⁵ asserts, “Entrepreneurial ventures are the major source of new jobs in the economy for the owner and new employees”.

Entrepreneurship is creating jobs. Enterprises can “serve as an important source of income and employment for vulnerable populations, and entrepreneurship is regarded as the largest source of new job growth in both developed and developing countries,” (Birch 1979; as cited in Valerio *et al*, 2014). Fane (2012) also assumes that entrepreneurship give students more employability and Snell (1999, p.236) sees entrepreneurship as the act of forming a new organization of value.

Entrepreneurship is generating wealth. Certo and Certo (2009) refer it to the identification, evaluation and exploitation of opportunities. The framework of entrepreneurial opportunities involves “the occasions to bring into existence new products and services that allow outputs to be sold at a price greater than their cost of production” (Certo & Certo, 2009, p.139). Nickels *et al* (2012) also assert that profit is an important reason for people to become entrepreneurs.

Entrepreneurship is changing the social structure. Greenfield and Strickon (1981, cited in Napier *et al*, 2012) and Klein (1982) view it as the mechanism by means of which society at one stage was transformed to another. To continue praising its role, Baumol (1990; as cited in Napier *et al* 2012) recommends that society should think, act and operate entrepreneurially. Klapper and Richmond (2009) underline the importance of entrepreneurship in contributing to the employment, spillovers, and structural economic change (Valerio *et al*, 2014). Habaradas (2009) also suggests that small and medium sized enterprises are seen as the means of reducing poverty, broadening and deepening the industrial structure. Hills (1994) defines entrepreneurship as a process that causes change in the economic system through innovation to create values for both individuals and society (Paswan & Trang, 2011).

Entrepreneurship not only leads to the formation of start-ups where individuals or teams see opportunities but also may trigger a contagion in well-established enterprises, (Ahuja & Lampert, 2001; McDougall & Oviatt, 2000; as cited in Napier *et al*, 2012, Stroke & Wilson, 2010). These entrepreneurs are often called intrapreneurs⁵ and their idea is to utilize a company’s existing resources to launch a new product or generate profits, (Nickels *et al*, 2012). Another form of

⁵ Creative people who work as entrepreneurs within corporations

entrepreneurship may involve micropreneurs who are willing to accept the risk of starting and managing a business that remains small. Most micropreneurs are home-based businesses, offering their owners a balanced lifestyle while doing what they want to do.

In the light of Vietnam's private entrepreneurship, it represents an important fabric of society and it has been contributing a lot to the country's transitional economy. Prior to the Reform (1986), the dominance of the state economic sector, including state-owned enterprises and collectives, led the national economy and the privately owned sector existed illegally in forms of self-employed households and small businesses. In other words, private entrepreneurship was not permitted by law (Bich *et al*, 2007).

After the Reform, the law has recognized the private sector where the multi-sector economy was chosen as the roadmap for the country's economic growth and development though there were discriminations in terms of access to land, capital, technology, training, and so on, (Bich *et al*, 2007). However, Hoang and Dung (2009) point out that entrepreneurship as the most important driver of the omnipresent growth of the economy, and in fact, it has become a universal attempt and spirits among thousands of people wishing to be rich (Hoang and Dung, 2009). More promisingly, the results of Swiek *et al*'s (2003) research find out that the Vietnamese have a higher level of risk-taking than Thais and Thang's research (2009) also indicates that the Vietnamese have higher score in their intention to start up a business than the USA and Taiwanese and are more confident in creating a new venture than the Taiwanese. Consequently, entrepreneurship not only realizes many Vietnamese people's dreams to get rich but also is the only way out to deal with the high unemployment rate resulting from the influx of new graduates every year and helps compete with foreign enterprises.

Entrepreneurship Education and Training

EET "represents academic education or formal training interventions that share the broad objective of providing individuals with the entrepreneurial mindsets and skills to support participation or performance in a range of entrepreneurial activities", (Valerio *et al*, 2014, p.21).

Over the last twenty years, EET programs to promote entrepreneurial skills and attitudes have been growing great interest worldwide although people doubt whether mindsets and skills are cultivated, taught or transmitted for the purpose of entrepreneurship promotion. Akola and Heinonen (2006) distinguish the art and the science of entrepreneurship, in which the latter is not teachable, except through the practical experiences while the latter can be learnt, (Valerio *et al*, 2014; Wilson, 2008). Furthermore, Europe Commission claims “Entrepreneurs are not born... they “become” through the experiences in their life.” Regarding this point, the author supports Valerio who suggests that “when the education and training system incorporates creative and entrepreneurial skills into teaching methodologies, mindsets and skills more closely tied to the art of entrepreneurship are transmittable”.

Valerio *et al* (2014) also effort to differentiate entrepreneurship education from entrepreneurship training by the program objectives and outcomes as below.

Entrepreneurship education (EE) programs tend to focus on building knowledge and skills for the purpose of entrepreneurship. Due to the academic nature of EE, these programs mostly target students from secondary education to higher education (Valerio *et al*, 2014) as illustrated in *Figure 1*. Education plays an important part in shaping attitudes, skills, and culture, from the primary level up and EE offers a mix of experiential learning, skill building and mindset change (Wilson, 2008). More importantly, European Commission stresses that EE serves as inspiring entrepreneurial potential where people need the mind-set, skills and knowledge to generate creative ideas, and the entrepreneurial initiative to turn those ideas into action.

Entrepreneurship training (ET) programs tend to centre on building the knowledge and skills, explicitly in preparation for starting or operating a new venture. ET programs mainly target a wide number of potential and practicing entrepreneurs, (Valerio *et al*, 2014) as illustrated in *Figure 1*. Also, European Commission adds that after adults have got job experience or have furthered their education, many of them are in need of special assistance to assemble business ideas through education programs on start-ups.

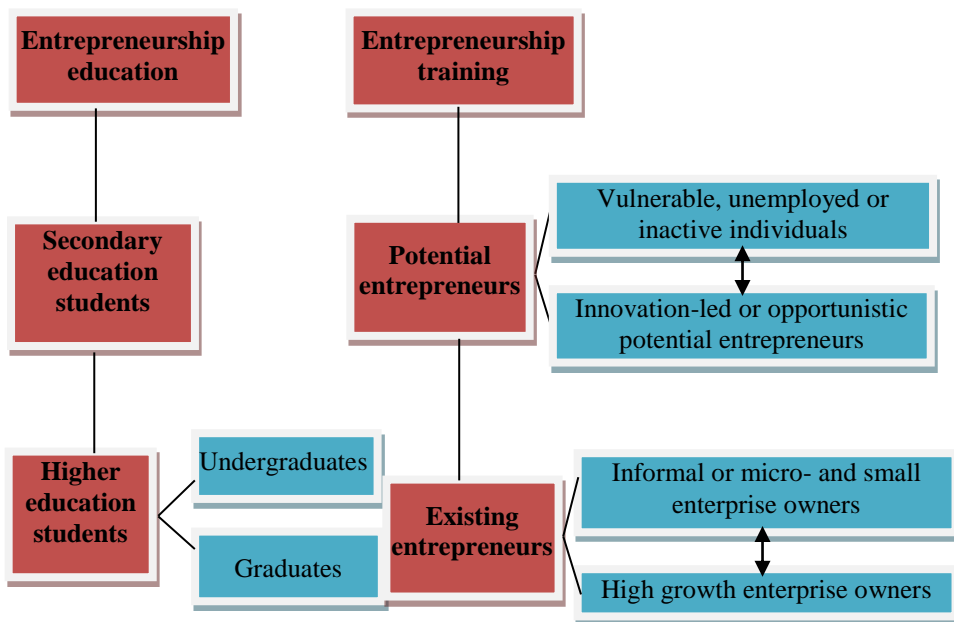


Figure 1. Classifying EE and ET (Valerio et al, 2014)

Even though the two categories of EE and ET are distinguished upon the group of audiences they tend to target, they are often combined and balanced in various interventions, from formal academic education to stand-alone training programs.

Conceptual Framework of EET

On choosing an EET program, course designers usually take into consideration of its objectives and target audiences. Valerio *et al* (2014) use the conceptual framework to categorize EET program outcomes into a series of four major domains as below.

Entrepreneurial mindsets refer to the socio-emotional skills and overall awareness of entrepreneurship associated with entrepreneurial motivation and future success as an entrepreneur (e.g., self-confidence, leadership, creativity, risk propensity, motivation, resilience, and self-efficacy).

Entrepreneurial capabilities refer to entrepreneurs' competencies, knowledge, and technical skills associated with their entrepreneurship (e.g., management skills, accounting, marketing, and technical knowledge).

Entrepreneurial status refers to the temporal state of a program beneficiary as measured through entrepreneurial activities and beyond (e.g., starting a business, becoming employed, and achieving a higher income).

Entrepreneurial performance refers explicitly to how indicators of a venture's performance have changed as a result of an intervention (e.g., higher profits, increased sales, greater employment of others, higher survival rates).

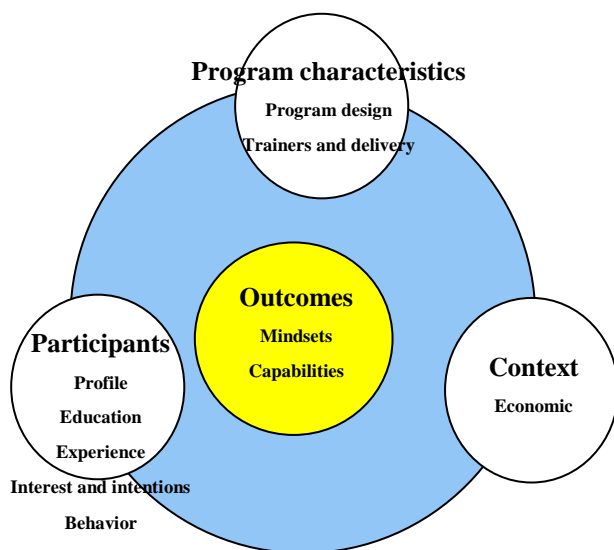


Figure 2. *The conceptual framework (Valerio et al, 2014)*

Examining ten EET programs for higher education students, Valerio *et al* (2014) find out that there is a relationship between entrepreneurship outcomes and academic-focused EET interventions. They evaluated the impact of two out of the ten EET programs on the audiences' outcomes, both evaluations provide compelling results for the capacity to foster positive effects in mindsets capabilities but provide mixed results around entrepreneurial status. The evaluation of the other programs also indicates the promising results in mindsets and capabilities.

Recommendations on EET for English-majored Students

As can be seen on many universities' websites throughout the country, holding a BA in the English language is still appealing to high school

students; consequently, admission is very competitive. Besides, graduates of English are vaguely advised to do multi-disciplinary jobs such as executive workers in finance, tourism, hospitality, diplomacy, import, export, business management, marketing, events management, translation, interpretation, international journalism, and publishing houses; clerks or assistants at meetings, conferences, and economic groups; or teachers of English from the primary level up. However, it is clear that universities are training their students to do certain jobs, becoming the passive part of an organization. Wilson (2008) has pointed that training students for a career is not enough in the present-day time; indeed, it is time for universities to get their students prepared to work in a dynamic, rapidly changing, entrepreneurial environment or become entrepreneurs. Fane (2012) when exploring entrepreneurial opportunities for students studying abroad argues that understanding foreign languages and having intercultural skills are crucial factors in achieving their competency, which is considered as a very desirable skill for global business leaders. Her encouragement is that if one discovers that one has an aptitude for and enjoys language learning, it is worth considering an entrepreneurial career that takes advantage of one's language skills such as starting up a language school, a tourism agency, or a translating and interpreting business. As a result, job-seeking skills should be supplemented with entrepreneurship skills at universities and below are some recommendations to increase English-majored students' learning outcomes via the inclusion of EET.

Universities should offer English-majored students EET programs either as extracurricular courses, perhaps certificate-granting ones, or part of the curriculum with the inclusion of all the four domains of outcomes as mentioned earlier. EE and ET programs should be balanced, depending on participants' characteristics. Therefore, to make them participant-driven courses, the more progress the students make, the more ET programs they should be given. The group of trainers should consist successful businesspersons or professors. Additionally, the courses should involve students from different disciplines in order that can draw upon the expertise from across the university. When the participants become creative and innovative, they can see entrepreneurial opportunities not only in their major but also in different areas. For

example, Fane (2012) finds out that students with linguistic and intercultural skills have started up in various areas of business such as online networks for students, luxury travel websites, language services agencies, writing books, coffee businesses, and so on.

Universities should promote entrepreneurial culture/awareness among students since culture has a great impact on entrepreneurship, especially when strict Confucian values such as generational orders, hierarchy, paternalism, and loyalty tend to guide the majority of people in Vietnam (Hoang & Dung, 2009). This not only hinders students' mindset change and learning of new things to be creative and innovative but also keeps them from reception of new skills. Thus, efforts are badly needed in order that entrepreneurial culture can be formed to promote entrepreneurial attempts and spirits.

EET should be closely linked to business practice. Universities can deploy case studies to inspire their students through each lesson where students can explore successful ventures and admire real-life business owners. In fact, students can develop their managerial skills in business management or new product ideas and concepts via valuating others' entrepreneurial situation in terms of strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and challenges before they might start up their own businesses.

Universities should form institutionally run clubs as the “enterprise zone⁶” or incubator⁷ for potential entrepreneurs who are quite action-oriented. Great business ideas do not work; alternatively, they have to realize, actualize and build their dream in reality (Nickels *et al*, 2012). Accordingly, after students attend EET programs, universities should permit them to start and run small ventures, e.g. shopping stands, food counters or parking lots. Instead of subcontracting out these facilities and services, students should be allowed to trade in petty products such as stationeries, parking, junk food, publications, accessories, decors, or

⁶ Specific geographic areas to which the government tries to attract private businesses by offering low taxes and other government support

⁷ Centers that offer low businesses low-cost offices with basic services such as accounting, legal advice, and secretarial help

periodicals with other peers and their professors. Thanks to this, their managerial skills are practiced and students become more confident in the entrepreneurship.

Universities should create forums for their students to realize their creativity, and nurture their desire to do business through activities such as writing business plans, generating new product ideas and concepts, identifying market opportunities, doing market surveys, and so on. These activities can help them apply what they learn in theory, make the most out of their creativeness and practice their managerial skills. To make these activities more effective, foreign students can also join the forum where English-majored students can take advantage of their language and intercultural skills.

Universities should maintain a good “academic-business link” where entrepreneurs, business practitioners, venture capital firms, and business angles in certain fields can share their experiences in starting up, inspire students, help assess and advise on EET programs and work as trainers in these programs. If possible, alumni who are entrepreneurs should be invited to mentor or coach the participants. Without this critical link, EET programs may stick to the theory only. Besides, the connection can equip academics with real-life evidence, which might be included in the EET programs later.

Universities should enhance research work through the internship and onsite/fact-finding visits to businesses where they can see real things that cannot be learnt at university. Doing research also helps them get rid of their concerns over entrepreneurship, explores new areas of ventures and helps them identify their own strength or talent. The successful business may inspire them or help them foster their desire for a start-up.

Universities should facilitate cross border faculty and research collaborations. This should be a widespread trend when enterprises tend to become multinationals through their expansion. The labor market then becomes more and more global; hence, people should learn to work globally. As a result, a panel of good teachers who can work and do research internationally are highly valued. Thanks to this, they

can understand another part of the world better, which inspires their students with their achievements and understanding of the world's market and helps advise them on entrepreneurship better.

Quality entrepreneurship curricula are very critical in EET programs for students. Most entrepreneurship courses, materials, and research are borrowed from foreign countries, and they are normally modified to fit in the real condition of Vietnam. As a result, universities need a multidisciplinary panel of scholars to provide recommendations and a group of good entrepreneurship teachers, which makes sure that these entrepreneurship courses, materials, and research are of high quality.

Conclusion

EET programs have become a trend in universities in most parts of the world. Even though it is true that not all the participants can become entrepreneurs no matter how good EET programs are, it is worth inspiring students and nurturing their desire to start up a new enterprise when the unemployment rate all over the world has been higher and higher. In Vietnam, EET programs are mostly introduced as extracurricular activities by an in-university department or an independent organization. This should have been the subject of interest for scholars and academics to help generate jobs, create wealth and make most out of the workforce's creativity and innovation due to the competitive employment market. To make EET work, not only universities but also the national government should work together to give favorable contexts for entrepreneurs throughout the country.

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The Reflection on the Utilization of Communication Strategies of the English Majors at Ho Chi Minh City Open University

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Abstract

Reflective deployment of communication strategies to ensure the sustainability in communication is a cornerstone in the development of learners' second language (L2)'s strategic competence. That real-life communication in L2 is problematic and diverse requires learners to execute every possible survival strategy to successfully encounter performance problems. The paper is aimed at observing how English majors from DH15AV56 and DH14AV44 classes at Ho Chi Minh City Open University (HOU) make use of their L2 Communication Strategies in language classrooms. The findings enable language teachers to elaborate on the potential consciousness of L2 learners in their adoption of communicative strategies and take into account the possibility of incorporating those communication strategies into their actual language teaching programs so as to foster the students' motivation, flexibility and strategic competence in using L2 at their levels in response to a pressing communicative need despite their restricted L2 linguistic resources.

Keywords: strategic competence; communication strategies; communication breakdown; linguistic resources; language/ linguistic inputs; learner output; cross-cultural differences; motivation; second language acquisition (SLA)

Introduction

In the context of globalization, Vietnam is on the threshold of cultural, economic and educational integration in which English is regarded as the global language and its acquisition is of great necessity in pursuit of cultural integration and career promotion. In recognition of its crucial importance, students at HOU, especially English majors, demonstrate their increasing needs for English language acquisition. As real-life L2 communication is problematic and varied, language classrooms do not generally prepare students to cope with performance problems. That is to say, students often find themselves hard to get across their intended meaning through real-life communication. Such an issue accounts for a dearth of essential L2 linguistic resources to thoroughly transfer their message to the interlocutor. In order to achieve desired communicative goals, they attempt to take advantage of a range of communication strategies at their levels, which involve verbal and non-verbal means of dealing with difficulties and breakdowns that may occur in daily communication. Reflection on the complications of real-life communication in L2 and HOU English majors' varied deployment of communication strategies enables language teachers generally to provide an extensive strategy instruction in line with the formal provision of L2 linguistic knowledge to be well-prepared for their students to overcome communication breakdown.

Communication Strategies in SLA– a Conceptual Framework

Communication Strategies and Strategic Competence

The term “communication strategy” was coined by Selinker, 1972 and expeditiously captured the interest of many language researchers in exploring how learners use L2 in their real-life communication to achieve their ultimate goal of getting their meanings across.

First of all, strategies are, according to Nunan (1999), “the mental and communicative procedures learners use in order to learn and use language”. Thus, the greater awareness of strategies underlying learning learners have, the more effective they will be at not only knowing what but also knowing how.

Second, due to a lot of public attentions towards the term initially

introduced by Selinker (1972), the definition of “communication strategy” has been extensively modified. To start with, Varadi (1973) realizes that L2 errors may take place either accidentally or intentionally. That L2 errors arise accidentally is the result of learners’ production strategies and thereby indicates the transitional state of learners’ L2 knowledge along the interlanguage continuum. However, if L2 errors are made intentionally, they are the result of communication strategies which are consciously used by learners so as to avoid, compensate or retrieve some element of meaning or form in their initial plan of conveying the meanings. Consciousness is a recognizable characteristic of communication strategies; however, the definition still leaves a gap as to whether a strategy is conscious or subconscious until Faerch and Kasper (1980) expand the definition by attributing communication strategies to “potentially conscious plans for solving what to an individual presents itself as a problem in reaching a particular communicative goal” (Faerch & Kasper, 1980, p. 81). The reason for this expansion is that learners may not realize their use of communication strategies.

Corder (1977) presents his definition on communication strategies as being problem-oriented. That is a technique employed by learners to express their intended meanings in the face of their lack of L2 linguistic resources to carry out the production plan. Learners’ efforts in demonstrating communication strategies are recorded as a short-term solution to a problem (Ellis, 1985).

Being further discussed in psycholinguistics, communication strategies are defined by Tarone, 1981 as a mutual attempt of two interlocutors to negotiate an agreement on meaning. That is to say, Tarone’s definition is limitedly aimed at the interaction in which there exists a negotiation of meaning between interlocutors. However, his interactional definition is inoperable in monologue as Faerch and Kasper (1983c, 1984) point out and because communicative problems still “occur in monologue as much as in dialogue” (Ellis, 1985, p. 182).

As learners make use of communication strategies to smooth away their communication breakdowns owing to their insufficiency of linguistic

knowledge required for expressing their ideas, communication strategies are considered to be closely related to strategic competence, part of communicative competence critically framed by Canadian applied linguists Canale and Swain (1980). Strategic competence is seen as “verbal and nonverbal communication strategies that may be called into action to compensate for breakdowns in communication due to performance variables or to insufficient competence” (Canale & Swain, 1980, p. 30). To be precise, it involves survival strategies such as avoidance, paraphrase, substitution, word coinage, repetition, non-verbal signals, etc. (Savignon, 1983). This competence plays a pivotal role in relation to the other components of communicative competence: grammatical competence, sociolinguistic competence and discourse competence (Canale & Swain, 1980; Canale, 1983) with a view to equipping learners with some of the coping or compensation strategies to get over communication breakdowns.

On the whole, foregoing debates in an attempt to shed light on the problems of definition help adequately clarify the term as psycholinguistic plans which exist as the language user’s strategic competence. They reflect the two fundamental features: potential consciousness and problem orientedness (Ellis, 1985) and accredit learners’ attempts to “enhance the effectiveness of communication” (Canale, 1983, p. 11).

Typology of Communication Strategies

On account of the complexity of definition, there is no unanimity on a standard typology of communication strategies. Various models have been proposed by Varadi (1973), Tarone (1977), Corder (1978c), and Faerch & Kasper (1980). Moreover, typologies regarding lexical problems are framed by Blum-Kulka & Levenston (1978), and Paribakht (1982). Table 1 is a summary of the typology of communication strategies provided by Faerch & Kasper (1984; as cited in Ellis, 1985, p. 184-185). Nonetheless, the typologies of communication strategies suggested before Faerch & Kasper (1984) focused on product-oriented and surface-level features (Kumaravadivelu, 1988) whereas subsequent research conducted by

Bialystok & Kellerman (1987), Bialystok (1990), Dornyei & Scott (1977), and Kumaravadivelu (1988) aimed at digging deeper into deep-level psychological processes. Table 2 demonstrates communication strategies which were conceptualized by Bialystok & Kellerman (1987) and encompassed conceptual and linguistic strategies.

In addition, *stalling or time-gaining strategies* are often employed by L2 learners in real-life communication to keep the communication channel open in the face of difficulties. In fact, they are not utilized to compensate for any linguistic deficiencies. However, many linguists such as Hatch (1978), Canale & Swain (1980), Savignon (1983), Haastrup & Phillipson (1983), Ellis (1985), and Rost (1994) reach an agreement on the significance of using fillers and hesitation devices to sustain communication in time of waiting for the items to come to learners. Rost (1994; as cited in Dornyei, 1995) embedded the deployment of using conversational fillers in his typology of communication strategies to foster learners' strategic competence.

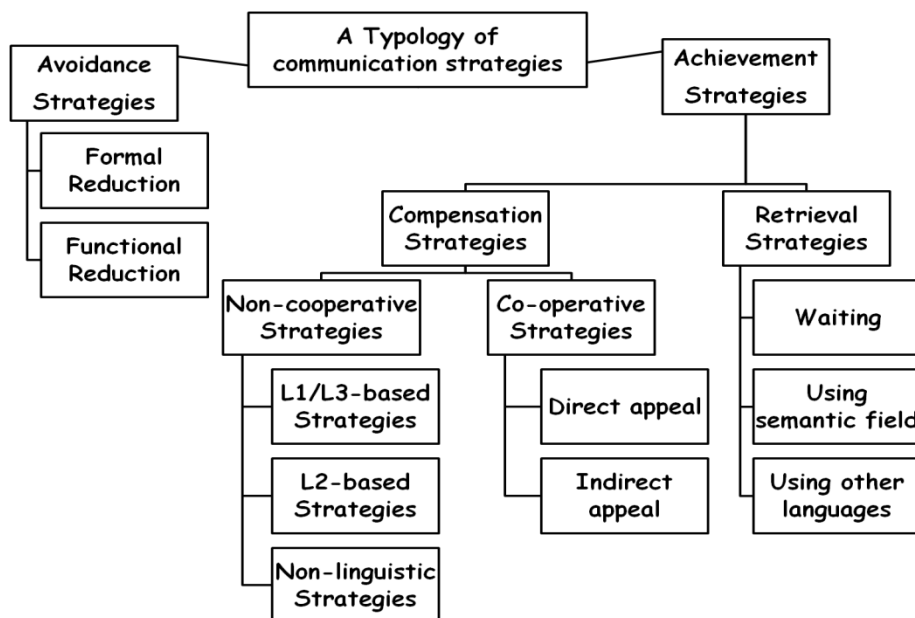


Fig. 1. Communication Strategies as conceptualized by Faerch & Kasper, 1984

Table 1: Communication Strategies as conceptualized by Bialystok & Kellerman, 1987

| | |
|--|--|
| Conceptual Strategies: <i>refers to the manipulation of the target concept by making it expressible through available linguistic resources</i> | Analytic Strategies involve selecting criterial properties of the referent E.g.: <i>a machine that cooks and defrosts very fast by means of waves</i> for <u>microwave</u> |
| | Holistic Strategies involve using a similar referent E.g.: <i>stove</i> for <u>microwave</u> |
| Linguistic Strategies: <i>refers to the use of learners' first language (L1) and L2 linguistic knowledge</i> | Morphological Creativity involves the creation of a new word by applying L2 morphological rules to a L2 word E.g.: <i>vegetarianist</i> for <i>vegetarian</i> |
| | Transfer from another language E.g.: <i>coffee spoon</i> for <i>tea spoon</i> |

The Role of Communication Strategies in SLA

Some people who have a limited command of L2 knowledge are still able to communicate by using their gestures, imitating the sound or movement of things, describing things in such a simple way or mixing languages, etc. They are making every possible effort to use communication strategies to attain their ultimate goal of communication. The insufficiency of L2 linguistic knowledge enables them to “communicate within restrictions” (Savignon, 1983, p. 43) by deploying strategies to maintain communication. Such strategies keep communication going and L2 language users take risks with their language as Hatch (1978; as cited in Ellis, 1985) asserts that the most important thing of all has to be “don’t give up”.

Corder (1978c) refers to avoidance strategies as “risk-avoiding” and achievement strategies as “risk-taking”. In most cases, risk-taking, according to Faerch & Kasper (1980), is a rudimentary condition for communication strategies to have a potential learning effect and thus, helps learners expand their linguistic resources. In this respect, learners are willing to make optimal use of their available linguistic knowledge to actively contribute to keeping their communicative channel open.

Kumuravadivelu (2006) regards communication strategies as one of the tactical factors that “help learners pay attention to potentially useful linguistic input and also promote opportunities for negotiation thereby activating necessary cognitive processes” (Kumuravadivelu, 2006, p. 38).

Classroom Observation - Results and Discussion

Classroom observation was conducted in two different-level classes at HOU, the Faculty of Foreign Languages. The observation was made on 33 intermediate-level students at DH15AV56, and 40 upper-intermediate-level students at DH14AV44. The students at DH15AV56 were given a speaking task on *the role of mass media in social life* to discuss in groups of three. And those at DH14AV44 were requested to work in groups of four to talk about *factors affecting work performances*. After a ten-minute group discussion, each group member has to raise his or her ideas about the issues given. Their speaking performance was recorded for the analysis of the deployment of communication strategies.

The result shows that in my sample of 73 subjects, there are nine major strategy types utilized as follows: *lexical avoidance, syntactic avoidance, phonological avoidance, paraphrase, literal translation, non-verbal signals, restructuring, retrieval strategies* and *stall or time-gaining strategies*.

The frequent choices of strategies of the students at DH15AV56 are lexical avoidance, syntactic avoidance, phonological avoidance, literal translation, non-verbal signals and time-gaining strategies. Their choices of strategies, to a certain extent, reflect their entry level in SLA. They are likely to use more avoidance strategies to be secure enough in communication. According to Tarone (1977), the less able students preferred avoidance to achievement strategies. Besides, more L1-based strategies such as literal translation and foreignizing are employed, which demonstrates their restricted L2 linguistic resources.

With respect to the students at DH14AV44, they are recorded to use more L2-based strategies, namely paraphrase and restructuring; non-verbal signals; retrieval strategies and time-gaining strategies. Their use of paraphrase reveals that their L2 knowledge is in progress. This phenomenon was also justified by Ellis, 1983 through his longitudinal study on learners of different linguistic capabilities. He found that his

learner had a tendency to opt for avoidance-type behaviour in the earlier stages, and gradually through learning he turns to more achievement-type behaviour. According to Bialystok (1983b; as cited in Ellis, 1985) advanced learners use more L2-based strategies such as paraphrase than less advanced learners. In support of Bialystok (1983b), Haastrop & Phillipson (1983) posit that paraphrase is the strategy most likely to be successful.

Principles for Language Pedagogy

Such observation on how the students from two classes make use of communication strategies in their production plan leads the author to the strong belief that there is a practical necessity for the incorporation of communication strategies into L2 language instruction. Despite considerable controversy over the teachability of communication strategies to learners over the years, certain pedagogic precepts should be taken into careful consideration to enhance students' communicative competence, particularly strategic competence.

First of all, the major task of the teachers is to help learners attain a desired level of linguistic and pragmatic knowledge in response to their needs, wants and real-life situations. Therefore, in order to promote L2 development, *the conversion of language input into learner output is the bedrock of L2 instruction*. Nevertheless, "language input should be linguistically and cognitively accessible to learners" (Kumaravadivelu, 2006). Based on Krashen's Comprehensible Input Hypothesis, comprehensible input is considered the input that secure the semantic meaning and contain the structure which is a little higher than the students' current level ($I + 1$). He argues that $I + 1$ is a prerequisite for language learners to be successful in L2 learning. In other words, comprehensible input helps learners navigate on the L2 developmental route with the help of more capable instructors or peers in order to jump from the current level up to the potential level in accordance with the Zone of Proximal Development conceptualized by Vygotsky. This leads the writer to proceed with the second precept: *negotiated interaction, negotiated interpretation and scaffolding*.

The initiation of negotiated interaction and interpretation in language classrooms is of great importance as it entails learners' active engagement in communicative activities in which communication

problems are negotiated between interlocutors. Hence, negotiated interaction stimulates comprehension and production on the L2 developmental route (Kumaravadivelu, 2006). In line with the opportunity to interact, learners should be well-equipped with cultural norms of interpretation to prevent pragmatic failure in communication (Thomas, 1983, as cited in Kumaradivelu, 2006). Negotiated interaction and negotiated interpretation serve as a scaffolding to activate psycholinguistic processes.

The third precept lays its emphasis on *meaningful interactional activities* which are vital for L2 development. Vygotskian sociocultural theory highlights the substantial role of interaction in language classroom. In support of this approach, it is argued that socio-cultural theory has the greater potential with a primary emphasis on the collaborative nature in meaning making in discourse, not just in exchanges where communication breakdown occurs (Ellis, 1999). Being an “activity organizer” (Tudor, 1993, p.24), the teacher should provide a wide variety of activities in which accuracy, fluency and overall communicative skills are embedded through instruction that is predominantly meaning-based first and form-based later (Lightbown & Spada, 1990, as cited in Kumaravadivelu, 2006). In all likelihood, learners will try to deploy a far wider repertoire of their language and experiment with or take risks with language they are not certain of as long as their meanings can be got across. Most importantly, meaningful interactional activities should be constructed on the selection of topics from learners as Slimani (1989; as cited in Kumaravadivelu, 2006) argues that learners gained more benefits from self- or peer- nominated topics than from teacher nominated topics. That is to say learner-topic control would create a better opportunity for them to digest the linguistic complexity of the input at their own level and negotiate meaning during the interaction (Ellis, 1992).

Last but not least, teachers generally should keep it in mind that *learner errors are just a natural, inevitable and essential part of the acquisition process*. They reflect the stage of development the learners have reached. To put it another way, learner errors are a manifestation of each L2 developmental stage in which learners make an active contribution to acquisition. Thus, not all learner errors should be corrected, and those that are corrected should usually not be treated immediately (Klapper, 2006).

Implications for English Language Teaching (ELT)

In compliance with the four pedagogic precepts mentioned above, language teachers should be mindful of their responsibilities to facilitate L2 development not only by providing learners with necessary language inputs through negotiated interaction but by prompting them to take enormous advantage of communication strategies to develop their strategic competence in using L2 in and outside the classrooms.

| PEDAGOGIC PRECEPTS | IMPLICATIONS <i>Teachers should</i> |
|--|--|
| 1. The conversion of language input into learner output is the bedrock of L2 instruction. | 1. offer students comprehensible inputs and have them work on these inputs for language use in negotiated interaction and negotiated interpretation. |
| | 2. contextualize linguistic inputs as language is more than a system. It should be treated far more as discourse. This calls for the contextualization of linguistic inputs so that learners can maximize the language use for interaction with those inputs. |
| 2. The initiation of negotiated interaction and interpretation in language classrooms is of great importance as it entails learners' active engagement in communicative activities in which communication problems are negotiated between interlocutors. | 3. facilitate negotiated interaction in which learners have more freedom and flexibility to control their talk. Only through negotiated interaction do learners can boost their comprehension and attempt to restructure their interaction with their interlocutors until mutual comprehension is met. |
| | 4. increase students' motivation and build up their positive attitude towards learning situation in which shared decision-making is implemented to decide how learning and teaching should be organized. Teachers can appreciate their students' effort of not giving up in any interactive situation by using communication strategies to sustain the communication. |
| | 5. highlight cross-cultural differences in communication strategies use, especially in employing non-linguistic strategies as in some cultures, the same gestures can convey different meanings. Some of indications can be negative and impermissible. If learners are not well-prepared or untrained for that, they will fail to get their intended meanings across. |

| | |
|---|---|
| 3. Meaningful interactional activities are vital for L2 development. | 6. maximize learning opportunities, make learning more enjoyable and enrich the learning environment in such a way that is “challenging, personally relevant, accepting and supportive” (McCombs, 1997, p.54). |
| | 7. encourage students to be willing to take risks and make good use of communications strategies. Teachers offer them a chance to experiment with the language they are not sure of. In other words, students can exploit their available linguistic resources without having any fear of making errors to express their ideas freely despite lack of required linguistic inputs. If so, it can help improve their flexibility in using L2 knowledge for achieving their desired communicative goals. |
| | 8. provide opportunities for practice in strategy use through meaningful learner-learner, learner-teacher interaction in language classrooms. An increase in strategic competence helps students get over inhibitions when they are involved in real-life communication in L2. |
| 4. Learner errors are just a natural, inevitable and essential part of the acquisition process. | 9. offer them plenty of opportunities to use their language in the classroom in a supportive atmosphere in which rewards successful use and does not penalize unavoidable failings in accuracy. |
| | 10. raise students’ awareness about the role of communication strategies to readily encounter most of the difficulties in L2 real-life communication and that they already possess their communication strategies in L1. Teachers should also sensitize them to the appropriate situations in which they can find communication strategies actually work to get their intended meanings across. |

Conclusion

The communication strategy use of HOU English majors at DH14AV44 and DH15AV56 has been placed under critical reflection through classroom observation and findings discussion in order to serve the ultimate purpose of this paper that underlies the viable

incorporation of communication strategies into L2 instruction along with the formal provision of L2 linguistic knowledge for learners generally. In the face of much debate over the teachability of communication strategies in ELT, it is imperative that learners be well-equipped with communication strategies training so that they can sustain real-life communication with more ease. The conceptual framework on communications strategies and strategic competence serves as a basic premise that generates and shapes language teachers' pedagogic precepts on how to integrate communication strategies in their practical classroom instruction to illuminate their actual teaching practices. The job of teaching is that of creativity, variety, flexibility and adaptability in which the teacher plays a tremendous role in fostering the learners' learning outcomes and - most importantly of all - their notable success in L2 real-life communication.

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Strategies to Simplify Reflective Journals for Enhancing Learners' Critical Thinking

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Abstract

Reflective journals help learners, as in many studies, to improve their writing skill and increase motivation. In this paper, enhancing learners' critical thinking through reflection is mentioned. The paper aims to assist teachers in their instructing learners to simply and attractively construct their own reflective journals after each lesson. Many articles, papers, and studies aid learners to write reflective journals as a notebook with lists of things that are response to dozen questions, whereas a reflective journal which is differently created is introduced in this paper. The strategies used, namely Strengths, Weaknesses, Opportunities, Threats (SWOT), Speedboat, and Retrospective Concentric Circles (RCC) that are fully mentioned are not only extremely simple, but attractive as well. Furthermore, learners engaging with these journals after each class meeting can benefit from assessing their own learning or self-assessment and teachers' explanation or teaching.

Keywords: Critical thinking; Reflective journals; Retrospective Concentric Circles; Speedboat; SWOT

Introduction

It is undeniable that learning and teaching are more and more diversified in this modern world. Teachers find ways to improve their teaching meanwhile learners also find ways to facilitate their own

learning. One of the ways that is studied a lot is writing reflective journals. Improving writing skill is one typical benefit that reflective journals bring to students. Other advantages are helping learners to activate learning, understanding the progress of learning, expressing their feelings about the lesson and teachers' teaching, and especially enhancing learners' critical thinking. The paper aims to present three strategies to attractively simplify reflective journals and through their own reflective journals after each lesson, learners can critically enhance their reflective thinking as "the ability to think critically is an important trait for all members of society" and "thinking critically must be a focus of higher education in order to provide the intellectual training for its students to participate in this world" (Colley, Bilics, & Lerch, 2012, p.1). Besides, reflective journals effectively aid both learners and teachers in assessing learning and teaching.

Theoretical Framework

Reflection, Reflective Journals, and Critical Thinking

Moon (2004) defined reflection "as a process, seems to lie somewhere around the notion of learning and thinking" (p.80) or "a process of re-organizing knowledge and emotional orientations in order to achieve further insights" (p.82). We actually "reflect in order to learn something, or we learn as a result of reflecting" (p.80). Reflection also plays an important part in employability skills and student work experience; therefore, they reflect usually in order to achieve an outcome, or for some purpose (Moon 2003; as cited in Moon 2004). Furthermore, the outcome of reflection, which is most likely to be reflective writing, is usually seen by a tutor, and is often assessed (Moon 2004, p.83)

"Schön (1983) found the teachers and students engaged in *reflection on* emergent practice that was to underpin their learning and therefore enhance their practice"; otherwise, "putting it more simply, students learned by listening, watching, doing and by being coached in their doing" (cited from Brockbank & McGill, 1998, p.71)

The representation of reflection in the form of writing is most likely to be mentioned. Many articles, papers, and studies aid learners to write reflective journals as a notebook with lists of things. On the site www.teachervision.com reflective journals are defined as "notebooks

or pieces of paper that students use when writing about and reflecting on their own thoughts” [1] whereas Chan (2009) defined “a reflective journal is a means of recording ideas, personal thoughts and experiences, as well as reflections and insights a student have in the learning process of a course” [2]. Another way to recognise reflective journals is that they are “personal records of students’ learning experiences” [3]

Learners can benefit from their own reflective journals after each lesson as “the process of examining one's own thoughts and feelings is particularly helpful for students who are learning new concepts or beginning to grapple with complex issues that go beyond right and wrong answers” [1]

Furthermore, writing reflective journals can reinforce reflection-in-action because it allows students to reach a higher level of correlation between theory and practice. Therefore, the main purpose of using reflective journals in education is to encourage students to be more aware of what they do, how they do it, why they do it, and for them to be able to identify useful problem solving strategies, as well as recognize their own strengths and weaknesses with regard to their understanding of content knowledge, procedures and practical skill development and application. [4]

One of the reasons that make reflective journals effective is that “emotion is central to reflective process” (Moon 2004, p.88). This means learners can have an opportunity to write their own feelings or emotions about the lesson. All three strategies mentioned below save an opportunity for learners to reflect how they feel about what is happening in classroom, whether they like or dislike, are interested or upset about the lesson and teachers’ explanation.

SWOT

Quite a few times in their lifelong learning, learners have questions or problems that are intricate enough to be perplexing to the mind. Primarily used by organizations throughout the world, SWOT is an analysis tool that is used for planning and problem solving. In order to thoroughly analyse and understand the issues, SWOT analysis or alternatively SWOT matrix is used as a strategy in learning. The Wikipedia defines that SWOT “is an acronym for *strengths*,

weaknesses, opportunities, and threats - and is a structured planning method that evaluates those four elements of a project or business venture” [5]. Indeed, “a SWOT analysis can be carried out for a company, product, place, industry, or person. It involves specifying the objective of the business venture or project, and identifying the internal and external factors that are favorable and unfavorable to achieve that objective” [5]. However, SWOT is more and more widely applied in education as a teaching technique in English as a Second Language(ESL) or English as a Foreign Language (EFL) classrooms. It can be carried out individually or in groups. Learners can write on paper or board with four parts probably shaped in many ways:

| Strengths | Weaknesses | Opportunities | Threats |
|-----------|------------|---------------|---------|
| | | | |

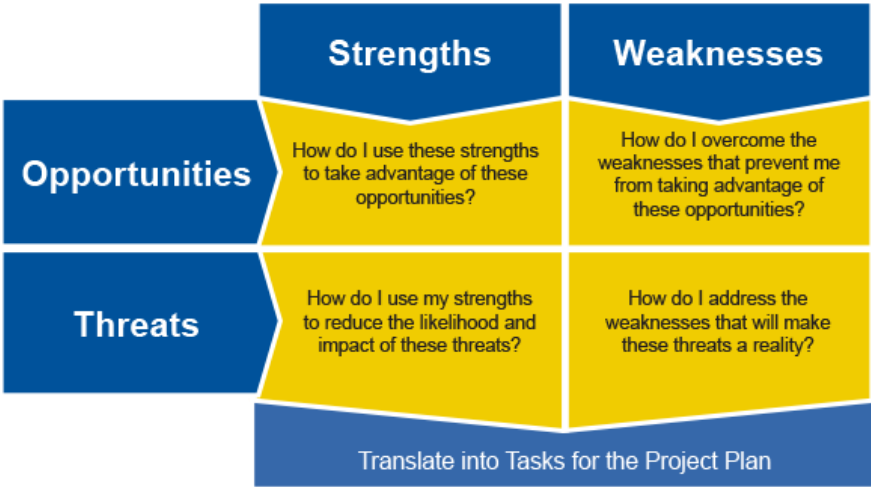
(From <http://benmbartlett.com/how-not-to-do-a-swot-analysis-and-what-to-do-instead/>)

SWOT ANALYSIS

| | | |
|---|---------------------------------------|---------------------------------------|
| | Helpful to achieving the objective | Harmful to achieving the objective |
| Internal origin (attributes of the organization) | <div>Strengths</div> | <div>Weaknesses</div> |
| External origin (attributes of the environment) | <div>Opportunities</div> | <div>Threats</div> |

(From https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/SWOT_analysis)

Using this tool, learners “can analyse and identify the positive and negative internal (strength and weakness) and external (opportunities and threats) factors relevant to a situation, decision or proposal” [6]. They need to learn to identify what their strengths and weaknesses are; and those factors can be significantly clarified to aid them in their learning process and performance. For example, one student can have a system of complex grammar structures, but she lacks of a wide range of vocabulary to appropriately use phrases in the right contexts. Another step that learners need to carry is to define the opportunities and the threats. After that, they must think of how to use these strengths to take advantage of the opportunities; how to overcome the weaknesses that prevent them from taking advantage of the opportunities; how to use the strengths to reduce the likelihood and impact of the threats; and how to address the weaknesses that will make the threats a reality, as in the figure below:



(From <https://www.cms.gov/Outreach-and-Education/American-Indian-Alaska-Native/AIAN/LTSS-Roadmap/Step-4.html>)

On an additional note, students can use the SWOT tool to give teachers feedback regarding their teaching techniques, the effectiveness of the various strategies and technology used to explain the lesson in the classroom. It is important to help teachers to decide on which strategy to continue with and those that need to be modified or updated in the next lessons.

To sum up, learners should ‘SWOT’ regularly and intensively in order

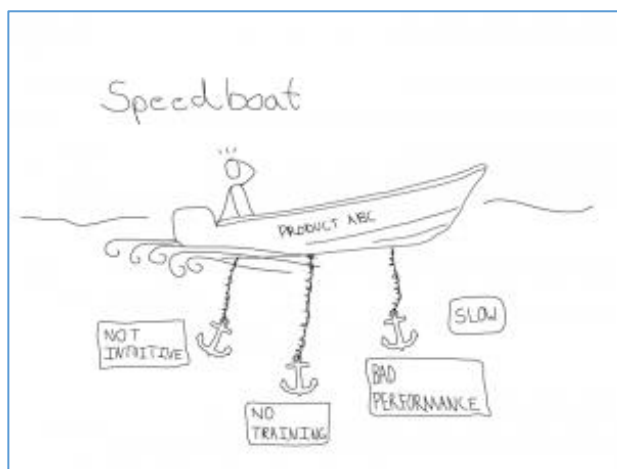
to enhance their critical thinking skill, especially to continually keep motivated in learning. An example of intensive SWOT in teaching and learning is introduced. (See Appendix)

Speedboat

Another technique can be used to simplify reflective journals is speedboat. The origin of this technique goes back to Luke Hohmann, who presented it as one of the innovation games in his book “Innovation Games” [7].

Indeed, “speedboat is a quick, simple, and fun technique for identifying and exploring project/product issues with a group of people in business” [8]. In this paper, it is mentioned as an educational tool in writing reflective journals for it is visual and relaxed for learners to identify various issues in class, and one interactively great to collect feedback for teachers.

Rick Strempler, an Analysis Practice Lead for Online Business Systems’ Central Region, illustrates speedboat technique as a boat with three anchors to divide the four areas including ‘not intuitive’, ‘no training’, ‘bad performance’, and ‘slow’ for a project. However, in a language class, it is introduced

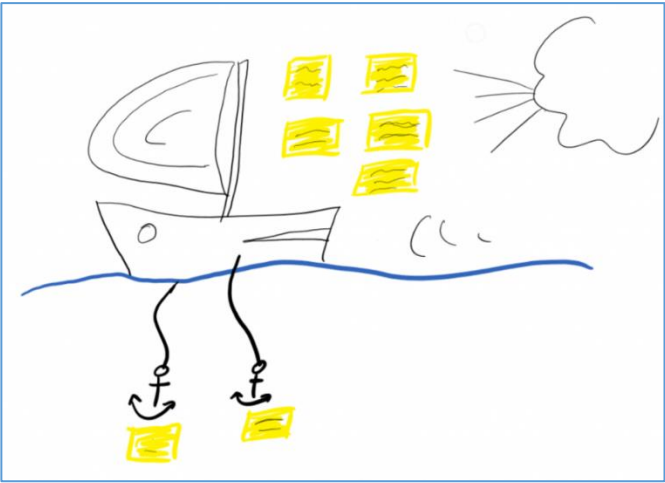


(From <http://ig.obsglobal.com/2014/01/speedboat-technique/>)

“It gives people a mechanism for communicating specific issues, rather than making vague, unproductive complaints” [8]. If it is carried out in

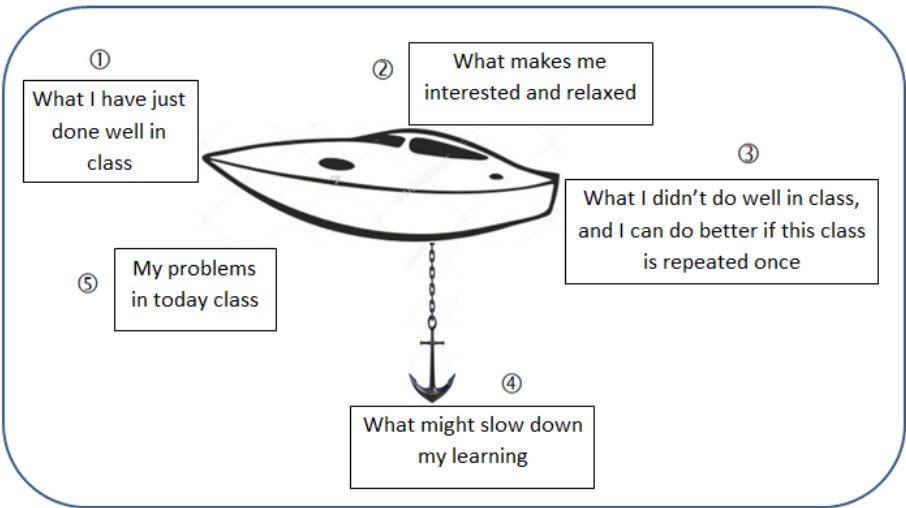
groups, it is collaborative and each member can get an opportunity to contribute their own concerns.

Drawing a speedboat to conclude a lesson, there are not only anchors holding learners back, but wind that blows to move them forward. The figure below can be one illustration.



(From <https://www.agilealliance.org/how-to-improve-the-speedboat-retrospective/>)

Another way to facilitate the speedboat for learners to write their reflection of thinking after each lesson is simply illustrated, as follows:



(By Tran Vu Diem Thuy, 2016, adapted from Agile Tour HCM 2012)

Different coloured post-it notes are used to define five different areas. Learners can write on them and stick on the numbered areas. Area 1 can be blue, area 2 can be green, area 3 can be yellow, area 4 can be red, and area 5 can be purple or any colour else. The most area with risks and barriers in learning should be labeled red all times for its urgency, whereas the other four might be the colours of learners' interest. However, all these five colours should be unified throughout the course.

With this tool, each learner easily picture out all about what happens with their own learning after one lesson. Besides, it helps to enhance their critical thinking skill with reflection of what they listen, watch, do, and what might be risks to their learning improvement. In other words, they can self-assess their learning with these speedboats. In addition, teachers can benefit from using these speedboats as one way to assess their teaching. It is true to have a quick look of what they have done in class and how effective it is; then they can know what appropriate activities or tasks should be in the following lessons.

Retrospective Concentric Circles

The last strategy that the paper aims to mention is Retrospective Concentric Circles (RCC) to simplify learners' reflective journals. Like speedboat, RCC consists of what learners watch or do in class, how they feel about them, new things, and things intendedly done next.

What learners need to have to make a reflective journal are a piece of A4 size paper, a pair of dividers, and four different colour post-it notes. Firstly, they draw three concentric circles on the paper. Secondly, they note what they have just watched or experienced on yellow post-it notes; then stick them on the outside area of the biggest circle. Thirdly, they write down how they feel about otherwise how they like or how they dislike what they have watched or experienced in class on blue post-it notes; then stick them on the next area of the next circle. Fourthly, what learners feel new to their learning or what they awake of or what they think they would do better if it is repeated will be written down on green post-it notes; then they are stuck on the next area of the next circle. Finally, on the red post-it notes, learners write down what they are going to do for the next lesson basing on what they have learnt; then these notes are stuck inside the smallest circle. The steps can be learnt with these figures, as follows [9]:



Figure 1: Step 1 – Draw three concentric circles on the paper

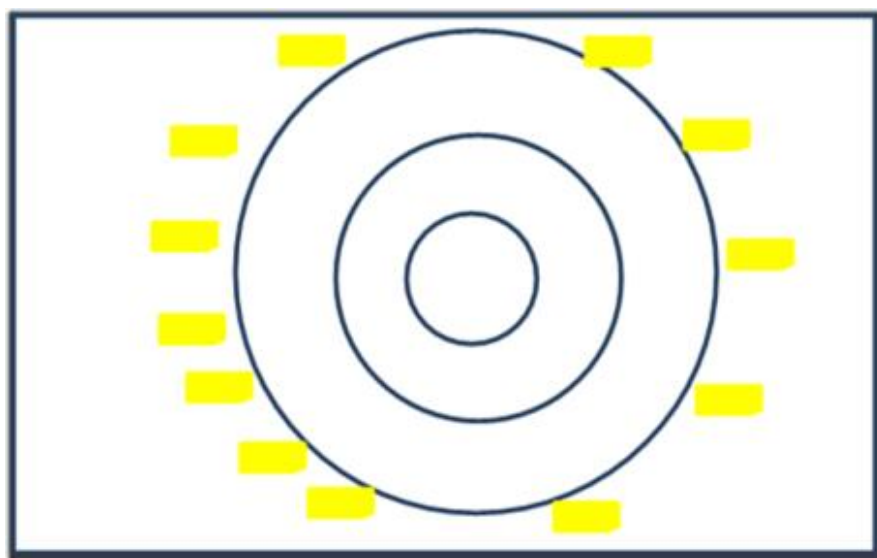


Figure 2: Step 2 – Yellow post-it notes with what learners watched or experienced

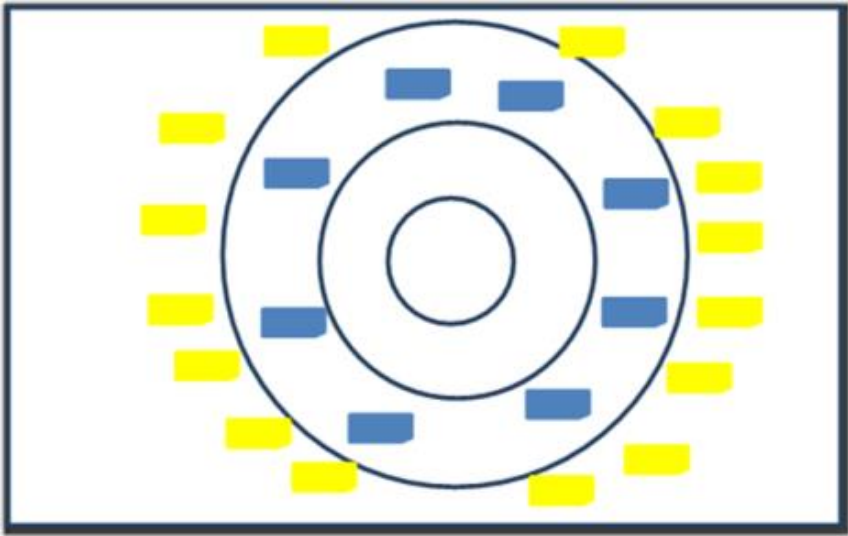


Figure 3: Step 3 – How learners feel about what they have watched or experienced

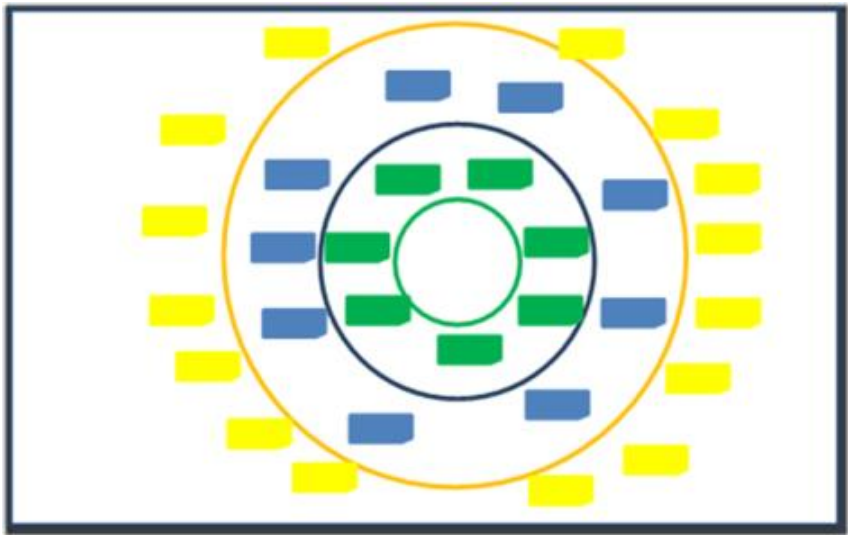


Figure 4: Step 4 – What learners feel new to learning or what they are awake of or what they think they would do better if it is repeated once

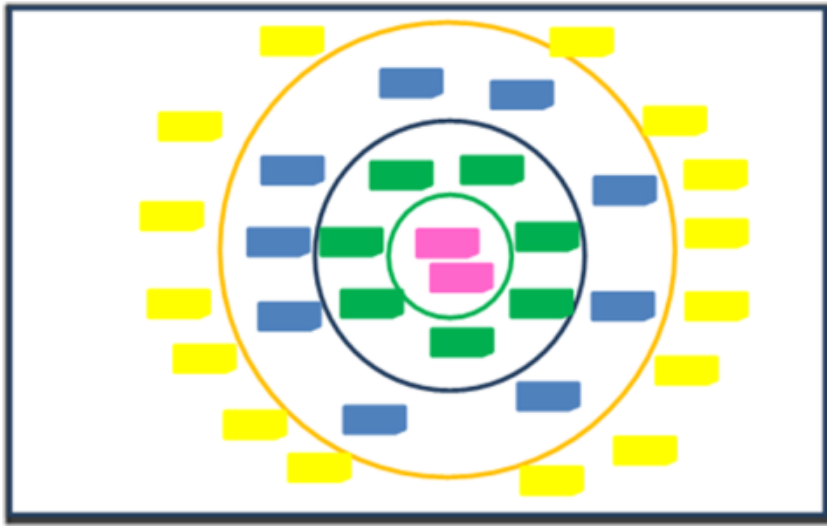


Figure 5: Step 5 – What learners intendedly do for the next lesson basing on what they have learnt

(From <https://duongtrongtan.wordpress.com/2012/12/03/retrospective-vong-tron-suy-tuong/>)

After carrying out the attention-drawing and simple reflective journal, learners can have an overview of what was happening during their lesson; moreover, they can predict what should be done for the next time basing on previous knowledge. In addition, learners' feelings are consciously cared by both parties, learners and teachers. This tool is not only great to enhance learners' critical thinking through reflection, but attractive enough to maintain their habit of writing reflective journals after each class meeting.

Conclusion

Learners benefit from writing reflective journals with three strategies mentioned above as the reflective journals not only improve learners' writing skills as many times learnt in studies, but enhance their critical thinking skill through reflection. For teachers, it is good to be equipped with a variety of teaching techniques and approaches. However, a

toolkit which is full of useful, up-to-date, and make-learners-relax tools is necessarily with them when facilitating learners' learning and even making their teaching easier. It is much better and more interesting than asking learners to do a questionnaire or interviewing them after each class time in order to learn all about their understanding of the lesson, their concerns, their problems, their potential strengths, and their weaknesses. Furthermore, it is quite easy for teachers to instruct learners to create their own reflective journals, which are not described and guided as notebooks or thick files but a piece of paper with colourful and simple figures as columns, boat, or circles. After the lesson, all teachers have to do is to collect the reflective journals, have a look at them, note down some important issues, and figure out what should be coming in their next lesson plans. Last but not least, through these reflective journals learners get involved in and form a habit of reflecting their own thinking; then they can self-assess their own learning and their teachers' lesson explanation, and teachers have a tool to assess their own teaching as well. Finally, writing reflective journals is a skill that needs to be developed, nurtured and refined every class time.

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APPENDIX – AN EXAMPLE OF SWOT IN TEACHING

Results of SWOT Process - Teaching and Learning

Needs #“Commons”, 4, 6, 7, 8 – Total Participation: 11 people

Need: Teaching and Learning Commons: A location where students have technical support and human resources available

- Components already available
- Multimedia Studio
- Content- Librarians available
- Virtual available
- IT Help desk
- Instructional tech available
- Writing center
- Student success center
- Tutoring groups
- Computer labs/ general and departmental
- Writing center
- Library

- ITSS
- Cilt
- Environment is getting ready for it including faculty, staff, students, Administration is supportive
- Organization culture and software
- Don't have to invent, other people doing, we can use what will work for us

Weaknesses

- Concept of a commons
- Centralized place
- Are components so well established not willing to give up
- Study space for small groups
- Core support available need next step- integrate different services, staffing
- Tutor/staff
- Co-ordinate and integrate
- Cost money
- No physical area ready to go
- Going to use a lot of resources
- Always need lots of \$\$ as technology changes and users get more sophisticated
- Limited finite amount of money someone else will lose but could be perception

Opportunities

- 1 stop shop
- Virtual + physical together
- Need human being to help, personalized
- Create flexible space that is shared between creative/ performance/ instructional
- Use intellectual resources available at UND
- Disability students support as part of the planning
- Enhance CFL leadership coordinating, physical space

- Faculty hours in the common area
- Seminars by faculty in the common area
- Include student government reps
- Mentors, internship, fellowship for students and faculty
- Tech support from common areas joined virtually in classroom
- Faculty Pod areas: equipment to support teaching prep
- Some school can be flexible enough to try out some things “incubator areas”, set the tone for the rest of the state. Take some chances
- How we can sell, set the tone, what will the campus look like in the future
- All encompassing doesn’t need to be a physical space, virtual? Should the state be a teacher and learning commons with Outpost all over?
- Close ties with Manitoba/Winnipeg. Could be international?
- Because we are far away from people, we as ND can invent and be self sufficient
- CFL as an ideal place for the learning commons
- 24/7 service
- Rethink teaching, what is an educated student, what is an education faculty and staff? Rethink learning goals?
- Rethink what students do, not just papers anymore

Threats

- Silo thinking
- Lack of sustainable resource model (hardware/software/people/ dollars)
- Thinking too small
- Fear of taking risk, fear of opportunity.
- Need to do what everyone else is doing’
- Shrink wrap, have to use what can be bought.

- Try to adapt someone else's plan, do what they do.
- Going to split campus, going to be discord where it will be put. There will be perceived winners and losers.
- Threat to staff skills will have to change, educational level up,
- ND doesn't pay to keep best people

Issue 4: Unified Email

Strengths

- Better availability thru proper configuration
- Being explored now
- Consistency for tech support
- Eliminate duplicate resources
- Easier to communicate campus wide one address book for faculty/staff

Weakness

- Less flexibility for users
- Choices limited-mailbox size
- Lose of individuality (domain) policy limitations
- Less money in the common pot
- Loss of IT accessibility to minor problems, special request because of volume "lost in the crowd"

Opportunities

- Able to support really well
- Free up local IT resources (don't need to baby sit anymore)
- Better distribution groups
- Money at local level could be used for something else

Threats

- User won't use
- If the system down have no other email to use
- Not proper funding to build robust system campus wide

Issue 6: Faculty etc. support for all instructions (there was a discussion about what this actually meant)

Strengths

- Help available
- Central number to call

Weaknesses

- Don't know where to call
- Limited time frame
- Communication, people don't remember who to call

Opportunities

- IT reorganizes of staff
- IT Central reporting lines
- Use current resources more effectively

Threats

- Because of decentralized model it can be accomplished
- People don't know how to access
- Proper funding to expand hours

Issue 7: Training for all instruction

Strengths

Lots available

Weaknesses

- May not be able to get to training (staffing, time of day, super approval)
- Not available at all times

Opportunities

- Training on line
- Develop one on one training

Threats

- Funding
- Appropriate staff knowledge of product

- Too many resources to IT, lessen time, dollars to teach
- Inappropriate use of technology
- Rapid change of IT/technology

Issue 8: Computer Lab Resources

Strengths

- Existing computer and mobile lab
- Customize more specialized software/department
- Local tech support/department
- Mobile labs are mobile
- Share resources (labs shared between departments)

Weakness

- Lack of local tech support
- Funding
- Some areas have and some have not
- Not 24/7
- Keeping software/hardware up to date

Opportunities

- Laptops/net books for all
- Virtualized applications, students able to go online to use specific software, run of the server
- Virtualization of the operating system
- Establish a general learning commons lab (group centered)
- Use network for access to our (laboratory) computers 24 hours

Threats

- Students/faculty will go elsewhere if they don't get here
- Keep good staff, leaving because of salaries
- If labs open 24/7, concern with safety and theft

(From https://und.edu/cio/_files/docs/swot-teaching.pdf)

The Changes to Boost the Young Learner Classroom at ACET HCMC

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Abstract

ACET has developed two types of courses: one is for adult, and one is for teenagers. Both courses are designed to pursue Academic styles; however, the teenager course or First Steps course, which has been running for four years, is slightly different in comparison to the adult course. It was adapted from the adult course, and in order to improve it to suit the pathway from young age with the young learner course to high school or older age with the Academic or adult course, the students need to be taught fully. Therefore, they need to be introduced some parts which are used in higher level courses. As a result, the course has needed to be updated constantly and regularly as much as possible in addition to be consistent. Some changes have been applied and consequently, it has brought positive results and the more development it can be added in the future, the more it can make the First Steps course to become stronger.

Keywords: First Steps, Impromptu Talks, Speed Reading, Quiz, Reading Circles, Clubs, Mobile Library, Portfolios and Academic Writing

Introduction

Like other English centres, Australian Centre for Education and Training (ACET) has offered adult and young learner courses. However, the courses at ACET are completely different in form and content. This difference is based on the relationship between the owner

of ACET - IDP (the International Development Program of Australia Universities and Colleges) and the curriculum provider from University Technology in Sydney (UTS): Insearch. On one hand, the adult course or Academic English (AE) course curriculum is designed by the Academic team from the university to equip learners to recognize and be used to with university education. On the other hand, its young learner course or First Steps (FS) course is written and updated by the Academic team at ACET HCMC and HN (ACET in Ho Chi Minh City and Hanoi). Furthermore, FS is the foundation course for young learners to enter the Academic English program which is why its steps and materials are adapted mainly from Adult Academic English courses. This article focuses on the changes to the young learner course to make it become unique.

Considerations

There are two courses at ACET such as adult course and young learner courses. Firstly, the adult courses include Preparation for Academic English (PAE) courses, Academic English courses, and IELTS courses. PAE courses consist of four levels from PAE 1 to 4 with 100 hours for each. Academic English courses are separated into six levels from AE1A – AE 3B with 100 hours for each level. Also, there are two IELTS courses which are IELTS Pro-A and IELTS Pro-B. 200 hours are needed to complete these two levels. The PAE and AE courses are equipped with course materials which include a course book, Workbook and Reading Module as well as other supplementary elements such as Reading Circles, Impromptu Talks, Quizzes, Speed Reading, Portfolios, Assessment, Success Criteria, Speaking Assessment Test (SATs), Writing Assessment Task (WATs), and DVD Activities. In addition, the IELTS courses are quite unique because learners will be prepared and familiar with IELTS issues, so different kinds of additional materials are used compared to AE courses.

Secondly, the First Steps course book which will be used needs to suit academic transformation from young age to older stages as well as CEFR. FS course is a foundation for young learners who want to pursue or transfer to Academic English as well as ACET prepares for the students to have a general view of Academic English.

1. Terms and Class Divide

In comparison to AE or the adult course, First Steps course terms and division is more specific because it needs to be suitable for the secondary school timetable. There are five levels (FS1-FS5). There are two deliveries: 50 hours and 100 hours. Each level is divided into two segments A and B (E.g. FS1a and FS1b). The 50 hour delivery classes are further split into 2 (E.g. FS1a1 and FS1a2).

There are three terms per year. Term 1 and Term 3 lasts 3-4 months at the weekends with either a 50-hour delivery (1 class per week) or 100-hour delivery (2 classes per week). Term 2 is the Summer course or an intensive course and lasts for two months with either 50 hours at the weekends or 100 hours during week days.

2. Curriculum Details

Its curriculum focuses on two parts: course materials and other components.

Course Materials

Student's Book: the book is designed to develop four skills of listening, reading, writing and speaking and it provides chances for students to practise.

Workbook: it reviews each lesson, and at the end of each unit is a quiz to let students revise.

Online account (FS1-FS4): students can create their own stories or comics, play grammar or vocabulary games from low to high levels. Furthermore, the centre provides an extra link to support the learners to practise listening if their online account is lost or deactivated.

Reading books or graded readers are used for Reading Circles and there are different books for the various levels. In order to encourage students to practise extensive reading, the readers are frequently changed.

Other Components

To sufficiently support the young learner course, it is necessary to have a combination of supplementary materials. There are 12 sections.

Furthermore, these 12 sections are repeated in AE courses, in another word, the young learner is preparing students for a pathway for their higher education.

- Pacing guide: sets the pace of the course breaks down all lessons for the course on weekly basis. Pacing guide for each section is the same for all teachers and classes.
- Reading Circles: Reading Circles lasts between 20 to 30 minutes per session and occurs every three or so as per pacing guide. It supports speaking and reading skills or others skills.
- Impromptu Talks: used to help students improve their speaking fluency and planning skills.
- Quizzes: For levels 1A-4B there are three quizzes. For level 5, there are four quizzes.
- Speed Reading: used to help students to improve their reading speed and accuracy.
- Project: one project for each unit. Students will work in groups to present different task output. These range from posters to reports scores. The topics vary from culture, sports to music and food and etc.
- Portfolios: one portfolio for each unit studied. Portfolios are graded assessment and contribute towards the students' final marks by the end of the term.
- Assessment: There are five assessments: speaking, listening, reading, writing and language. FS assessments are given numeral marks while the adult Academic English courses use the letter grade system used in Australian higher education institutions.
- Success Criteria: there are criteria mainly for level 5 for speaking and writing like AE course.
- Speaking assessment Test (SATs): at the level 5a2 and 5b2, students will be informed what they need to do to prepare for their speaking final exam.
- Writing assessment Task (WATs): at the level 5a2 and 5b2, students will write an academic essay for their final exam.
- DVD activities: there are various topics and students can practise listening and speaking skills.

Adapted from Bui (2015)

3. Reaction

First Steps course frequently requires editing to avoid being out of date.

Impromptu Talks

To build natural speaking fluency for teenagers, Impromptu Talks are carefully designed and selectively adapted from academic courses. There are 58 card packs with 58 topics based on each unit from the course book for all levels separated into sections a1 and b2. The teachers can use them in the middle or by the end of each unit. The teachers can use them as warm up, fillers or supplementary topics for the students to practise speaking, speed, intonation, pronunciation, idea building skill, confidence building, peer correction and giving feedback. The best point for this part is that all the topics can be applied to any levels such as education, friendship, family and etc. With these topics, First Steps students can be well prepared and reflect confidently when speaking about frequently-talked topics.

Speed Reading

In order to build skimming and scanning skills as well as reading rapidity, Speed Reading is chosen cautiously. There are three to four readings for each course. Firstly, the teacher shows a stopwatch on the board and as soon as the time starts, which is the only time students commence reading, they read the whole text as fast or as slowly as they want. Once done, they record the time it take them to finish then proceed to answer several questions about the text. Then, they check the answers together and give explanations if needed. This kind of activity can train the student necessary skills to read fast.

Reading Circles

So as to promote extensive reading as well as to expose students to the value of reading on their English studies, the school has built Reading Circles to fit its curriculum. Each term the readers for First Steps Reading Circles will be reviewed and updated from level 1 to 4. At the beginning of the course, the teachers will set up roles and groups of four or five. There are several ways to promote it.

Firstly, the basic method is that there is a Discussion Leader who will control the group and give questions to each role of the group to contribute to the reading circles. Word Master is the person who chooses vocabulary which might be new, unique or interesting and has to explain why the word is chosen and in which context. Passage Person is the student who will summarise any passages they like or find them meaningful or important for each chapter or chapters. Summariser is the one who will summarise each chosen chapter or chapters. There might be two Word Masters, Passage Persons or Summarisers but one Discussion Leader. The students need to read book/ chapter(s) at home and come to class to collaborate with other students.

Another way is teachers can let students read at home beforehand, then, students write three to four sentences to summarise the story/chapter(s). Next, students choose three to five new words and check the meanings and explain to others in their own ways. Later, students can write down whether they like the chapter(s) or not or what they think about it.

The third way is that they read at home and come to class, the teachers let them do posters in groups to summarise the story/chapter(s) they have read.

For some readers, there are recordings from the link which the school gave to the students to practise listening at home. Teachers can play them and the learners listen to and remember what they read or then, summarise in their own words to their groups.

From level 4b to 5b2, teachers can let young learners to find their favourite topics to share their information with their groups, but sports and celebrity gossip are not encouraged to be chosen. These chosen topics need to be up to date and international. They will be given a sheet to be filled in with information when reading the news story at home. This activity gives them chances to talk freely. Not only can Reading Circles give the students opportunities to read but also to discuss and talk but the most important thing is to let them pay more attention to reading.

Mobile Library

To ensure reading habits being built and encouraged, reading is not only a part of learning English, but also for fun to relax and be

enjoyable, the school has offered Mobile Library for teenage learners. Mobile Library for First Steps students uses graded readers with a variety of topics and levels from famous publishers such as Oxford University Press, Cambridge University Press, Heinle Learning and etc. Firstly, the time for borrowing books is set up for each class, and it takes 30 minutes. Then, the students choose books they want to borrow for reading at home and they will be returned in two weeks. Any book returned late will be recorded and students will be reminded of it. Students can re-borrow books if they have not finished reading. The books for Mobile Library are collected and separated. The activity has been welcomed positively.

Presentation

To prepare better for First Steps learners to build their confidence and speech or presentation skills, the teacher has combined it with different skills and trained the students from low to high levels. The student will work in pairs or groups of two to five students. They search for information or share information, designate roles. For example one will decorate, another one will write information, one student will check grammar or vocabulary and one member draws a mind map. This activity aims for students to cooperate with other students to negotiate, discuss, draw mind maps, make an outline and talk in front of people naturally.

Portfolio

So as to improve writing skill and make the teenage students get used to writing, the portfolio system is implemented from the lowest to the highest levels. The FS teachers make the writing in the ways which let the students not to be afraid of writing. They can be given some information on which topics or genre they are learning, then watch videos or clips online, work in groups to fill in information. Later they can search more information in the ILCs. They draw mind maps or make outlines, then write their own essays based on their outlines and hand in the next class. Certainly, they not only will have samples from their course book or their teacher but also be told what tenses, structures etc. are to be used in their essays. The portfolio activities can support the students write better without being intimidated by it or being hesitant.

Writing Exam

All levels have writing examinations at the end of each course. The writing examinations are academic in nature because there is a need to check the students' progress and to let them be prepared to recognize academic forms if they want to transfer to the adult course later on. During the course, the students will be taught what kind of academic writing they will be tested at the end of the course. The writing exam is grade contributes up to the final grade.

Quiz

Based on units from the course book, there are some mini tests or quizzes to help the students to review what they have learnt. Each quiz consists of grammar and vocabulary points. After each quiz, the students can correct each other or class correction and learn from their mistakes.

Clubs

In order to suit students and parents' needs for the kids to learn English outside the classroom, the school has run clubs as an extra benefit for them. Each club lasts one hour. All FS clubs are free and all levels are encouraged to attend them. The maximum number of participants for each club is 25. Currently, clubs are held at two ACET centres and hopefully, in the future it can be run in all three centres. During breaks between two terms, clubs can be run if there is a need. Until now there has not been a repetition of any FS clubs. The types of clubs are song, drama, poster, speaking, writing, arts, film, conversation and etc. During club time, the students work in groups or pairs from various levels. They share ideas, cooperate and have fun while practicing English.

Gala

The Gala is an extra activity for the First Steps students. It serves as end-of-course party. The Gala is not only to look back on what they achieve after the Summer course but also the chance for them to perform and have fun together. Each class will have a presentation such as a skit or a song, then they can practise at home and in their class with their friends and teachers. The Gala, certainly, is the pleasurable opportunity to witness the charm of the students' artistic ability to

present and the magic of using English to learn, practise and speak fluently without fear and hesitation.

Independent Learning Centre

Independent Learning Centre (ILC) can be used for students to access information for lessons with teachers and TAs monitoring. The use of ILC can support lessons effectively.

Report Book

Report book is used to connect the school and parents. After each lesson, lesson content, homework, kid's behavior and recommendations are noted down to inform parents what have been taught each day, if there are any upcoming events or holidays. To make sure parents can track their children's progress at school, the book is checked weekly and if parents have not signed the report for three weeks in a row, parents will be informed.

SMS and Emailing

So as to guarantee that any student who is absent or those who have left the class early do not miss any lesson information, after each class, the TA sends an SMS and email to parents for them to be aware of missed lessons, homework that needs to be done, handouts given in class or an upcoming quiz. All SMS and emails are recorded because the school can follow and check its effect to offer better service and not to affect kids' studying progress.

Tutoring

Furthermore, if any students who are absent want to be informed of any lesson they miss, their parents can register in advance and their TAs can help them to understand it. The TAs then, check whether they are able to comprehend it completely or not before the class. For any tougher issues, the TAs can ask support from class teacher.

Teacher and TA

Any changes for the course, the teachers and the TAs will be informed and instructed carefully. Additionally, any feedback from the teachers and the TAs is welcomed and collected to improve the language classroom.

Recommendations

Hopefully, the clubs can be held in three centres. In addition, one way to support FS students is that there might be some English Competitions between classes or levels such as writing or speaking competitions. Additionally, ACET can run a system to follow how many students get tested in Cambridge ESOL such as Starters, Flyers, Movers, KET, PET, FCE, CAE, CPE or IELTS and collect information on their total scores or scores for each skill. Thus, the school can adapt or adjust its pacing guide for the course and if there is a need for examination courses, there will be a new system to suit learners' needs.

Conclusion

Generally, First Steps course has just been established for four years; however, it has increased dramatically because its curriculum has been updated frequently and addressed the needs from parents and students. Furthermore, the course has been adapted from Academic English courses which make the young learner course at ACET more unique and exclusive compared to course offerings from other English language course providers.

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Demand High Learning: From ‘Covering Material’ to Deep Practice

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Abstract

One of the drawbacks of heavily depending on a single course book in general English programs is that the practice might turn instructors into ‘page-turners’ who are under constant pressure to complete the X number of assigned pages and units at the Y hour on the Z date. To address the issue, two educators, Jim Scrivener and Adrian Underhill (2013) have introduced a pedagogical concept referred to as Demand High Learning. In fact, this emerging approach has enabled teachers to make deep learning happen via ‘small tweaks and adjustments’. By asking ‘Are our learners capable more, much more?’ Demand High practitioners are ready to exploit learning opportunities mainly based on prescribed materials. The article first discusses characteristics of Demand High Learning before demonstrating techniques that teachers can replicate in their own teaching contexts, especially for teaching non-English major EFL students.

Keywords: Demand High Learning; task designs; classroom strategies; approaches and methods; deep practice

Introduction

When it comes to designing curriculum for non-English major learners at Vietnamese universities, the common approach is to adopt one single course book publicized by well-known publishers and widely available in the market. The most popular titles for general English programs include *English File* and *Headway* by Oxford University Press, *Face to Face* by Cambridge University Press, *Outcomes* and *Life* by Cengage

Learning. For one thing, the advantage of using these materials is clear-cut: the course book itself can be treated as a complete stand-alone syllabus that effectively prepares learners for standardized English proficiency exams (Tomlinson & Masuhara, 2013). On the other hand, practitioners tend to view course books as the ‘Bible’ in which the mechanical completion of the amount of work prescribed in the course syllabus – happens to be the course book in this context - is mandatory. Tomlinson and Masuhara (2013) reported that 92 per cent of participants in surveys conducted at several conferences had to depend on their course books. Furthermore, 78 per cent of these respondents expressed their negative attitudes towards such materials.

As practitioners, we might be aware of the tedious nature of instructions, which Tomlinson (2015) refers to as ‘closed’ activities that requires little personalization. The problem of over-reliance on course book content and activities is identified, but where have the guidelines for meaningful interactions between instructors and learners gone? To illustrate the point, let us have a look at two sets of lesson sequences. The first one indicates suggested practice stages of teaching The Simple Present tense:

Ask students to do task A (page 15): complete the dialogue with the correct forms of the verbs.

Correct the exercise and give feedback.

Direct them to the grammar reference if they still seem unsure.

(Doan et al., 2015)

The second set shows practice stages of teaching The Past Simple tense.

Ask students to underline the verbs and answer two questions.

In feedback, read the examples in the grammar box on page 47 with the class.

Students can also look at the information on page 159 and do the exercise there if you feel the need more clarification and practice.

(Hill, 2014)

These suggested procedures taken from teachers’ manual or lesson plans, which are often considered as ‘standard’ or ‘models’ of good teaching practices, do not guarantee any successful learning since they

are vaguely elaborated, resulting in teachers' not exploring further than 'do the exercise' or 'correct the exercise'. In fact, on strictly following these guided instructions, teachers could turn their learners and classroom processes into 'answering machines' which generate repetitive and demotivating tasks. As one learner puts it "English lessons are just 'exercises' [...] one after the other, in a seemingly never ending sequence, with no memorable highs or lows" (Littlejohn, 2008, p.221).

During the first quarter of 2016, the observation scheme at Ho Chi Minh City Open University allowed me to observe up to twenty 90-minute lessons. In retrospect, I clearly see how most observed teachers made the same instructional mistake as me. Hence, it is important to pinpoint the underlying drawback of letting the course book pages dominate our teaching approaches: in many instances, we transformed ourselves into 'page-turners' whose responsibilities were to complete assigned tasks and activities as instructed or suggested in the course book or teachers' manuals. Obviously the classroom witnessed the presence of teachers and learners while *learning* was missing. I became the teacher described here:

We do not teach anymore; we cover course books. We organize students into pairs and groups and ask them to do course book tasks, hoping that somehow, magically, some incidental learning may erupt [...] We sidestep or compromise the real, deeper challenges.

(Scrivener, 2014)

As those words resonate deeply with my professional experiences, implementing Demand High Learning could be seen as one possible solution to move away from 'covering pages'. Initiated by two educators in the U.K: Jim Scrivener (the acclaimed author of *Learning Teaching*) and Adrian Underhill (who wrote *Sounds Foundations*), Demand High has gradually made its way into educational settings where instructors feel a strong urge to reduce their course book dominance and Right/Wrong ethics by incorporating a 'small tweaks' approach that can take learners' proficiency to a higher level. In light of the above discussion, the purpose of the article is to examine the theoretical framework of Demand High, discuss its scope and illustrate Demand High in practice.

Theoretical Framework

Demand High Learning's theoretical background has its root from Vygotsky' Zone of Proximate Development (ZPD), which can be referred to as

the distance between the actual developmental 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

(Vygotsky, 1978, p.38)

Accordingly, learners' progress sustains when appropriate guidance from peers or teachers are constantly given. Together with independent practice, experts' support should be sought in order that students can upgrade themselves. Wass and Golding (2014) visualized a conceptual analysis of Vygotsky's ZPD in the following model:

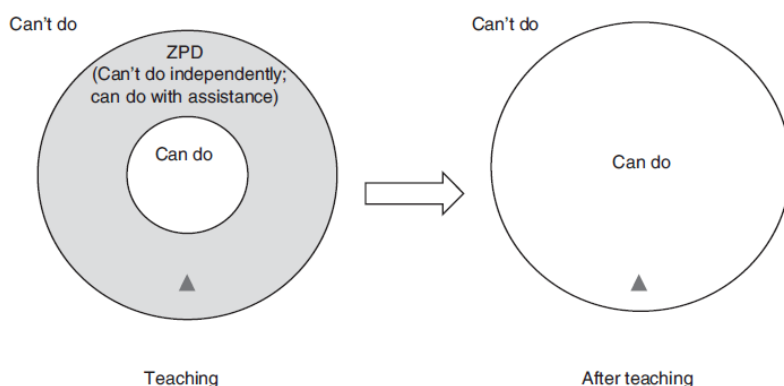


Figure 1: A conceptual analysis of ZPD (Wass & Golding, 2014)

It can be seen that ZPD is actually teacher's assistance that can expand learners' skills set to a more extensive repertoire. The task 'triangle' illustrated is achieved owing to teachers' intervention. Once appropriate support is activated, learners can effortlessly complete the demanding tasks that are previously beyond their reach.

More interestingly, Wass and Golding (2014) expanded the scope of ZPD by discussing the boundary or 'the furthest limits of their capacity in the ZPD zone' in the graph below:

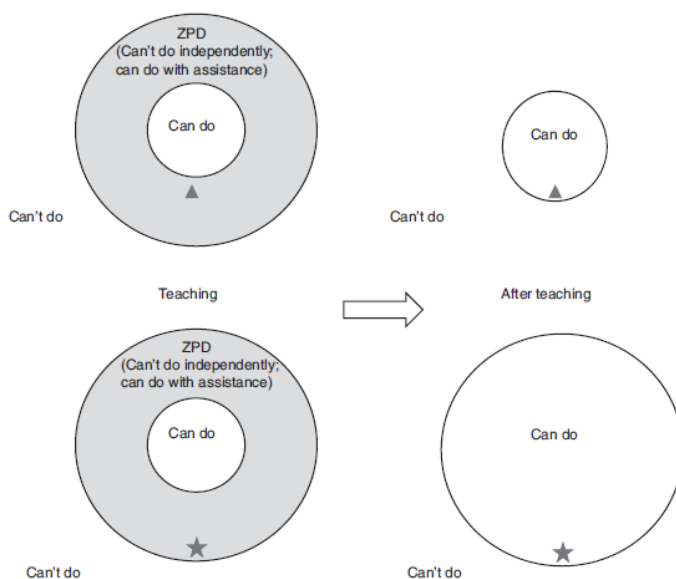


Figure 2: task 'triangle' vs. task 'star' (Wass and Golding, 2014)

Compared to task 'triangle', task 'star' is positioned at the further boundary, nearly surpassing the larger circle in the grey areas, hence implies its more considerable complexity. Nevertheless, it is possible that instructors will be able to train students to achieve task 'star' after having fulfilled task 'triangle'. The former task, despite more challenging than the latter task, is still within the grasp of learners, with instructors' professional guidance. This concept lays the foundation for Demand High's key question: 'Are our learners capable much more?'

Definition and Scope of Demand High

Scrivener (2014) defined Demand High as 'very small-scale changes in how a teacher approaches their lessons – a proposal for possible tweaks to what they currently do in class' (p.51). To improve learners' performance, teachers who are new to Demand High are advised to start small, building up from their current classroom practices. Apart from the one question arisen above, the remaining questions worth investigation include:

1. *Have the tasks and techniques we use in class become rituals and ends in themselves?*
2. *How can we stop "covering material" and start focusing on the potential for deep learning?*

3. *What small shifts in attitude and tweaks in techniques can we make to change the whole focus of our teaching towards getting more learning happening?*

(Scrivener, 2012)

Scrivener further explained Demand High Learning is not meant to downplay any current major ELT methodologies such as Communicative Language Teaching, Task-based Learning or Dogme Teaching, but aims to enhance them. In alignment with Mass and Golding's analysis of Vygotsky's ZPD, Demand High advocates put a heavy stress on 'doable demand' which tempts learner to keep improving their performance at any moment of their learning progress. Hence, instructors' praise should be delivered with discretion as there is always room for learners' improvement or 'upgrading' phases. The pedagogical paradigm shift, therefore, starts from 'learnER centre' to 'learningING centred' (Underhill & Scrivener, 2013) Neither teachers nor learners should front the lessons; it is the learning itself that defines classrooms, and the idealism of 'perfect' learners no longer exists.

Demand High in Practice

Scrivener (2014) and Marsh (2015) exemplified 2 useful domains of Demand High Learning: *3XP* and *PROUF*. The following section will explain each acronym before contrasting non-Demand High Learning with Demand High Learning in four popular classroom strategies: dealing with form-focused practice, upgrading learners' response to reading comprehension questions, multiplying learners' presentation opportunities and providing corrective feedback. The materials discussed in this section are taken from the course book *Life (A2-B1)* (Hughes, 2015), which is currently adopted in general English programs at Ho Chi Minh City Open University.

3XP

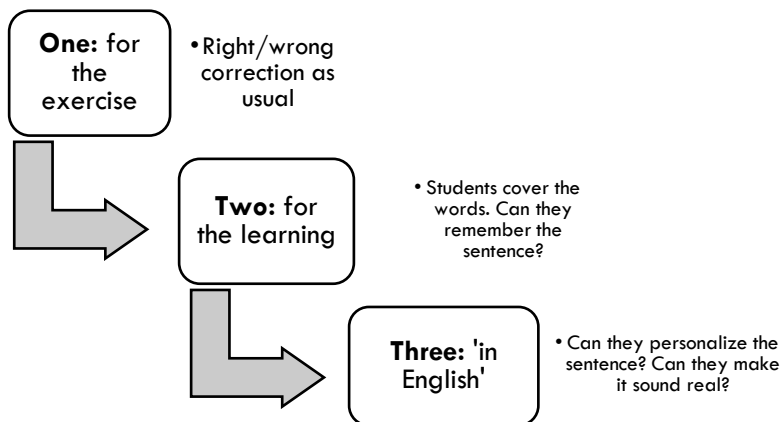


Figure 3: 3XP Technique (Scrivener, 2014)

Standing for ‘three-time practice’, 3XP (see Figure 3) suggests that teachers should not correct an exercise for the sake of completion, but there will be at least two extra opportunities for extended meaningful practice. The bottom line is that the obsession of getting right or wrong answers should be overcome during practice stages. In Scrivener’s words, examples in the course book are buried in a ‘gold mine’ that have not been fully exploited. Playing with them might lead to deep practice since they are great input in a foreign language setting. Procedures for 3XP will be exemplified as below:

Activity 1: Make these sentences from short stories more interesting using the adverbs.

1. *The climb was dangerous. (incredibly)*
2. *The sun was shining. (brightly)*
3. *The man jumped into the car. (quickly)*
4. *They were nearly at the top of the mountain but one of them slipped. (suddenly)*
5. *It started raining. Gill had an umbrella. (fortunately)*
6. *The Amazon river was long and they were lost for days. (amazingly)*
7. *They walked back and looked into each other’s eyes. (slowly)*
8. *They were lost in the forest for hours but they found the road again. (eventually)*

(Hughes, Sephenson, & Dummett, 2015)

Non-Demand High Learning (Instructions from Teachers' Manual)

Ask students to rewrite the sentences using the adverbs, then check their answers with a partner. Elicit answers from the whole class.

(Hill, 2014)

Demand High Learning:

- Teachers give right/wrong answers for all sentences in the task as usual
- Students work in groups of 3: Student A, Student B, Student C.
- Step One: Student A (books open): read the first sentence and the adverb '*The climb was dangerous.*'; '*incredibly*'.
- Step 2: Student B (books closed): listen to student A and say the sentence with correct grammar '*The climb was incredibly dangerous.*'
- Step 3: Student C (books closed): listen to student A and B and say it naturally (emotionally) or personalize it '*The Fansipan climb was incredibly dangerous.*'
- Students repeat the procedure with other sentences.
- Students take turns playing the roles of A, B and C.

PROUF

PROUF is an acronym of '**P**layful challenge → **R**epeated **O**pportunities → **U**ppgrade **F**eedback'. Demand High practitioners argue that as soon as teachers exclaim 'Good! Excellent' upon hearing students' task response, learning opportunities vanish. The better sequence is to set up further challenges for students to practice via upgrading teachers' feedback in a playful, encouraging manner.

Playful challenge: once learners finish their response, teachers can challenge learners by smiling and playfully asking 'Would you like to try that again?'

Activity 2: Answer reading comprehension questions.

Non-Demand High Learning

Teacher: *What was Edurne's biggest challenge?*

Student A (reads the text and gives the correct answer): *She climbed the world's fourteen tallest mountains.*

Teacher: *That's perfect!*

(Hughes et al., 2015, p.46)

Demand High Learning

Teachers can ask students to rephrase their answers by keeping the same meanings but using different words.

Teacher: *What was Edurne's biggest challenge?*

Student A (reads the text and gives the correct answer): *She climbed the world's fourteen tallest mountains.*

Teacher (smile and speaks in an encouraging tone): *Your answer is correct. Would you like to use your own words?*

Student A: *She tried to climb a very tall mountain.*

Teacher: *That's much better!*

Repeated opportunities: students should be asked to repeat the utterance again and again so that they will have a sense that their utterance is getting better and better.

Activity 3: Make a presentation about a weird ritual.

Non-Demand High Learning: Usually when making a presentation to the whole class, students have only one chance to do it due to restricted class hours.

Demand High Learning: students will have repeated opportunities to present their topics to different groups of audience in the Station Model.

- Classroom's physical space is divided into 5 stations. Wall-hung posters at each station serves as visual cues for Presenters and Visitors (See Figure 4).
- Students form five groups. Each group will select their station and assign roles of members: Presenters and Visitors.
- Presenters will host their station, making presentations to Visitors. Visitors will move to different stations, listen to Presenters and take notes.
- Presenters will have at least four times of repeated presentations. After each presentation, their fluency and confidence will be enhanced.



(Figure 4: Photos taken at HCMC Open University depicting Presenters and Visitors in action.)

Upgrading feedback: the aim is to avoid rubberstamping ‘Perfect!’ ‘Good!’ or giving immediate correction when responding to students’ answers.

Activity 4: Provide corrective feedback.

Non-Demand High Learning:

Teachers often correct students whenever they make mistakes/slips.

Teacher: *What was Edurne’s biggest challenge?*

Student A (mispronounces the vowel in the verb *climb*): *She climbed /klim/ the world’s fourteen tallest mountains.*

Teacher (correct Student A immediately): ‘/klaɪm/!’

Demand High Learning: Teachers help students to identify their own mistakes/slips

by using the fingers. Each of the fingers indicates each word in students’ utterance. Teachers direct students attention to the problematic finger so that they can correct themselves.

Teacher: *What was Edurne’s biggest challenge?*

Student A: *She climbed /klim/ the world’s fourteen tallest mountains.*

Teacher (shows seven fingers, assigns each finger to each word: *she-thumbs; climbed – pointing finger....* asks students to say the answer again and stops at the pointing finger to indicate the wrong pronunciation of the word *climb*).



Conclusion

The paper has presented rationales for Demand High teaching, arguing that this has a strong theoretical background by drawing on the analysis of Mass and Golding of Vygotsky’s ZPD, which is a major part of the sociocultural theory of learning. It has also characterized Demand High in motion, presenting activities that can be applied in any teaching contexts as long as their educators are ready to implement minor-but-effective adjustments to their classroom. Demand High, in essence, does not contest any current major teaching methodologies or course book writers, but it aims at making them better by making possible learning opportunities visible. To some extent, Demand High is the right demand that we can ask for our learners and ourselves.

Implication can also be made that this approach encourages writers of

teachers' manuals or lesson plans to adjust their current practice so that the usefulness of such materials can be greater enhanced. We, as practitioners, all have a strong grasp of basic lesson sequences, but to make real learning happens demands a deeper understanding of strategies that push learners to their maximum limits.

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Ứng Dụng Phương Pháp Dạy Học Theo Nhiệm Vụ Trong Giảng Dạy Môn Nói Tiếng Trung Quốc

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Tóm tắt

Mục tiêu cơ bản của môn Nói là bồi dưỡng cho sinh viên khả năng giao tiếp bằng tiếng Trung Quốc. Trong quá trình giảng dạy, giảng viên sử dụng có hiệu quả phương pháp dạy học theo nhiệm vụ, cung cấp và tạo ra nhiều loại hình nhiệm vụ cho sinh viên để đạt được mục tiêu bồi dưỡng và nâng cao khả năng giao tiếp bằng tiếng Trung Quốc cho sinh viên. Bài viết bước đầu tìm hiểu về ứng dụng phương pháp này trong giảng dạy môn Nói tiếng Trung Quốc.

Từ khoá: phương pháp dạy học theo nhiệm vụ; giảng dạy môn nói; tiếng Trung Quốc

Môn Nói là môn học bồi dưỡng khả năng vận dụng tiếng Trung Quốc trong giao tiếp cho sinh viên. Trong thực tế giảng dạy môn Nói hiện nay, giảng viên thường sử dụng các phương pháp dạy học (PPDH) như: PPDH trực tiếp, PPDH ngữ pháp – phiên dịch, PPDH nghe nói, PPDH nghe nhìn, PPDH giao tiếp..., còn PPDH theo nhiệm vụ vẫn đang trong giai đoạn thử nghiệm. Làm thế nào để ứng dụng PPDH này vào giảng dạy môn Nói, nâng cao khả năng giao tiếp bằng tiếng Trung Quốc cho sinh viên, vẫn còn là một vấn đề cấp thiết.

Sơ lược về PPDH theo nhiệm vụ

PPDH theo nhiệm vụ (task –based approach) là mô hình dạy học ngôn ngữ ra đời vào thập niên 80 của thế kỷ XX, được xây dựng trên cơ sở nghiên cứu thụ đắc ngôn ngữ thứ hai. PPDH này lấy nhiệm vụ cụ thể làm động lực học tập, lấy quá trình hoàn thành nhiệm vụ làm quá trình học tập, sử dụng phương thức giới thiệu thành quả nhiệm vụ để thể hiện

thành tựu dạy học ngôn ngữ. Trong thực tế dạy học trên lớp, giảng viên căn cứ vào mục tiêu giao tiếp đã định trước, thiết kế các nhiệm vụ cụ thể và có thể thực hiện, trong quá trình hoàn thành nhiệm vụ, thông qua các phương thức tham gia, trải nghiệm, tương tác, giao lưu, hợp tác, sinh viên có thể phát huy được năng lực tri nhận ngôn ngữ đã có. Học trong sử dụng, học trong thực hành, đã thể hiện triết lý dạy học “lấy người học làm trung tâm”.

PPDH theo nhiệm vụ có những đặc điểm sau: *Thứ nhất*, lấy nhiệm vụ ngôn ngữ làm trung tâm, không lấy việc thực hiện các hình thức ngôn ngữ thiếu thực tế làm mục đích; *Thứ hai*, bồi dưỡng cho sinh viên khả năng giao tiếp bằng ngôn ngữ đích qua các hoạt động giao lưu, mục đích cuối cùng của giao lưu là nâng cao khả năng giao tiếp ngôn ngữ; *Thứ ba*, đưa những chất liệu ngôn ngữ thực vào môi trường học tập, nhấn mạnh nội dung ngôn ngữ có ý nghĩa thực; *Thứ tư*, lấy trải nghiệm của cá nhân sinh viên làm nhân tố học tập trên lớp, sinh viên có thể sử dụng những kiến thức và kỹ năng ngôn ngữ, chiến lược giao tiếp của mình để giải quyết các vấn đề thực tế của bản thân, từ đó sinh viên có thể đi vào thực tiễn ngôn ngữ một cách tự do, tự chủ, trải nghiệm quá trình học tập của chính bản thân thông qua hình thức hoàn thành các nhiệm vụ do giảng viên đưa ra.

Nguyên tắc thiết kế PPDH theo nhiệm vụ như sau: *Thứ nhất*, nguyên tắc chân thực, chất liệu ngôn ngữ sử dụng trong các nhiệm vụ phải là ngôn ngữ thực; *Thứ hai*, nguyên tắc từ dễ đến khó, từ đơn giản đến phức tạp, các nhiệm vụ dễ, đơn giản phải được thực hiện trước các nhiệm vụ khó, phức tạp, các nhiệm vụ này phải liên quan với nhau; *Thứ ba*, nguyên tắc hình thức – chức năng, mỗi hình thức ngôn ngữ mang một ý nghĩa nhất định, thiết kế nhiệm vụ phải hiểu rõ mối quan hệ đối ứng giữa hình thức ngôn ngữ và chức năng giao tiếp, giúp sinh viên nắm vững các hình thức ngôn ngữ, hiểu được chức năng ngôn ngữ, đồng thời vận dụng được trong giao tiếp thực tế.

Xây dựng mô hình giảng dạy môn Nói tiếng Trung Quốc bằng PPDH theo nhiệm vụ

PPDH theo nhiệm vụ là mô hình thụ đắc ngôn ngữ thông qua việc hoàn thành các nhiệm vụ ngôn ngữ, vừa phù hợp với quy luật thụ đắc ngôn ngữ, vừa chú trọng tính tích cực của sinh viên, đồng thời có tính thao tác thực tế cao.

Trong Mô hình học tập theo nhiệm vụ (The Task-Based Learning framework) của Willis J. (1996), việc dạy học theo nhiệm vụ được chia làm 3 giai đoạn: giai đoạn tiền nhiệm vụ (the pre-task phase), giai đoạn nhiệm vụ (the task cycle) và giai đoạn tiêu điểm ngôn ngữ (language focus). Hoạt động và nội dung cụ thể của 3 giai đoạn này như sau:

Bảng 1: Mô hình PPDH theo nhiệm vụ của Willis J. (1996)

| Giai đoạn | Hoạt động | Nội dung |
|--------------------|--------------------|---|
| Tiền nhiệm vụ | Dẫn nhập | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Giảng viên đưa ra nhiệm vụ. - Sinh viên suy nghĩ, tìm kiếm từ vựng để thực hiện nhiệm vụ. |
| Nhiệm vụ | Thực hiện nhiệm vụ | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Sinh viên phân nhóm, thực hiện nhiệm vụ. - Giảng viên giám sát và khuyến khích, cho dừng nhiệm vụ khi hầu hết các nhóm đã thực hiện xong, đưa ra những bình luận ngắn gọn về nội dung. |
| | Lập kế hoạch | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Sinh viên chuẩn bị báo cáo trước lớp về nhiệm vụ mà họ đã thực hiện: họ đã có những quyết định gì hoặc khám phá gì? - Giảng viên đóng vai trò như một cố vấn ngôn ngữ, đưa ra những phản hồi, giúp sinh viên sửa chữa, diễn giải, luyện tập và/hoặc soạn thảo nội dung báo cáo. |
| | Báo cáo | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Giảng viên lựa chọn một vài nhóm trình bày báo cáo của họ trước lớp về nhiệm vụ mà họ đã thực hiện. - Giảng viên đóng vai trò như một chủ tịch, liên kết và tổng hợp những đóng góp từ các báo cáo. - Nếu muốn, giảng viên có thể đưa ra những phản hồi về nội dung và hình thức. |
| Tiêu điểm ngôn ngữ | Phân tích | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Sinh viên phân tích văn bản được lấy từ những dữ liệu quen thuộc. - Giảng viên đánh giá trước lớp về kết quả phân tích. |
| | Luyện tập | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Sinh viên luyện tập sử dụng những từ, cụm từ, mẫu câu rút ra từ hoạt động phân tích. Việc luyện tập này thường được thực hiện sau mỗi lần phân tích. |

Căn cứ vào thực tiễn giảng dạy môn Nói tiếng Trung Quốc, chúng tôi đã tiến hành điều chỉnh Mô hình PPDH theo nhiệm vụ của Willis J. (1996), đưa ra Mô hình giảng dạy môn Nói tiếng Trung Quốc bằng PPDH theo nhiệm vụ. Trong mô hình của chúng tôi, việc dạy học theo nhiệm vụ được chia làm 3 giai đoạn: giai đoạn tiền nhiệm vụ (the pre-task phase), giai đoạn nhiệm vụ (the task phase) và giai đoạn hậu nhiệm vụ (the post-task phase). Trong đó, giai đoạn tiền nhiệm vụ là giai đoạn thực hiện hoạt động dẫn nhập, PPDH theo nhiệm vụ đặc biệt chú trọng mối quan hệ giữa dẫn nhập và nhiệm vụ; giai đoạn nhiệm vụ là giai đoạn thực hiện nhiệm vụ, bao gồm hoạt động đưa ra nhiệm vụ và hoạt động học tập kiến thức mới; giai đoạn hậu nhiệm vụ là giai đoạn củng cố kiến thức mới và tiến hành vận dụng thực tế. Nội dung chi tiết của Mô hình giảng dạy môn Nói tiếng Trung Quốc của chúng tôi như sau:

Bảng 2: Mô hình giảng dạy môn Nói tiếng Trung Quốc bằng PPDH theo nhiệm vụ

| Giai đoạn | Hoạt động | Nội dung |
|---------------|---------------------|---|
| Tiền nhiệm vụ | Dẫn nhập | Giảng viên thiết kế các vấn đề có liên quan đến bài khoá, yêu cầu sinh viên suy nghĩ và trả lời, nhằm khơi gợi sự hứng thú và quan tâm của sinh viên với chủ đề và nhiệm vụ, giúp sinh viên có trạng thái tích cực chủ động ngay từ đầu. |
| Nhiệm vụ | Đưa ra nhiệm vụ | Giúp sinh viên biết được nhiệm vụ mình phải hoàn thành. Từ đó thúc đẩy mong muốn học tập kiến thức mới của sinh viên, để hoàn thành nhiệm vụ giảng viên đưa ra. |
| | Học kiến thức mới | Giảng dạy những kiến thức ngôn ngữ có liên quan đến nhiệm vụ đã đưa ra. Những kiến thức này sinh viên chưa được trang bị, song là kiến thức cần phải có để hoàn thành nhiệm vụ. |
| Hậu nhiệm vụ | Phân tích, đánh giá | Giảng viên phân tích, đánh giá nhiệm vụ mà sinh viên đã hoàn thành ở giai đoạn trước, đặc biệt chú trọng những vấn đề ngôn ngữ có ảnh hưởng đến việc hiểu và giao tiếp, cũng như chiến lược giao tiếp, bao gồm cả những phản hồi về lỗi ngôn ngữ của sinh viên. |
| | Củng cố kiến thức | Hướng dẫn sinh viên củng cố những kiến thức đã học bằng hình thức đối thoại, giao lưu giữa giảng viên và sinh viên, giữa sinh viên với sinh viên. |

| Giai đoạn | Hoạt động | Nội dung |
|-----------|---------------------|--|
| | Hoàn thành nhiệm vụ | Giảng viên cung cấp cho sinh viên những nhiệm vụ thực tế có liên quan hoặc sinh viên tự thiết kế tình huống, nhằm khơi gợi tính chủ động của sinh viên, hướng đến mục tiêu cuối cùng là bồi dưỡng khả năng giao tiếp bằng ngôn ngữ đích. |

Một ví dụ về giảng dạy môn Nói tiếng Trung Quốc bằng PPDH theo nhiệm vụ

Chúng tôi xin đưa ra một ví dụ về việc ứng dụng Mô hình giảng dạy môn Nói tiếng Trung Quốc bằng PPDH theo nhiệm vụ trong thực tế như sau:

Bảng 3: Ứng dụng PPDH theo nhiệm vụ trong thiết kế hoạt động giảng dạy bài “不同文化” (Giáo trình “Luyện nói tiếng Trung Quốc cấp tốc – Trình độ trung cấp”, Mã Tiễn Phi chủ biên, Nxb Tổng hợp TP. Hồ Chí Minh, 2014)

| Giai đoạn | Hoạt động | Nội dung |
|---------------|-------------------|--|
| Tiền nhiệm vụ | Dẫn nhập | Giảng viên đưa ra các câu hỏi sau: 你认识外国人吗? 你有外国朋友吗? 中国人有什么性格特点? 中国人和美国人有什么共同点吗? |
| Nhiệm vụ | Đưa ra nhiệm vụ | Nhiệm vụ 1: Yêu cầu sinh viên nêu lên điểm khác nhau giữa người Trung Quốc và người Mỹ. |
| | Học kiến thức mới | Sinh viên ôn tập lại những từ ngữ và phương thức biểu đạt về miêu tả đặc điểm tính cách nhân vật đã được học. Yêu cầu sinh viên tổng kết lại những từ ngữ, mẫu câu có liên quan đến chủ đề. Giảng viên kết hợp bài khoá, bổ sung những từ ngữ và phương thức diễn đạt mới. |
| | Đưa ra nhiệm vụ | Nhiệm vụ 2: Phân nhóm thảo luận sự khác biệt văn hoá giữa người Trung Quốc, người Mỹ và người Việt Nam. |

| Giai đoạn | Hoạt động | Nội dung |
|--------------|---------------------|---|
| | Học kiến thức mới | Sinh viên đọc và hiểu nội dung bài khoá. Tiến hành phân nhóm và thảo luận chủ đề giảng viên đưa ra. Các nhóm cử đại diện báo cáo trước lớp kết quả mà nhóm đã thảo luận. Các nhóm bổ sung ý kiến, đưa ra câu hỏi yêu cầu nhóm báo cáo trả lời. |
| Hậu nhiệm vụ | Phân tích, đánh giá | Giảng viên phân tích, đánh giá bài báo cáo của sinh viên về sự khác biệt văn hoá giữa người Trung Quốc, người Mỹ và người Việt. Sửa các lỗi từ vựng, ngữ pháp tiếng Trung xuất hiện trong bài báo cáo. |
| | Củng cố kiến thức | Giảng viên và sinh viên hỏi – đáp với nhau xoay quanh chủ đề “不同文化，不同行为”. |
| | Hoàn thành nhiệm vụ | Giảng viên nêu lên suy nghĩ của mình về chủ đề “我眼中的中国人”. Sinh viên phát biểu những suy nghĩ của mình về chủ đề trên. Đồng thời nêu lên suy nghĩ của mình về các chủ đề khác có liên quan, như: “我眼中的河内人”, “我眼中的西贡人”... |

Ưu điểm và hạn chế của việc ứng dụng PPDH theo nhiệm vụ trong giảng dạy môn Nói tiếng Trung Quốc

PPDH theo nhiệm vụ đặc biệt chú trọng quá trình tham gia học tập của sinh viên, nhấn mạnh ý nghĩa của ngôn ngữ, chú trọng bồi dưỡng khả năng vận dụng ngôn ngữ đích của sinh viên, giúp sinh viên thụ đắc ngôn ngữ theo cách tự nhiên từ quá trình hoàn thành nhiệm vụ ngôn ngữ.

Việc ứng dụng PPDH theo nhiệm vụ trong giảng dạy môn Nói tiếng Trung Quốc có những ưu điểm sau: *Thứ nhất*, sinh viên phải sử dụng ngôn ngữ đích để hoàn thành các nhiệm vụ do giảng viên đưa ra, qua đó giúp sinh viên tăng cường sự tự tin trong quá trình sử dụng tiếng Trung Quốc; *Thứ hai*, giảng viên có thể điều chỉnh độ khó của các nhiệm vụ, qua đó thực hiện các mục tiêu giảng dạy khác nhau. Có thể

nói, việc ứng dụng PPDH theo nhiệm vụ vào môn Nói tiếng Trung Quốc sẽ mang lại hiệu quả cao trong bồi dưỡng khả năng giao tiếp tiếng Trung Quốc cho sinh viên.

Song, PPDH theo nhiệm vụ cũng tồn tại một vài hạn chế khi sử dụng trong giảng dạy môn Nói tiếng Trung Quốc: *Thứ nhất*, nội dung giảng dạy thiếu tính hệ thống; *Thứ hai*, PPDH theo nhiệm vụ đặt ra yêu cầu khá cao đối với việc giảng dạy trên lớp của giảng viên.

Tài liệu tham khảo

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The Obstacles of Students in English Speaking Skill and the Ultimate Solutions of Teachers in English Speaking Class

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Abstract

One active production skill that has great influences on the communicative process is speaking. The majority of people, especially English learners, desire to attain the highest result in oral English communication but it is really difficult to get this achievement due to lots of barriers in English speaking. This is illustrated through the questionnaire and face to face interviewing of most major in English students at Ho Chi Minh Open University (HOU). All of them, including not only the less able or freshman students but also the excellent or junior students at HOU, have stuck in various difficult situations in oral English expressions. Hence, in this presentation, a series of obstacles of students in English speaking skill will be exposed, and the ultimate solutions of instructors in English speaking class will be described. Normally, the barriers of English speakers are obviously recognized in language communicative competence, topic and cue, socio-cultural aspect, insufficient motivations, individual emotional state, and stand –out personalities or low self – esteem. Once, facing up to these problems, in the position of a lecturer, a great numbers of solutions are suggested to deal with all speaking difficulties such as applying computer technologies in language teaching, raising open

questions, making innovation in cultural tradition, structuring talk, playing Devil's advocate, avoiding talk – talk loop. In short, being aware of all obstacles of students and finding out the effective solutions in English speaking skill should be taken into account because these greatly affect not only language teaching in community but also English speaking class at HOU.

Keywords: topic and cue; insufficient motivations; low self-esteem; stand-out personalities; playing Devil's advocate; avoiding talk – talk loop

Teachers' Use of Facebook to Motivate Vietnamese Students to Improve their English Language Learning

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Abstract

In this project, the researcher used a social networking site, Facebook for language learning in an effort to improve learning motivation from non-English major students. This study is underpinned by Knowles' principles of andragogy as the art and science of adult learning. During the course, the researcher observed and examined participants' learning participation and attitude through the data which were collected by both qualitative and quantitative methods. This case study demonstrated that learning connections made through virtual learning environments could have a positive effect on learning outcome, and also increase students' motivation as well as a sense of community.

Keywords: Computer-Assisted Language Learning; Facebook; andragogy; adult learning; virtual learning; learning community

A Review of Designing End-Of-Term Speaking Tests for English Major Students at Ho Chi Minh City Open University

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Abstract

Assessment plays an essential role in teaching and learning English as it aims to measure the learning outcomes. Designing appropriate test types and procedures for four skills, especially productive skills, is a very challenging task for teachers of English. The assessment scheme is supposed to provide precise measures and fair opportunities for students to demonstrate what they can do with their language skill. This involves content domains, measurement techniques, administrative feasibility, target populations, and potential sources of testing bias. Based on these elements, a review of designing end-of-term speaking tests for English major students at HCMC Open University was undertaken for the purpose of analyzing the strengths and limitations of the testing tool. It helps to identify what can be done to facilitate the teaching and learning process.

The Obstacles Of Students In English Speaking Skill And The Ultimate Solutions Of Teachers In English Speaking Class

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Abstract

One active production skill that has great influences on the communicative process is speaking. The majority of people, especially English learners, desiring to attain the highest result in oral English communication but it is really difficult to get this achievement due to lots of barriers in English speaking. This is illustrated through the questionnaire and face to face interviewing of most major in English students at Ho Chi Minh Open University (HOU). All of them, including not only the less able or freshman students but also the excellent or junior students at HOU, have stuck in various difficult situations in oral English expression. Hence, in this writing, the series of obstacles of students in English speaking skill will be exposed, and the ultimate solutions of instructors in English speaking class will be described. Normally, the barriers of English speakers are obviously recognized in language communication as topic and cue, cultural barriers, insufficient motivations, individual emotional state, stand –out or low self –esteem learners, and language competence. Once, facing up to these problems, in the position of a lecturer, a great numbers of solutions are suggested to deal with all speaking difficulties such as applying computer technologies in language teaching, raising open questions, making innovation in cultural tradition, structuring talk, playing Devil’s advocate, avoiding talk – talk loop, and autonomy. In short, being aware of all obstacles of students and finding out the effective solutions in English speaking skill should be

taken into account because these greatly affect not only language teaching in community but also English speaking class at HOU.

Key word: topic and cue, insufficient motivations, low self –esteem, stand-out learners, playing devil’s advocate, avoiding talk – talk loop and autonomy

Bio-data

After achieving Master degree of Education in TESOL at University of Southern Queensland-Australia and Bachelor degree of Chinese at HCMC University of Pedagogy, Ms. Nguyen Chau Bich Tuyen has more interest in foreign language teaching. Especially, in a position of an English lecturer at Ho



Chi Minh Open University (HOU), and a director of her own business - Thanh Cong Education Joint Stock Company (TCE), as well as with a strong fifteen-year background of English teaching in various environments with diverse learners, she is keen on doing research of teaching psychology and methodology, language learning attitude and its effectiveness. Hence, she never stops looking for more opportunities to share her thinking and opinions in language teaching with the hope that she can get more experiences and improvements to obtain the English educational goals in particular, and have meaningful contribution to the success of Vietnamese educational system in general.

Introduction

One of the most fundamental factors that has greatly direct influences on individual accomplishments in various communicative environments of schools, working place and social life especially in

current setting of Vietnam opening policy is English oral-communicative ability. To help people get the fluency and confidence in English speaking is getting completely important because this skill requires not only the extreme effort of learners in overcoming challenging barriers but also the vital roles of teachers in finding out effective solutions to deal with all obstacles in practicing speaking process. For these reasons, each pair of existed barrier and suggested solution will be clearly stated such as difficult topic and cue matching with applying computer technologies and raising open questions; Cultural barrier connecting with making innovation in socio- cultural tradition; Insufficient motivations going together with sharing breaking strict and old- fashioned teaching rules; Individual emotional states combining with inspiring and structuring talk; Stand out or low self – esteem learners linking with playing devil’s advocate or talk – talk loop; Language competence and autonomous ability. In general, English speaking skill is getting intelligible in its using or applying whenever teachers take obstacles of learners into consideration and make sense in these problem solving.

“Topic and cue” - its complication and solving methods by applying computer technologies, giving hints and raising “opening questions”

To encourage English learners participating in class room discussion, getting familiar with expressing their ideas, asking questions, and giving responses etc. topic and cue should be considered as a prior and decisive factor in conducting a speaking class. According to Jim Scrivener (2005) topic can be understood as the hot issues that the instructors or learners bringing to class, and as well as a cue means the form of brief newspaper, article or some provocative questions served to help spark conversation. However, with the diverse variety and typical functions of each speaking class for or university undergraduates or TOEFL or IELTS language proficiency, a great numbers of topics and cues are known as so strange and difficult, some are related to academic and scientific field and these are intelligible for learners to comprehend. In some cases, learners seem to lose their encouragements, inspiration and even the confidence in expressing opinions or thinking because of topic and cue barrier. Facing up to this problem, it is necessary for teacher to have good preparation of a series of relevant further topics like “a follow-on article or questions to keep

in reserve in order to move the discussion forward” (Jim Scrivener, 2005, p.146). In some mandatory conditions that need to conduct these strange or scientific cues or topic, the applying computer technologies and giving related opening questions are suggested. Take an example of animal camouflages topic, it is advisable to access the internet and look for some images and explanation of natural camouflage phenomenon and then present in Power Point slides in order to help the learners have visual observation and practical imagination. Besides, radio talk shows or video technique with some kinds of documentary films should be also performed in class because it is believable that the lively and state-of-the-art technology not only attracts learners to take in knowledge and comprehend topic in an interesting and natural way of using their own auditory and visual senses but also helps them to release the feeling of being under overwhelming pressure of difficult topic and cue. In addition, to dealing with challenging cue and topic, teacher should give some hints or clue (elements related to cue) with the aim of encouraging learners having brainstorming and making sense with the cue. In the other hand, raising “opening questions” is a core technique that cannot be lacked in resolving complicated topic and cue. The interrogative questions should be form as “wh- questions” that require long answers rather than “closed questions” with short responses with “Yes/No answers” (Jim Scrivener, 2005) so that the learners can achieve the speaking target without nervous feeling of strange or difficult “topic and cue”.

Cultural barriers - the influences and process of making traditional innovation

Cultural barrier within the college context is comprehended as some traditional customs, habit and thoughts that impede the development of students' spoken English and come up with workable solutions to the problems. Beginning with one of the most detrimental factors that has a profound influence on Vietnamese educational system in general and discourage speaking English of student in the university context in particular is the strong collectivism-oriented culture. This collectivism-oriented culture is completely contradictory with the individualism culture. As Andi Herlina (2014), individualism is considered as a prevailing and typical U.S culture which fosters independence and individual achievements, as well as promotes self-expression, individual thinking and personal choice and decision while the

collectivism mainly emphasizes the significance of groups and engage people in sharing and cooperation and the collectivistic culture is evaluated in a negative way of stifling individual initiatives and uniqueness. This leads to the inactive characteristic of almost all HOU students who are not willing to speak up in class or even giving responses to a general invitation of the teacher. Furthermore, face-consciousness is strong in terms of collectivism-oriented culture so students seems to refuse to answer the questions posed to them although they have ability to give good answer. As a result, it might have caused serious misunderstandings or being upset for teachers because it is believable that students ignore them or do not express their respectful attitudes to teacher. If the differences in cultures-tacit yet deep-seated beliefs last for a long time, the cross cultural communication failure is unavoidable between teacher and students. This leads to the ineffective cooperation in teaching and learning activities especially at speaking class. Continuously, one more reason that greatly impact on spoken communication of student in speaking class is the teacher high respectful tradition. It means the teacher considered as the knowledgeable master having higher status in the society so merely teacher can have the authorities of sharing opinions and the learners definitely obey all instructions or speech of teacher as Delgado-Gaitan (1994) shared his perspective that the role of sharing opinions and knowledge is reserved for people with higher status. This mentality become a norm and permeates the whole Vietnamese school system in which the learners just listening to teachers respectfully in class without expressing their opinions. Despite extending respectful attitude towards the teacher is a vital qualification but it should be an exceptional one in language classes, especially in learning environment of speaking English because in this place the learners need to express themselves or even make argument to the teacher as much as possible in order to get the best qualification in English communication. Last but not least, one remarkable cultural tradition that makes English learners unimproved is the influenced philosophy of “Eloquence May be Silver, Silence is Gold”. Actually, Vietnamese students hesitate to express their opinions freely because they have ever been taught to be humble in all situations. In front of the public or in the group they should not show off themselves because they are always concerned about how others will see them mentality and they want to avoid getting negative comments from others. Therefore, the gold rule set up is keeping silence. However, this rule is completely unreasonable in

English speaking class because the learners who want to sharpen their communicative skills, should aggressively participate in class and group activities and even take advantages of opportunities to debate or have discussions because of famous sayings “practice makes progress or practice makes perfect”. Based on some cultural obstacles mentioned above, it is essential to carry out the process of making traditional innovation such as blowing the new atmosphere into classroom with some group work activities and erasing some negative collectivism oriented culture by employing a great number of foreign teachers. At first, using group work, this activity expects students to take initiatives teacher-centered. This means that the teacher play an important role and teaching methods or learning styles should give the way to the group-oriented activities and then after learners getting familiar with this model, the learner- centered method should be applied. This is an efficient teaching strategy because since group work generates interactive language, it should be manipulated strategically in class. Moreover, instead of conforming to the traditional teaching styles mainly based on teacher responsibilities, English teachers should be well-informed about various teaching interaction-based methodologies, manipulate them and develop their own teaching methods compatible with the Vietnamese current education context to promote interaction among students. Additionally, English teachers need to renew themselves in their educational psychology such as establishing closely relationship with students – regularly meeting, talking and sharing with them, considering students as friends – not always putting students under pressure in strict tradition of teacher respecting, being open-minded in English communication – not asking students perfectly perform in the correct way all the time. Making sure these standards in group working, it definitely bring greatly successful in language learning and teaching. To gradually erase some negative oriented cultural tradition in English speaking class, a solution of hiring more foreign teachers is proposed. Obviously, more foreign teachers at work place bring more benefits for both local English teachers and learners. As natural way, the more opportunities to stay with foreign teachers, the better local English teachers and learners are. In reality, the thicker contacting densities helps local teachers and learners not only to comprehend more natural English usages but also take in more positive western cultural aspects. More than that, after a long run, the negative collectivism – oriented culture will be replaced by positive individualism culture. This is an extremely joyful signal for language

improvement at HOU in particular and in Vietnamese language education in general.

Insufficient motivations in speaking class and the solutions of breaking strict and old- fashioned teaching rules

Language learners can achieve significant improvements in English speaking class if they have adequate subjective and objective motivations. Referring to subjective motivations, it is advisable to have specific individual goals, sufficient personal opinions, deeply sensitive critical thinking on topic and the endless inspiration in language exposing of the learners. Plus, the teacher motivation is one of the most important qualities that greatly contribute to the success of English spoken communication. However, the fact shows that most learners seem to lack subjective motivations in setting personal goals and planning actions to make amazing progress on the way to get to destination in English fluency journey. Besides, in the classroom learning process, the learners rarely express their personal opinions and lazy to participate in pair work or group work and even more, learners seems to ignore all critical thinking questions posed them. Additionally, inadequate objective motivations from the teachers as creating a ‘safe’ and positive learning environment, monitoring, evaluating or giving praise to learners also directly cause serious consequence in English communication. Awareness of a series of insufficient motivations mentioned above, teachers need to take immediate actions to break all existing problems. Particularly, with learners lacking of learning personal goals, teachers need to share and encourage them to set specific goals in English learning because without learning purpose, learners have no passion and cannot get the high language target competence as Fitzhugh Dodson (1999 -2016) said “*Without goals, and plans to reach them, you are like a ship that has set sail with no destination.*”. To the learners having insufficient personal opinions or critical thinking on topic, teachers put them in a group of both good and less able learners to enables them to participate confidently and appropriately in small group work. If the discussed topic is not intelligible, teacher should be both a facilitator and a monitor or a manager. It means that teacher plays important roles in raising awareness of the support services available to learners, monitoring and giving some clues or hints , module outlines, web pages to learners in the event that the prospect of discussing the topic or the discussion

itself has a personal impact. Similarly, to the learners being lazy to speak or rarely expressing their own ideas and even having no inspiration to participate in classroom activities, teacher should set clear learning outcomes for the session and identify the role that the discussion has in achieving these targets like teacher encourages learners by giving them additional marks in their mid-term or final test. If the students are so sensitive in speaking difficulties, teacher gives students the opportunities to express any concerns they have with the teacher confidentially outside of class. Then teacher gradually helps these learners to overcome all their troubles in English speaking in order to they can integrate naturally in any environmental conditions. Inadequate motivations do not merely belong to learners but teachers themselves also have lack of giving motivations to learners and this more or less leads to some ineffective outcomes in English expression. Evidently, many scientific studies have reported that most of Asian English teachers rarely give compliments or appreciate learners and HOU teachers are almost not exceptional. Therefore, to innovate the teaching and learning quality in English speaking class, it is time to break some strict and old- fashioned rules as following suggestions. First, teachers need to be flexible in some compulsory modules For example, an alternative question on a different topic should be offered in exams and assessments and students should know if they do or do not have to learn the information on the relevant topics (The University of Sheffield, 2016). Next, teachers should not so strict in asking learners to meet their requirements perfectly in all situations. For instance, in the condition of a learner at first is asked to give answer in front of the public but she is extremely shy and afraid of giving speech, teacher should allow her to have a 'silent' discussion - this involves a topic being written up on the board and she- learner being given the opportunity to write anonymously her views on it. (The University of Sheffield, 2016). Last but not least, teachers need to examine, judge, control and look back themselves both inside and outside classroom environments to make sure that they always have conscious awareness of teaching methods, conveying knowledge and treating behaviors etc. Taking examples of examining their own assumptions and views on the topic to reduce the risk of allowing their own stance influencing the discussion inappropriately, Identifying any areas of personal discomfort that might occur for them when facilitating, Talking to colleagues who have experience of teaching sensitive and controversial issues or asking colleagues about their experiences and strategies that have worked for

them and their students. (The University of Sheffield, 2016)

Individual emotional state and its controlling by inspiring and structuring talk

No body denies individual emotional state is important in education especially in English speaking class. Personal emotional state in advantaged aspect drives attention, interests, leaning inspiration and unforgettable memories, but it is not easy to fully understand our emotional system and it is more complicated to comprehend emotional states of language learners. Honestly, learners do not know exactly how to regulate their emotion in school, beyond defining too much or too little emotion as misbehavior. Learners have rarely incorporated emotion comfortably into English speaking class. They sometime express their nervous or embarrassed feeling, their fear of being fooling or losing face in front of others, their worry about causing mistakes or getting negative comments or correction from the teachers. Due to these of emotional disadvantages, it is really essential for the language teachers to set up the appropriate teaching methods as inspiring and structuring talk to help learners overcome these personal emotional weaknesses in English oral communication. First, to inspire learners to escape from the fear feeling of being fooling or losing face before other peers, ESL teacher should pre-teach learners whenever possible. This means that teacher will plan what to be taught tomorrow or the next day and send these materials as article, speaking text or videos etc. in order to learners can have preparation in advance, and these leaners will be more confident to give response without laughing at from classmates as Yurkosky says. “The learners feel so empowered if they’ve had a chance to look at the material ahead of time” Second, to help learners release their nervous or embarrassed feelings in speaking English, teacher should give learners more opportunities to communicate with the ESL teachers. Once teachers spend more time to talk with learners, this gradually establishes the regular habit and strong relationship like best friends together. It means that there is no gap or far distance between teachers and learners, so it is completely helpful for learners overcoming terribly frightened feeling or shyness in oral English expression. Third, to make learners to incorporate in English speaking class in a convenient way as well as let the learners not to be dreadfully worried about causing mistakes or bravely face up to getting negative comments in English speaking, teachers should organize “structuring

talk”. It means that teachers keep the main role to structure to talk and make all learners to have more chances to evolve in speaking activities. Teachers also try to prevent learners from dull atmosphere of English speaking, and at times teachers add themselves to the discussion to keep it interesting. However, it is likely that the teachers should reduce their own participation level because “the more teachers talk, the less space there is for learners to say something” (Jim Scrivener, 2005, p. 146). Moreover, the aim of structuring talk is hold to help learners feel freely in talking with their peers, especially learners seem to have less serious feeling of causing mistakes when taking with their friends more than with teacher. Hence, this easily brings great success to leaners in English speaking skill.

Standout or low self –esteem learners and the solutions with playing devil’s advocate or talk – talk loop

One of the most problematic things that the ESL teachers need to take into consideration is the multi-level classes in teaching English speaking skill at university environment. This multi-level class model can be obviously recognized in all university educational system in Viet Nam because all high school graduates have to take apart in a National University Entrance Examination. Take an example of students participating at HOU Faculty of Foreign Languages, got the good total marks of three main selected subjects. Some students can get good marks in English but others cannot because they are from the different learning backgrounds and family background. Some learners have learned orally while those have learned mainly from a textbook. Some are from rich family with better English learning opportunities while others are from poor family with difficult educational condition. This leads to the multi – level classes- defined as variety of learners in them and these learners have various abilities in oral English communication. Particularly, there are two existing opposite poles of learners as standout and low –self-esteem. A standout (or a standout learner) is known as a person is better or more important than the others in a group (learner’s dictionary.com), while a low –self-esteem learner is understood as a person who always feels unworthy, incapable, and incompetent, easy to lose his/ her confidence in English class. These two kinds of leaners in the same class become the huge barrier in English speaking class. For examples, the discussed topic raised to learners is quite difficult. The standout feel encouraged to expressed

their ideas but the low self-esteem learners are discouraged and do not want to participate in. In this trouble teaching context, it is advisable for ESL teacher to use the techniques of playing devil's advocate or avoiding talk – talk loop (Jim Scrivener, 2005). Playing devil's advocate means “deliberately taking an opposite or contrasting viewpoint in order to spur on conversation” (Jim Scrivener, 2005, p. 147). This technique seems to be more challenging because it requires learners to have deep knowledge in topic and even have more language skill with vocabulary range of opposite meanings, so the standout learners should be asked to take part in this classroom activity to inspire their learning spirit. In contrast, the low self-esteem learners are put to participate in “talk – talk loop” because these learners don't likely want to answer or they seem not to be confident to express their ideas. Talk – talk loop means that talking and continue talking in a circle. The teachers often use this technique in which “teacher says something but because no response from the learners, teacher says something else, and again with no response and the teacher adds something else ...” (Jim Scrivener, 2005, p. 146). This technique is extremely helpful for the low self-esteem learners because they have more time and more chances to listen to teacher and think more about the questions or speech of teacher. Moreover, learners also have opportunities to get some clues or hints related to that topic “teacher add something else” or they can be encouraged by the teacher “it takes little a courage initially” (Jim Scrivener, 2005, p. 146). However, to get more effectiveness in English speaking class, especially for low self-esteem learner, teacher should “avoid talk – talk loop” because teacher is easy to be in danger of getting locked in to talk- talk loop while speaking time should be saved for learners. It means that teachers are advised “to get far more conversation out of class, ask one clear question then shutting up- and patiently allowing even quite a long silence, while learners formulate what they want to say. (Jim Scrivener, 2005, p. 146)

Language competence and autonomy

Language competence is considered as the most serious barrier for almost all learners because they often see themselves are not good at pronunciation, grammatical structures, vocabulary and the more, but from the perspective of the teacher, language competence is the easiest one if learners have strong objective or target in their learning. The most important thing that they should have strong determination in

their learning and completely follow the instructions of teacher because teacher is “an explainer – mainly explaining or lecturing to convey information to learners”, “an involver – trying to involve the learners actively and puts a great deal of effort into finding appropriate and interesting activities and control the classroom” and “an enabler – be confident enough to share control with learners, make the decision in classroom, lead learners to learn for themselves, teacher may become a guide, a counsellor or resources of information when needed”. (Jim Scrivener, 2005, p.25). Through some explanations of the roles of teachers and learners mentioned above. It is strongly believed that to get language competence the learners should have ability of autonomy and the teachers play important roles of facilitator, instructor and consultant. The teachers are considered as positive ones if they take full of responsibilities such as giving learners more motivations to self-study more at home because learners just have short time of learning at University; providing or introducing some authentic learning materials with books, CD, Video, multi-computer program, helpful English websites and so on; willing to answer or consult whenever learners have problematic questions or concerns related to language learning in general and English speaking in particular.

Conclusion

Being a confident and fluent learner in English foreign language is completely challenging because learners have to experience a great number of obstacles as well as teachers have to put resolves for specific situations which takes out the most of learners, not only from their contributions, but it also includes methods from the tutor in order to awaken the learners’ potential to help braking barriers causing the passive to the classroom. Certain situations come in pair with proper resolves itself, neutralizing, canceling each other out, rising connectivity from person-to-person in an English class. For example, learners often get a motivation & encouragement lost when facing with complicated questions which is way high to their English comprehension level, how the teacher should respond is to keep them on track by asking follow-up questions, keeping them in group discussions as to remain them brainstorming of the topic. The existence of these pairs were created from the issues and proper solutions such as: Cultural barrier connecting with making innovation in socio-cultural tradition; Insufficient motivations going together with sharing

breaking strict and old- fashioned teaching rules; Individual emotional states combining with inspiring and structuring talk; Stand out or low self –esteem learners linking with playing devil’s advocate or talk – talk loop; applying computer and allowing open raise questions to difficult, high complexity topics. By equipping these methods, it would help improve the efficiency of comprehension received from the teacher that boosts how learners get to know more and use English fluently in speaking, not limited in class activities, but also in real life appliances.

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