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HONG DUC UNIVERSITY'S 20TH ANNIVERSARY
FACULTY OF FOREIGN LANGUAGES

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Linguistics – Culture & English Teaching Methodologies

Foreign Languages for Non-majored Students

English Skills Development

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FACULTY OF FOREIGN LANGUAGES

1. History of establishment and development

Faculty of Foreign Languages was established from the merger of the Foreign Languages Department at Thanh Hoa College of Education, the Division of Foreign Languages at Thanh Hoa Medical College and Foreign Languages Center at Thanh Hoa College of Economics and Technical Industries.

Being one of the most important faculties of education and training at Hong Duc university, Faculty of Foreign Languages has the following duties: 1) Train teachers of English for all levels ranging from tertiary education to nursery education in the country; teach English to English non-majored staff members, postgraduate and undergraduate students at Hong Duc university; help develop English competence of staff working in different units and boards in Thanh Hoa as well as any learners when required; 2) Conduct research for the purpose of professional development, contributing to the growth of human resources who have good competence of foreign languages which meets social demands.

1.1. Managing Board:

Dr. Trịnh Thi Thom – Cell Secretary, Dean
Dr. Nguyen Thị Quyet – Cell Vice-Secretary, Vice-Dean

1.2. Teaching staff

The Faculty has 35 teaching staff, including 02 Ph.Ds, 25 Masters and 6 Graduates.

1.3. Division

No	Division	Head
1	English Skills Development	Nguyen Thi Hong, M.A
2	Linguistics - Culture & English Teaching Methodologies	Tran Manh Trung, M.A
3	Foreign Languages for Non - majored Students	Nguyen Huy Tau, M.A

2. Education & training, research and international cooperation

2.1. Achievements of Education and Training

Syllabus of 4-year-course Undergraduate English Education
Syllabus of 3-year-course Undergraduate English Education
Syllabus of English Teaching according to Vietnam's Foreign Language Competency Framework
Syllabus of French Teaching according to Vietnam's Foreign Language Competency Framework

During 20 years of development, the Faculty has trained 17 courses of English majored students, including more than 2500 4-year-course undergraduates and more than 1000 3-

year-course undergraduates, more than 200 second-degree students; taught foreign languages to thousands of students from different majors of Hong Duc university.

2.2. Progress in Research Conduction

Up to now the Faculty has successfully held 04 inter-universities conferences; 1-2 annual university-level conferences, 1-2 faculty-level conferences; 30 provincial and university-level research projects by teaching staff; 25 journal articles in international conferences' booklets; 30 articles in national conferences' booklets; hundreds of articles in specialized journals. Students' research engagement has been also improved. Each year there are 5-7 groups of students conducting university-level research projects, 2-3 of which are awarded with high rankings.

2.3. Significant international cooperation and contribution

From 2007 to 2017, the Faculty has received 08 British scholars, 01 Canadian scholar, 04 American scholars who support the education and training for teaching staff and students; cooperated with the US Embassy to hold Annual English Olympic Contest for students; exchanged students in international program such as Asian Culture Quiz, ASEAN Quiz. The teaching staff and students have also enthusiastically participated in international cooperation programs, projects and activities in the province and the university such as the Conference for Commerce and Tourism Promotion, OVOP, National Tourism Year 2015, ACCCU projects, the Conference of Climate Changes; exchanged teaching methodologies, professional development and culture communication with international institutions and organizations such as The Victoria University of Wellington, New Zealand; the University of Carleton, Canada; the University of New York, the USA; the University of Massey, New Zealand; International Education Center, France. Some students have had opportunities to exchange and study in the USA, Canada, Thailand, China, etc.

3. Future trends

The Faculty continues to develop its training mode with 2 new majors (Master of Education and Bachelor of English Interpretation and Translation) and perfect the organizational structure (by establishing the Division of English Teaching Methodologies) in order to improve teaching and learning quality to satisfy the social demands; increase the number and upgrade the quality of research projects, especially large scale projects, increase the number of international journal articles; focus on in-service professional development in order to meet the requirements of tertiary education in the era of integration.

TESTING & ASSESSMENT TO MEET THE REQUIREMENTS OF THE SIX-LEVEL FRAMEWORK FOR THE ASSESSMENT OF FOREIGN LANGUAGE COMPETENCE USED IN VIETNAM

Trinh Thi Thom[1]

Abstract: *The six-level Framework for the Assessment of Foreign language competence used in Vietnam issued by The Ministry of Education and Training has led to a lot of innovations in education in Vietnam recently. However, in order to meet its requirements, educators have to make efficient but suitable changes in teaching and learning. This article attempted to do some initial analysis on the assessment methods in the case of Hong Duc university to see if the changes have been appropriate or can help students prepare good language competency. The findings showed that the assessment process is, to a great extent, of very good value. They have on-going assessment as well as achievement tests at the end of each course. The findings, on the contrary, also indicated that the tools used for this process - the tests, have many details not matching the requirements of language competency. Some recommendations are also made for adapting these tests so that they will work effectively.*

1. Introduction

For our country to be successful in the opening and integrating process, foreign language competence plays a vital role. This requires innovations in teaching and learning foreign languages. One of the recent changes in requirement is about testing and assessment as it is among the significant factors contributing to the process of evaluating educational efficiency. For a long time, language testing and assessment have been focusing on grammar and vocabulary. They are now more focusing on language skills. One of the tools that orient the teaching and learning, and then assessing, to a focus of language use to develop learner competency is the six-level Framework for the Assessment of Foreign language competence used in Vietnam (FAFV). It is also the requirement for any language learner to be graduated, with different levels applied. The foreign language teaching, therefore, has to be developed to meet these new requirements and testing and assessment play a very important role in this innovation.

2. Theoretical background

2.1. Language competence

According to Celce-Murcia et al (1995), language competence is a broad term which includes linguistic or grammatical, discourse, sociolinguistic or socio-cultural and what might be called textual or strategic competence. Although the relative importance of the

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various components depends on the overall level of communicative competence, each is essential. Moreover, all the components are interrelated as can be seen in the figure below:
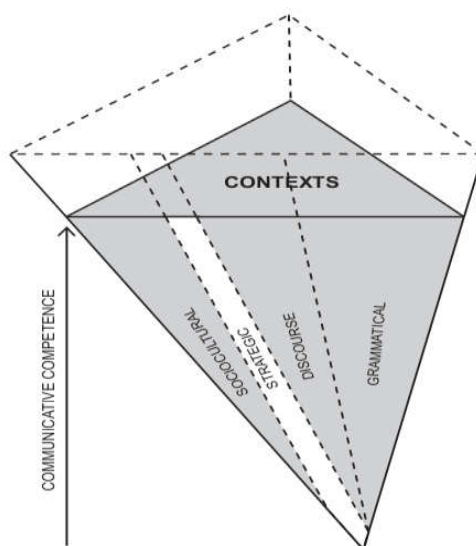
Figure 1. Components of communicative competence

The specific learning outcomes under "Language Competence" deal with knowledge of the language and the ability to use that knowledge to interpret and produce meaningful texts appropriate to the situation in which they are used. Language competence is best developed in the context of activities or tasks where the language is used for real purposes, in other words, in practical applications.

2.2. Competency-based language teaching and learning

Competency-based language teaching and learning (CBLT) is a teaching approach which focuses on the outcomes of language learning. CBLT emphasizes what learners are expected to achieve with the target language. In other words, the approach sees outputs very importantly rather than the learning process. Recent studies mostly emphasized on researching how competency-based education relates to curriculum planning (Williamson, 2007) and assessment (Baatman et al, 2006).

CBLT is based on a functional perspective on language teaching and its framework is often tailored to meet learners' needs and the language skills they need can be fairly accurately predicted or determined. Docking (1994) summarized what CBLT is as "it is designed not around the notion of subject knowledge but around the notion of competency. The focus moves from what students know about language to what they can do with it. The focus on competencies or learning outcomes underpins the curriculum framework and syllabus specification, teaching strategies, assessment and reporting" (p.16).

The positive consequence of implementing CBLT is that it serves as an agent of change and it improves teaching and learning (Docking, 1994). Since competency-based approaches to teaching and assessment offer teachers an opportunity to revitalize their education and training programs, quality of assessment can be improved, and the quality of

teaching and students learning will be enhanced by the clear specification of expected outcomes and the continuous feedback that competency-based assessment can offer.

2.3. Language testing and assessment

2.3.1. Testing versus assessment

A test, as Black & William (1998) said, is a method of measuring a person's ability, knowledge, or performance in a given domain. As a method, a test is an instrument – a set of techniques, procedures, or items - that requires performance on the part of the test-taker. A test must measure, general ability or specific competencies or objectives. A test also measures an individual's ability, knowledge, or performance or even a given domain.

Assessment is an ongoing process that encompasses a much wider domain. It can be incidental or intended. Whenever a student responds to a question, offers a comment, or tries out a new word or structure, the teacher subconsciously makes an assessment of the student's performance. Written work - from a jotted-down phrase to a formal essay - is performance that ultimately is assessed by self, teacher, and possibly other students. Reading and listening activities usually require some sort of productive performance that the teacher implicitly judges, however peripheral that judgment may be.

Tests, then, are a subset of assessment; they are certainly not the only form of assessment that a teacher can make. Tests can be useful devices, but they are only one among many procedures and tasks that teachers can ultimately use to assess students.

2.3.2. Formative versus summative assessment

Black & William (1998) classifies two types of assessment. Formative assessment is commonly referred to as assessment for learning, in which the focus is on monitoring student response to and progress with instruction. Formative assessment provides immediate feedback to both the teacher and student regarding the learning process. Summative assessment is commonly considered as assessment of learning. The focus is on determining what the students have learned at the end of a unit of instruction or at the end of a grade level. Summative assessment helps determine to what extent the instructional and learning goals have been met. Formative and summative assessment contribute in different ways to the larger goals of the assessment process.

2.3.3. Testing and assessment in language teaching and learning

Assessment, firstly, is a means to diagnose learning difficulties; it helps the instructor identify the learner's strengths and weaknesses so as to plan instructions to build on the one and remediate the other in formal and informal ways. Secondly, assessment provides feedback about success of a study program. Information from the assessment of student learning is utilized in program evaluation (Pratt, 1998). Thirdly, assessment reports individual learning achievements or grades for various parties including students, parents, education institutes to which students may apply for admission, potential employers, occupational and professional licensing bodies. As stated by Nitko (2004), results from

classroom learning activities, quizzes, tests, class projects, assignment papers, informal observations on how well the student has attained the intended learning targets can be used to grade students for a lesson (or unit), a learning period (or course). Moreover, assessment directs students to instructional priorities and influences their approach to experience course curriculum. Furthermore, assessment is also useful in enhancing student motivation, self-concept, and sense of self-efficacy. Meherns and Lehman (1991) described the importance of assessment as increasing student motivation towards a course, encouraging good study habits, and providing feedback that identifies strengths and weaknesses of learners. Teachers can use assessment to guide decisions about the learners. Therefore, instructors in higher institutes should be aware of the salient role of assessment.

2.3.4. The six-level Framework for the Assessment of Foreign language competence used in Vietnam

The FAFV has been adapted from the Common European Framework for References to suit the conditions of teaching, learning and using English as a foreign language in Vietnam. This framework set standards for assessing learners' language competence in Vietnam. The outcome of the National Foreign Language Project 2020 is that, for tertiary education, graduates from vocational colleges should reach level 2 and university graduates level 3, and graduates from language colleges should reach from level 4 to 5, with the second foreign language as a compulsory subject. The requirement of the English language competency for English-majored university students to be graduates is level 5/6 of the framework.

3. Current situation of testing and assessment: the case of Hong Duc university

3.1. Students' language level

The English competence of students at Hong Duc University (HDU) in general, students majoring in English in particular, is still of low level.

The evidence of this low quality at general level is that the students have poor vocabulary and bad grammar, incorrect pronunciation, under-standard listening and speaking skills. A number of college graduates do not meet the foreign language requirement of the recruiters. This is partly originated in students' previous learning. At secondary and high schools, students just learn English to pass the tests which focus on grammar and vocabulary presented via reading and writing skills. They learn for the test and their teacher teach them to do the tests well, not to improve their language competence. After 4 years learning English, their language proficiency is just limited within doing some basic tasks such as introducing oneself, describing some simple objects in the house, etc. Many school leavers can neither read simple texts in English nor communicate with English speakers in some most common cases.

According to the results of placement tests HDU students did in two recent years, the real level of the majority of students is just under elementary, while that of most English

majors is elementary. Therefore, the university has to teach them with such programs as English for beginners. As a result, at the end of the course at HDU, their real level of English cannot be significantly improved to meet the requirements of the FAFV.

3.2. Testing and assessment at Hong Duc university

According to Tien (2013), still testing and assessment do not implement their role of directing learning and teaching of language skills. As testing focuses only on checking language knowledge rather than language skills, the teaching and learning heavily emphasize on grammar, vocabulary and some reading and writing.

At tertiary education, like in the overall Vietnamese Education system, teachers have to follow guidelines and instructions from the ministry or the faculty. Summative assessment includes mostly one mid-term test and one end-term test for each semester. The formative tests can be administrated by the teachers themselves. Each teacher uses different tasks for their assessment at each time. They can also use a mini test, which is one part in the format of the end-of-term tests.

In order to find out if the system of tests used for assessing English majors at HDU have met the requirements of the FAFV, an analysis of the 5 mid-term tests and 5 end-of-term tests has been conducted based on the descriptors of the framework. The analyzing results showed the strengths and weaknesses of these tests as follows:

In general, the tests for English-majored students are designed based on the format and tasks of the IELTS tests so the language use focuses on academic purpose. In the meantime, the FAFV aims to evaluate students' ability to use language to communicate so it requires to test general English. Therefore, there are some mismatches between the requirements of the FAFV and the tests used at HDU.

For the listening skills, the level 5 in the framework requires students to understand the conversation between native speakers even with unfamiliar, abstract and complicated topics; understand the academic lectures as well discussions or conferences. For these descriptors, the tests at HDU generally meets the standard. The framework also requires learners to understand the instructions or announcements even with background noise and understand the broadcasting audio even with non-standard accents and implied meanings. The tests used at HDU is not yet oriented towards these requirements.

With the speaking skills, the standard set by level 5 in the framework is that students can speak fluently without a lot of hesitation and difficulties. In particular, the framework requires students to describe complicated experiences with great details in a clear way. Students can also present a sophisticated topic naturally in a clear and scientific organization. In communication, students can actively take part in the social conversation, express their emotions naturally and can speak with allusive or joking usage. Students can also cope linguistically to negotiate a solution to a dispute in social situations like underserved traffic ticket, financial responsibility in a flat or blame regarding an accident and can participate in an interview either as an interviewer or interviewee. Part 1 of the end-of-term tests used at HDU generally orients students towards social situations; part 2 requires students to give

formal discussion of abstract topics. However, the test cannot measure students' ability to cope with real situations in life such as using services.

For the writing skills, students are required to express themselves with clarity in personal correspondence. This standard is not yet mentioned in the end-of-term tests used at HDU. Students are also asked to write notes, messages and forms conveying information to friends, service people, teachers and others. This aspect is neither required in the end-of-term tests. Students are required to write a clear, well-structured exposition of complex subjects. This goal is clearly shown in task 2 of the end-of-term test at HDU.

As regards the reading skills, the FAFV standard is set that students can understand in details some lengthy, complex texts whether or not they relate to their familiarity and interest. The 3 reading passages in the end-of-term tests clearly meet this goal. However, the framework also asks students to understand the lengthy complex instructions on a new machine or procedure. This aspect is not clearly shown in the end-of-term tests used for English majors at HDU.

4. Some recommendations on assessing English-majored students at Hong Duc university

4.1. For the mid-term and end-of-term tests

In order to achieve the goals set by the FAFV, the HDU tests should be adapted as follows:

With listening skills, there are currently part 2, 3 and 4 focusing on situations at academic institutes. Two of them should be omitted and replaced by other social situations. There should be some parts to be added to these tests such as listening to an announcement and an instruction with background noise or listening to a broadcasting audio or the like.

For speaking skills, part 3 can be omitted as it tests students' cultural knowledge which can be tested in other subjects in the curriculum. This can be replaced by a task which requires students to solve a problem in real life such as using services or making complaints.

To test writing skills, task 1 requires students to write an academic report and this should be changed into asking students to write a personal correspondence, for example, a cover letter, a job application or a note, message, postcard. It is more useful and practical for students.

The current reading test includes 3 passages focusing on academic topics. Therefore, two of them should be omitted and replaced by a lengthy complex instructions on a new machine or procedure.

4.2. For on-going assessment

To meet the requirements indicated in FAFV, there should be another change in on-going assessment applied to English majors at HDU. That is, language assessment should be conducted with more supplementary forms of formative assessment in order to develop students' competence. Followings are the most common forms of formative assessment:

Project: Students can work in groups or individually on a project. They make plans to prepare, collect information and data, deal with difficulties if any, do the presentation if required, defend the ideas or plans in front of the audience who are other students. It's better to ask students to work in groups to do a project so that they can develop their teamwork skills.

Curriculum-based measurement (CBM): This set of standardized measures is used to determine student progress and performance (Deno, 2001). An example is the use of oral reading fluency (the number of words a student can read correctly during a timed reading of a passage) as an indicator of a student's overall reading ability (Fuchs et al., 2001).

Self-assessment: Students reflect on and monitor their own progress. This activity may be performed in conjunction with a CBM, in relation to predetermined academic and behavioral goals, or with learning contracts.

Observation: A teacher observes and records a student's level of involvement, academic and/or affective behavior; develops a plan of action to support that student; implements the plan; and continues to record observations to determine its effectiveness.

Portfolios: A growth portfolio can be used to create a record of student development in a number of areas. For example, a teacher may use portfolios to collect evidence of a student's progress in developing writing skills.

Conferencing: Conferences are informal way of assessing learners in which students are encouraged to express themselves freely. This can be done on a one-to-one basic or in small groups of 4 or 5 students. One essential misunderstanding that teachers have is that the main use of conferencing is to assess speaking skills. It is also useful for assessing attitudes, learning styles, and extensive reading.

Feedback: After students do a discussion or present their work, the teacher provides oral or written feedback to help them see more clearly how they have done their work. For example, a teacher responds orally to a question asked in class; provides a written comment in a response or reflective journal; or provides feedback on student work.

5. Conclusion

Testing and assessment is an indispensible stage and significant factor contributing to the process of evaluating educational efficiency (teaching and learning quality). Therefore, there should be a great amount of attention paid to this field. Tests and assessment forms applied to English students at HDU have shown some irrelevant points that need to be adjusted to match the descriptors of the FAFV which require students to be standardized graduates. The article has provided a brief review on some theoretical issues of competency-based language teaching and assessment. We have also informed the current situations of English language testing & assessment at HDU and made some suggestions for the application of FAFV-based testing and assessment used for English majors at HDU. It is hoped that this paper can provide a good source of information for the educators and teachers who would like to make innovation in language teaching and learning.

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METAPHORS OF TIME IN SOME CONTEMPORARY ENGLISH AND VIETNAMESE POEMS

Nguyen Thi Quyet[1], Dang Thi Ly[2]

Abstract: *This study focuses on the metaphors of time in English and Vietnamese poems. It has uncovered some similarities in English and Vietnamese such as TIME IS A PERSON, TIME IS SPACE. However, the study has also discovered some differences in mapping time in the two languages i.e. in English, many expressions show time as an object, or the mapping of time as a river in Vietnamese. The difference is stated to come from the influence of the living condition, which is reflected in human thought, and shown in language.*

Keywords: *Metaphors of time, English, Vietnamese, poems.*

1. Introduction

If one attempts to take a close look at a language, one will recognize that it is full of metaphors. Metaphor has attracted scholars' attention for so long and has been a long-term topic in different disciplines such as linguistics, stylistics, psychology, literary studies, etc. Poetry, a domain where delicacy of expression is emphasized, is where language is so full of metaphors. For a long time, metaphor has been considered a trope, the figurative language, or the deviant use of language, and more recently from cognitive linguistics (CL), it is considered the basement people live by. That is, it is human thoughts, and to some extent, controls human thoughts even though the latter is the one which produces the former. In our study, we would like to make a comparison between English and Vietnamese metaphors in expressing a very common concept: time. Therefore, we would like to make clear the following points:

Clarifying the way to deal with metaphors from cognitive approach.

Establishing the similarities and differences of conceptual metaphors in English and Vietnamese poems in expressing the target concept *time* (through 100 randomly selected modern poems in each language) and what underlines those similarities and differences.

Making some recommendations for those who are interested in studying English and/or Vietnamese as the target language as well as helping the Vietnamese scholars have a reliable reference in viewing metaphors.

2. Metaphor in cognitive linguistics

Metaphor is often considered a linguistic convention which implicitly compares two things. However, according to cognitive linguists such as Lakoff and Johnson, it is a part of language usage, therefore, it is a part of cognition. Furthermore, metaphor is not merely cognitive, it is also a linguistic, sociocultural, neural, and bodily phenomenon. The very influential scholars in this field of CL are Lakoff and Jonhson (2003), Gibb (1998, 2007),

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Kovecses (2002), Charteris-Black (2004, 2005), Picken (2007). The distinction between traditional and CL approach to metaphor is that, from CL perspective, metaphor is considered as understanding one conceptual domain in terms of another conceptual domain.

Cornerstones in metaphor studies

In CL, metaphors can be classified based on the level of creativeness in linguistic level, which are termed *conventional* and *novel* metaphors. Besides, in terms of the hierarchical classification of them, they are divided into *conceptual* and *linguistic* metaphors. In considering metaphor, the notions of their accompaniments such as *domain, mapping, conceptualization* should be taken into consideration. The terms can be clarified as follows:

Linguistic metaphor is concerned with expressions which carry metaphorical linguistic meaning; it means, the use of terms based on analogy of objects or concepts. Many linguistic metaphors seem to be separated in the surface but are interrelated with one another in a system by the means of a conceptual metaphor underlying different linguistic metaphors.

Conceptual metaphor refers to the experience of human mind toward the world, in which one domain (usually the concrete domain) is applied to understand another domain (usually the more abstract domain), the former is named *source* and the latter *target domain*.

The common source and target domains are LOVE IS A JOURNEY, LIFE IS A JOURNEY etc, generated by Lakoff and Johnson (2003) which are manifested through many metaphorical expressions as follows:

1. *Look how far we've come*
2. *We're at the crossroads*
3. *We'll just have to go our separate ways*
4. *We can't turn back now*
5. *I don't think this relationship is going anywhere*
6. *Where are we?*
7. *We're stuck*
8. *The relationship is a dead-end street.*
9. *We're just spinning our wheels*
10. *Our marriage is on the rocks*
11. *We've gotten of the track*
12. *Their relationship is foundering*

Conceptual domain: Domain is a conceptual entity in metaphor theory. They are "relatively complex knowledge structure" (Vyvyan and Green, 2007, p.61) which associate with "coherent aspects of experience". A conceptual domain is "any coherent organization of experience" (Kovecses, 2010, p.4). For example, the conceptual domain JOURNEY is assumed to include *traveler, mode of transport, route, destination, obstacles* etc. When one domain is expressed in terms of another, conceptual metaphor is formed, and at that time the former is termed *source domain* and the latter *target domain.*

Mapping: The projection from the source into the target domain. For example, in the example mentioned in *Conceptual metaphor* above, the target domain *love* is mapped from the source domain of *trip*.

Conceptualization: "The process of meaning construction to which language contributes" (Vyvyan and Green, 2007, p.38). This process is operated through the access to the encyclopedic knowledge and by prompting for "complex processes of conceptual integration". Conceptualization is associated with the flexible and dynamic nature of human thought.

3. Strategies and criteria for the extraction of metaphors

It has been largely realized that metaphors are not easy to define. In their studies, many researchers (Littlemore and Low, 2006); Charteris-Black, 2004), Katz et.al, 1998) generated the strategies in getting to know a metaphor and establish the criteria for defining it. According to Littlemore and Low (2006, p.40) when a foreign language learner sees a metaphor which is in the word she never knows before, she can guess the meaning. If it is the word that she has already known before, she has to put it into the new context to comprehend it. To treat novel metaphors, one needs to use the following strategies: (1) identifying the source and target domain terms, (2) using the target domain to single out those aspects of the source domain that seem relevant within the give context and (3) deciding between competing alternative solutions.

It is worthy to note that from the linguistic criteria, metaphor is a word or a phrase that causes tenseness by (1) reification, the use of abstract terms for more concrete ones; (2) personification, the use of an inanimate term to refer to something inanimate; (3) depersonification, the use of an inanimate term to refer to something inanimate. (Charteris-Black, 2004, p.21). From CL perspective, a metaphor is created by a change in the conceptual system. The foundation of this change comes from the psychological association between "the referent of a linguistic expression in its original source context and the reference in the novel target context" (ibid.). The criteria are specified as (1) a linguistic representation that results from the shift in the use of a word or phrase from the context or in which it is expected to occur to another context or domain where it is not expected to occur, thereby causing semantic tension; (2) the distinction between conventional and novel metaphor; (3) the understanding of conceptual metaphor and conceptual key.

The above are the hints for comprehending a metaphor, providing the background to define a metaphor in general. However, in a particular case of metaphor, one needs to use knowledge from different perspectives in dealing with it. The combination of the criteria (i.e. linguistic, and cognitive) is necessary which one needs to bear in mind to help him/her point out and best understand a metaphor.

4. Metaphors of time

Time is defined as "what is measured in minutes, hours, days, etc." (OALD). Therefore, to extend the subconcept of time, we have others such as: months, years, seasons, decades, etc. In a word, any expressions mentioning time appears in our selected poems then are picked out to study and compare. In previous studies, this target domain has a variety of

source domains through language expressions. For example, it is a changer, evaluator or a destroyer (Lakoff and Turner, 1989; Kovecses, 2010), valuable commodity, limited resource, stationary (Lakoff and Johnson, 2003), moving entity (Lakoff, 1993), money (Lakoff and Turner, 1989; Kovecses, 2010; Lakoff and Johnson, 2003), pursuer, a thief (Lakoff and Turner, 1989), space (Goatly, 1997). This manifestation of time is shown through the day, parts of the day, night, month, season. All of them are found in English and Vietnamese data; in English, it is taken from the target domains of day, night, month, season, and time in general. In Vietnamese, we have the afternoon, morning, night, season and time. Of 100 poems selected in each language, English has 27 tokens while Vietnamese contains 34 linguistic expressions. The findings are presented as follows:

TIME IS A PERSON. With the personification of time, in English, we come across 14 expressions, accounting for 51.9% while in Vietnamese, it possesses 19 cases, accounting for 55.9%. This general mapping is the most popular and would be divided into submappings later on. For example, in English, we have *"A tenderness, unspoken autumn"* (Levetov, *Everything That Acts is Actual*). In Vietnamese, it is the person with feelings and thought, such as *"Chiều soi bóng xuống hồ Tây lặng lẽ)* (N.P.Q.Mai, *Chiều nghiêng nắng*), *"Hẹn ngày mai mùa đến sẽ vui tươi"* (H.Dzếnh, *Ngập ngừng*), *"Hốt hoảng mùa đông sau cuống lá"* (Hương, *Chớm đông*), *"Đông tức tưởi, nghẹn ngào xuân nấc mãi"* (N.N.Hưng, *Xót nỗi xa người*). The conceptualization of time domain is done through a very popular means, personification. This has been carefully elaborated by Kovecses (2010, p.56):

"Personification permits us to use knowledge about ourselves to comprehend other aspects of the world, such as time, death, natural forces, inanimate object, etc. One important question that arises in connection with personification is why we use the kinds of persons that we do for a target. Time is an external event that occurs independently from human beings, and thus, it can be seen as an agent, like a thief, reaper, pursuer, and so on".

In Vietnamese, we do not see the mapping of reaper, but time is mapped as the guest who comes then leaves. It is coherent with the conceptual one that LIFE IS A JOURNEY, in such a way that people go along their life road and time marks the cornerstone on their way. In the conceptualization TIME IS A PERSON, we realize the following submapping:

TIME IS THE AGENT OF ACTION. In English, we have *"What time will have done to you"* (Tebb, *The Dreamer, the Sleep*). In Vietnamese, it is *"Qua hồng tươi đôi má – Anh nhận ra thời gian"* (K.Q.Thụy, *Bông hồng trắng*). It is coherent with TIME IS A CHANGER (Kovecses, 2010). As can be seen that life changes in accordance with time, the mapping of time as an agent, or a changer is understandable.

TIME IS A COMER. Both English and Vietnamese share this metaphor. In English, we have *"Under heavy December footsteps?"* (Levetov, *Every Thing That Acts is Actual*), *"When a new year comes round?"*, *"Now I know everything: How winter leaves without resenting spring"* (Hannah, *Long For This World*). In Vietnamese, we see *"Tiễn mỗi ngày đi"* (V.Cao, *Tiếng chuông*), *"Ngày đi, ngày đến lặng thinh"* (N.Vịnh, *Chiều chỉ mình tôi biết*), *"Chỉ tiếc mùa thu vừa mới đi rồi"* (H.N.Cầm, *Hò hẹn mãi cuối cùng em cũng đến*).

With time, people are passive, they can not do anything to change it, but wait for it and see it pass them. The personification of time, based on this characteristic, can be elaborated as follows:

Time comes, even people stay at any place – Others come passing us in life.

Time never stays still - The comer will stay with us for a short duration only.

Time will pass – The person will leave you for a farewell.

Therefore, it is understandable that the activation of time as a guest, a comer, a passerby, which may be taken as the expansion of a reaper, destroyer, etc. is comprehensible.

Besides the conceptualization TIME IS A PERSON, we also come across the following metaphors:

TIME IS SPACE. This was discovered by Goatly (1997), in our data, this metaphor is also found. In English, there are 4 linguistic metaphors of this conceptualization, accounting for 14.8% while in Vietnamese, there are 5 linguistic metaphors, as much as 14.7%. We have *"is to see that he is living somewhere in the middle – of the twentieth century, and leave him there"* (Brock, *Five Ways to Kill a Man*), *"Can you pull me into December? A lowland"* (Levetov, *Everything That Acts is Actual*). In Vietnamese, we have *"Bước ra từ tám năm kháng chiến"* (B.Việt, *Từ giã tuổi thơ*), *"Mà mùa thu dài lắm ở chung quanh"* (H.Dzếnh, *Ngập ngừng*). This is also observed by N.Đ.Tồn (2010), that the merging between space and time and specifically, the mapping of time from space domain is noticed. It can be explained that time is a very abstract concept, and the object, or person are only the concrete domain mapped into it. As observed in philosophy, people move within time and space (T.V.Cơ, 2008). A subcase of this is the conceptual metaphor TIME IS A PATH. In both English and Vietnamese, this mapping was met, in English the expressions of this metaphor are *"As the year bends and the fruit's – pangs purchase my lips"* (Rg Gregory, *Jerusalem and the Red-Currants*). In Vietnamese, *"Ngược thời gian, dấu hoa văn tiền sử"* (V.Thao, *Hoàng hôn sẽ về đâu*). This is relevant with TIME IS SPACE above, as time has a direction; with time, we travel in our life till the end of the road, the end of our life.

TIME IS AN OBJECT. English poems have 7 linguistic metaphors, accounting for 25.9% while in Vietnamese, only 1 case is found, equivalent to 2.9%. Our data shows a little bit difference with the previous studies. In Lakoff's (1993) time is a moving object, however, in our data, a more general aspect is discovered, that of time as an object *"The red December of despair"* (Emberson, *West Riding*), *"Damp curtains glue against the pane – sealed time away. Her body froze"* (Hill, *In Memory of Jane Fraser*), *"And in that city through a forked November"* (Scannell, *A City Remembered*). Image mapping is popular in poetry which seems to be full of imagination.

TIME IS A RIVER/LIQUID. This conceptualization is only found in Vietnamese. In English, we do not see any linguistic expressions of it. It is uncovered that time in Vietnamese is mapped as liquid or a river. This equivalent does not appear in our English data or results from previous studies *"Đếm giọt thời gian, chiều Cuối nắng"* (Phú, *Cuối nắng*), *"Những tháng ngày tươi đẹp đã trôi qua"* (N.N.Ánh, *Có một chiều nào*), *"Thời*

gian ơi trôi đi chầm chậm" (N.T.Kiên, *Chạy trốn tình yêu*). This is interrelated with the conceptual metaphor: LIFE IS A JOURNEY (BY BOAT). Time always changes, as water of a river, and we will never see the same water in a river at different time points. The same principle is applied for life. In English, people often says *"Time flies"*, but in Vietnamese, people say *"Thời gian trôi" (Time flows)* (though it does not mean time in English passes faster than in Vietnamese. Therefore, if one encounters such a phrase it should be put into the common mapping that Vietnamese focuses on, otherwise, confusion is unavoidable.

TIME IS FIRE. Another mapping that is discovered in Vietnamese is the projection of time from the domain of fire. We do not encounter any cases in English, while in Vietnamese there is 1 case, as much as 2.9% of the linguistic metaphor manifesting this conceptualization. It is *"Tôi yêu gió rụng lúc tàn canh"* (T.T.KH, *Bài thơ thứ nhất*). It is originated from the burn of fire at a winter night, when people sit around the fire and measure time though the burning of the fire. This is a trace of the Vietnamese community's customs. It is seen that time in both English and Vietnamese is conceptualized as a person, with the activation of description of its change as moving. From its physical characteristics perceived by people that make it conceptualized in such a way, time always changes in one direction from the past to present and future, people live in such a change, namely, the move of a person's life, and it is the image of a person applied to explain the time change.

It is worth mentioning that in this mapping, we discover two cases in Vietnamese that are not encountered in English data, it is time as water in a river, and time as fire, the influence of living condition is shown here of which time is flowing as water in the river runs. Furthermore, one routine of traditional Vietnamese life is to burn a fire at night to keep warmth in the winter, and in the morning, when the fire comes out, it is time for work, the common activity of gathering around a fire at a winter night is a part of Vietnamese culture, making people map it as the burning of a fire at night, after each period, people try to make it burn again till the morning, similar to certain points of time.

5. Conclusion

As can be seen from the data, the tokens of Vietnamese metaphor outweigh the English counterparts in the number. However, due to the limited number of selected poems, it may not reflect the frequency of the domain of *time* in two languages in poems. The significance in the data is that, Vietnamese and English express *time* as a person, more specifically, as *reaper* (as in English), or as *comer* (as in Vietnamese). Also, the data show a very interesting phenomenon that, Vietnamese view *time* as *river,* while in English, this is not found, but the author can find the illustration for expressing *time* as an object in the air *"Time flies."* This result contributes to the fact that the living condition, the environment has a great influence on people's view of life. Therefore, in translating one metaphor from English into Vietnamese and vice versa, we should pay attention to this phenomenon in order to make the equivalent expression most comprehensible in the target language.

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BILINGUAL EDUCATION
AND THE FRENCH - VIETNAMESE BILINGUAL SCHOOLS IN
VIETNAM DURING THE PERIOD OF 1906 - 1945

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Abstract: *Century XX, with its first decades, experienced a clear mixed picture of the Vietnamese colonial society. In this period, the society changed in all aspects, which resulted in one of the most dynamic times in Vietnamese history. Among these changes, the most special characteristic could be said to be reflected in education. The French placed special attention to developing education, which was called 'civilization mission', but its real purpose is to facilitate the French in Vietnam. Therefore, this article is aimed at describing the basic features of bilingual French - Vietnamese schools under period of 1906 - 1945, analyzing it based on the bilingual education theory and giving some general comments.*

Keywords: *Bilingual education, French - Vietnamese.*

1. Introduction

Vietnam, with the strategic location and abundance of natural resources, has faced with many risks of invasion by the foreign aggressors for the past thousands of years, but the Vietnamese managed to regain control of the country soon after the invasions. At the end of the 19th and the first half of the 20th centuries, French colonized Vietnam and the entire Indochina. The traditional Confucian-oriented education, which had been built and maintained by Vietnamese people, was replaced by French-Vietnamese education aimed mainly at training people to serve the colonial system. Under the French-Vietnamese education system, or bilingual school, French was the dominant language and the language of instruction at almost every education level.

2. Bilingual education

Bilingual education is the use of two languages in the instruction and assessment of learners (Gracia,1991). In other words, bilingual education involves teaching academic content in two languages, in a native and secondary language with varying amounts of each language used in accordance with the program model.

There are different ways of classifying bilingual education, but mostly it is divided into strong form and weak form, as shown in the following table by Baker (2001) and Oka (1996).

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Table 1. Types of bilingual education

Adapted from Baker (2001, p.94) & Oka (1996, p.183)

Types of Bilingual Education				
Weak Forms of Bilingual Education *				
Type of Program	Typical Students	Languages used in the Classroom	Educational / Societal Aim	Language Outcome
SUBMERSION (Structured immersion)	Language Minority	Majority Language	Assimilation	Monolmgualism
SUBMERSION with withdrawal classes/ sheltered English	Language Minority	Majority Language with pull-out L2 ** lessons [held in a different location]	Assimilation	Monolmgualism
SEGREGATIONIST	Language Minority	Minority Language (forced, no choice)	Apartheid	Monolmgualism
TRANSITIONAL	Language Minority	Moves from Minority to Majority Language	Assimilation	Relative Monolmgualism
MAINSTREAM with Foreign Language Teaching	Language Majority	Majority Language with L2/FL ** Lessons	Limited Enrichment	Limited Bilingualism
SEPARATIST	Language Minority	Minority Language lout of choice)	Detachment / Autonomy	Limited Bilingualism
Strong Forms of Bilingual Education				
IMMERSION	Language Majority	Bilingual with initial emphasis on L2 **	Pluralism / Enrichment	Bilingualism & Biliteracy
MAINTENANCE / HERITAGE LANGUAGE	Language Minority	Bilingual with emphasis on LI **	Maintenance / Pluralism / Enrichment	Bilingualism & Biliteracy
TWO-WAY / DUAL LANGUAGE	Mixed Language Majority & Minority	Minority & Majority	Maintenance / Pluralism / Enrichment	Bilingualism & Biliteracy
MAINSTREAM BILINGUAL	Language Majority	Two Majonty Languages	Maintenance / Pluralism / Enrichment	Bilingualism
* In some cases the weak forms of bilingual education may actually be monolingual forms of education.				
** L2 = [Students'] 2nd Language, L1 = 1st [or native] language. FL = Foreign Language.				

According to May (2004) et.al, the study on analyzing bilingual education system would be from the following axes:

Key axes of bilingual education

Philosophy: View or understanding of bilingualism

In any bilingual program, there will be a broad philosophy of bilingualism underpinning it. This philosophy will either be additive or subtractive, being premised either on the value of adding another language to the student's existing language repertoire or, conversely, of losing or replacing one language with another.

Model: Described in terms of educational aims.

At the next level, there are 3 models that are commonly referred to by their aims (transitional, maintenance and enrichment):

A transitional model aims to foster language shift from a minority L1 to a majority L2, and is thus broadly concerned with the cultural and linguistic assimilation of minority language speakers.

A maintenance model aims to maintain an L1 minority language and is broadly concerned with strengthening the cultural and linguistic identity and the language rights of these minority language speakers.

An enrichment model aims for language development or extension, usually via instruction in a minority language that is an L2 for students, and is thus broadly concerned with fostering cultural pluralism and social autonomy.

Heritage language programs fall somewhere in between the maintenance and enrichment models.

Program: Described in terms of context specific characteristics

At the next level of specificity lies particular bilingual program types. These can be differentiated by a wide range of context specific factors to do with curriculum, pedagogy, language(s) of instruction, and student population, among many others.

3. General features of French - Vietnamese bilingual school system

3.1. Social context and education system in French colonial period

At the end of 19th century, Vietnam continuously forced to be put under the control of French colony. The Vietnamese Emperor formally recognized French dominion over Cochinchina in the 1874 Treaty of Saigon. On 18-19 August 1883, Amédée Courbet bombarded the forts of the capital of Hue. The forts were occupied on the 20th. On August 25, the Vietnamese court accepted to sign the Treaty of Hue (1883). Finally, a French protectorate over the remaining of Vietnam (Annam and Tonkin) was recognized through the treaty.

The first decades of XX century witnessed a mixed picture of the Vietnamese colonial society. Dramatic changes took place in all aspects, including politics, economy, culture, creating one of the most dynamic times in Vietnamese history. The French placed special attention to developing education, which was called 'civilization mission' but in reality its

purpose was to facilitate the French domination over Vietnam. The new educational system officially took shape in 1906 when the Council for the Improvement of Indigenous Education was established.

3.2. Basic features of French - Vietnamese bilingual school system

In 1865, Gia Dinh News, the first newspaper using Vietnamese Latin alphabet was published. By this event, colonial government already built the culture foundation to propagandize French and Vietnamese alphabet over the country. There were both the schools for training translators in Sai Gon and Ha Noi before 1906 as the preparing action of government. In Ha Noi and Hue, authorities opened the schools for the future mandarins to strengthen the new French education system.

The French education system in Vietnam at that time was adapted so that it would be suitable with the situation and setting in Vietnam, which was often known as French – Vietnamese education or Franco – Vietnamese education. In almost all the learning stages, French was the language for instruction, which included giving lecture, doing exercise, and the language in course book. Only in the first three grades, Vietnamese was used as the transitional language, then it was taught as a foreign language. The second language was often English at upper secondary school. Chinese was considered a selecting subject and there was often one period every week if the teachers in the school could afford it.

Normally, there were French schools and French-Vietnamese schools at the same time. However, the French schools were commonly to educate French children coming to Vietnam, and in the scale of this paper, only the French-Vietnamese schools system is going to be analyzed.

3.2.1. French - Vietnamese primary school

Teachers taught Quoc Ngu (Vietnamese), French, and French was language for instruction

There were five grades in French-Vietnamese primary school.

In the fifth grade, children had to learn Quoc Ngu right after entering the school, learn Maths adding, subtracting with multiplication table. In addition, they were taught French vocabulary every day in around 20 percent of the total school time. In the fourth grade, French was introduced up to 50 percent and it increased to 70 percent in the third grade. In the schools of district or province, students could learn only the first three grades. At the end of the third grade, students had to take an exam, which included a French dictation test, two or three French essays and a Vietnamese essay. They were also asked about multiplication table in Chinese.

All the subjects of second and first grade were taught in French. Each week, there were two Chinese periods. In the end, students had an exam, and the examiners were French teachers. This was considered as a difficult examination, with one French dictation, two Maths exercises, one French essay, one Vietnamese essay and an test about history and geography. Only 40 percent students passed it in general, who would receive the Rime

or CEPFI certificate. Students with this certificate could work as teaching assistants, translators or secretaries. To promote the French learning, French authorities sometimes celebrated very big celebrations to welcome students who had the Rime certificate coming back their villages.

3.2.2. Lower secondary school (Écoles Primaires Superieures)

In this stage, French was completely used as medium.

There were four grades: The first, the second, the third and the fourth year with a lot of subjects: Maths, Physics, Chemistry, Geography, Art, French history and colonial policy, French language (which included Dictation and Literature) Vietnamese history, Physical education. Students had class in the evening and in the afternoon and they had break at noon.

After the fourth year, students had the test to get DEPSI diploma. People with DEPSI diploma could work as teachers, the first translators or register for a course at Dong Duong college with very fluent French. Approximately 30 percent students could not follow all the four years of lower secondary school for many reasons.

3.2.3. Upper secondary school: 3 years

There were schools totally following the French curriculum for French students and the Vietnamese mandarin classes. It included French upper secondary schools or Baccalauréat Métropolitain. Moreover, there were also the local schools with French curriculum but students would learn Vietnamese and Eastern study. One of very first schools in these kind is Chu Van An or Buoi school in Hanoi.

Because there was increase in the need for high quality staff among the colonial government, from 1915 to 1926, the course which provided the preparation for final upper secondary examination became popular all over the Indochina peninsula. Students in upper secondary school also had class in the morning and in the afternoon with a break at noon as the counterparts in lower secondary school. The learning time started at 8 a.m on Monday and ended at 6.00 p.m on Saturday afternoon. Students in this stage studied 30 hours per week in average. People who achieved upper secondary certificate all had the strong knowledge foundation, could speak and write French very well. They could register in Indochina University, which was the only higher education institution for Vietnam, Laos and Cambodia, or enter one of the universities in France.

3.2.4. Higher education institutions

This level of education also strictly follows the French curriculum, but there was the adaption so that it could be suitable for Vietnamese.

There were two types of higher education institutions for the indigenous top - rank intellectuals: Vocational-technical and career colleges (Écoles Supérieures) and Hanoi University (Université Indochinoise).

4. Data analysis and general comments

4.1. Data analysis

4.1.1. Philosophy

The result of education system is subtractive bilingualism, however it could not totally subtract the first language because students were immerged into Vietnamese after class. Therefore, it belongs to weak form type of bilingual education. Because students may be bilingual but their Vietnamese or first language was not used much at school.

4.1.2. Model

This type of bilingual education is transitional, because it has the aim to foster language shift from Chinese writing and Vietnamese to French, and is thus broadly concerned with the cultural and linguistic assimilation of language speakers.

4.1.3. Program

In almost every level of education, the educational leader used the curriculum of French with the special adaptation. The second language here is French and it is used as the medium at school from primary level. Children in the first three classes had continuously increased in French instruction time then totally were given lecture in French. The drop-out ratio of students from level to level climbed dramatically because of difficult exams and subjects.

4.2. General comment

From individual level: Although a lot of students could not pass the hard exam in French language, there are many figurative people whose abilities were highly recognized like General Vo Nguyen Giap or Dr. Nguyen Manh Tuong.

From school level: Sometimes the teaching quality of school of low level in the village was not good. However, in the secondary school or higher institution, students with certificate could work well and get the high salary. Buoi, or Chu Van An high school, was one of the prestigious education entities at that time.

From overall perspective, this French-Vietnamese education system is considerably effective, because it achieved a certain success in training the intellectual staff for the colonial country to promote the French culture. However, in many reports issued at that time, from Vietnamese side, at the most prosperous period of French-invaded Indochina, Vietnam only had 2,322 elementary schools (for the first 3 years of primary education) with an average of one elementary school for every three villages, and the number of students accounted for 2% of total population; 638 primary schools (for the last years of primary education) with the number of students making up 0.4% of total population; 16 primary colleges (for 4 years of post-primary education) with students accounting for 0.05% of population; and 6 secondary schools of which 3 were public with only 0.019% of the population as state secondary students. With such an education system, 95% of Vietnamese

people were illiterate. Therefore, this education policy could be stated to fulfill its primary aim to the colonial government but get failure to most of Vietnamese citizens.

5. Conclusion

To sum up, French-Vietnamese education had very clear results in dramatically reducing the Confucian education which had long taken place. It also promoted the French language and created a number of intellectuals to work in the local government and even in the capital city. By this way, it somehow achieved the intended aim of the policy makers. However, more than 90 percent of the populations were illiterate and numerous students dropped-out from their school. These statistics proved that the education policy just satisfied a small portion of the colonial authorities but did not have practical usefulness to the large population. This education system, on the other hand, with the advanced knowledge from French curriculum, contributed to train many well-known Vietnamese students who would be the leaders in the later revolution and involving in the process of building the country after 1945, which opens a new page in the history of Vietnam.

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NATIVE AND NON-NATIVE ENGLISH SPEAKING TEACHERS: STUDENT PERSPECTIVES AT HONG DUC UNIVERSITY

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Abstract: *The article reports on a study carried out among English majors at Hong Duc university. By means of semi-structured interviews, it has explored the pros and cons of learning English from a native English speaking teacher (a NEST) and non- native English speaking teachers (NNESTs). Students considered native English speaking teachers (NESTs) as ideal models of pronunciation and perfect language competency, as well as being a reliable reference source of cultural knowledge, but they also found NESTs poor at explaining grammar and preparing them for the final exams. In contrast, NNESTs were perceived as good teachers of grammar, and had advantage of understanding students' needs and difficulties in foreign language learning. The research found out that purposes of English learning determine students' preferences for which type of teachers.*

Keywords: *Native, non-native, student perspectives.*

1. Introduction

In the academic school year 2016-2017, Hong Duc university welcomes a Fulbright English Teaching Assistant coming from the USA, Ms. Amanda Fleming. This is also the very first opportunity for English majors at Hong Duc university to study Speaking and Listening Skills with a NEST, which initially caused a great excitement among students. The study, which is conducted after one semester that students have been experiencing their learning with the NEST, aims to examine whether the students do show a preference for the NEST. It also investigates the attitudes of English majors toward learning with the NEST and NNESTs and explores two research questions:

What advantages and/or disadvantages do students perceive about learning English from the native English-speaking teacher?

What advantages and/or disadvantages do students perceive about learning English from nonnative English-speaking teachers?

2. Previous studies on students' perspectives towards native English speaking teachers and non-native English speaking teachers

This section examines existing research into native and nonnative English-speaking teachers, beginning with research into NESTs. Mahboob's (2003) study of 32 students in an intensive English program at a U.S. college revealed a range of opinions: NESTs were perceived to have good oral skills, a wide vocabulary, and knowledge about their own culture, but they often had little facility with grammar and had difficulty explaining complex items (Lasagabaster & Sierra, 2005). They were perceived as having little language learning

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experience and lacked knowledge about language teaching methodology. In the Asian context, Wu and Ke (2009) explored the perceptions of 107 Taiwanese university students toward NESTs. The majority supported native-speaker teachers as friendly, informal, and a source of encouragement to students. Respondents favored NESTs as models of pronunciation rather than as formal educators. Han's (2005) small-scale investigation of the Korean context pointed to a possible perception that NESTs lacked insight into the local educational context and sometimes failed to establish rapport with students.

Regarding NNESTs, NNESTs in Mahboob's (2003) study were valued for their own experience as language learners, their strict adherence to methodology, and their hard work, but they were perceived as having poorer oral skills and inadequate knowledge of "Western" cultures compared with NESTs. Several studies have examined the attitudes of Asian learners of English toward non-NESTs. Cheung and Braine's (2007) study of 420 students in Hong Kong revealed a generally favorable attitude toward non-NESTs, whose perceived effectiveness matched native-speaker teachers. They also conveyed insight into English language usage, exhibited positive personality traits, could code-switch for complex explanations, and shared the educational and cultural background of their charges. The 65 Chinese college students in Liu and Zhang's (2007) study were enthusiastic about learning with Chinese teachers of English, whom they viewed as better organized and prepared than their NEST counterparts. Conversely, foreign teachers' classes were viewed as friendlier and less stressful.

3. Methodology

3.1. Participants

The subject of the study was 25 second-year and third-year English majors. These students were selected because their classes were co-taught by a pair consisting of a NEST and a NNEST in Listening-Speaking lessons. All participants were under 22 years of age. The first group of second-year English majors comprised 12 females and 3 males. The second group of third-year English majors consisted of 8 females and 2 males. All the interviewees had at least nine years of learning English and their English proficiency were at the intermediate level and above.

3.2. Data collection instruments

In order to investigate the students' attitudes towards learning English with their NEST and NNESTs, interview was employed in this research study. One group of 5 students coming from the same class attended one separate interview. In total, the data was collected from 5 interviews.

Semi-structured group interview was conducted because it allows to explore unanticipated issues arising in the discussion (Marshall& Rossman, 2006), and group interviews can create a more natural and relaxing atmosphere for participants. Students' views were sought with regard to their English learning experience with both types of teachers. They

were also asked to raise their ideas about the advantages and disadvantages of learning English from NEST and NNESTs. A list of interview questions can be found as follows.

In your opinion, are there any advantages of learning English with a native-speaker teacher? If so, what are they?

In your opinion, are there any disadvantages of learning English with a native-speaker teacher? If so, what are they?

In your opinion, are there any advantages of learning English with a non-native–speaker teacher? If so, what are they?

In your opinion, are there any disadvantages of learning English with a non-native–speaker teacher? If so, what are they?

Are there any further comments you would like to make?

The interviews lasted approximately one hour. With the participants' permission, each interview was audio-recorded with the use of a smart phone so that it was possible to keep a record of the interview. The interviews were conducted in English because participants are English majors and they have relatively high English proficiency and familiarity with the subject. Thereby, the need for translating the data from Vietnamese into English was removed.

4. Findings and discussions

In this section, the author presents the major findings of the study, which are the perceived advantages and disadvantages of learning English from the NEST and NNESTs.

4.1. Advantages and disadvantages of learning English from the native English speaking teacher

Table 1. Perceived advantages and disadvantages of learning English from the native English speaking teacher

Advantages of learning English from the NEST	The number of students
Improve pronunciation	11
Learn about teacher's culture	5
Improve listening skills	8
Improve speaking skills Learn to speak natural, native-like English	9
Teaching styles: relaxing class atmosphere with lots of activities	9
Disadvantages of learning English from the NEST	**The number of students**
Difficult to be understood by a NEST when speaking	5
Difficult to understand when a NEST speaks	7
Cannot speak students' mother tongue	4
Teaching styles: not grammar focused; not exam oriented	8

4.1.1. Advantages of learning English from the native English speaking teacher

The main advantages of learning English from the NEST as can be seen in Table 1 can be divided into three aspects: Improve English learning (pronunciation, speaking and listening), Teaching Styles and Cultural Aspects.

Improve English learning (pronunciation, speaking and listening)

NEST' ability to help students improve their English learning was mentioned as a remarkable advantage. One of the very first perceived strengths of the NEST was concerned with her English pronunciation. All of the interviewees described NEST's pronunciation as "standard" "accurate", or "correct". In particular, fifteen of these interviewees indicated that they would like to imitate the pronunciation produced by the native speaker of English and considered NEST as their pronunciation model, as indicated in the following comments:

S8: I want to sound like native speakers. I think NEST is better in teaching pronunciation.

Others suggested that NEST could improve their speaking skills because NEST are "native English" speakers and they "lived and born in a foreign country" (S9). NEST was perceived to encourage students to actively participate and speak English in class. Six interviewees mentioned that NEST organized various speaking and communication activities during class and encouraged students to interact with each other.

S22: We can speak English much more in NEST's class. NEST doesn't speak Vietnamese so I am kind a forced to speak English if I want to communicate with her.

Several interviewees also mentioned that they enjoyed interacting with NEST, and stated that the interaction with NEST could help build their confidence in speaking English with other native speakers of English.

A few other students supposed that NETs could improve their listening skills (S1) because students have to "listen to English all the time," so "it forces you to listen" and as a result "the listening skills will be improved" (S2).

Teaching Styles

Another strength of NEST as perceived by the interviewees was related to her teaching styles. According to 18 interviewees, NEST was perceived to organize interesting and different methods when teaching English. For example, 11 interviewees mentioned that NEST employed a wide range of activities such as games, role plays, movies, songs, and short stories into her teaching. As a result, several interviewees reported that they enjoyed the English classes taught by NEST and were motivated to learn English. Also, they stated that these activities help them practice their speaking skills in English. In addition, as two interviewees reported, NEST created a more informal and relaxing teaching atmosphere during lessons, and students feel free to speak up. One interviewee, for example, found that NEST had a sense of humor and taught English with an entertaining style. Similar comments were made:

S4: I like the way NEST teach us. She used very interesting and fun activities. We sing English songs. We watch English movies in class. I really enjoy these activities.

Furthermore, six of the interviewees mentioned that NEST prepared attractive and interesting teaching materials. As reported by two participants, NEST did not strictly follow the textbook in their teaching and used her own materials in class. Some comments are as follows:

S5: My NEST uses many different teaching materials to teach us English. The materials are colorful, fun and interesting.

Cultural aspects

Analysis of the interview data also revealed that NEST was trusted by some interviewees because of their knowledge of the Western culture. As seven interviewees pointed out, they were interested in understanding British and American cultures and considered NEST as a valuable source of cultural information. Other interviewees also made similar comments:

S8: I think NEST can talk about western culture, like food, clothing, pop culture

4.1.2. Disadvantages of learning English from native English speaking teachers

Difficulty in communication

Students' difficulty in understanding the teaching of NEST was mentioned by five groups. The following extract illustrates this:

S5: I suppose that she may not completely understand me because of my poor pronunciation and my Vietnamese accent. I feel sad and ashamed.

S8: Sometimes I can't understand what my NEST speaks. I feel like..er..left behind.

Two other students found that it was more difficult to communicate with NEST than NNESTs because "my English is not so good" (S23, S9) and "she may not understand what I say" (S25).

Pedagogical weaknesses

One of the weaknesses as cited by the interviewees was that NEST was not competent in explaining grammatical rules to students. Some of these interviewees also stated that NEST did not pay much attention to grammar in her teaching, and that she did not try to point out students' grammatical errors in speaking. As some interviewees noted, NEST spent very little time explaining English grammar in class, as shown in the following comments:

S7: NEST is not good at teaching grammar. She doesn't show our mistakes in grammar when we speak. Meanwhile, grammar is also an important criterion in international tests like IELTS or TOEFL. So I think it is not good.

Another perceived weakness was that NEST did not teach students strategies for taking final exam. As mentioned by 12 interviewees, NEST did not emphasize on exam preparation skills, although passing and achieving high scores in the final test is one of the ultimate goals of students. As one interviewee said, NEST was not familiar with the exam format, and did not try to offer any tips or advice on exam preparation. Other similar comments were as follows:

S5: NEST doesn't really teach exam skills. I think she doesn't know how important the exam to us. If we fail the exam, we can't go on to the next semester and graduate timely.

4.2. Advantages and disadvantages of learning English from non-native English speaking teachers

Table 2. Perceived Advantages and disadvantages of learning English from non-native English speaking teachers

Advantages of learning English from NNESTs	The number of students
Can explain in students' first language	10
It is easy to communicate with teacher	9
Understanding of the learning difficulties	14
Teacher can explain about grammar	11
Teaching styles and methods: more exercises and practice for the end-of-term exam; interesting games	11
Disadvantages of learning English from NNESTs	**The number of students**
Inaccurate pronunciation and nonstandard native accent	12
Teaching styles: Textbook bound; traditional teaching	7

4.2.1. Advantages of learning English from non-native English speaking teachers

Use of students' first language

The most outstanding advantage cited by students was NNESTs' ability to use their mother tongue. Interviewees stated that it could enhance students' understanding in lessons. The close association between first language use and students' level of understanding was mentioned in almost all the interviews. They also indicated that they found it easier to understand the grammatical rules when the teacher used mother tongue in their teaching. Sample extracts are shown below

S14: It's because if you don't understand, local teachers can explain things to you in Vietnamese. If you ask native speaker teachers, they may try to explain ... but with difficult words, you still can't understand and even feel more panicked.

Understanding of students' difficulties or needs

Majors found that NNESTs were able to understand students' weaknesses and difficulties in learning and provide more exercises for practicing their basic language skills. In the following extract, S18 considered their common nationality as a reason for NNESTs' understanding of students' needs in English learning.

S21: Maybe the Vietnamese teacher will know more about what we need 'coz we are in the same nationality, they will know more what a Vietnamese needs in studying English.

In addition, as mentioned by 12 interviewees, NNESTs could understand students' learning difficulties and needs. As two interviewees said, NNESTs were also foreign language learners and were willing to show more understanding and empathy to students

when the latter experienced problems in learning English. As a result, NNESTs could recommend useful learning strategies for the students, for example, in vocabulary learning.

Teaching styles and methods

One of the pedagogical strengths of NNESTs was that they were good at teaching English grammar. As 19 of the interviewees mentioned, NNESTs prepared very detailed instructions and useful exercises on English grammar. They were also perceived to be competent at explaining the grammatical rules and concepts to students, as shown in the following comments:

S5: Vietnamese teachers have learnt English for many years and they have similar learning experiences. They can explain how to use certain grammatical items.

4.2.2. Disadvantages of learning English from non-native English speaking teachers

Inaccuracy in pronunciation and grammar

Inaccuracy in NNESTs' pronunciation and grammar was the main negative aspect of learning English from NNESTs. Twelve students also expressed the view that NNESTs did not speak English with 'accurate' or 'standard' pronunciation. Instead, they would prefer native speakers to teach English pronunciation. Some of the comments include:

S9: I think some Vietnamese teacher's English pronunciation is not standard.

Five interviewees also noted that some NNESTs made occasional grammatical mistakes in their spoken English. For example, as one interviewee stated, 'some local teachers may not have mastered English grammar very well and make some grammatical errors in English when they speak' (S21).

Teaching styles and methods

One of the pedagogical weaknesses was that NNESTs were perceived to employ 'traditional' teaching styles which the interviewees considered "boring" (S18). One reason for such a perception (as mentioned by 15 of the interviewees) was that most NNESTs relied mostly on the textbook and did not use a range of interactive activities in the classroom. For example, NNESTs were perceived to adopt a "teacher-centered" teaching style and dominate much of the classroom talk. As a result, some students felt that they could not be actively involved in classroom activities and tended to pay little attention to the teaching by NNESTs, as shown in the following comments:

S9: Vietnamese teachers do all the talking and we just sit and listen. I feel really bored. I don't think I am motivated to learn English as a result.

5. Conclusion

The study provided empirical evidence that most of Hong Duc university English majors recognized the strengths and weaknesses of both NNESTs and NEST. This finding was also in agreement with previous studies (Cheung & Braine, 2007; Lasagabaster & Sierra, 2005; Ma, 2009). The students recommended NEST for better pronunciation and cultural knowledge; NNESTs for better understanding of learning difficulties and classroom interaction. Students believe that NEST provides better assistance when learning oral

communication. However, students trust on NNESTs when preparing for different kinds of English proficiency tests. These findings suggest that factors such as areas of and reasons for learning affect student selections of language teachers.

The results of the present study have important implications for teachers' professional development. Regardless of their native or non-native status, there is a need for teachers to be aware of their weaknesses and engage in appropriate professional development activities to improve their teaching practices and effectiveness.

It must also be noted that the study has limitations. For example, the study was a small-scale project, with its participants only being recruited from K17 and K18. Also, there was only one NEST at Hong Duc university so any generalizations beyond the sample must be made with caution. Further research should investigate students' perspectives on NNESTs and NESTs with a wider sample. It would also be interesting to see the use of other research approaches such as questionnaires and class observations for similar investigations into issues concerning NESTs and NNESTs.

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AGE-RELATED DECLINE IN SECOND LANGUAGE LEARNING SUCCESS

Trinh Thi Thu Ha[1]

Abstract: *This paper presents and analyses the notion of Critical period (Lenneberg, 1967) which proposed the span of ages when learning language is more efficient. A review of research on age factor in second language acquisition proved that there is a relationship between age factor and second language learning success in terms of native-like pronunciation and syntax. This finding helps provide some implications for second language learning success to learners of different ages in the setting of formal education.*

Keywords: *Critical period, age factor, second language acquisition.*

1. Introduction

For years the debate on age effects in second language acquisition has been at the heart of a range of issues in linguistics. There is a belief that children learn languages more readily than adults do and that early language learning offers opportunity for more successful language learning. This view is reflected firstly in the work of Penfield and Roberts (1959) about the critical period when learning language is more efficient. However, it is the proposal of Critical Period Hypothesis by Lenneberg (1967) that initiated a flood of work concerning the age-related decline in language learning success. This paper firstly presents and analyses this hypothesis. In echoing Lennberg's hypothesis, a number of research have been made concerning the sources of a decline in learning language successfully when learners grow older. Most notably, there is at least one consistent finding, which is that younger subjects tend to perform better than older subjects in the pronunciation domain. Equally crucial, the view that language learning success declines with age can be evidenced from grammatical domain. Therefore, the second concern of this writing is on the impact of age in second language (henceforth L2) learning in the domain of native-like proficiency in pronunciation and grammar. Last but not least, it can be said that research findings regarding age in language learning success are especially important in deciding methodologies which might be appropriate at different points in a person age development. This will be addressed in the last section of this writing.

This paper is a kind of theoretical research in wh ich literature was searched, reviewed, and assessed in order to find the answer for these following questions:

Is there an optimal age for L2 learning?

Is there any evidence of age-related decline in L2 learning success?

What are some implications for successful L2 teaching to learners of different ages?

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2. Findings and discussion

2.1. Optimal age for second language learning

The "younger is better" view of language learning seems to be a matter of argument for many language researchers. This is supported by the theory which states there is a fixed period of years that language acquisition can take place naturally and effortlessly. The idea of there being a fixed span of years to learn language efficiently, which is known as the 'critical period', was first introduced by Penfield and Roberts (1959). According to their suggestion, a child's brain is more plastic compared with that of an adult, which makes for children's superior ability in acquiring language. However, after the age of nine 'the human brain becomes progressively stiff and rigid' (Penfield & Robert, 1959, p.235) with the aim of learning languages. It means language acquisition occurring after this age will be different in nature and less successful. In support of this theory, Lenneberg (1967) indicated that natural language acquisition through exposure can only happen during the 'critical period' which is seen as beginning at age two and ending around puberty. In other words, if language acquisition does not take place before puberty, it becomes difficult or impossible to learn a language with full mastery. This proposal of Lenneberg is known as the original formulation of 'critical period hypotheses' (henceforth CPH).

The CPH by Lenneberg is proposed on evidence for lateralization. He suggested that the process of specialization of functions in the left and right sides of the brain, which is known as lateralization (hence brain plasticity which is mentioned in more details later), begins around the age of two and is completed around puberty. During this fixed span the child is presumably neurological assigning functions in which language is included by degrees to one side of the brain or the other. It has been found that children up to the age of puberty who suffer injury to the left hemisphere are able to relocalize linguistic functions to the right hemisphere, to relearn their first language with relatively little impairment. It is the very accomplishment of lateralization that makes it difficult for adults to be able to easily acquire fluent control of an L2. The explanation lies in the difference in using their brain on language learning tasks. For most people, language and other analytic functions are located on the left side of the brain. Lenneberg (1967) presented the idea that the potential for the language function is in both hemispheres in very young children. With increasing age, the left hemisphere assumes more and more of the responsibility for language until around puberty, when adults reach their full level of cerebral dominance.

Lenneberg (1967) also suggested that the transfer of the language function from one hemisphere to another was related to the plasticity required to acquire language naturally and completely. During the critical period there seems to be greater plasticity that is highest at the age of five (Scovel, 1969). In addition, this age is proved as the time when children may have a physical advantage since phonemic control of an L2 is still possible (Jedynak, 2009). Actually, muscles gradually develop from birth until a specific time in young life and the control of some complex sounds in certain languages is not achieved until after the age of five. That is why almost every child under this age has lisp. The degree of exposure in

formal contexts of language learning determines the degree of native-like proficiency where the cutoff mark is puberty which is around 11 according to Lenneberg (1967). In cognitive perspective, Piaget shared the same view with Lenneberg that consideration of age effects on L2 acquisition seems to occur at puberty (age 11 in Piaget model). After the age of 11, the cognitive structures of a child reach their greatest development level and complete their problem-solving capability which makes learners fail to reach universal grammar which is 'the system of principles, conditions, and rules that are elements or properties of all human language' (Chomsky, 1975, p.29) in L2 acquisition. The notion of universal grammar is discussed in more detail in the next part. Young children have advantages of linguistic and cognitive flexibility that facilitates language learning success, and the age of 11 is purely a 'cut off point' for which there is no inherent justification. So what is the best age for a person to begin learning language in situations of formal education where a native-like speaker in the area of pronunciation is not acquired? The answer is from five (when brain plasticity is highest) to 11 (the cutoff mark of native-like proficiency). Learning a language at such a young age does not restrain any child's abilities in native language. Child's brain appears to be wired, and hence all linguistic rules are picked up quickly. Another key argument has been that, children are more malleable in terms of learning attitudes. It has been claimed that it is possible to incorporate modern language into the primary curriculum in such a way that the essential objectives of primary education are still achieved, and by beginning studying language earlier, levels of attainment in foreign language at the point of assessment in secondary schooling will be raised.

2.2. Evidence of age-related decline in second language learning success

2.2.1. Evidence in second language native-like pronunciation learning

According to Asher and Garcia (1969), the implication for native-like accent attaining is that children have a biological predisposition, which is defined as the brain's ability to reorganize itself or to change with learning, for language learning relating to brain plasticity. Although brain plasticity occurs throughout the lifetime, it develops strongly during childhood and declines in adulthood, which is the source of age-related decline in language learning success. In support of their hypothesis, Asher and Garcia (1969) conducted a study which revealed the age of entry into the host country as the predicator of successful acquisition of pronunciation. The participants of this study were 71 Cuban immigrants whose age ranged from seven to 19 moving to California. Most of them had been in the United States for about five years and was well-educated in school. These participants were asked to be recorded their uttering of the same set of English sentences and were scored for fidelity of pronunciation by a board of native speakers of American English. The results showed that none of these participants achieved native accent; however, highest probability of near-native accent was children who under six when they came to the United States. Additionally, the younger a child was when entering the United States, the higher the probability of a native-like utterance. Another similar work of Oyama (1976) on 60 Italian

immigrants to the United States also showed that participants who had started learning English before the age of 11 attained comprehension scores similar to those of native speakers, while late arrivals did it worse.

Penfiled and Robert (1959) were the first to link 'the earlier, the better' view of language learning to children's brain plasticity. He argued that prior to puberty a critical period occurs during which the brain is more plastic and allows the function to transfer from one hemisphere to the other when the former has been injured and for new patterns of behavior to be efficiently processed. In other words, child's brain is much more plastic compared with that of an adult. Due to the presence of brain plasticity, phonemic control of an L2 is still possible. Before the age of nine to twelve, he concluded, a child is a specialist in learning speaking. Approving with this theory, Scovel (1969) proposed that the plasticity of the brain prior to puberty enables children to acquire not only their first language but also an L2, and that it possibly is the completion of lateralization (hence brain plasticity) that causes difficulties for adults in acquiring L2 with native-like pronunciation. Simply speaking, attaining native-like accent in L2 is harder once the brain is lateralized. It means any attempts to reorganize the brain after puberty in such a way that a new function is processed, such as acquiring a native-like L2 accent by an adult, are futile. This point of view supports the existence and correctness of a critical period for language learning.

Additionally, this can be explained by the stiffness of speech muscles. The psychomotor coordination of these muscles is vital in L2 acquisition, specifically in accent acquisition. The examples of great musicians, athletes or others who have become accomplished in different skills requiring muscular dexterity show that they have almost always begun to develop their skill in childhood, usually before puberty. According to Jedynak (2009), in the case of language skills there are disposal several hundred muscles which are utilised in the utterance of human speech. In order to attain the fluency of native speaker of a language, a tremendous effort of controlling these muscles is required. These muscles gradually develop from birth to a specific time in a person young life and control of some complex sounds in certain languages sometimes is not achieved until after the age of five. At birth these muscles are developed only to an extent that the larynx is able to control cries. In time the muscles gradually develop and control of some complex sounds in certain languages sometimes is not achieved until after the age of five. It appears that starting a physical skill at a young age is advantageous and the same applies to the acquisition of the L2 pronunciation. There is extensive study of the acquisition of authentic control of the L2 phonology which supports the notion of the CP. Nevertheless, there are some researchers who hold to the minority view on the critical period for acquiring accent less speech believing that there are people who can learn a new language after the CP without any trace of a foreign accent. This paper is to revisit CPH in order to strengthen that minority view. Scovel (1969) states this explicitly with respect to accent acquisition. As a result, a critical period for L2 acquisition in a narrow sense can only be viewed as biologically based explanation for the emergence of nonnative speech.

2.2.2. Evidence in second language syntax learning

The younger the learner upon arrival in the country of L2, the more likely that native-like pronunciation will be attained, and the available data suggest that this is also true for syntax. In a research conducted to evaluate age-related differences in the acquisition of grammar by learners, Johnson and Newport (1989) studied learners' language proficiency based on different ages of arrival in the country of L2. Their subjects ranged in age of arrival from three to 39. Johnson and Newport discovered that the performance of learners on a test which was intended to gauge L2 syntax was related linearly to age of arrival only up to puberty. In detail, the youngest group with ages range from three to seven performed in the range of native controls; participants with age above 7 at arrival show a linear decline in performance up through puberty; subjects from the age of 17 and older no longer show the linear decline in performance with increasing age. It leads to the conclusion that their results assist a maturational account, because 'the age effect is present during a time of ongoing biological and cognitive maturation and absent after maturation is complete' (Johnson and Newport, 1989, p.90).

In 1991, Johnson and Newport continued investigating a property of language associated with Universal Grammar (henceforth UG) and discovered that there was a stabilize decrease in performance in accordance with age of arrival, extending past puberty and with the sharpest decline at ages 14-16. This study as well as others suggests a critical period is possible for L2 acquisition and that learners' capabilities for acquiring the syntactic knowledge of an L2 decrease with age. This decline can be explained based on cognitive proposal.

There are two notions needed to be concerned before we see from the more detailed discussion of cognitive explanation. The first is Universal Grammar (UG) which is 'the system of principles, conditions, and rules that are elements or properties of all human language' (Chomsky, 1975, p.29). It can be drawn from this concept that grammar learning ability is hard-wired into the brain, or in other words it manifests itself without being taught. The second is problem-solving mechanism which is fully applied in the formal operations stage in accordance with Piaget's theory of cognitive development. This theory will be discussed in more detail in the last section of this writing.

Cognitive factors responsible for the ability of children to learn language more successfully are often based on the idea of problem-solving mechanisms involved in the data process of L2 in adult learners. According to the Competition Model by Felix (1985), children's language learning process follows a language-specific cognitive system which is equivalent to UG, while adults utilize a problem-solving cognitive system. In other words, UG-based operations could be attributed to the child L2 results, whereas problem-solving operations attribute to the adult L2 results. The problem arises when these two cognitive systems enter into competition with each other in an adult who is trying to master a new language. Eventually, adults generally fail to reach UG in L2 acquisition. Felix's model is reinforced by Muysken's (1982) observation on the differences between the acquisition of Dutch and German word order by child first language learner and adult L2 learner. Muysken

observes that children learners do not appear to have much difficulty in finding the basic subject-object-verb order of the Dutch and German at an almost early stage of language acquisition, meanwhile adult learners consistently assume a basic subject-verb-object order for these two languages. When these learners have to deal with word order distinction in main clauses and embedded clauses, the children starting with an underlying subject-object-verb order acquire a rule 'verb-second' which applies only in main clauses and moves the finite verb into a position following either the subject or some proposed elements as adverbials or objects. This rule is compatible with the rule of UG. On the contrary, adults who assume an underlying subject-verb-object order learn a rule which moves the finite verb to final position in embedded sentences. This rule violates a principle of UG. The fact that adults acquire rules that do not obey the UG constrains lies in that adults approach the learning task in a problem-solving manner, which is the result of age effects.

The challenge arises when the two systems compete in an adult who is trying to master a new language. General problem-solving cognitive structures arising at the stage of formal operations stand in the way of innate language learning mechanism. Universal grammar is a mental matrix for language skills based on formal similarities between natural languages. UG is available to children due to their cognitive immaturity. Adults no longer have access to UG. Intact UG system starts competing with developing cognitive systems and as a result adults lose the ability to learn languages instinctively. Adults learn languages through general cognitive mechanism, whereas children acquire an L2 unconsciously.

2.2.3. Some implications for successful second language teaching to learners of different ages

Based on such differences in the acquisition process, different methodologies for language learners of different age groups are required. The author focus on these following age groups: from five to 11 (the golden stage to learn L2 as discussed above), from eleven to fifteen or older (the start of adolescence), and the adults group.

The first stage is considered as the critical period that activates children's superior ability in acquiring language (Lenneberg, 1967). During these years, children are able to use logical thought because they are mature enough; however, these logical thought can only be applied to concrete problems. As a result, concrete references in the target language as well as actively engaging tasks should be preferably involved in teaching instructions. In other words, learning activities which involve exercises using concrete objects should be applied with children in the concrete operational stage. Learners at these ages are almost more field-dependant, and hence teachers should use direct methods in which teachers talk focuses on objects in the classroom and on the content of pictures. Furthermore, teachers should try to provide a rich and stimulating learning environment with various objects to play with. All kinds of sensory input are important along with audio visual aids. Children in general want to learn when learning tasks are channeled into enjoyable games. Therefore, game-like language learning activities should be included in course designing for learners at this stage of cognitive development. It is necessary to conduct intuitive learning through fun immersion. In more details, if students are learning about colors, they should sing and play

games about colors. This not only makes lessons more fun for them, but also gives them a more authentic language learning experience. Additionally, teacher should avoid lessons that are very different from the child's world and steer away from using workbooks or paper and pencil activities very often.

The second group encompasses the start of adolescence, begins around the age of 11 and can be completed at the age of 15 or older. Children are able to apply logical reasoning to all classes of problems (Piaget,1963). In other words, they are much skillful in problem-solving. In addition, children (or adolescents) gain the ability to combine and classify items in a more sophisticated way as well as the capacity for higher-order reasoning. In this stage the adolescents are increasingly able to apply logical operations in reasoning to all classes of problems which are not only hypothetical but also abstract. As a result, language teaching instruction for adolescents should be concerned with the level of the learners, and involve the learners in tasks or activities which require adaptation through utilising teaching methods that actively engage learners and present challenges, considering each individual's preferences over method and style. During this stage, motivation and commitment to learning becomes conscious decisions made by the learners. Therefore, instruction needs positive cooperation of the students in order to make progress. Children in this stage should also be encouraged to work in groups or in pairs, one is the listener, while the other is the problem solver. The problem solver works the problem out loud while the listener checks to see that all steps are followed and seem logical.

The last one is adults group. While children respond to new languages with curiosity and impartiality, adults bring life experiences and a level of maturity into the classroom. In other words, adults are extending and refining their knowledge based on existing knowledge and beliefs. It is their learning experiences that make them be changed or transformed. Because of high maturity, adults learn well with activities requiring mature thought processes that stimulate and motivate their minds such as problem solving, question asking and answering. Therefore, adult learners who want to reach a high level of language mastery need instructions that emphasize on meaningful components rather than memorizing whole phrases or sentences. In addition, the learners should be involved in a process of mutual inquiry, avoiding transmitting knowledge only or expecting total agreement. Needless to say, it is the fact that adults tend to like a learning environment where it is safe to make mistakes without embarrassment. As a result, teacher should encourage trial and restrain error correction in adult's language teaching. In case literacy skills are deficient, public reading and writing should be minimized until learners gain confidence and fulfill skills. The same goes for speaking in front of the whole class or the group.

3. Conclusion

In a nutshell, the author agrees on the existence of the CPH in L2 learning based on at least the evidence of native-like proficiency of accent and syntax. The golden period for language learning is from five (when brain plasticity is highest) to 11 (the cutoff mark of

native-like proficiency) according to what author reviewed on current evidence of age effects on language learning. Based on such differences in the impact of age on L2 acquisition process, different methodologies for language learners at different age groups are required. In conclusion, any learners at any age, given appropriate teaching methods, will experience great enjoyment of becoming part of an exciting, multilingual world.

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TEACHING AND LEARNING ENGLISH FOR TOURISM
IN ACCORDANCE WITH SOCIAL NEEDS

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Abstract: *This article reports the results of an investigation into social needs of using English for Tourism in Thanh Hoa province. A survey questionnaire and interviews were administered to employees working in the field of hospitality and tourism to discover what aspects of specialized knowledge, language skills, and socio-cultural factors are essential for them to master when working with foreign counterparts or serving foreign tourists. From the collected results, suggestions for syllabus design, materials, methods, testing and assessment, and teacher training were made with an aim to improve the teaching and learning of English for Tourism at universities in general and Hong Duc university in particular.*

Keywords: *English for Tourism, social needs.*

1. Introduction

With the increasing development of the tourism industry in Vietnam during the past years, English has become an essential tool contributing to the success of the field. According to the *Tourism Labor Force Development Plans for 2011-2020* (Issued with Decision No. 3066/QĐ-BVHTTDL dated 29th September 2011 by Minister of Ministry of Culture, Sports And Tourism), "tourism is a field which has a fairly high number of workers being able to use foreign languages, accounting for 60%; most people use English, making up 42% of the total workforce in the field; however, due to its specific characteristics, this field requires higher proportion of English users.'' This plan confirms the importance of English in tourism development.

Accordingly, it is imperative that students majoring in tourism be taught General English as well as English for Tourism. However, unlike teaching General English, teaching English for Special Purposes (ESP) in general and English for Tourism in particular must originate from learners' need analysis. Awareness of learners' reasons for learning will decide on the syllabus contents (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987). In the same vain, in order to assure teaching English for Tourism in accordance with social needs, current workers' need analysis must be conducted.

This article focuses on representing and analyzing the results collected from a survey on the needs of English for Tourism in hotels, restaurants, travel agents, companies and organizations operating in the field of hospitality and tourism. Suggestions related to syllabus, materials, methods, testing and assessment, and teacher training are made for the purpose of improving the training quality and satisfying social needs.

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2. Theoretical Framework

Teaching and learning ESP is a matter of great concern among numerous researchers and educators. The purpose of teaching and learning ESP is different from that of teaching and learning General English. According to Basturkmen (2006:18), in ESP the purpose of learning a language is not to gain general knowledge but to open way to professional environment. Similarly, Strevens (1988) affirmed that ESP is the term indicating teaching and learning English for a career or a specific field. He mentioned the following characteristics of ESP: (1) ESP is defined to meet specific needs of the learners; (2) ESP makes use of underlying methodology and activities of the discipline it serves; (3) ESP is centered on the language appropriate to these activities in terms of grammar, lexis, register, study skills, discourse and genre.

Hutchinson &Waters (1987) stated that as language in different context varies, methods and contents of second language teaching should vary to meet the needs of learners in specific situations. Teaching ESP is, therefore, a language teaching method in which the decision of contents and methods is based on learners' purposes. Teaching and learning ESP is not limited to a specific material or method but is to meet the learners' needs. It is learners' needs that decide on language skills, language forms and teaching materials (Dudley-Evans & ST John, 1998). In order to meet social needs, it is urgent that need analysis be carried out. Similarly, Nunan (1988) affirmed that need analysis is information collection used for designing a syllabus.

English for Tourism is among the many vocational areas of ESP. A teaching and learning program of English for Tourism emphasizes the development of language skills integrated into the subject matter students need for their future job in the field of hospitality and tourism. Teaching and learning English for Tourism must be derived from practical needs of the career.

3. The study

3.1. Participants

Participants consist of 160 employees currently working in hotels, restaurants, travel agents, companies and organizations directly related to hospitality and tourism in Thanh Hoa province. They have been working in the field for from three to ten years.

3.2. Instruments

Survey questionnaire: A survey questionnaire was designed and administered to 160 employees working in the field of hospitality and tourism. Questions in the survey are about the real needs of English in working places.

Interviews: Interviews were employed as a supplementary method of the study. Interviews were conducted via telephone with 30 out of 160 participants. Questions in the interviews are about reasons for their choice in answering the questions in the survey questionnaire.

3.3. Methods of the study

The study was carried out with the following methods:

Quantitative methods: Findings collected from the survey questionnaire were synthesized and analyzed, from which implications for teaching and learning English for Tourism in accordance with social needs are made.

Qualitative methods: Findings from the interviews were analyzed to reinforce the results from the survey questionnaire.

3.4. Results of the study

The survey questionnaire focused on three main different aspects learners need to achieve after attending a course, namely knowledge, skills and attitude. The findings are presented as follows.

3.4.1. Specialized knowledge

In order to design an ESP syllabus that meets social needs, we had to discover the aspects of specialized knowledge employees need to know in English. Topics consisting of types of tourism, foods/drinks and restaurants, local customs, craft, festivals, historic relics, landscapes, transportation, hotels and accommodation were included in the survey questionnaire. The Likert Scale was exploited to find out whether the participants think these aspects of specialized knowledge are what they need to know and should be taught in the course of English for Tourism. The results are shown in the table below.

Table 1. Aspects of specialized knowledge

No.	Aspects of specialized knowledge	Strongly agree (%)	Agree (%)	Neutral (%)	Disagree (%)	Strongly disagree (%)
1	Types of tourism (Adventure travel, ecotourism, leisure tourism, culture tourism…)	43.75	50	6.25	0	0
2	Food/beverage and restaurants	60.63	34.38	5	0	0
3	Local customs	31.25	50	10.63	5	3.13
4	Craft	15.63	40.63	35	5.63	3.13
5	Festivals	35	45	14.38	3.75	1.88
6	Historic relics	38.75	40.63	16.25	4.38	0
7	Landscapes	44.38	46.88	8.75	0	0
8	Transportation	40.63	53.13	6.25	0	0
9	Hotels and accommodation	40	55	5	0	0

Figures in the table show that all the topics suggested in the survey questionnaire received a fairly large number of positive responses. The topic that witnessed the most

'strongly-agree' responses is food/beverage and restaurant (60.63%). Next came two topics: landscapes and types of tourism with respective 44.33% and 43.75% responses. Craft received the least 'strongly-agree' responses with only 15.63%. In terms of 'agree' responses, four aspects with the most choices were hotels and accommodation (55%), transportation (53.13%), local customs (50%), and types of tourism (50%). The 'agree' responses for other aspects varied from 34.38% to 46.88%. Quite a lot of people were on 'neutral' stance when it came to the aspect of craft (35%). For other aspects, the 'neutral' responses were much lower (ranging from 5% to 16.15%). The four aspects that received the 'disagree' responses consisted of local customs (5%), craft (5.63%), festivals (3.75%) and historic relics (4.38%), among which there remained three aspects with 'strongly disagree' responses except for historic relics. Informal interviews were conducted to discover why they thought these aspects are not necessary. The answers are understandable. They rarely have to deal with these aspects in their current jobs. All in all, the majority of participants believed that the aspects mentioned in the survey questionnaire should be taught in the course of English for Tourism.

3.4.2. Language skills

Beside specialized knowledge, learners need to master language skills so that they can actually use English as required in their future jobs. In order to identify which English language skills are mostly needed in careers related to hospitality and tourism, we listed four basic skills and nine concrete skills for participants to rate the importance of each skill in their current jobs. The results are indicated in the following table.

Table 2. Importance of language skills

No.	Language skills	Very important (%)	Quite important (%)	Important (%)	Not very important (%)	Not important at all (%)
	Basic language skills					
1	Listening	75	*18.13*	6.88	0	0
2	Speaking	75	18.75	6.25	0	0
3	Reading	24.38	28.13	26.25	20	1.25
4	Writing	20	17.50	24.38	28.13	10
	Concrete language skills					
5	Communicating with foreign tourists through telephone	13.13	33.13	40.63	13.13	0
6	Using English in welcoming and serving foreign tourists	41.88	50.63	7.50	0	0

7	Using English to discuss work with foreign counterparts	16.25	18.13	21.88	30	13.75
8	Listening and comprehending the main idea of a specialized presentation	16.25	18.75	18.75	31.88	14.38
9	Delivering a specialized presentation in an international conference	11.88	16.88	19.38	41.88	10
10	Using English to guide foreign tourists to a tourist attraction	21.25	38.75	26.88	10.00	3.13
11	Reading and Comprehending specialized documents in English	18.13	14.38	27.50	23.75	16.25
12	Writing formal transaction letters in English	21.25	20	26.88	26.88	5
13	Writing specialized reports in English	19.38	16.88	25.63	23.75	14.38

As can be seen in the table, 100% participants considered listening and speaking important to certain extent. Both these language skills received the same percentage (75%) of 'very important' responses. 18.13% claimed that listening is quite important and 6.88% thought it important. Similarly, 18.75% reckoned that speaking is quite important and 6.25% believed it important. Results from interviews indicated that this is because employees in the field of hospitality and tourism need communicative English for serving foreign tourists. As regards reading and writing, the collected results are quite different. Up to 28.13% assumed writing is not very important and 10% regarded it as not important at all. Likewise, 20% claimed that reading is not very important and 1.25% considered it not important at all. Interview results revealed that these employees just use spoken English and do not use written English in their job. Despite this, a large number of participants considered reading and writing very important, quite important or important with total responses of 78.75% for the former and 61.88% for the latter. On balance, it can be said that spoken English is more important than written English according to social opinions.

In terms of concrete language skills, on top of the list with the most positive responses was using English in welcoming and serving foreign tourists (100%), and then came communicating with foreign tourists through telephone and using English to guide foreign tourists to a tourist attraction with the same number of positive responses at 88.86%. The

only skill that witnessed less than 50% of positive responses is delivering a specialized presentation in an international conference (48.13%). The positive responses for the remaining skills (using English to discuss work with foreign counterparts, listening and comprehending the main idea of a specialized presentation, reading and comprehending specialized documents in English, writing formal transaction letters in English, writing specialized reports in English) range from 53.75% to 68.73%. One interesting finding is that although listening enjoyed 100% positive responses, the concrete skill of listening and comprehending the main idea of a specialized presentation received only 53.75% positive responses. This is because of their job positions. Participants with leading positions need this skill in their job, whereas those working as junior employees found it unnecessary. All in all, the concrete language skills listed in the survey questionnaire are considered important to certain extent in the field of hospitality and tourism.

3.4.3. Socio-cultural aspects

In addition to specialized knowledge and skills learners need to master, it is essential that attitude education be focused to ensure learners are equipped with appropriate working attitude. In order to have polite attitude and avoid conflict in international communication, interlocutors need to use appropriate language and understand certain cultural elements of different countries. Some aspects of language and culture that learners need to be provided in order to develop polite attitude are listed in the survey questionnaire. The results are presented in Table 3below.

Table 3. Attitude Education

No.	Language and Culture in Attitude Education	Very important (%)	Quite important (%)	Important (%)	Not very important (%)	Not important at all (%)
1	Formal vs. informal addressing	23.13	28.13	48.75	0	0
2	Negative vs. positive words	15.63	35	49.38	0	0
3	Language functions (thank, apology, suggestion, request, recommendation, advice)	42.50	48.75	8.75	0	0
4	Popular topics for small talks in international communication	14.38	41.88	39.38	3.13	1.25
5	Habits and customs in different countries	10	26.25	40.63	13.13	10

| 6 | Values and beliefs in different countries | 9.38 | 25.63 | 35.63 | 15.63 | 7.50 |
| 7 | Superstitions and taboos in different countries | 11.88 | 28.13 | 38.13 | 15.63 | 6.25 |

The collected results show that all three aspects of language (formal vs. informal addressing, negative vs. positive words, language functions) are considered very important, quite important or important. No participant believed that these aspects are not important. However, the four aspects of culture (popular topics for small talks in international communication, habits and customs in different countries, values and beliefs in different countries, superstitions and taboos in different countries) witnessed the responses distributed in all rating scales from very important to not important at all. Although there were some participants who claimed that these aspects of culture are not important in learners' attitude education, the majority of them affirmed that these aspects are necessary for educating learners to have appropriate attitude in cross-cultural communication. Specifically, popular topics for small talks in international communication received 95.63% positive responses. Next came superstitions and taboos in different countries with 78.13%. Habits and customs in different countries, and values and beliefs in different countries received 76.88% and 70.63% respectively.

In short, according to social needs, learners need to be equipped with specialized knowledge about types of tourism, food/beverage and restaurants, local customs, craft, festivals, historic relics, landscapes, hotels and accommodation, and transportation. Furthermore, all four language skills (speaking, listening, reading and writing) should be taught but there should be more focus on spoken English. The concrete language skills essential for the real work consist of using English in welcoming and serving foreign tourists, communicating with foreign tourists through telephone and using English to guide foreign tourists to a tourist attraction. Besides, such skills as delivering a specialized presentation in an international conference, using English to discuss work with foreign counterparts, listening and comprehending the main idea of a specialized presentation, reading and comprehending specialized documents in English, writing formal transaction letters in English, and writing specialized reports in English are also important. In terms of attitude education, both language and culture should be included in the course to help develop learners' appropriate attitude when working with foreigners.

4. Pedagogical implications

Based on the findings of the study, pedagogical implications were made to equip learners with knowledge, skills and attitude necessary for them to become efficient employees in the field of hospitality and tourism. In order to teach English for Tourism in accordance with social needs, we should take syllabus design, teaching/learning materials, teaching/learning methods, testing and assessment, and teacher training into consideration.

Firstly, the syllabus design should be based on social needs. This means syllabus designers should take into account of the real demands of using English by employees working in the field of hospitality and tourism to decide on course objectives, teaching/learning materials, teaching/learning methods, and testing and assessment forms. The syllabus must aim to develop specialized knowledge, language skills and attitude for learners. The most integral criterion of syllabus design is turning English learners into English users. The syllabus should focus on developing learners' ability to use English in different contexts and situations of the job. The learners not only improve their specialized knowledge but also improve language skills needed for international communication. Therefore, the syllabus should involve organizing language skill development activities.

Secondly, while teaching and learning materials should be selected, compiled or designed to meet the objectives set before the beginning of the course, authentic materials from newspapers, magazines, brochures, and internet should also be exploited. Information changes very quickly and only by this way can updated information in the field of tourism be accessible to learners.

Thirdly, teaching and learning methods should be various. On the one hand, language activities should be situations oriented, etc. role-play at the reception, in the restaurant, at the airport…, which helps learners be able to communicate in different situations in their future jobs. On the other hand, language activities should be around specific topics, etc. types of tourism, festivals, landscapes…, which helps learners improve their specialized knowledge of the field. Moreover, teaching and learning methods should focus on developing learners' autonomy, which can be achieved by project-based learning, individual assignment, group assignment. This helps learners have in-depth investigations into specific aspects of their own interests.

Fourthly, there should be a variety of testing and assessment forms. Apart from traditional written tests, other types of assessment such as presentation, role-play, home assignment, observation should also be utilized. Various types of assessment encourage learners to develop different crucial skills needed in their future jobs.

Finally, teacher training should also be minded. In order to ensure the quality of teaching and learning English for Tourism, teachers of English have to improve their specialized knowledge by taking part in training courses and cooperating with specialized teachers. Furthermore, beside mastering the course objectives, contents, teaching methods, testing and assessment forms, ESP teachers must be flexible to update the latest information related to the field so that they can meet the demands of ever-changing society.

5. Conclusion

As an indispensable means contributing to the development of tourism, English is a 'must-have' for employees in the field of hospitality and tourism. Teaching and learning General English as well as English for Tourism have, therefore, become an essential issue in career education.

This study focuses on teaching and learning English for Tourism in accordance with social needs. A survey questionnaire and interviews were conducted to find out what aspects of specialized knowledge, language skills and attitude are crucial to the success of the job in the field of hospitality and tourism. Results showed that the important topics of specialized knowledge are types of tourism, food/beverage and restaurants, local customs, craft, festivals, historic relics, landscapes, hotels and accommodation, and transportation. Moreover, teaching and learning English for Tourism must follow the communicative approach with more focus on spoken language. The sub-skills such as using English in welcoming and serving foreign tourists, communicating with foreign tourists through telephone, using English to guide foreign tourists to a tourist attraction, using English to discuss work with foreign counterparts, listening and comprehending the main idea of a specialized presentation, reading and comprehending specialized documents in English, writing formal transaction letters in English, writing specialized reports in English are also necessary for learners to develop during the course. In addition, attitude education is also important in teaching English for Tourism. By providing students with appropriate language in different situations and significant cultural elements of different countries, we can insure that learners develop polite attitude when working with foreigners.

Based on the findings of the study, pedagogical implications have been made about syllabus design, materials, methods, testing and assessment, and teacher training in order to teach and learn English for Tourism in accordance with social needs.

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SUGGESTED ACTIVITIES TO TEACH ENGLISH IDIOMS
TO HIGH LEVEL ENGLISH MAJORS IN SPEAKING CLASSES

Nguyen Thi Hong[1]

Abstract: *The article presents some activities for teaching English idioms in speaking classes for high level English majors with a hope to help them not only learn English idioms effectively but also encounter the hi-frequency idioms in context, analyze their meanings, and practice using them to improve their speaking skill. In this article, some effective classroom activities and procedures to carry out the activities while teaching English idioms to English majors are clearly presented.*

Keywords: *Activities, English idioms, English majors, speaking classes.*

1. Introduction

In teaching and learning English as a foreign language, developing four skills (listening, speaking, reading and writing) is a regular task for both teachers and learners. Among these four skills, Ur (1996) shows that unlike listening, reading and writing, speaking requires learners to interact directly with their partners or with other people. While speaking, they usually find it difficult to express their ideas in English because they are afraid of making mistakes, being criticized and losing face. To help learners to overcome this difficulty, teachers have tried to find different ways to make it easier for their students and help them be more confident with their utterance. As a result, most students have involved in classroom speaking activities or everyday conversations. The matter is that the students just use very simple, single words in their speeches therefore their English does not sound natural and smooth. This is only acceptable for English beginners or low level English learners. For high level English learners, especially for English majors who have a wide range of vocabulary, plentiful knowledge of culture, proficiency in English should be required.

There are many ways to help learners to speak English naturally and smoothly, providing them with English idioms is one of these. The explanation for this idea is that to understand English as it is spoken in real life, learners have to be familiar with idioms. They are used so much in everyday English that it is important to be aware of them. Learners need to learn what they mean and how to use them to become 'insider'.

To help high level English majors master English idioms, we suggest some activities for teaching English idioms in speaking classes with the hope that the students will not only be able to learn English idioms effectively but also encounter the hi-frequency idioms in context, analyze their meanings, practice using them in a variety of activities as well as improve their speaking skill.

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2. The definitions of English idioms

An idiom, or idiomatic expression, according to the Oxford English Dictionary, is a group of words whose meaning cannot be deduced from the individual words that form it. In other words, idioms are considered as fixed chunks with arbitrary meanings. The meaning of the group of words is different from the meanings of the individual words together. Foreign language learners who want to obtain the meaning of the idiom have to memorize its corresponding figurative interpretation, which is to die. Meanings of idioms are arbitrary and thus unpredictable. There are some more definitions of idioms from linguists. McGee Wood. M. (1981) argues that idioms are part of a continuum which starts with usual collocations, continues with stable or fixed collocations, metaphorical collocations are following and the continuum ends with idioms. On the other hand, Moon, Rosamund (1998) believes that among free combinations, one-syllable words and compound nouns/adjectives there is a broad class of word combinations with a gradable dependency of its members. Finally, Weinrcich, Uricl (1969) distinguishes between a broader sense phraseology and a narrower sense one. The main trait of these classifications, despite their different terminology, is the flexibility they show probably because of the several criteria and approaches suggested in the literature. For example, the group of words "Pull yourself together" which means "to calm down and behave normally" or "Go the extra mile" which means "to make a special effort to achieve your goal", or "Shoot from the hip" which means "to speak directly" are idioms. Learners cannot understand the meanings of these groups of words by separating the meaning of each word. This does not mean that every group of words is an idiom. For example, "go down stairs" is also a group of words, but it does not have a special meaning. Each word has its literal meaning. In this example, "down" means the opposite of "up". Although idioms often sound less formal than their one-word equivalents, this does not mean that idioms are slang or incorrect forms of English. Most idioms are standard forms of expressions and are used in literature, magazine and newspaper articles, academic journals, speeches and radio and television broadcast, as well as in everyday speech.

3. Features, requirements and principles of teaching and learning speaking skill

3.1. Speaking skill

According to Bygate (1987), speaking is a productive skill during uttering process. Among four language skills, speaking plays an important role because it is the initial stage to realize who knows and who does not know how to use a language. The nature of oral communication is a mutual understanding between speakers and listeners.

3.2. Features, requirements and principles of teaching and learning speaking skill

Ur (1996) states that the features of a successful speaking class include the following factors:

The participation in speaking activities of the learners
High motivation

The understandable language of the learners

Nunan (1989) shows that to achieve good speaking skill, learners have to reach the following skills:

The ability to express various phonemes of the language

The ability to use stress, tones, rhythm and intonations

The ability to control reasonable fluency

The ability to communicate among people

The ability to exchange conversations

The ability to understand and express meanings

The ability to listen and comprehend and express the aim of the conversations

4. Reasons for teaching English idioms to high level English majors

Idioms cause difficulties for English as second language (ESL) or English as foreign language (EFL) learners because their meanings are unpredictable. Non-native speakers can find themselves in "hot water" when encountered with idioms. To many ESL or EFL learners, using idioms correctly is a very difficult task even if they know the intended meanings. For them, idioms are a stumbling block in their way to learn English. Obviously, this is because the meaning of the words that constitute an idiom does not match the intended meaning of the idiom. Idioms are deeply rooted in the culture of the target language. There are morals, themes, and stories behind idioms and EFL learners do not have a chance to learn and read about them. Therefore, it is important for language learners to have some background knowledge of the culture of the language they are learning. Cooper (1999) also states it is difficult for English native speakers to master English idioms, let alone EFL learners because the figurative meanings of English idioms cannot be predicted through an analysis of their individual word meanings. It is quite difficult for EFL learners to understand exactly the meanings of English idioms expressed in English textbooks and everyday language conversations. Nippold and Martin (1989) stress: "Failure to grasp the meanings of idioms can impinge upon an individual's understanding of language in social, academic, and vocational settings". Apparently, teaching EFL learners to use English idioms is considerably critical for EFL teachers. In addition, Strassman and O'Connell (2007) find that students are often able to discuss content, take notes, or create semantic maps for brainstorming their ideas before presenting orally or writing essays; however, they often do not use the new words or concepts taught in class. The students rarely use English idioms because they are not confident with their meanings. Idioms, therefore, have been considered an obstacle for foreign language learners. However, idiomatic expressions are used so widely and commonly in spoken and written English that foreign language learners have to prepare themselves to meet the challenge of learning and understanding them (Cooper, 1999). Thus, teaching idioms to foreign language learners is a necessary element in the field of EFL teaching because it is not only to teach the meaning of idioms, but also teach how to use them correctly and effectively.

Traditional methods of teaching English idioms focus on rote learning and memorization. Such rigid learning process might be time and effort consuming, as learners picked up idioms discretely without associations between forms and meanings. How to teach students English idioms is the question we usually ask ourselves. When a non-native speaker uses an idiom correctly, he or she will sound very fluent and natural. That is the reason why we think of the ways to teach students idioms for everyday use. As mentioned above that for English majors, while having intermediate or advanced English levels, they adapt English idioms and apply in their speeches easily.

5. Suggested activities and procedures to teach English idioms to high level English majors in speaking classes

5.1. Teaching English idioms in conversational contexts

Naturally, students will often come across difficult new words, expressions, idioms in texts or everyday conversations they are exposed to. Inferring and guessing meanings of unfamiliar words, expressions or idioms are a strategy which is worth developing. It seems easier for students to guess the meaning of those in contexts. Therefore, the role of context is central in language learning. It is common that students do not really understand the various meanings of new words in different contexts. That is why they do not know how to apply the words they have learned practically in various contexts. It is fundamental for teachers to provide a meaningful context for students to learn and practice. The contextual cues surrounding a particular word can help students get its meaning. Consequently, it is more effective for students to learn language in meaningful contexts than learn isolated words through memorization and drilling. And this is also useful to apply in teaching and learning English idioms. It is necessary that idioms be provided in conversational contexts so that students can fully understand the meaning. The reason to teach English idioms in conversational contexts is that conversations can provide situations for students to practice and offer students ample practice with basic speaking skills in context. Another reason is that conversations can be viewed as short plays and used for students to act out rather than simply read aloud. Moreover, the conversations provide function as basic communication at intermediate or advanced levels. In addition, putting students into pairs or groups for the role-play in the daily conversations is an effective way of oral practice.

Procedure to carry out this activity

For this activity, teacher provides students with a conversation containing no more than 3 English idioms and asks them to guess their meanings. After the teacher provides definitions of these idioms, let the students compare their guesses. Next, to help students be able to apply English idioms introduced in class, teacher assigns students in pairs or in groups to create a short conversation of their own using the English idioms they have just learnt and then act out the conversation in front of the class.

For example to teach the idiom "to pull yourself together" which means "to calm down and behave normally", the teacher provides students with the following conversation:

Peter: What's the matter with you, Mary? You look sad.

Mary: It's been a terrible day for me. Everything has gone wrong.

Peter: Oh, my friend. This sometimes happens to anyone.

Mary: But I can't imagine it so bad!

Peter: Come on! Pull yourself together. Things will be better!

From the context of the conversation, students will understand the meaning of the idiom 'to pull yourself together'.

Teaching English idioms in conversational contexts could motivate students a lot because of pair/group collaboration and role-play activity could help them with repetitive practices. It is easier and more fun for them to master English idioms because they share and enjoy learning English idioms with friends.

5.2. Teaching English idioms in story contexts

Stories have been popularly used to teach and entertain students in language learning. Interesting stories usually draw students' attention and easily make students absorbed in them. Since contextual information is significantly effective for aiding students' understanding English idioms, it is essential for teachers to provide students with a particular, meaningful context. There are idiom and expression resources that can help with definitions, but reading them in short stories can also provide context that make them become more alive. Naturally, the idioms should be presented in the context of a story giving students their first exposure to the idioms. Let students try reading the story one time to understand the gist without using the idiom definitions and then ask them to read the story the second time and use the definitions offered by the teacher in the way of giving examples of the idioms in contexts and determining their meanings to help them understand the content of the story while learning new idioms.

Procedure to carry out this activity

To help students practice, the teacher provides a short story with an ample opportunity for students to master the idioms and asks them to guess the meanings of the idioms in the story. After teacher provides definitions of the idioms, let students compare their guesses and judge whether an idiom fits a context or the form of an idiom is correct. Next, the teacher asks students to retell the story which contains the idioms they have just learnt. Finally, students are asked to make cultural comparisons and provide real-life stories that illustrate usage.

Teaching English idioms in story contexts is a good way for students to master idioms because they have a chance to retell the story which contains some English idioms. This is because retelling has been a good strategy to know how much students have learnt and to increase their speaking skill. The retelling activities provide students with more chances to be aware of the meanings of English idioms they have just learnt and help them apply English idioms in real life situations.

5.3. Teaching English idioms through pictures

Using pictures in teaching is one of the great ways for teachers to help their learners improve their English, especially speaking skill effectively. A picture paints a thousand words and shows a lot of meanings. Idioms are full of colorful imagery, perfect for a flashcard or photo. When using pictures to teach idioms, never ask students just to look at the pictures, ask them to think about the picture they are looking at and discuss them to see if they can describe what is happening in the pictures and say something about them.

Procedure to carry out this activity

To achieve the goal, the teacher provides a picture to explain the context. This works best if the teacher shows an image that humorously illustrates the literal meaning of the idiom. It will make students laugh, but also help them understand or guess what the phrase means. By this way, the picture helps students guess the meaning of the idiom. After the students guess the right meaning of the idiom, to enhance the students' understanding, the teacher asks them to give examples to explain when they would use the idiom and how the words and the actual meaning of the idiom are different. To put the idiom in practice, the teacher asks students to work in pairs or in small groups to create their own short stories, dialogues or conversations using the idiom and in turn to present their products in front of the class.

6. Conclusion

Since it is vital for EFL learners, especially high level English majors to learn English idioms in order to master English, it is important for EFL teachers to design various effective activities for students to practice using English idioms and subsequently acquire them efficiently. Students learn better when they are provided with collaborative activities. Through these activities, students not only learn English idioms more easily, they also have more chances to interact with peers, share fun in learning and improve their ability in oral communication. The suggested activities to teach English idioms in speaking classes may make students' English sound more natural and smoother.

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LANGUAGE-CULTURE-IDENTITY AND VIETNAMESE CALLIGRAPHY

Le Hoang Huong[1]

Abstract: *The paper analyzes the inter-relationship of three concepts that are language, culture and identity in the light of Stuart Hall's theory (1997). Culture and identity are produced by means of language through the process of representation and language vice-versa becomes the indicator or the representative of culture and identity. Such analysis helps interpret the rise of Vietnamese calligraphy in terms of the complex inter-relationship between language, identity and cultural difference. Vietnamese calligraphy - a kind of language- is the tool in defining the identity of Vietnamese culture as distinguished from others.*

Keywords: *Language, culture, identity, calligraphy, representation.*

1. Introduction

A totally new school of thought has hit my mind: language, culture, and identity themselves are more than complicated and have an inter-relationship (Hall, 1997) when I read about these concepts analyzed Kramsch (1998), Hall (1997). How these three concepts are connected to one another is a difficult issue to be satisfactorily clarified. Stuart Hall, with the introduction of the circuit of culture, is thought to be successful in explaining such relationship. According to Hall (1997a) language with the nature of continuously changing is a privileged means in producing non- fixed products: identity and culture through the process of representation. To thoroughly understand this, it would be better to study the intertwined relationship in three pairs of concepts: language and culture, culture and identity, and identity and language which, on the other hand, make up the organization of the essay. These are then followed by one analysis of Vietnamese calligraphy's development to illustrate Hall's notion of representation to understand language and cultural difference.

2. Summary of Hall's theory

2.1. Culture and language

The circuit of culture including five moments: regulation, representation, identity, production and consumption is the cycled process from which culture is produced and consumed through the meaning-making representation. Therefore, culture is simply regarded as about meanings or more appropriately, about "shared meaning" (Hall, 1997a, p.1). It is believed that if two people are from the same culture, they must share sets of cultural codes such as norms, feelings, ideas, etc. in common which enable them to interpret the world in roughly similar ways and find the most comprehensible way to express those to each other. For example, when two Vietnamese meet, they may use the question "Where are you

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going?" as a replacement for a greeting, which is considered as impoliteness in some other countries. However, it is not expected among Vietnamese that the answer of such question is about exact destinations. When uttering such a question, they have no intention of breaking privacy's rules, they only think of it as a simple "hello" and the right responses to it may be just a smile, a greeting, or even the repetition of the question. This manner of conducting conversations are accepted among those from Vietnamese culture.

Within the process where meaning (or culture) is produced and exchanged, language plays the role as the "privileged medium" (Hall, 1997a, p.1). Language works through a representational system, using signs and symbols such as the system of alphabet systems, traffic lights, facial expressions, musical notes, etc. to express cultural meaning or represent culture. In a nutshell, representation through language is the central of meaning-producing process (Hall, 1997a). Without representation, meaning, by nature as something neutral or something not already exist somewhere in the world, cannot be circulated and produced. On one hand, meaning is produced in a variety of media or through the ways we incorporate cultural things into the everyday rituals and practices of daily life. On the other hand, meaning regulates social conduct or helps to set the rules, norms and conventions by which social life is ordered and governed. Therefore, people with "shared meaning" or the same culture produce cultural values and see them in the roughly similar way.

From example, it is easy to see that people from the same culture can communicate with each other because they share cultural and linguistic bases-Vietnamese. Here language should be seen in a broad sense which ranges from sounds, words, notes, gestures, facial expressions to clothes, etc. or generally called linguistic codes whereas linguistic codes refer to concepts, images, ideas, thinking, feeling, world interpretation, etc. In order to have successful communication, participants must share the same "cultural codes" and "linguistic codes" (Hall, 1997a, p.4). Language and culture then are mutually supportive.

2.2. Culture and identity

2.2.1. Identity

Hall (1997a) argues that "culture is used to mark out and maintain identity within and difference between groups" (p.3). For example, it is conventionally believed in Vietnam that women must know how to cook well; therefore, any women who are not keen on cooking seem not to be ideal Vietnamese women. The culture of good cooking related to ideal women regulates social reactions; hence, teen girls are taught to cook by their mothers or grandmothers at home or attend cooking courses. They have to live up to social expectation to find a position in ideal Vietnamese women's group.

At this stage, meanings have their power because they define what is "normal", who belongs and therefore, who is excluded (Hall, 1997, p.10). This idea is illustrated with Kramsch's notion of insiders and outsiders (Kramsch, 1998): the West use language and culture to portray the East, the Middle East and their peoples (pp. 8-10).

Similarities and differences are two opposite sides that culture covers. Identity and difference co-exist, by its "difference" from its others, identity is distinguished. In other

words, we always put ourselves in differences in comparison with others to find our identity. I am a student, not a teacher or a doctor not because of certain student's characteristics but because I can mark my "difference" as a student with a teacher, a doctor, etc.

Identity as a production within representation is not fixed (Hall, 1997b) or it is changing time by time because it is positioned in certain history and culture. In other words, like everything which is historical, cultural identity is not only the matter of "being"- a sort of collective "one true self" but also the matter of "becoming" as well as of "being"- "undergoing constant transformation" (Hall, 1997b, p.394).

2.2.2. Identity and language

Hall (1997a) who argues that language as a "signifying practice" (p.5) says something about identity. Kramsch (1998) says that "speakers identify themselves and others through their use of language; they view their language as a symbol of their social identity" (p.3). Agreeing on this notion, Joseph (2009) illustrates his idea with one example of three responses from three strangers waiting at a taxi stand to an empty taxi driving past without stopping:

"A: Outrageous

B: I say

C: Fuckin hell" (p.2)

Quite easily we can somewhat capture these three persons A, B, and C, possibly their manner of behaviors, their background, their personality, their social status or even with which one we may feel comfortable with. The identity of the three persons therefore maintained and marked out through difference in the use of language. The negotiation, even the struggling for national language in many countries is another example which shows people's awareness of language's vital role in determining national identity. Whist language acts as a "being creature", identity constituted through representation in one non-stop meaning-making process mostly by the means of language is dynamically active.

To sum up, Hall (1997) explains the interactive relationship among language, culture and identity in which language endlessly works as a representational system to produce and circulate culture and identity. None of them is unchanging which results in continuous changes in the way people represent themselves.

3. Issues that Hall fails to address

Hall (1997) states that almost everything "in themselves" is changing time by time, and identity is not an exception: we are becoming someone else tomorrow. However, in fact there are some core values or controlled identity though they exist dynamically. Turning back to the example of Vietnamese calligraphy, it is easy to see that Vietnamese intellectual desire (hieu hoc) is a core value which is neither produced through the representation of calligraphy - with or without calligraphy, such cultural identity still exists - nor changed no matter what historical and social context it is positioned.

In addition, the role of personal determination in representing themselves is not much recognized in Hall's theory. In the above example, a group of the Vietnamese show their favor of ancient Chinese calligraphy by refusing Vietnamese's are not regulated by social representation, they have their own choice of interest or their own way of representing their identity. However, sometimes the way these people want to be seen is not matched with the way others see them. They consider themselves as noble nostalgic scholars but some others can see them as of conservative or even stagnant class.

4. The rise of Vietnamese calligraphy

As defined in the "Oxford learner's pocket dictionary" (2000), calligraphy is "art of beautiful handwriting" (p.55). Dang (2010) says calligraphy is the art of modifying and reforming script or alphabet for aesthetic value. According to Waddington (1996), it is natural that passages of text, words, and letters can be beautiful things. However, there is more to do with calligraphic works rather than just their eye-catching appearance, that is the meaning they carry. Their content often reflects experience, ideals, thought-evoking proverbs or quotations (Dang, 2010); therefore, calligraphic works are thought to represent calligraphers' personality and community's ideologies.

In Vietnam, calligraphy was first introduced by the Chinese during China's thousand-year-colonization (Dang, 2010). Traditionally, the Vietnamese appreciate good handwriting and believe that it shows writers' personality (net chu-net nguoi). Hence, Chinese calligraphy was adopted and adapted to signify Vietnamese intellectual desire (hieu hoc). It is our custom that when new year comes, men in families compose calligraphic works, in case no one can do so, people go to see calligraphers and ask for some guiding words for the whole year. We display them in our houses, hoping that they will imbue us with honorable thoughts, promote good behaviors and bring us luck. The content of calligraphic works that we hang presents our wishes, or our guiding ideologies and it is believed that just by looking at the art works guests could understand more about the host's personality. Such traditional custom is preserved nowadays; however, the number of people who knows Sino - the script used in Chinese calligraphy - is small which is a barrier for those who want to be exposed to calligraphic works. The idea of Vietnamese calligraphy may have been partly evoked from such difficulty.

Vietnamese calligraphy is the art form which employs "quocngu - the romanized system for transcribing Vietnamese" (Jamieson, 1995, p.58) considered as Vietnam national script and the beauty of calligraphy originated in China (Ledderose, 1979). Vietnamese calligraphy was introduced by Dong Ho (1906-1969) (Dang, 2010); however, it was not until late 20th century that such art form emerged as a contemporary one and was recognized for its "diverse styles and aesthetic qualities" (Dang, 2010, p.13). We witness Vietnamese calligraphy in bloom with the regular displays of calligraphers' streets, the opening of calligraphy clubs which attract people of all ages, or calligraphic masterpieces such as 300-meter-long Kieu Story, 400- kilogram-weight-Independence Declaration by Trinh Tuan, or

the book "A view" by Darian Dang Hoc which broke Vietnamese record for poem-script-painting combined book in 1998. Software for Vietnamese calligraphy also contributes much in popularizing the art form, now it is quite easy to see calligraphic works in calendar, decorations, Internet, etc. However, calligraphic works produced with a brush by calligraphers is much more favorable, not only for their aesthetic values but also for their uniqueness of artistic inspiration which is thought to appear just one time.

5. Discussion

Hall's notion of representation which considers representation as the key moment in exchanging and producing culture helps us to explain the development of Vietnamese calligraphy. It is in the way people discuss, negotiate and believe - or represent - which produces the value of calligraphy in general and Vietnamese calligraphy in particular. Calligraphy itself exists neutrally until people embed or encode some meanings into it through representation process. Conventionally, calligraphic works are created by noble and wise people who are believed to be able to transfer moral lessons and spiritual values through their handwriting. Therefore, anyone who get these works are expected to partly absorb such ideologies to become good people and to partly show their intellectual desire which is highly appreciated in Vietnamese mind. Especially in open era with the improvement in living standard and the outburst of mass-media, the emphasis on preserving and developing traditional rituals is greater than ever before. Every day through a variety of representational systems in which language is used in conversations, publications and speech, the culture of honoring calligraphy is conveyed and circulated.

Here representation has its power in regulating social conduct by forcing more and more people to show their interest in calligraphy. Calligraphic works become a hot topic not only among elder people but also among younger ones. It is true that a big number of these people have a great passion for calligraphy while others just follow the trend. No matter what reasons they concern about the art, the obvious result is the spread of calligraphy. The hotter calligraphy becomes the more publications, more seminars, more conferences, more studies, more projects etc. about the art are published and implemented and calligraphy in turn has more opportunities to penetrate into social life which lastly makes them more and more powerful.

The story about the development Vietnamese calligraphy in particular is more thrilling. As mentioned earlier, the distinguished feature of Vietnamese calligraphy is its using *quocngu* - Vietnamese romanized scripts to form art works. The development of *quocngu* is a long process for the Vietnamese on the way to create their own national script or national identity. It was due to thousand-year-occupation by the Chinese that the Vietnamese had to use Sino as their official script. In 17th century the French brought the Latin alphabet into Vietnam in their invasion and Alexandre de Rhodes was one of the first to establish *quocngu* (Dang, 2010). Such script was widespread for its convenience and simple for people to study and use. Truong Vinh Ky - the man who developed *quocngu* into a standardized and

effective medium of communication - believed that the development and popularization of *quocngu* was a prerequisite to progress (Jamieson, 1995).

As a certain result of long-term-occupation by the Chinese, Vietnam seems to be colonialized by Chinese culture; hence, the Vietnamese try to confirm their identical characteristics not by eliminating but by inheriting and developing ancient values; and using *quocngu* in calligraphic works is one example. Vietnamese calligraphy is also one representational system "tied up with both identity and knowledge" (Hall, 1997a, p.5) so it is the medium to constitute meaning or culture. The meaning produced in each calligraphic artwork is the calligrapher's identity and Vietnamese identity. "It is a symbolic practice which gives meaning or expression to the idea of belonging to a national culture" (Hall, 1997a, p.5).

Following the circuit of culture, Vietnamese calligraphy not only acts as a representational system or a culture-carrier but also a cultural product with cultural meaning encoded into it.

Also in Hall's notion, dealing with culture is to deal with both similarity and difference. Referencing to the case of Vietnamese calligraphy, it is completely true because Vietnamese calligraphy is known to be Vietnamese since we can "mark its difference from its others" (Hall, 1997a, p.325) - Vietnamese is not Chinese, not Japanese, not Arabian, etc. The desire for Vietnamese calligraphy is one proof of the attempt among the Vietnamese to be against Chinese colonization - the consequence of thousand-year-occupation in the past which has been already discussed as well as Western colonization - the consequence of open era nowadays. Thanks to technological achievements, especially the invention of computer, human force has been liberated. However, in case of Vietnam in particular, the youth rely much on typing on computer rather than patiently spending time practicing their handwriting, which gradually makes beautiful handwriting less concerned and more dangerously, the traditional idea of handwriting related to intellectuality has been changed. Vietnamese are aware of this problem, it is not wise for them to reject technology then they positively receive it and show more favor in one kind of art which honors the beauty of scripts in one unending attempt of preserving traditional values inherited from ancestors. Now the Vietnamese could be proud of their own calligraphy which differentiates their culture from others.

What is more, in Hall's idea, "difference" concept covers both differences from "Others" and differences within one group. Not all the Vietnamese consume the meaning of Vietnamese calligraphy in the same way or they decode such cultural product in different or even opposite aspects. Hence, it is not the fact that all Vietnamese prefer Vietnamese calligraphy to Chinese calligraphy. Although no one could deny the aesthetic, moral values conveyed by Vietnamese calligraphy and above all its popularization to the majority of Vietnamese for its use of *quocngu*; a part of the Vietnamese criticize or even reject it. Those form a group of nostalgic people. Reluctance in trying and acquiring new things is one characteristic shared by a lot of Vietnamese, especially the elderly. Therefore, opposite

attitudes towards Vietnamese calligraphy still co-exist. However, though these meanings are organized into sharply opposed binaries, such binaries are "constantly being undermined" (Hall, 1997, p.10) as identity itself is changing when positioned in particular history or social context: at the moment we all expect a newly transformed look of Vietnamese identity in the future.

6. Conclusion

The analysis of language-culture-identity relationship by Hall (1997) has been summarized accordingly my understanding of his theory. In short, culture and identity are produced by means of language and language vice-versa becomes the indicator or the representative of culture and identity. Such production is processed within representation whose nature specifically helps interpret the rise of Vietnamese calligraphy in terms of the complex interrelationship between language, identity and cultural difference. The phenomenon of Vietnamese calligraphy has been seen under the light of cultural and social development in which the art form - a kind of language-is the tool in defining the identity of Vietnamese culture as distinguished from others. Last but not least, some arguments of the weaknesses in Hall's theory have been presented, including his ignorance of core values in identity and people's personal determination in representing themselves. Though these arguments are not really in depth, they encourage my critical thinking: never accept anything as "Absolute Truth" (Hall, 1997a, p.9) without questioning and therefore, Hall's notion should not be an exception.

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A DISCOURSE ANALYSIS OF BARRACK OBAMA'S SPEECH ON THE WAR IN IRAQ

Le Thi Huong A[1]

Abstract: *Within the past thirty years, discourse analysis has taken great interest from linguists. The more developed the society becomes, the more closely people scrutinize at the language use. In this article, the author intends to make a discourse analysis of Barrack Obama's speech on the war in Iraq in terms of pronounce choice as well as lexicalization to demonstrate his opinion on that war and to find the reason why his speech played an important role in his political life.*

Keywords: *Discourse analysis, war, oppose.*

1. Introduction

Within the past thirty years, discourse analysis has taken great interest from linguists. It is explainable as the more developed the society becomes, the more closely people scrutinize at the language use. The rapid changes in the world with the appearance of so many new items make it challenging for one to understand the message carried in the text. The term *discourse* is a general way to refer to all kinds of language in use, that is, language which has been produced as the result of an act of communication, whether written or spoken. While the correct grammar rules are central to the sentence-grammarians, discourse analysts take a different view of the rule-governed aspects of languages. They are more interested in observing naturally occurring languages with a view to discovering and describing regularities in language use rather than rules of grammar only. Discourse analysis (DA), as the term suggests, is the analysis of discourse, or in other words, the analysis of the language in use, which is taken by many as a methodology. Interestingly however, the term "language analysis" is not employed, perhaps, for the distinction that "language" is conventionally used to refer to the abstract side of language such as the phonological, morphological and syntactic system, but in discourse analysis, researchers are more interested in what actually happens in various kinds of human communication.

The main task of discourse analysis is to supply methods to interpret the message implied in the language use. Many approaches to discourse analysis have appeared as the result of the consistent investigation into the field, such as speech act theory and pragmatics, conversation analysis, discursive psychology, the ethnography of communication, interactional sociolinguistics, narrative analysis, cross-culture communication, language variation and critical discourse analysis. In this article, the author will discuss about some aspects of discourse approaches to ananlyse a speech made by Obama. What will be dealt with in this article is the very brief introduction to the above approaches, the analysis on the

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2002 speech "*Against the Iraq War*" of Illinois State senator Barrack Obama (the time when he was the presidential candidate).

2. The study

2.1. Background of the speech

Generally speaking, context plays an important part in analysing and interpreting a discourse. It is consequently necessary to give some brief information about the context of the speech.

Significant opposition to the Iraq War occurred worldwide, both before and during the initial 2003 invasion of Iraq by the United States, United Kingdom, and smaller contingents from other nations. Popular anti-war feeling is strong in these and other countries, including the US' allies in the conflict, and many have experienced huge protests totaling millions of participants.

In the 2008 U.S. presidential campaign, candidates Representative Ron Paul, then-Senator Barack Obama (Now the ex-president of the United States), Senator Chris Dodd, Hillary Clinton, Dennis Kucinich, and Mike Gravel were some of the most outspoken critics of the Iraq War. Ron Paul has said that "*The war in Iraq was sold to us with false information. The area is more dangerous now than when we entered it. We destroyed a regime hated by our direct enemies, the jihadists, and created thousands of new recruits for them. This war has cost more than 3,000 American lives, thousands of seriously wounded, and hundreds of billions of dollars*." Barack Obama (who went on to win the election) was not a senator at the time of the voting of the Iraq War Resolution, but has repeatedly voiced his disapproval of it both before and during his senatorship, saying at an anti war rally in Chicago on October 2, 2002: "*I am not opposed to all wars. I'm opposed to dumb wars.*" He also spoke of the "*undetermined length... undetermined cost, [and] undetermined consequences*" which even a successful war would bring.

Barack Hussein Obama (born August 4, 1961) was the 44th President of the United States. He is the first African American to hold the office. Obama previously served as a United States Senator from Illinois, from January 2005 until he resigned following his victory in the 2008 presidential election

Obama was an early opponent of the George W. Bush administration's 2003 invasion of Iraq. On October 2, 2002, the day President Bush and Congress agreed on the joint resolution authorizing the Iraq War, Obama addressed the first high-profile Chicago anti-Iraq War rally, and spoke out against the war. He addressed another anti-war rally in March 2003 and told the crowd that "it's not too late" to stop the war.

2.2. Theoretical Framework

This article draws on the critical discourse analytical theory. According to van Dijk (1998, p.352), Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA) studies the way social power abuse, dominance and inequality are enacted, reproduced and resisted by text and talk in the social

and political context. He identifies some of the dominant notions in CDA as "power", "dominance", "inequality", "hegemony", "ideology", "class", "gender", "race", "discrimination", among others which he labels as "macro level of analysis". However, he posits that micro-level of social order involves language use, discourse, verbal interaction and communication. CDA, thus, tries to bridge the 'gap' between the two micro and macro approaches.

Van Dijk asserts that CDA concentrates on the abuse of power especially on dominance, examining how power in discourse is abused by controlling people's beliefs and actions to suit the interests of dominant groups as against the interest of the powerless or the will others. He says that those who have power control discourse. According to him, social power is the result of access to and control of resources such as force, money, status, fame, knowledge and information. In the exercise of these powers, dominant groups through text and talk, may either directly or indirectly coerce, influence, control or even abuse the minds of people through persuasion and manipulation. Text and talk control people's minds, and, therefore, discourse may also indirectly influence people's actions through persuasion and manipulation. This means that those groups who control most influential discourse also have more chances to control the minds and actions of others. Such powers of dominant groups "may be integrated in laws, rules, norms, habits and even a quite general consensus" leading to 'hegemony' (Gramsci, 1971, cited in van Dijk, 1998, p.355). This theoretical framework is considered suitable and appropriate because the article seeks to establish how power, ideology, context control and mind control manifest themselves through the various linguistic choices Barrack Obama made.

2.3. Data analysis procedure

In an attempt to analyse the data presented, we used a qualitative content analysis approach, which is "a research method for the subjective interpretation of the context of the text data through the systematic classification process of coding and identifying themes and patterns" (Hsieh and Shannon, 2005, p.1278). It goes beyond merely counting words or extracting objective content from texts to examine meanings, themes and patterns that may be manifest or latent in a particular text. It allows researchers to understand social reality in a subjective but scientific manner. The data were critically scrutinised in order to identify the various lexico-grammatical items used by the speaker to oppose the war in Iraq in his speech. In doing this, attention to grammar and vocabulary was paid while using critical discourse analysis for a macro-level analysis (van Dijk, 1998) to observe how power, ideology, context control and mind control manifest in the speeches.

2.4. Data analysis and discussion

2.4.1. Pronoun choice

According to Fairclough (2000), identified use of personal pronouns is considered to be significant in discourse analysis. Therefore, a detailed examination of all personal

pronoun choices is likely to be a fruitful area of enquiry, in assessing how personal reference (including speaker and addressees) is manifested and what that might imply about the way the relationship between speaker and audience is perceived. In this part, we will take account of how Mr. President uses personal pronouns, especially first person pronouns "**I**", "**we**", and second person pronoun "**you**". Moreover, how it tells us about his ideologies will also be under consideration.

It is necessary to note that the analysis includes the designation "personal pronouns" all of the pronouns which Crystal (1996, p.148) and Quirk (1985, p.346) categorize as the "central pronouns", that is the personal, possessive and reflexive pronouns. And they have distinctions of persons: the first person refers to the speaker (I), or to the speaker and one or more others (we); the second person refers to the person (s) addressed (you); the third person refers to the one or more other persons or things (he/she/it, they). Interpretation of possible meanings in each case would be considered at the stage of analysis. The personal pronouns are set out in Table 2.1 below.

Table 2.1 Personal pronouns

Person	Personal		Possessive		Reflexive	
	Singular	*Plural*	*Singular*	*Plural*	*Singular*	*Plural*
First	I, me	we, us	my, mine	our, ours	myself	ourselves
Second	you	you	your, yours	your, yours	yourself	yourselves
Third	he, him, she, her, it	they, them	his, her, hers, its	their, theirs	him-/ her-/itself	themselves

In specific, we wish to present our findings about the different pronouns that Obama chose. Results have been calculated according to Obama's choice in each case and as a proportion of total pronouns used overall. The choices for all persons are therefore examined in some detail in the following subsections.

Table 2.2. Barrack Obama's use of personal pronouns (including possessive and reflexive): in proportions to total pronouns used

Total	First person		Second person		Third person	
	Number	**%**	**Number**	**%**	**Number**	**%**
62	30	48.4%	7	11.3%	25	40.3%

This table shows that Senator Obama selected a great number of different pronouns. However, the noticeable thing is that his choices for first person and third person pronouns make up a great proportion.

We can see clearly that personal pronouns have a high occurrence in the speech and they successfully express the speaker's opinion.

First person singular "I" was utilized to enhance the image of his own point of view or his individual power. It may also suggest self-reliance and infallibility. Moreover, when the

speaker uses the first person plural "we", inclusively, the closeness or distance between the speaker and the audience is forged. In other cases, "we" is exclusive of addressee. Obama not only stood alone, he had his allies. They were the people who opposed the war in Iraq.

Besides, Mr. Obama established a good rapport with the audience by frequently referring to them, called "you".

2.4.2. Lexicalization

2.4.2.1. Lexical repetition

It is believed that investigation of degrees of lexical repetition might show the speaker's attitude and ideology to specific topics and hence his assumptions about his particular audience's concerns. In this part, we are going to answer the question how his ideology is represented by his repeating vocabulary, including their derivates.

Orders of frequency

All lexical repetitions identified in the speech were totaled for each item. The individual items chosen for repetition together with their frequency of occurrence were listed in Table 2.3. The table indicates that the words used most frequently are *war, oppose, fight, president.* Among them, **war** ranks first with 20 times of occurrences in the text.

Table 2.3. Lexical items in order of frequency

Lexical repetition		Number of times used
Word(s)	**Word's derivative/combination**	
1. war	civil war, dumb war	20
2. oppose	opposed	14
3. fight	fought	10
4. Iraq	Iraqi	5
5. President		5
6. arm	army	5
7. terrorist	terrorist(s)/terror/ terrorism	5
8. live	live(-s)	4
9. Al-Qaeda		4
10. battle	battle(-s)	4
11. support	supported	4
12. economy	economic/ economy(-ies)	4
13. sacrifice		3
14. undetermined		3
15. world		3
16. man		3

There is no doubt that in an important political speech of a presidential candidate practically each word is carefully chosen so as to serve the purpose of the speaker. The fact is that he prepared and delivered an anti-war speech at an anti-war rally attended by anti war people. In my opinion, he didn't exactly stick his neck out here. We can only speculate what his actions would have been had he actually been a member of the senate, had to sit in on intelligence briefings, and had to cast a vote on behalf of the people of Illinois regarding the authorization of military action against Sadam Hussein. And one of those "present" votes he's so fond of casting would not have been acceptable in that case.

Barack's anti war position in 2002 was, in effect, his "political lottery ticket." It didn't cost him anything at the time. He didn't have anything to lose by taking that position. And if he happened to be right, the payoff would be huge for his future political career.

Repetition of key words and phrases

As the result of the investigation implies, Barrack Obama takes his great interest in *war* (20 times) or its related terms such as *oppose* (14 times), *fight* (10 times). To begin with, he emphasizes his opinions on Iraq war by reiterating this term.

*"I stand before you as someone who is not opposed to **war** in all circumstances. The Civil **War** was one of the bloodiest in history, and yet it was only through the crucible of the sword, the sacrifice of multitudes, that we could begin to perfect this union and drive the scourge of slavery from our soil.*

*I don't oppose all **wars**. My grandfather signed up for a **war** the day after Pearl Harbor was bombed, fought in Patton's army. He fought in the name of a larger freedom, part of that arsenal of democracy that triumphed over evil."*

On the other hand, he shows his point against the war, but not all the war, only the dumb war. Obviously, the fact that he uses repeatedly such words *dumb war, rash war* which may result in a contrast.

"I don't oppose all wars. What I am opposed to is a dumb war. What I am opposed to is a rash war.

That's what I'm opposed to. A dumb war. A rash war. A war based not on reason but on passion, not on principle but on politics."

The repetition of *dumb war* and *rash war* helps strongly confirm his point of view against the war in Iraq.

Furthermore, with the repetition of the word "*fight*", Obama once again bring us to the meaning of the war. The word "*fight*" and questions to Mr. Bush is considered as a defiance to Mr. President which helps visualize the nonsense actions for the nation.

*"You want a **fight**, President Bush? Let's finish the **fight** with Bin Laden and al-Qaeda, through effective, coordinated intelligence, and a shutting down of the financial networks that support terrorism, and a homeland security program that involves more than color-coded warnings.*

*You want a **fight**, President Bush? Let's fight to make sure that...we vigorously enforce a nonproliferation treaty, and that former enemies and current allies like Russia safeguard*

and ultimately eliminate their stores of nuclear material, and that nations like Pakistan and India never use the terrible weapons already in their possession, and that the arms merchants in our own country stop feeding the countless wars that rage across the globe.

*You want a **fight**, President Bush? Let's fight to make sure our so-called allies in the Middle East, the Saudis and the Egyptians, stop oppressing their own people, and suppressing dissent, and tolerating corruption and inequality, and mismanaging their economies so that their youth grow up without education, without prospects, without hope, the ready recruits of terrorist cells."*

In short, the repetition of key words and phrases has excellently manifested Obama's idea of opposing the war in Iraq.

2.4.2.2. Negative lexicalization

It is assumed that ideological discourse is generally organized by a general strategy of positive self-presentation and negative other- presentation. This strategy may generally operate in such a way that our good things are emphasized and our bad things are de-emphasized, and the opposite for the others - whose bad things will be enhanced, and whose good things will be hidden or forgotten. In other words, there are many discursive strategies to enhance our good things or mitigate their bad things, and hence to make discourse ideologically. This general polarizing principle when applied to discourse affects all levels, especially lexicon. Therefore, we wish to discover how the negative properties of a dumb war are enhanced lexically in the speech.

Negative lexicalization has successfully portrayed a negative picture of a dumb war. The Senator selected particularly negative words to describe a rash war such as **political hacks** like Karl Rove to distract us from a rise in the uninsured. *"A dumb war. A rash war. A war based **not on reason but on passion**, **not on principle but on politics**, What I am opposed to is **the cynical attempt** by Richard Perle and Paul Wolfowitz, I know that an invasion of Iraq **without a clear rationale** and **without strong international support** will only fan the flames of the Middle East. They are additionally characterized to be unreasonale, meaningless, political, unjust and oppressive.*

*You want a fight, President Bush? Let's fight to make sure our so-called allies in the Middle East, the Saudis and the Egyptians, stop **oppressing** their own people, and **suppressing** dissent, and **tolerating corruption and inequality**, and **mismanaging their economies** so that their youth grow up **without education, without prospects, without hope, the ready recruits of terrorist cells…** The consequences of war are **dire, the sacrifices immeasurable**."*

He also stresses possible consequences of war by using these terms: oppressing, suppressing, dire, sacrifices immeasurable, etc. It serves to build up tension and intensify negative associations with respect to a war.

We can infer that positive self-presentation and negative other- presentation are one of the most successful strategies utilized in the speech. It is interesting to note that Mr. Obama successfully portrayed a passive picture of a dumb war. Its bad consequences are enhanced

with the employment of negative terms. And from the language he used, an image of a responsible and peace – loving man was also illustrated.

3. Conclusion

In this article, the author has analysed a speech made by Mr. Obama in which he mainly focused on his opinion on the war in Iraq. From that, we can see the way he used the language to demonstrate his opponency to a thumb war.

The chief objective of the study was to find out which linguistic resources were used to oppose the war in Iraq by Obama in his speech. The study was informed by van Dijk's (1998) concept of Critical Discourse Analysis.

The study found that vocabulary items, phrases, clauses and sentence structures constituted the linguistic resources that were used to demonstrate his opponency to a thumb war were concerned. The vocabulary items used to oppose the war on Iraq were dominantly verbs and nouns. Pronounce choice helps to enhance the image of his own point of view or his individual power as well as the closeness and good rapport among the speaker and his audience.

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USING SONGS TO TEACH ENGLISH GRAMMAR TO NON-ENGLISH MAJORED FRESHMEN

Le Thi Huong C[1]

Abstract: *The purpose of this action research was to determine the effectiveness of English songs in teaching English grammar for the first year non-English majored students at Hong Duc university. Preliminary investigation illustrated that non-English majored freshmen had difficulties in learning English grammar. Especially, they lost their interest in most grammar lessons. The researcher integrated songs into grammar lessons to motivate the students and to create relaxing learning atmosphere. Class observations and a survey questionnaire were conducted to find out students' reaction to this application. A final grammar test was also carried out to evaluate students' progress.*

Keywords: *Song, grammar, freshmen.*

1. Introduction

Like ice and fire, both grammar and songs are divergent in nature: one is full of regularities and even ice-cold boredom, while the other is full of fire - like emotions and inspirational melodies that enchant one (Tsai & Lin, 2001, p.372). Nevertheless, the marrying of these two radically different elements into the family of language instruction has been proved successfully. Millington (2011) claims that the integration of English songs in the class can be "a nice break from following a set curriculum" (p. 134). It is simply because it creates an innovative learning atmosphere which is quite different from "the routine of leaning English from textbook activities" (Millington, 2011, p.134). Additionally, songs may replace the "monotonous mood" in each classroom, especially in English grammar class (Lo & Li, 1998, p.12).

According to Saricoban and Metin (2000), utilizing songs in class environment not only amuses students but also helps them feel relaxed and get rid of their negative attitudes towards learning a foreign language. He also points out that if selected properly and adopted carefully, a teacher should benefit from songs when teaching grammar:

...the use of songs in language classrooms provides many advantages. They entertain and relax the learners while they are learning and practicing a structure, and they often eliminate the students' negative attitudes towards learning. Through providing authenticity and context they make the grammar points more understandable and easy... (Saricoban & Metin, 2000).

Through class observation and informal interview with non-English majored freshmen at Hong Duc university, the researcher could realize that these students had difficulties in remembering English grammar knowledge and doing its exercises. They lost their interest in studying English grammar. Actually, "the more students love their language skills, the more

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language ability they are able to acquire" (Edge, 1993, p.106). As a consequence, applying songs into the class might be the useful way in order to help the first year non-English majored students at Hong Duc university improve their English language ability in general and English grammar knowledge in specific.

2. Research methodology

2.1. Participants

Forty-two non-English majored freshmen at Hong Duc university were selected to participate in the study. These students were at the age of 18-20. Observations showed that they had the same difficulty in learning English grammar in the class. Specifically, they lost their interest in grammar classes. Therefore, they could not do grammar exercises well and make progress in learning English grammar in specific and English language in general.

2.2. Instruments

The study adopted both qualitative and quantitative approaches to explore the effectiveness of using songs in teaching English grammar in the class. To collect data for the action research, three instruments were employed: class observation, a grammar test and a survey questionnaire at the end of the semester.

2.3. Procedures

At the first week of the semester, a preliminary investigation through observation and informal interviews with students was carried out to comprehend the students' difficulty and needs in studying English grammar in specific and English skills in general. The application of songs into teaching grammatical contents was conducted from week 2 through week 11. In week 2, week 6 and week 11, the research observant observed both the whole class and the individuals and noted down striking points to support data collection. Besides, at the end of the semester, a survey questionnaire was delivered to the students to get their response to teaching English grammar with song integration and identify students' attitudes and thoughts towards this teaching application. Concurrently, a grammar test was also designed and administered to find out if the students could make progress in learning English grammar in specific and English language in general.

3. Integrating songs in teaching English grammar

The use of English songs in the class is not a new approach to the foreign language teachers. There appear a number of successful researchers studying on it in Vietnam as well as all over the world, such as Griffe (1992), Keskin (2011), Linse (2005), Mora (2000), Sevik (2012), Oanh (2011), etc. However, at the place the researcher carried out action research - Hong Duc university, there appeared no official research on this issue. As a consequence, from the findings of the research mentioned above and from the understanding of the students' learning needs and their difficulty in learning English grammar, the researcher was inspired to apply English songs into each lesson taught in the class.

3.1. Four steps of using songs to teach English grammar

To have successful teaching grammar classes with the application of English songs, Brinton (1991, p. 459) suggested that the teacher had better follow four steps of using music in general and English songs in specific:

Pre-use or getting into media stage: Teacher selects grammatical points and song lyrics and design appropriate tasks or exercises.

Input or working from media stage: Teacher presents/elicits designated grammatical points.

Focus or working with media stage: Teacher plays the song and students are asked to do the exercise while listening to the tapes.

Transfer or working out of media stage: Teacher checks the answers and makes necessary explanation. Class discussion follows. Students are encouraged to ask questions and asked to do follow-up assignment by using what the media has just presented.

3.2. Integrating songs in teaching English grammar for the first year non-English majors at Hong Duc university

English course for non-English majored freshmen during 10 weeks was designed via A2 of CEFR orientation (The Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: Learning, teaching, assessment). Main textbook used in the class was the book "English File-Elementary" by Oxenden, Seligson & Latham-Koenig (2004). The lyrics of English songs were utilized to design grammar exercises via grammar contents in each unit and replace some textbook exercises which the students might finish at home. Those exercises could be gap-filling, multiple choices, matching, etc. In every activity in the class, students were given handouts including those exercises and then the teacher asked them to complete while listening to the song. These activities might be the same as activities in every text book, but they might be less formal and especially less boring.

For example, an activity is as follows:

Listen to the song and fill in the blank with the appropriate verb form:

…We____ to a party and everyone____ to see this beautiful lady that's walking around with me. And then she___ me, "___ you___ all right?". And I____, "Yes, I___ wonderful tonight.". I____ wonderful because I___ the love light in your eyes. And the wonder of it all is that you just ___ ___ how much I___ you…

(adapted from the song "Wonderful tonight" - Eric Clapton)

Table 1. Key grammar contents together with English songs via each unit

Unit	Grammar contents	English songs integrated - Artists
1	Verb "be" and pronouns	How can I tell her? - Lobo
2	Adjectives	What a wonderful world - Louis Armstrong
3	Present simple tense	Wonderful tonight - Eric Clapton
4	Prepositions	Donna donna - Julie Rogers

5	Present continuous tense	Lemon tree - Fool's Garden
6	Like + (verb + -ing)	The lazy song - Bruno Mars
7	Past simple tense	Bang bang - Nancy Sinatra
8	Countable/ uncountable nouns	Better man - Robbie Williams
9	Superlative adjectives	The most wonderful time of the year - Andy Williams
10	Present perfect tense	I still haven't found what I'm looking for - U2

4. Results and discussion

The researcher carried out three classroom observations and asked a colleague at the foreign language department for assistance. During the observations, the researcher noted down and categorized via students' performance, attitude and participation towards applying songs in each grammar lesson. The observant observed a common thing that grammar lessons integrating songs were very fun and exciting. Almost students were very eager to class activities and could finish their grammar exercises very easily and quickly. Obviously, grammar lessons applying songs created a relaxing studying atmosphere which was really different from tiring and stressful atmosphere in the class when they had to do monotonous grammar exercises. This brought advantageous things for both the teacher and the students. Baird (2001) points out that the atmosphere in the class is a crucial factor for the students' learning. It is simply because the students only learn better if they engage with it and feel like with it.

Besides, the survey questionnaire was also delivered to the students at the end of the semester in order to find out the reaction of non-English majored freshmen to teaching English grammar through songs. The questionnaire included a five-point Likert type scale with five options, namely: 'strongly agree', 'agree', 'undecided', 'disagree' and 'strongly disagree'.

Table 2. Students' evaluation of the use of songs in teaching English grammar

No.	Statements	Options (N=42)									
		Strongly agree		Agree		Undecided		Disagree		Strongly disagree	
		N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
1	Studying English grammar through songs is very useful and interesting	26	61.9	13	31	3	7.1	--	--	--	----
2	Studying English grammar through songs helps me foster English skills such as, listening, speaking, writing, reading skills.	16	38	20	47.7	5	11.9	1	2.4	--	----

3	Studying English grammar through songs help me understand and remember grammar knowledge better	30	71.4	11	26.2	--	-----	1	2.4	--	----
4	I can enhance my English vocabulary through learning English grammar with songs	19	45.2	13	31	10	23.8	--	---	--	----
5	I think songs should be used more often in grammar lessons	32	76.2	5	11.9	5	11.9	--	---	--	----

As can be seen from the table, students' reaction to utilizing songs in teaching English grammar was explored by means of five statements. The analysis of the results for the first statement revealed that nearly all of the participating students (92.9%) believed that studying English grammar through songs was really useful and interesting to them. 7.1% declared that they were undecided, and none disagreed with the first statement. Results for the second statement indicated that a great majority of non-English majored freshmen (85.7%) believed that songs could help them foster other English skills, such as: listening, speaking, writing, reading skills. 11.9% stated that they were undecided, and one participant disagreed with statement two. Results for the third statement showed that nearly all of the participating freshmen (97.6%) agreed that songs could assist them to understand and remember grammatical contents better. One participant disagreed with statement three. To statement four, 76.2% pointed out that their English vocabulary could be enhanced through learning with songs. However, 23.8% still did not give their decision on this statement. Finally, statement five indicated that 88.1% of non-English major freshmen thought that songs should be used more often in grammar lessons and five other students did not give their decision on this.

Finally, results from the grammar test at the end of the semester also demonstrated noticeable features. Table three below indicated that there were 30 students getting good and very good marks (from mark 7-10/10), which accounted for 71.4% per total of students in the class. 23.8% of non-English majored students achieved average marks (from mark 5-6/10). There were just two students receiving weak marks (below mark 5/10). This showed that nearly all of the students in the class could make progress in learning English grammar through songs. Obviously, they were motivated in grammar lessons; therefore, they studied better and got better results.

Table 3. Final test results

No.	Rank via marks	No. of students	Percentage
1	Good, very good (from mark 7-10/10)	30	71.4
2	Average (from mark 5-6/10)	10	23.8
3	Weak (below mark 5/10)	2	4.8

5. Limitations and recommendations

Although English songs may bring a lot of benefits for the freshmen to improve their English grammar knowledge in specific and English skills in general, there are some issues that need to be considered. It is really necessary for the teachers to care about choosing suitable songs for their classes. "The language, vocabulary, and sentence structure of some songs" may not be similar to what English is used in real life (Richards, 1969, p.163). For instance, the song, Jack Be Nimble, cannot probably assist the learners when listening to the song and doing exercises related to the uses of "be" verb: *"Jack be nimble, Jack be quick, Jack jump over the candlestick...."* (Richards, 1969, p.164).

In addition, when using English songs to teach in the class, students may just focus on listening to music and forget what being asked to do. Their mind may follow the melodious rhythm of the song and then they do not know exactly what the content of the song is to answer questions related to main ideas or what the needed words are to fill in the blanks, for example. To avoid this, before each activity the teacher had better give very clear instructions to help the students figure out what they are being asked to do.

"What can the language teacher do with a song in a lesson?" is always a question that all teachers may have when they intend to apply English songs into their class. Actually, automatic, usual and simple answer to this question could be: "A word-gap fill". However, a song can do much more than that. When applying a song into grammar lessons, the teacher can ask the students to : 1. talk about the lyrics, 2. translate songs, 3. write dialogues using the words of a song, 4. teach vocabulary, 5. teach culture, 6. do role-play (as people in the songs), 7. dictate a song, 8. practice pronunciation, intonation, and stress, 9. do surveys, make hit lists, 10. use songs and music to make a social environment, form a feeling of community, dance, make friends, 11. use songs and music to set or change an atmosphere or mood, as ´background furnishing', 12. practice selective listening comprehension, 13. use a song for gap-fill, cloze, or for correction, 14. have fun, 15. do choral repetition, 16. integrate songs into project work, etc (Murphey, 1992, p.9-10)

Moreover, on the internet, there are a number of free websites suggesting a lot of names of songs and types of exercises in teaching grammar, vocabulary, listening skills, speaking skills, etc. The teacher can search from them and adapt to match with students' learning needs in every English class. Some websites may be:

www.tefltunes.com	www.esolcourses.com
www.isabelperez.com	busyteacher.org
www.songsforteaching.com	bussongs.com

6. Conclusion

It cannot be denied that using songs in English class might bring a lot of benefits for the students. It provided a really relaxing atmosphere and helped the students feel eager with the lesson. The students were motivated by English songs. They could practice English skills without stress, boredom or any negative attitudes. Actually, anxiety, involved in negative

feelings: upset, frustration, tension, fear and self-doubt may impede learners' language learning (Larsen-Freeman, 2000). The more students enjoy their language learning, the more they make progress in it. Consequently, grammar classes may become more interesting and attractive, which is different from traditional class. However, to have a successful grammar class, the teacher not only adopts a variety of available songs in the music market but also adapts them to suit with the teaching situation and students' demand.

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UTILIZATION OF PROJECT – BASED LEARNING IN TEACHING ENGLISH SPEAKING SKILL FOR ENGLISH MAJORS AT HONG DUC UNIVERSITY

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Abstract: *This paper reports the results of an action research on implementing project work in teaching English speaking skill for the second-year English majors at Hong Duc university. It aimed to find out whether Project-Based Learning (PBL) could improve second year English majors' speaking skill or not, what speaking aspects were improved through PBL and how students' reaction to the application of PBL in teaching English speaking skill was. To collect the data, classroom observation was done for six groups, a survey questionnaire was employed at the end of the course and speaking assessment was conducted two times at the beginning and the end of the semester. The findings showed that PBL could improve the second-year English majors' speaking skill.*

Keywords: *Project-Based learning, project, project work, English speaking skill.*

1. Introduction

Speaking skill is an essential process for learning English. Performances through speaking are an indicator of success in careers and family in life (Nunan, 2002). Speaking is an interactive process of constructing meaning that involves producing, receiving and processing information (Brown, 1994; Burn & Joyce, 1997 as stated in Florez (1999)). Speaking enables students to receive information from people through their conversation, after which they should understand the information and respond to it or communicate their understanding of the information.

At Faculty of Foreign Languages (FFL), Hong Duc university (HDU), English speaking skill is taught for English majored students as a compulsory course in the program of Bachelor of Arts (BA) in English. Speaking course outcomes are based on the Decision 1400-QD-TTg by the Prime Minister approving the Project of foreign language teaching and learning in the national system for the 2008-2020 period. Within the context of this Decision, The Vienamese Ministry of Education and Training has issued the Common Framework of Levels of Foreign Language Proficiency, based on the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: Learning, Teaching, and Assessment (CEFR). This Framework includes 6 levels equivalent to those of CEFR. Accordingly, the foreign language education curriculum at HDU defines that the second-year English majored students should reach Level 3 (B1 CEFR). Standard of competence for second year English majors stipulates that in speaking skill students should be able to express themselves in familiar contexts; the meaning of simple conversation for interpersonal and transactional

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purposes, in the formal and informal situations to communicate with the nearest environment and /or in academic context. It means that the students must be able to speak to express what they want to show to others.

To investigate the second-year English majored students' proficiency in spoken English, the researcher conducted a preliminary study of 29 second-year English majors of FFL at HDU. The researcher found that the students have several problems in speaking such as reluctance, shyness, fear of committing oral mistakes. Besides, the students show poor speaking ability and they lack peers or social circles with whom they can explore their speaking potentials.

The researcher considers the use of PBL as an appropriate strategy to help the students to improve their speaking skill. PBL refers to a method allowing "students to design, plan, and carry out an extended project that produces a publicly exhibited output such as a product, publication, or presentation" (Patton, 2012, p.13). Through PBL, the learners are engaged in purposeful communication to complete authentic activities (project-work), so that they have the opportunity to use the language in a relatively natural context (Haines, 1989, as cited in Fragoulis, 2009) and participate in meaningful activities which require authentic language use (Fragoulis, 2009). PBL is different from traditional instruction in which it emphasizes learning through student-centered, interdisciplinary, and integrated activities in real world situations (Solomon, 2003; Willie, 2001 as quoted by Poonpon, 2011). Studies indicate that PBL: (a) has a positive effect on student's content knowledge and the development of skills such as collaboration, critical thinking, and problem solving; (b) benefits students by increasing their motivation and engagement; and (c) is challenging for teachers to implement, leading to the conclusion that teachers need support in order to plan and enact PBL effectively while students need support including help setting up and directing initial inquiry, organizing their time to complete tasks, and integrating technology into projects in meaningful ways (Brush & Saye, 2008; Krajcik, et al., 1998 as quoted in Summary of Research on Project-based Learning (2009)).

The success of PBL implementation has been reported by Gaer (1998) who taught speaking skill to a population of Southeast Asian refugees who had been in their beginning-level ESOL (English for Speaker of Other Language) classes. Their speaking skill is improved through PBL.

Viewing the success of PBL implementation to Asian refugees in the United States by Gaer, this study tried to apply PBL in Vietnamese context, especially to second year English majors of FFL at HDU. This study attempted to find out whether PBL could improve the students' speaking skill or not, what speaking aspects were improved. The scope of this study exposed the use of PBL in improving second year English majors' speaking skill.

2. Theoretical foundations for Project-Based Learning

Project is defined as complex tasks based on problems encountered by students, conducted in certain periods of time and culminated in realistic products that might be in

form of presentation, exhibition, publication, etc. (Thomas, 2000). The project is supposed to be long-term, requires teamwork among students, and results in a substantial final product (Thompson & Beak, 2007, as cited in Cruz & Vik, 2007). It means not every task can be considered as project. According to Patton (2012), in PBL students are the ones designing the project and planning what need to do to carry it out. From those statements, it can be inferred that PBL is a method in which the students are learning through a project that is decided by themselves with the help from teachers so that they can be actively engaged in the learning process.

There are some stages of PBL implementation according to Kriwas (1999, as cited in Bell, 2010). The first is speculation in which teachers provide the choice of project topics initially based on curriculum and discuss them with the students. In this stage, teachers and students speculate possibilities that will lead to the projects smoothly (Bell, 2010). However, for the beginner or lower level students, teachers can choose the project by themselves but still consider the students' problem. This was because it was assumed that "the students in beginner or lower level do not have the language or confidence to develop project themes" (Gaer, 1998) so that the teachers need to lead them first before they can decide by themselves.

The second stage is designing the project activities, referring to organizing the structure of a project activity that includes group formation, role assigning, concerning methodology decision, information source, etc. (Bell, 2010).

The third is conducting the project activities in which the students work what had been planned and designed in the previous stage. At this stage, the students gather information, discuss it with their group member, consult problems encountered in their work with the teachers, and exhibit their final products that might be in form of presentation, performance, product, publication, etc. to wider community such as other classes, teachers, foreigners, etc.

The last stage is evaluation referring to "the assessment of activities from the participants and discussion about whether the initial aims and goals have been achieved, implementation of the process, and final products" (Brinia, 2006, as cited in Fragoulis, 2009, p.115). Bell (2010) also says that the evaluation, towards the project organization, problems encountered during the process of working it, students attitudes toward it, etc., also includes evaluation from others and self-evaluation.

Fragoulis (2009) and Bell (2010) state that there are many benefits of implementing PBL in teaching English as Foreign Language.

1. PBL gives contextual and meaningful learning for students
2. PBL can create optimal environment to practice speaking English.
3. PBL can also make students actively engage in project learning
4. PBL enhances the students' interest, motivation, engagement, and enjoyment.
5. PBL promotes social learning that can enhance collaborative skills
6. PBL can give an optimal opportunity to improve students' language skill

3. Research methodology

3.1. Participants

This study was conducted at Faculty of Foreign Languages, Hong Duc university. The participants of this study were 29 second year English majors from K18 - teacher training course, academic course 2015-2019 of FFL at HDU. The students, between 18 and 20 years old, come from different districts in Thanh Hoa province and have learned English for at least 7 years.

3.2. Instruments

To collect the data, classroom observations, a survey questionnaire and speaking assessment were employed. As for speaking assessment, two oral tests were conducted at the beginning and the end of the course. A question bank was designed via Level 3 (B1 CEFR) of Language Proficiency Framework for Vietnam for both oral tests in order to assess second year English majors' speaking competence before and after the course. Both speaking tests showed how good students' spoken English was as they took part in conversation by asking/ answering questions and talking, for example, about their likes and dislikes. These tests were also conducted face to face with one or two other candidates and two examiners. Time allowance was 10-12 minutes per pair of candidates.

The speaking assessment sheet used contains four aspects of speaking skill, namely Grammar and Vocabulary, Discourse Management, Pronunciation, Interactive Communication (adapted from: Assessing Speaking Performance - Level 3 (B1 CEFR) of the Language Proficiency Framework for Vietnam).

Preliminary Assessment Scales are divided into six bands from 0 to 5, with 0 being the lowest and 5 the highest. Descriptors for each criterion are provided for bands 1, 3 and 5 and indicate what a candidate is expected to demonstrate at each band.

Table 1. Assessing Speaking Performance - Level 3 (B1 CEFR)

Level 3	Grammar and Vocabulary	Discourse Management	Pronunciation	Interactive Communication
5	Shows a good degree of control of simple grammatical forms, and attempt some complex grammatical forms. Uses a range of appropriate vocabulary to give and exchange views on familiar topics	Produces extended stretches of language despite some hesitation. Contributions are relevant despite some repetition. Uses a range of cohesive devices	Is intelligible Intonation is generally appropriate. Sentence and word stress is generally accurately placed. Individual sounds are generally articulated clearly.	Initiates and responds appropriately. Maintains and develops the interaction and negotiates towards an outcome with very little support.

4	Performance shares features of Band 3 and 5.			
3	Shows a good degree of control of simple grammatical forms. Uses a range of appropriate vocabulary when talking about familiar topics.	Produces responses which are extended beyond short phrases, despite hesitation. Contributions are mostly relevant, but there may be some repetition. Uses basic cohesive devices.	Is mostly intelligible, and has some control of phonological features at both utterance and word levels.	Initiates and responds appropriately. Keep the interaction going with very little support.
2	Performance shares features of Band 1 and 3.			
1	Shows sufficient control of simple grammatical forms. Uses a limited range of appropriate vocabulary to talk about familiar topics	Produces responses which are characterized by short phrases and frequent hesitation. Repeat information or digresses from the topic	Is mostly intelligible, despite limited control of phonological features.	Maintains simple exchanges, despite some difficulty. Requires prompting and support.
0	Performance below Band 1			

3.3. Procedures

This research used classroom action research design in which with the researcher acted as the teacher who has in-depth knowledge about the said class. The researcher also invited one of her colleagues as an outside researcher.

At the first week of the semester, preliminary investigation and a pre test were conducted to diagnose the learner level of English speaking skill. From week 2 to week 11, the intervention program was delivered. At the final week of the semester, a post test was delivered was administered to find out whether there was any improvement in students' English speaking skill. Concurrent with pre and post tests, classroom observations were employed during the intervention. Besides, at the end of the semester, a survey questionnaire was delivered to the students to get their response to implementing PBL in teaching English speaking skill and identify students' attitudes and thoughts towards this teaching application.

3.4. Intervention program

The whole program took place during 10 weeks excluding the first and last week reserved for the tests and evaluation. The project, namely Travel Guide Project based on 8 topics in the

text book entitled "Let's talk 2" by Leo Jones, Cambridge University Press 2002 used for second-year English majors' speaking classes. Basically, the researcher still used the type of project work commonly employed at the department, *group investigation and presentation*, but it was innovation, considering the names, the organization of groups, and some additional activities during the implementation of the project. The purpose of these change was to create a more authentic situation and motivate students with curiosity and fun in their learning.

The class was divided into six groups at random and each acted as a Travel company in a certain country. Every week, for each given topic in their textbook, these groups had to find out information about their country to create an assignment. In week 10 and 11, all groups finished their project and presented to the whole class in 30 minutes in order to introduce the tourists about aspects of their country that tourists would visit. Group members would act as tourist guides from certain travel companies; and the teacher and other groups would act as tourists. For instance, group 1 acted as a Travel company in Japan, in week 2 about "Food and cooking", they had to investigate about foods, cooking techniques, restaurants meals of their country and write an assignment. From week 3 to week 9, they continued to carry out steps like that to complete their project on the given topics and presented in week 10 and 11 to the whole class.

Table 2. Intervention program

Weeks	Topics of project	Objectives
1.	Preliminary investigation/pre test	
2.	Food and cooking	Students will be able to talk about foods, cooking techniques, restaurants meals
3.	Working for a living	Students will be able to talk about jobs they likes and dislikes, job experiences, jobs and what's important in a job.
4.	Transportation and travel	Students will be able to talk about means of transport, traffic and transportation problems in Vietnam
5.	The environment	Students will be able to talk about animals and plants; environmental problems and solutions
6.	Entertainment	Students will be able to talk about favorite activities; music and movies
7.	City life	Students will be able to talk about comparing city and country life, safety habits and tips
8.	Vacation time	Students will be able to talk about perfect vacations; tourist attractions; different ways to travel.
9.	Sports and games	Students will be able to talk about kinds of sports; advantages and disadvantages of playing sports and games
10.	Presentation/ classroom observation	
11.	Presentation/ classroom observation	
12.	Post test/ a questionnaire	

3.5. Results and discussions

The students' speaking skill improvement is indicated by the increase of the number of the students in the highest criteria of speaking aspects (Grammar and Vocabulary, Discourse Management, Pronunciation, Interactive Communication) through oral tests. Each aspect is scaled from one until five. The lowest criterion is one and the highest one is five (to know the meaning of each criterion, see Table 1). The following table summarizes the increase of the student number from low criteria of speaking aspects to the higher ones.

Table 3. The Increase of the English majors numbers in Assessing Speaking Performance

Aspect	Criteria									
	Pre-test					Post-test				
	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
Grammar and Vocabulary (G&V)	4	4	6	5	10	1	1	6	7	14
Discourse Management (DM)	6	6	7	7	3	1	1	6	7	14
Pronunciation (P)	6	5	5	7	6	3	2	4	10	10
Interactive Communication (IC)	2	4	11	3	9	1	1	3	5	19

The table above reveals that the number of the students in the highest criteria of speaking aspects increases. This results corroborates Gaer's study (1998) about PBL that improved students' speaking skill. The results of the speaking assessments showed that of all the four aspects, Discourse Management and Interactive Communication were the most significant aspects improved. The improvement of the students' speaking aspects was indicated by the increase of the number of the students to the highest criteria of both aspects (see Table 3 above). Before given PBL treatments, some of the students were quite poor in DM and IC. After the treatments, most of them were able to be good in DM and IC. It was proved by the increase of the number of the students in DM 5. Initially in the Pre-test, of 29 students, only 3 ones gained band 5. After the treatments, in Post-test it became 14 students. A similar pattern was also repeated in IC 5 with the figure for students getting the highest band grew from 9 (in pre test) to 19 (in post test). As for vocabulary and grammar aspect, the students' vocabulary was also improved quite significantly. It was proven by the increase of the number of the students in the highest criteria of vocabulary aspect. Initially, only 10 students spoke English with a range of appropriate words and good degree of controlling simple and complex grammatical form (G&V5). After PBL treatments, it becomes 14 students. The pronunciation aspect was also improved. However, compared with the other aspects, it seemed to improve less significantly. These findings corroborate the theory saying that PBL can give an optimal opportunity to improve students' language skill (Levine, 2004, as cited in Fragoulis, 2009).

Besides, the classroom observation was conducted with the six groups of project and the researcher asked a colleague at FFL for assistance. During the observations, the researcher noted down and categorized via students' performance, attitude and

participation towards applying PBL via students' presentation about their project in week 10 and 11. The result shows that all of the groups prepared the project carefully; the presentation went smoothly, clearly and logically. Material was suitable to all students via their interest and enthusiasm. Most of the students showed positive attitude and good personal characteristic (patience in eliciting responses, clarity, tone, and audibility of voice). The observant also observed a common thing that in students-students interaction, most of the students acted as attentive and active communicators. That proved project work really had good influence on students. Obviously, the teachers had made great effort to motivate students in English speaking classes. PBL really brought advantageous things for both the teacher and the students.

Finally, the survey questionnaire was also delivered to the students at the end of the semester in order to find out the reaction of second-year English majors to implementing PBL in teaching English speaking skill. The survey consisted of three statements and two closed questions aimed at surveying students' evaluation of their project and the benefits of PBL in learning English speaking skill. The following tables show the results of the survey.

Table 4. Students' evaluation of the project work

No.	Statements	A	B	C	D	E
1.	*I am now quite familiar with project work in learning and know how to carry out such a project*	(3) 10.3%	(21) 72.4%	(3) 10.3%	(2) 6.9%	(0) 0%
2.	*After finishing the project, I feel more interested in English speaking skill.*	(5) 17.2%	(19) 65.5%	(4) 13.8%	(1) 3.5%	(0) 0%
3.	*I would like to do more projects in English speaking skill?*	(9) 31.0%	(12) 41.4%	(7) 24.1%	(1) 3.5%	(0) 0%

Note:

A. Definitely agree B. Mostly agree C. Neither agree nor disagree

D. Mostly disagree E. Definitely disagree

The table indicates students' general attitudes of the projects that they have just finished. As can be seen from the table, most of students felt easy to recognize project work. Obviously, 72.4% mostly agreed and 10.3% even definitely agreed that they know how to carry out such a project now. 10.3% showed their neutral opinion while only 2 out of 29 students still didn't know how to do such a project.

For the question whether project motivated students in their learning English speaking skill, 24 out of 29 students (82.8%) agreed with different extents (5 definitely and 19 mostly agree), while only one student mostly disagreed with it. However, four students still showed their neutral attitude, thus choosing "neither agree nor disagree" option. It is obvious that the project appeared attractive and beneficial to most students.

This was more confirmed when students are asked if they would like to do more projects in English speaking skill. 21 out of 29 students (72.4%) said that they would like to

do so and only one student was opposed to this idea. 7 students (24.1%) are still not sure whether they want to do more project work or not.

Table 5. Students' reaction to the benefits of project work

No.	Questions	A	B	C	D	E
4.	*In general, the important benefit(s) of PBL in learning English speaking skill is/are.....?* *(more than one answer can be accepted)* A. Learning is more fun and students are more motivated B. Students can enrich their background knowledge through research work C. Students can develop such skills as group work, presentation, etc.… D. Students can be exposed to and learn how to deal with real – life situations. E. Project create optimal environment to practice speaking English.	(20) 68.9%	(15) 51.73%	(29) 100%	(8) 27.6%	(29) 100%
5.	*Through doing the project, my ……....skill(s) has/have been improved. (more than one answer can be accepted)* A. Presentation B. Group work C. Research D. Communication E. Problem - solving	(23) 79.3%	(22) 75.8%	(17) 58.6%	(17) 58.6%	(16) 55.1%

Regarding the actual benefits of project work in learning English speaking skill through PBL, all students agreed that it could help students to develop such soft skills as teamwork, presentation, etc. and brought extremely good atmosphere to practice speaking English. Fifteen students (51.73%) thought that through research work, they could enrich their background knowledge and twenty ones (68.9%) felt that learning was more fun and they were more motivated. However, only eight students (27.6%) believed that project work could expose them to real-life situations and helped students to learn how to deal with them.

In terms of some soft skills, the projects that students had done prove most effective in developing presentation and teamwork skills. As can be seen from the table, 23 out of 29 (79.3%) students chose "presentation", 22 students (75.8%) chose "group work". Research and communication skills, which were chosen by the same number of students (17) were the next skills that could be developed through project work. Additionally, many students (16) felt that their problem-solving skill had improved through doing the project.

4. Conclusion

According to the study on improving students' speaking skill through Project-Based Learning for second year English majors of FFL at HDU, the conclusions of this study are drawn as the following.

In this study PBL improves the students' speaking skill. The researcher explained to the students what PBL is. Then, she gave the students projects to complete and divided the class into 8 groups. The students gave their products with the project "Travel Guide" based on familiar topics in the textbook. Then, in the group, the students did their work by making presentation or making role play or making conversation. After the students finished their work, they performed it in front of the class as their end product. PBL helped the students to improve their speaking skill as is demonstrated by the result of the study which shows significant improvement. It was proved by the improvement of speaking aspects through the Language Proficiency Framework for Vietnam that was used as the framework of this study.

Besides, the study has pointed out the immense benefits of project work to both English majored students and English teachers. The first and foremost benefit was perhaps students' motivation which results from their personal investment in the project. This motivation could be sustained and increased as the project progresses and brought about other benefits. First, it afforded students the opportunity to practice both in and out of the classroom the language that they themselves had seen the needs. Second, the project enabled students to use the target language in real situations and thus developed necessary skills for their future work. Additionally, it helped to deepen personal relationships between teacher and students and among the students themselves.

Overall, the result of the study proved that PBL can be successfully implemented at the FFL, HDU and the use of project work can make second-year English majors well-prepared for their future work.

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TEACHING GRAMMAR THROUGH GAMES TO FIRST-YEAR NON-ENGLISH MAJORED STUDENTS AT HONG DUC UNIVERSITY

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Abstract: *This article reports the results of an action research on the effectiveness of using games in grammar classes for* first-year non- English majored students at Hong Duc university. *Preliminary investigation showed that first-year non- English majors had poor knowledge about* English in general and grammar in particular. *Written tests were conducted before and after the intervention to evaluate its efficacy. A post questionnaire was also administered to find out students' reaction to the application of games in English grammar classes. The obtained results* revealed that learners have better understanding of English grammar as well as positive attitudes toward English in general and grammar in particular and highly appreciate the program.

Keywords: Grammar, games, non-English majors, action research.

1. Introduction

Over the last few decades, teaching English becomes a phenomenon in Vietnam. There have been more and more people rushing to study English in language centers because it is believed that English helps them be more exposed to better job opportunities. In all schools, colleges and universities, English has become a compulsory subject. Hong Duc university is not an exception. Right from the first term, the first year non-English majored students have to study a 25 period English grammar course with the textbook book designed by English lecturers at Foreign Language Department. The main objective of the grammar course is to help students have basic language structures before studying communicative skills from the course-book entitled "English file Elementary". Therefore, grammar lessons seem to be separated from communicative activities, teaching grammar is too dependent on rules and memorization. Students have to memorize numerous grammar rules and structures. As a result, learning process becomes boring, unmotivated and tedious, students start to lose their interest and motivation in learning English.

From my own observation and experience in teaching English, I have noticed many effective and motivating techniques to motivate the first year non-English majored students in grammar lessons. Among them, the use of games in teaching grammar has been received more emphasis. Hence, this article was initiated with the concern of whether games should be used in teaching English grammar in order to improve the students' grammar knowledge and help them develop positive attitudes toward English in general and English grammar in particular.

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2. Theoretical framework

2.1. Teaching grammar

Grammar teaching plays an important role in teaching and learning English. Harmer (1987, p.12) states that: "*Without some understanding of grammar, students would not be able to do anything more than utter separate items of language for separate functions. The expression of functional language is only possible through the use of the Grammar of the language.*" Grammar is a very important factor to get right, and teachers should take extra care to help students understand how the language works to express the knowledge that they have, in a correct and understandable format.

2.2. Stages in teaching grammar

According to Celce-Murcia, M. (1988), a grammar lesson has 4 stages namely presentation, focused practice, communicative practice and teacher feedback and correction in order. In the first stage, the grammar structures and rules are introduced. The second stage allows students "gain control of the form without the added pressure and distraction of trying to use the form for communication" (1988, p.27). Next, students practice the structures communicatively. Teacher feedback and correction, although regarded as a final stage, is carried out throughout the lesson.

2.3. Teaching grammar through games

Mario Rinvolucri (1984, p.3) wrote that: "*Grammar is perhaps so serious and central in learning another language that all ways should be searched for which will focus students energy on the task of mastering and internalizing it. One way of focusing this energy is through the release offered by games*". English grammar is very complex, using games in grammar lessons will bring many practical benefits to the students because understanding is most easily achieved when students are engaged, interested and having fun during a lesson. McCallum (1980, p.9) states that "*games automatically stimulate students' interest, a properly introduced game can be one of the highest motivating techniques*". McCallum also lists many advantages of games such as focus students' attention on specific structures, grammatical patterns, and vocabulary items; function as reinforcement, review and enrichment; involve equal participation from both slow and fast learners; can be adjusted to suit the individual age and language levels of the students; contribute to an atmosphere of healthy competition, providing an outlet for the creative use of natural language in a non-stressful situation; can be used in any language teaching situations and with all skill areas (reading, writing, speaking or listening); provide immediate feedback for the teacher; ensure maximum student participation for a minimum of teacher preparation. Therefore, games have a great pedagogical value in grammar lessons if used appropriately and at the right time. Teaching grammar through games can provide an enjoyable and relaxed learning environment for students and help them to be more creative and communicative.

2.4. The implementations of teaching grammar through games

When using games in the classroom, teacher should consider several aspects.

Being well-prepared. Carefully planning for the lesson is a half of success. Teachers need to consider the purpose of the game, which games to use, when to use them, how to link them up with the syllabus, textbook or program and more specifically, how different games can benefit students in different ways (Khan, 1996).

Grouping the students. While playing games, sitting together in a group could encourage students' cooperation. Teacher could ask students to work in pairs or in small groups. Teachers could ask the students to count one until six, for example, if students are divided into six groups, and students with the same number will gather in the same group. Next, students could be asked to choose a name for their group to be written on the white board to record their scores. Grouping techniques of this kind will help in create a cooperative and competitive atmosphere among the members of the groups.

Giving explanation and instruction about the game. To gain maximum benefits from the game, students must know the rules and aims of the game. Rules should be clear and easy for understanding.

Giving feedback. Teacher gives comment, advice, praise, and evaluation.

3. Research methodology

3.1. Participants

Participants in this study are 40 students in the Faculty of Preschool Education at Hong Duc university. These participants were freshmen of the 2016-2017 academic years. Most came from various places in Thanh Hoa province with some exceptions from other parts of the country. They belonged to the 18-20 age group and have learnt English for 7 years or more.

3.2. Instruments

A pretest was conducted at the beginning of the semester to 40 non- English majors to investigate their grammar knowledge. After the intervention, a post test was delivered to evaluate the effectiveness of the program. Although the questions in the pretest and post test were different, they were similar in content.

A short pre-questionnaire was also administered at the beginning of the semester to investigate their attitudes towards learning English in general and grammar in particular before implementing games to teach grammar. After the application of using games to teach grammar, a post- questionnaire was offered to understand the students' opinions of the intervention program.

3.3. Procedures

At the first week of the semester, a pre-questionnaire and a pretest were conducted to diagnose the learners' level of English grammar and their attitude toward grammar. In week

2 and 3 (10 periods), the intervention program was delivered. At the end of week 3, a post test was administered to find out whether there was any improvement in the students' grammar knowledge. Simultaneously, a post questionnaire was also conducted to identify students' attitudes to the intervention program.

3.4. Intervention program

The whole intervention program took place during 2 weeks. The intervention program was delivered in week 2 and 3 (10 periods) of the semester. Based on the grammatical elements in the grammar textbook entitled "*Ngữ pháp căn bản Tiếng Anh - Quyển 1*" by Quyet (2016) used for first-year non- English majored classes, 10 grammar lessons with games were chosen to be incorporated in each grammar lesson for non- English majored freshmen at Hong Duc university, specifically as follows.

Table 1. Intervention program

Period	Units	Suggested games
1.	Personal pronouns and the verb "to be"	Board game: - Prepare cards with pronouns/ verb "to be" written on them that have a magnet attached to the back. - Write a sentence on the board and have the student replace a noun with a pronoun. - Leave a blank for the student to fill in the pronoun/ verb "to be".
2.	Nouns and possessive adjectives	**Possessive adjectives stations**: Students listen to a full sentence, blanked sentence or single word and race to touch something representing what they hear or what should be in the gap. For example, students can race to run and touch cards on opposite walls saying "his" and "he's" if the teacher says one of those two words, "His trousers are leather" or "He's a teacher", or "Blank hair is brown" or "Blank a fireman".
3.	Possessive pronouns and reflexive pronouns	Looking at the mirror: Divide the class into groups of 4 and give each group a mirror. Ask them look at the mirror and say "What are you doing?". "I´m looking at myself (in the mirror)"; "You are looking at yourself in the mirror." This goes on till all the reflexive pronouns are practiced.
4.	Adjectives and adverbs	Outstanding Outfits: Have students bring in a picture from home. Have them write a description of themselves, using as many adjectives as possible. When everyone is done, have them share what they have written. An extension of this would be to hang up all of the photos and then you, as the teacher, read the descriptions. Students would then guess who is being described.

5.	Comparisons of adjectives and adverbs	These are people in our class. Ask students to choose 10 adjective to describe their classmates. Challenging them to write a sentence using the comparative and superlative form of each adjective.
6.	Prepositions	Problem-solving. Students use clues to work out where various shops are in a shopping mall. This activity can be used to practice or revise prepositions of place. The class is divided into groups of four. Each group is given a shopping mall floor plan and each student is given a set of clues. The students take it in turns to read out their clues to the group and together they try to work out where the various shops and places are located. When everyone has finished, the answers are checked as a class
7.	Verbs	**Bet you can't**. Give each student the same amount of toy money. Have the students bet each other that they can't do something - like this: make each S stand up and walk around. Have them say, "I bet you can't (e.g. count to 20, run around the room 5 times, sing the ABC song. etc.)". Get the Ss to bet using the toy money. You'd be surprised how much even adult students enjoy this game
8.	The present simple	**What do you do at the weekend?** Students discuss their routines and explain what they usually do at the weekend. The student then completes the worksheet with information about their partner's weekend by writing a present simple sentence in the third-person singular. When everyone has finished, the students describe their partner's weekend to the class.
9.	The present continuous	**Guess what I'm doing. Divide the class** into two teams. Teams take it in turns to play a mime. A student comes up and asks the class 'What am I doing?' The student then does the mime on the card. When a member on either team thinks they know, they respond 'You are verb+ing…' The students must guess the exact words on the mime card to win. The first team to guess the sentence wins a point.
10.	The present simple and The present continuous	**Sentence completion** Students complete at least some of the sentence stems that their teacher gives them, then read out some examples of what they have written (but not the origin sentence stem) so that the other students can guess which sentence stem they wrote that in.

3.5. Results and discussions

Before the selected participants were taught using games, they were given pre-questionnaire to check their current attitudes toward learning English in general and grammar in particular. The author also wanted to know whether the students like games in grammar lessons. The following table shows the results of the pre questionnaires.

Table 2. Results of Pre-questionnaire

No.	Questions	Options	Number of students	Percentage (%)
1	Do you like learning English?	Yes	5	12.5
		No	35	87.5
2	Do you like learning grammar?	Yes	9	11.5
		No	31	77.5
3	Is learning grammar boring and difficult?	Yes	34	85
		No	6	15
4	Did your high-school teachers use games to teach grammar?	Yes	5	12.5
		No	35	87.5
5	Would you like games in grammar lessons?	Yes	30	75
		No	10	25

From all the responses received, when the students were asked about their attitudes towards learning English, it was found that 87.5% of them disliked whereas only 12.5% of them liked. Only 11.5% liked learning grammar and 85% replied that learning grammar was boring and difficult. The high percentage of the students was not taught grammar through games at their high school. However, three quarters of the students would like to play games in grammar lessons. The findings indicate that the majority of the students are not interested in learning English, as well as learning grammar. They lacked interest in learning grammar, and thought grammar was boring and difficult maybe. It might have been caused by the influence of passive learning method in which they just learnt grammar rules and then did exercise in the book. There seemed to be no fun and no motivation in the classroom. They were reluctant to study grammar to pass the examinations. Although they were not taught grammar through games at high school, a great number of the students would like their teacher to give games in grammar lessons. They expected something new and interesting in the classroom.

In addition to the pre questionnaire, written tests were also delivered to the students before and after the intervention program, The results are shown in table 3 below.

Table 3. Pretest vs. post test results

Students' grade	Pretest		Post test	
	No. of students	Percentage	No. of students	Percentage
7-10 (Good, excellent)	4	10%	30	75%
5-6 (Average)	30	75%	8	20%
Under 5 (Below average)	6	15%	2	5%

As can be seen from the table, the students being tested had low grade before the intervention. Only 10% of the students got good marks, while a great number of the students

had average grades (5-6). The figure for under 5 stood at 15%. The results of pre-test is in line with the results of pre-questionnaire.

After the intervention, however, there was a positive change in the students' grammar grades. The figures in the table show that the number of students getting marks 7-10 increased significantly in the post test in compassion with that in the pretest (from 10% up to 75%). It can be said that after the intervention students' English grammar has significantly been improved and that the intervention program is a success at first attempt.

Finally, a post questionnaire was administered to these students to find out their reaction to the intervention program. The findings are reported and discussed as followed.

Table 4. Student's reaction to the intervention program

No.	Questions	Options	Number of students	Percentage (%)
1.	It is interesting to learn and practice grammatical structures with games	Agree	35	87.5
		Unsure	4	10
		Disagree	1	2.5
2.	Games are just for fun and bring no benefit.	Agree	1	2.5
		Unsure	2	5
		Disagree	37	92.5
3.	I can understand and remember grammatical structures more easily thanks to games	Agree	32	80
		Unsure	5	12.5
		Disagree	3	7.5
4.	Through games, I have chances to improve 4 skills: listening, speaking, reading, and writing	Agree	37	92.5
		Unsure	0	0
		Disagree	3	7.5
5.	I can apply new grammar while playing games.	Agree	37	92.5
		Unsure	3	7.5
		Disagree	0	0
6.	Teacher should use games to teach grammar	Agree	38	95
		Unsure	1	2.5
		Disagree	1	2.5

It can be seen that with the use of games in grammar lessons, almost of the students changed positively their attitudes toward learning grammar. Almost of them were interested in learning and practicing grammatical structures with games. Only one student replied negatively. Out of all the students, there was just one person who agreed that games are just for fun, without any benefit. As it is discussed in theoretical part (2.3), games in language teaching have got many advantages. It was also found out that 80% of the students could understand grammatical structures and remember the lesson easily. 92.5% had chances to improved

listening, speaking, reading, and writing skills. 92.5% could apply grammar, 95 % expected their teacher to use grammar games inside their classroom. The findings are in line with McCallum (1980) that games help students focus on "specific structures, grammar pattern and vocabulary item". The use of games had positive and wide acceptance among all the students. Games provided students with more fun and motivation. They are more active and ready to cooperate to take part in the game. Games give a chance to the teacher to help the students revise the old structure and acquire a new one without being bored. When students can apply grammar and use it in a fun way, there is a better chance that they will retain it all. They can practice and internalize grammar phenomena extensively rather than just learning a bunch of rules. Grammar games help the students develop positive attitudes toward English in general and grammar in particular. Mastering a new language in an enjoyable and relaxed learning environment can help students more creative and communicative. Therefore, learning grammar through games is an effective method which should be applied in the classroom

4. Conclusion

This action research was carried out due to the author's full awareness of the fact that the ultimate objective of foreign language learning is the mastery of communicative competence for which it is inevitable to integrate games into grammar lessons which can provide an enjoyable and relaxed learning environment for students and help them more creative and communicative. With a desire to improve students' English grammar and English communicative competence, an intervention program was designed and implemented by incorporating games into grammar classes. Within the limited time of the grammar course for first-year non- English majors, only basic games were selected for grammar teaching. A pretest and post test were administered to find out whether there was any improvement in the students' English grammar after the intervention. The results showed that there were significant changes in students' performance and belief. The positive responses from students to the survey questionnaire further asserted that the intervention program was of fairly great help to non- English majored freshmen at Hong Duc university.

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USING GRICE'S MAXIMS IN THE ANALYSIS OF HEMINGWAY'S SHORT STORY "HILLS LIKE THE WHITE ELEPHANTS" AND IMPLICATION TO AMERICAN LITERATURE TEACHING

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Abstract: *This paper elaborates the application of Grice's maxims in the analysis of Hemingway's short story "Hills like the white elephants". Specifically, the research works out how and why characters in the story flout Grice's four conversational maxims. This job is expected to add an approach to the culture of teaching American literature in Vietnam.*

Keywords: *Grice's maxims, fictional dialogues, American literature teaching*

1. Introduction

A dialogue in fiction is known as a verbal exchange between two or more characters which are believed to share a lot in common to natural conversations. Bras & Vieu (2001) states that fictional dialogues involve "two or more participants with different intentions, desires and beliefs, and thus different ways to understand what was said." (Bras & Vieu, 2001, p.225) while Toolan claims fictional dialogues to work with "crucial structural and functional principles and patterns" as those in natural conversation (Toolan, 1998, p.193). The analysis of fictional dialogues is, therefore, similar to the interpretative process that takes place when engaging in real conversation: we do not interpret words and clauses but rather intentions and actions (Leech & Short 2007, 1981, pp.231-232; Toolan, 1998, pp.276-277).

Researchers have made use of a number of approaches to analysing fictional dialogues such as pragmatic model, Conversation Analysis, discourse analysis, etc., however, the application of Grice's maxims in the analysis of a fictional dialogue has been proved far from prevalence. This gap drives the researcher to work on Grice's maxims as the analytical frame in this study in an attempt to work out the conversational implicature from characters' verbal interaction. This is based on the assumption that more is often communicated than is said and what underlies a verbal interaction may become more significant than being overtly disclosed in the surface structure of language.

2. Grice's principle revisited

2.1. Overview

In 1957, Grice's article entitled 'Logic and conversation' set out the conditions for communication conducted with respect to the interpersonal and social contact and under the *co-operative* principle. He expected that the participants 'make [their] contribution such as is required, at the stage at which it occurs, by the accepted purpose or direction of the talk

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exchange in which you are engaged' (Grice, 1975, p.45). The principle originated from the perception of Grice's speaker meaning which confirms his belief that when a person says something, his words convey both the conventional and the conversational meaning. The former can be deduced from its semiotic and semantic representation. For instance, the utterance 'He is in a grip of the vice' (Grice, 1975, p.44) refers to a male animate being *x* who is caught in a certain type of tool or instrument. The latter, however, can be comprehended by looking into the identity of *x,* the occasion of x's utterance, the social situation in which the utterance is made, etc. For the interpretation of both types of meaning, Grice suggests the participants in communication 'recognize their common purposes or mutually accepted direction' (Grice, 1975, p.45-47) and that is the way they show their cooperative efforts. His principle is divided into four maxims namely *the quantity* with two submaxims in which participants are required to 'make the contribution as informative as is required' and 'not make your contribution more informative than is required'; the *quality* which suggests that 'participants not say what you believe to be false' or 'not say that for which you lack adequate evidence'; the *relation* and *manner* which require the talk to 'be relevant' and 'be perspicuous' respectively (Grice, 1975, p.29).

Though Grice emphasized the importance of observing these maxims as he suggested that they are not only something that all people observe, but as 'not merely something that all or most do *in fact* follow but as something that it is *reasonable* for us to follow, that we *should not* abandon' (Grice, 1975, p.29), there are some limitations concerning the maxims themselves. First, they may be overlapped because when a speaker flouts one maxim, he simultaneously flouts another and this is considered as maxim clashes. However, this problem can be dealt with in this study as the occurrence frequency of maxim flouts if overlapped will be counted separately and clashes of maxim flouts, in fact, do not affect the intentional communicative purpose. They can even further support one another. For example, if a flout of quality maxim which is performed by an act of understatement constructed with hedges is realised, the flout of quantity and even of manner maxim more likely occurs. The interpretation of meaning and communicative purposes has not yet been affected since such flouts of conversational maxim all refer to the participants' attempt to avoid face-threatening act, exercise a politeness strategy, or intend a deviant communicative purpose. Also, there may be a range of possible interpretations of the maxims because to interpret a maxim appropriately, a speaker is required to comprehend both the conventional and conversational meaning thoroughly, but this is not always the case. Some researchers have even proved that Grice's maxims fail to deal with the interpersonal meaning (Rosaldo, 1982; Flowerdew, 2013) as they suppose that Grice's maxims exclude other aspects of human interaction such as politeness. These points of view appear to be unfair to Grice firstly because he did mention that other sorts of maxims (aesthetic, social) are also observed by participants at talk exchanges (Grice, 1975). The observance of the principle creates 'ideal' communication; however, Grice himself agrees that participants do not always do that. The non-observance implies some conversational meaning which is a reflection of

participants' interpersonal relation and it is this assumption that supports us to conduct our study from pragmatics approach in the belief that implicatures are yielded from an interaction.

2.2. Conversational maxims and non-observance of the maxims

Obeying these maxims can help to form what Grice called 'an ideal language' (Grice, 1975); however, Grice is not suggesting that the participants are always cooperative and follow all the requirements of these maxims. He simply expects that people observe some regularity in interaction, the ones that govern the generation and implication of conversations. There are many occasions when the participants fail to observe these maxims and they, as for Grice, can be grouped into five main ways: flouting a maxim, violating a maxim, infringing a maxim, opting out of a maxim, suspending a maxim (Thomas, 1995, p.65). To begin with, *flouting* a maxim means that the participants deliberately do not observe the maxims because they expect the hearer to realize what is implied from what is said. In other words, they intend to convey the pragmatic interpretation of their utterances called 'conversational implicature' rather than its semantic representation. They, therefore, may flout the quality maxim by saying something ostentatiously untrue or lack of evidence. For example, when an utterance includes 'tired to death,' the speaker simply aims to magnify his state of being but not to describe the fact. The speakers also can flout the maxim of quantity, of manner, and of relation when blatantly refusing to observe the given regularities. The second case of non-observance is *violating* a maxim. In this case, the failure to obey conversational maxims shows the participants' intention to deceive or mislead the hearers. The third circumstance is maxim *infringement* which refers to the non-observance of maxims caused by the participants' incapability to use an intelligible language. The fourth way, *opting out of a maxim*, means that the participants choose not to obey a maxim and show their unwillingness to cooperate; however, they neither want to be recognized as having a negative attitude or being uncooperative nor deliberately aim to cause false implicature. Finally, suspending a maxim refers to the circumstance in which the participants do not want the maxims to be fully observed thereby this case of non-observance does not generate implicatures (Thomas, 1995, p.76).

Within this study, the researcher would have a close look at how maxims are flouted to figure out the pragmatic meaning underlying the semantic representation of words. Though a number of expressions have been used interchangeably, say, flout, infringe, violate, they all mean flouting a maxim in communication for certain conversational implicature.

2.3. Using Grice's maxims as the analytical framework

It is important to clarify how maxim flouts are defined as far as the Grice's principle is used as the analytical framework.

To start with the maxim of quality, the participants are known to flout it when saying what they 'believe to be false' or what they 'lack adequate evidence'. As such, when the

speakers overstate or understate their speech, they are likely to violate the maxim of quality. As defined in Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary 8th Edition, overstatement is "a way of speaking or writing that makes something sound better, more exciting, dangerous, etc. than it really is" while Dictionary of Linguistics Term Explanation (1996) states that "overstatement is a rhetorical representation of speech including exaggeration or hyperboles, which intensifies the attributes of things to highlight the meaning to be conveyed" (Nguyễn Như Ý et al., 1996). The utterance "Thôi, tôi *nhức đầu như bị búa bổ*, và chóng mặt lắm/Well, I am having a *head-splitting* headache" (*Xuất giá tòng phu*, Nguyễn Công Hoan), for instance, flouts the second sub-maxim of quality which is "Don't say what you lack evidence" (Grice, 1975, p.46) because the speaker just makes a comparison to intensify her state of being. In fact, s/he should have never been 'hit by a hammer/*búa bổ*'. As such definition, two main cases are identified to flout the maxim of quality in form of an overstatement. The first is *maximizing* utterance's meaning by using adverbs, adjectives, quantifiers, verbs, and idiomatic expressions (idioms for short). For example, it is possible to realize the utterance "She is *perfectly* beautiful" is intensified when the adverb 'perfectly' is added, thus flouts the second sub-maxim of quality. The second is the use of comparison to intensify utterance's meaning because when one entity is compared to or contrasted with another, its quality is made out. For instance, the utterance "Thế mà cũng ăn ở với nhau được mãi, sinh con đẻ cái, mà lại còn thương yêu nhau *bằng tám* những cặp vợ chồng cưới linh đình/We still live happily together, have babies, and love each other *eight times as much as* other couples do" (*Một đám cưới*, Nam Cao) flouts the maxim of quality as it is impossible to measure how the speaker's happiness can be 'eight times as much as others do'. Understatement, on the other hand, is 'a rhetorical representation of speech which lowers the impact of certain attributes or quality of an object or a phenomenon in order to avoid imposing any possible adverse effects on the hearer' (Nguyễn Như Ý et al., 1996, p.194). The use of quantifiers such as '*chút/a bit*', '*tí/a little*', '*hơi/pretty*', for instance, enables the speakers to de-intensify their utterance's force. In addition, conditional sentences also help to avoid the direct effect of an utterance. Using "if", the young man in the story '*Hills like the white elephants*' (Hemingway), for example, can lower the impact of his utterance as he avoids threatening her face as in 'Well,' the man said, 'if you don't want to you don't have to. I wouldn't have you do it if you didn't want to. But I know it's perfectly simple.'. The last to mention in case of understatement is the representation of 'hedges' in an utterance. According to Yule (1996, p.38), 'hedges' are 'cautious notes' or expressions which indicate 'what we're saying may not be totally accurate.' They, therefore, may flout quality maxim. Variously as they may be defined, hedges, in this study, are expressions showing some degree of a speaker's uncertainty to the truth condition of his or her utterance or a linguistic cue which helps to mitigate the possibility of threatening the hearer's face. They can be as long as a comment clause such as 'As you know' or a main clause formed with 'parenthetical verbs', the term used in Hubler (1983), like 'I suppose that (...).' They are also presented simply in

form of a modal verb, a modal adverb, or a modal adjective. By and large, should an utterance be true, both the intensification and the de-intensification of its meaning or force make it fail to observe the maxim of quality as the truth value has been changed. The truth validity is certainly guaranteed an assertory sentence such as 'this is an apple' is uttered and this utterance is said to observe the maxim of quality. However, the addition of an intensifying indicator such as 'certainly' in 'this is certainly an apple' or a detensification marker 'maybe' in 'this's maybe an apple' indicates that the speaker' doubt about the assertion of the propositional meaning, thus flouting quality maxim.

Second, the maxim of quantity is flouted in two main cases namely *information prolixity* and *information terseness*. It is not easy to define whether the speaker says more or less than required as saying a long utterance does not mean making the information redundant if the content is all relevant; whereas a few-word utterance still can contain more information than necessary. In this study, *information prolixity*, on the one hand, refers to cases in which a certain amount of information is considered not directly relevant to the preceding turn. They can be the use of hedges, extended speech, and the repetition of information. To be specific, hedges counted for this case also flout the quality maxim and the manner maxim. They are linguistic devices which prolong the utterance by adding cautious notes but not the modal markers as mentioned in case of flouts of quality maxim. Moreover, speech extension refers to the cases in which the speakers extend their talk for further explanation. On the other hand, information terseness, though far less ubiquitous in characters' discourse, is still worth consideration because it shows that the speakers are flouting the quantity maxim due to their shortage of information. Cases in which it occurs are in fragment sentences or of conversational gaps. Both of them are created when speakers intentionally or unintentionally make a gap in or between their turns at talk and this contemporarily leads to inadequate information to be exchanged as required.

Turning to the maxim of relation, it is a big challenge to identify whether the information provided in each turn is relevant to each other. A piece of information, which is thought to be irrelevant in a speech exchange if considered from a narrow sense, turns out to be related when an analysis is made at a broader level with more contextual clues added. Take a conversation extracted from the story '*Xuất giá tòng phu*' (Nguyễn Công Hoan) as an example. In response to the husband's question, 'You haven't prepared yet, have you?', the wife said, 'I'm having a head-splitting headache'. A grammatically correct answer should be 'yes' or 'no' and this ideally fits the requirement given in Grice's cooperative principle which indicates that a response should be directly relevant to the preceding utterance when participants are in interaction. By this way, the wife's reply flouts the maxim of relation. However, providing that the pragmatic meaning of the utterance is considered and more hints are given, for instance, the wife's headache prevents her from doing what her husband orders her to follow and then the implied answer must be 'no', a kind of rejection of the indirect request. Schegloff and Sacks (1973) states that in interaction an adjacency pair can be of preference when the following turn ideally fits the preceding turn otherwise that pair is

of the non-preference organization. For example, a *greeting* goes hand in hand with a *greeting reply* or a *request* should be responded with an *acceptance*. If a greeting is feedbacked by an eliciting turn or a rejection is provided as a response to the preceding request, such pairs are known to be of non-preference organization. This phenomenon is called a *mismatch of information exchange,* which results in a flout of relation maxim. This way of defining mismatch in information exchange relies on the disagreement in the use of turn type as interaction. The term *mismatch* does not mean any pejorative meaning but indicates the situation in which the information provided in the SPP is not the expected message of the speaker who produces the FPP.

Finally, the maxim of manner is believed to be flouted when the speakers provide vague utterances, over-generalize their talks or displace the hearers because by saying so, the speakers violate the first two sub-maxims of manner which are to 'avoid obscurity or ambiguity' of their expressions. Moreover, using tautology, extending their talk, making fragmented sentences, or employing conversational gaps are cases in which the speakers violate the last two sub-maxims of relation which are to 'be brief' and 'orderly.'

3. The story 'Hills like the white elephants'

The story 'Hills like the white elephants' written by Hemingway features conversations between two main protagonists, a couple, taking a train journey from Barcelona to Madrid. Their conversation takes place at a hillside station while they are waiting for the train to start again. The main topic of the conversation is about the operation which male protagonist expects the female protagonist to do. Hemingway used his conventional but magical writing style of 'ice-berg' principle because much more is communicated than said. There are four conversations with totally 88 turns produced in the story. One is at the beginning when the couple order a drink. The second is after the drink is served and their talk starts with the male's suggesting the female character to do the operation. The third is after the female character gets frustrated with her partner's request, stands up, and halts their conversation. The last is the inserted conversation between the couple and the waitress.

4. Findings and discussion

From data analysis, there are 136 cases in which conversation maxims are flouted. The maxim of quality is violated at the highest frequency (86 cases), while the maxim of quantity, of the relation, and of the manner is flouted at much lower number of 27, 5, and 18 cases respectively.

4.1. Findings

To begin with, data analysis shows that the quality maxim is flouted much more frequently than others and it is violated due to the use of overstatement and understatement as shown in table 1.

Table 1. Cases of the quality maxim flouts

	Cases	Linguistic devices	Linguistic evidence (Turn No.)	Freq.
Flout of the maxim of quality	**Overstatement**	Adverb	so [14]; [36]; really [22, 27, 38, 39]; awfully [27]; all the time [29]; perfectly [29, 37, 45, 71, 74]; everywhere [59]; just [7, 22, 28, 29, 31, 43, 66].	21
		Pronouns	Everything [13, 14, 50; 52; 54; 55]; all [20, 26, 39, 52]; anything [7, 28, 67, 71, 72, 77, 78, 79]; anybody [73]; any one [73]; anything [7, 28, 67, 71, 72, 77, 79]	27
		Adjective	Only [33]; best [39]; whole [57];	3
		Similes	look like white elephants [4, 18, 22, 42]; tastes like licorice [12]; tastes of licorice [14]; like absinthe [14]; like we were before [31].	8
	Under-statement	Condition sentence	if [10] [37, 39, 40, 42, 44, 51, 71]	10
		Hedge	Might [7]; I know [28, 35, 37, 42, 68, 73]; I think [39]; I guess [21]; could [52, 54, 68, 72], can [55, 57, 59]; must [65]	17
Total				86

Characters exaggerate their utterance's force in their verbal exchange. In most of cases (32), expressions which help to maximize the level of intensity such as adverbs, quantifiers, and adjectives, have been used. For example, such intensifiers as 'awfully', 'perfectly', 'so' are added to the description of the state so as to impress the hearer about the simplicity of the operation. Also, by using universal pronouns like 'everything', 'anything', 'anyone', the utterance's force has been increased to the extreme of the intensity scale. Second, characters count on similes (*like we were before*) or metaphorical expressions (*like licorice*) to emphasize the meaning of negotiation.

Another case in which the maxim of quality is violated is understatement. The characters may use either conditional sentence or hedges to mitigate any possible face threatening act caused by a direct statement or request. The presence of hedges also indicates that the speakers are not so sure about the truth condition of their speech; therefore, they violate the second sub-maxim of quality in which the participants at talk are required not to talk about anything which they lack evidence of. However, cases in which overstatement is used far outnumber those formed with understatement.

The second to be flouted is the quantity maxim with two main cases namely information prolixity and information terseness. The former means that characters provide more information than required; therefore, when they extend their talk or repeat it, they have flouted the maxim of quantity or more information is provided than a direct response.

Table 2. Cases of the quantity maxim flouts

	Cases	Linguistic devices	Linguistic evidence (Turn No.)	Freq.
Flout of the maxim of quantity	**Information Prolixity**	Information extension	[1-3]; [1a-3a]; [1b-2b]; [17-18]; [34-35]; [40-41]; [42-43]; [44-45]; [59-60]; [68-69]; [	10
		Information Tautology	Perfectly simple [27, 37, 45, 73, 74]; operation [27]; you don't want [37, 67, 71]; like white elephants [4, 18, 22, 42]; have everything [52, 54, 55]; let the air in [28; 29]	6
		Hedge	I know [28, 35, 37, 42, 68, 73]; I think [39]; I guess [21]	6
	Information Terness	Conversational gap	[27]; [28]; [51]	3
		Fragment sentence	[67]; [69]	2
Total				27

Data analysis show that characters in this story provide more than less information in their verbal exchanges (table2). Speech, though briefly and linearly represented in most of the exchanges, still contains many pieces of additional information as the characters expect to boost their utterance's force. Information ternness, which means that less information is provided than required, occupies a tiny number of occurrences and is presented in form of conversational gap (an intra-turn long pause or moment of silence) and fregment sentence.

Turning to the relation maxim, it is the least to be flouted with only 5 cases (table 3). It is not the case that characters fail to respond to the first pair part in an adjacency pair, however, they tend to provide an indirect reply to a request, refuse to answer the preceding question, or take their conversational partner away from the existing topic initiated by a statement which comes earlier.

Table 3. Cases of the relation maxim flouts

	Cases	Linguistic evidence (Turn No.)	Freq.
Flout of the maxim of relation	Mismatch in Question & Question Reply	[10-11]; [38-39];	2
	Mismatch in Request & Request Reply	[15-16]	1
	Mismatch in Statement & Statement Reply	[12-13]; [71-72]	2
Total			5

The last maxim to be mentioned is the manner one. From statistical analysis, characters in the story violate this conversational maxim by either extending or repeating their talk and thus flouting the third sub-maxim of 'being brief.' Moreover, this maxim is also likely to be

violated when characters use universal pronouns. In this case, the speech produced appears to be vague or ambiguous.

Table 4. Cases of the manner maxim flouts

	Cases	Linguistic devices	Linguistic evidence (Turn No.)	Freq.
Flout of the maxim of manner	Information Prolixity	Extended information	[1-3]; [1a-3a]; [1b-2b];[17-18]; [34-35]; [40-41]; [42-43]; [44-45]; [59-60]; [68-69]; [	10
		Information Tautology	Perfectly simple [27, 37, 45, 73, 74]; operation [27]; you don't want [37, 67, 71]; like white elephants [4, 18, 22, 42]; have everything [52, 54, 55]; let the air in [28; 29]	6
	Ambiguity	Universal Pronouns	Everything [13, 14]	2
		Total		18

4.2. Discussion

It can be conceded that characters do not accidentally violate the conversational maxims and even the violation of maxims do not bring the conversation to obfuscation. They, in fact, have certain communicative purposes. The most obvious is that characters intend to *emphasize the information provided*. By overstating the message being exchanged, characters make their utterance's force stronger than it really is. By saying 'perfectly simple' or repeating the expression 'we have everything', the male protagonist aims to emphasize the simplicity of the abortion process as well the importance of that act. Another communicative function intended by characters via the violation of maxims is that it is an effective way enabling the characters to *express their attitudes*. Overstatement possibly implies the speakers' seducement, overexcitement, or understatement is the way to indicate modesty, disagreement, or doubtfulness, etc. Refusal to provide a direct response to the preceding turn in an adjacency pair, which violates the maxim of manner, can be a signal of disapproval or keeping silence may become an indicator of ignorance or disapproval. For example, the female protagonist shows her indifference when avoiding to have a 'Yes' or 'No' answer to the question 'Do you want it with water?' made by the male protagonist. Or it is not hard to realise the male's nervousness and hurry when he produces an additional request to his statement when replying a remark made by the female as in the following example.

'It tastes like licorice," the girl said and put the glass down.

"That's the way with everything."

"Yes," said the girl. "Everything tastes of licorice.

"Especially all the things you've waited so long for, like absinthe." "Oh, cut it out."

The utterance 'cut it out' appears not to be relevant to the topic they are discussing 'taste of the drink' but it is, in reality, important for the talk to change its theme which evolves around the girl's doing abortion.

When evaluating Grice's cooperative principle, Đỗ Hữu Châu proposed that 'only when in conversations occur unusual discourses whose real meanings take shape through the hearer' induction, [...] then Grice's principle and conversational maxims show their real values. This assumption indicates that Gricean principle and its maxims play an important role in figuring out the implied meanings of 'seemingly unusual discourses', or the discourses that flout conversational maxims. As conversational participants do not violate the maxims accidentally, almost every single case of maxim flouts indicates certain conversational implicature. It is, therefore, possible to claim that maxim violation is also a forceful linguistic tool which *hides the characters' ill intention*. For example, making full use of such understaters as conditional sentences 'If you don't want, I wouldn't have you to do it', or parenthetical verbs 'You know', 'I think', 'I know', the male protagonist tries to persuade the girl to do what he wants. He implies that he really expects her to do abortion since he knows for sure that is what she does not want.

Maxim flouts can *reveal a certain aspect of the social relations* between characters which are divided into two main circumstances: those of higher or lower social position or within this study, it is known as the inferiority or the superiority of characters at talk. In fact, speech tautology may indicates a participant seems to be more dominated in their conversational floor than his or her partner, or vice verse, speech terseness indicates the inferiority of one character to another. In the story 'Hills like white elephants', the male character tends to gain an upperhand over the female when he constantly extends his utterances and violates the maxim of quantity. One indicator of his more dominant interactional role is his winning the female character in the battle of mind in which the woman tries to persuade the man to keep the baby while the man insists on getting rid of it.

Another obvious communicative purpose of the two characters in the story when violating conversational maxim is to show their politeness. This is especially true in case of the man trying to persuade the woman to do abortion. Using understaters, hedges, conditional sentences indicates his attempt to avoid any possible face threatening acts. He keeps saying 'I don't want you to do it if you don't want to' though what he desperately expects is her doing that.

Communication is one of the most effective ways each person shows who s/he is. Communication strategies, language deployments, attitudes, paralinguistic devices are always different from one participant to another at talk. It is never to possible to find out two persons communicating exactly the same way even they are twins or have been brought up by the same parents. This is the reason why conversations between interlocutors help to identify them. This function is also indicated in the analysis of maxim flouts in characters' discourse which helps to unveil who the participants are or in other words, this communication manner is to *depict characters' portrait*. If the other aforementioned functions illuminate the interaction between characters, this last function refers to the relationship between characters and the writers and the one between the writers and the readers. It appears at first to be unrelated to a linguistic research whose goal is to find out rules or standards in a linguistic system. However, because of the correlation between

literary texts and linguistics, it is important to brief the goal of depicting characters' portraits through the phenomenon of maxim flouts in characters' discourse as a literary text always targets to convey some message about the characters to its readers. Maxim violations in this story serve a good job of depicting the characters. While the male protagonist is painted with words or expressions which uplift the intensity of the utterance's effect such as 'perfectly', 'awfully', 'everything', 'really', and so forth, the female character appears to be a more straightforward person employing more simple sentences and make fewer flouts of maxim. Her flout of maxim of relation when keeping silence also indicates her mind conflict. She is actually standing in the station and getting confused with what she should decide to do: keeping or doing away with her pregnancy.

5. Conclusion

A detailed analysis of maxim flouts in the story 'Hills like the white elephants' written by Hemingway reveals certain built-in communicative functions intended by the characters. Pretentiously flouting conversational maxims, characters either intensify or de-intensify their utterance's sense and force, or both and a number of linguistic devices are employed in these two circumstances. The deployment of adverbs, adjectives, verbs and quantifiers helps the characters magnify the effect of their utterances and thereby violate the maxim of quality. They also use hedges, conditional sentences, and de-intensifying quantifiers to lower their effect of their utterances and this manner of communication also flouts the maxim of quality. Second, by overflowing or freezing their talk, characters infringe the maxim of quantity because this maxim's observance requires the speakers to say no more or less than required. Third, the mismatch in information exchange which is caused by the dispreferred organization of turns flouts the relation maxim. And finally, the manner maxim is also breached when the participants speak longer than necessary when hedges and information redundancy are presented. All of these acts indicate characters' egotistic execution of not observing the cooperative principle for some communication purposes and the most popular of all is the aim to emphasize the information provided, which is followed by the wish to indicate certain conversational implicature rather than the surface meaning of language in communication. Also, flouting a maxim enables the characters to show their attitude, social relation and position, the strategy of politeness, and more importantly it is a way for the writers to depict their characters' portrait, a purpose of communication between the writer and the reader.

Analysing maxim flouts, therefore, not only serves as an access to the analysis of verbal interaction between characters in a fictional dialogue but also can effectively unveil the underlying communicative functions and the writer's intention. This is certainly one of the ultimate goals of any analysts who expect to work out both the linguistic means and the literary appreciation of a literary work. In this sense, it is completely possible for teachers of English and American literature in Vietnam to consider this approach in their teaching cause.

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Hills like the white elephants

Hemingway

The hills across the valley of the Ebro were long and white. On this side there was no shade and no trees and the station was between two lines of rails in the sun. Close against the side of the station there was the warm shadow of the building and a curtain, made of strings of bamboo beads, hung across the open door into the bar, to keep out flies. The American and the girl with him sat at a table in the shade, outside the building. It was very hot and the express from Barcelona would come in forty minutes. It stopped at this junction for two minutes and went on to Madrid.

[1]   "What should we drink?" the girl asked. She had taken off her hat and put it on the table.

[2]   "It's pretty hot," the man said.

[3]   "Let's drink beer."

[1a]   "Dos cervezas, the man said into the curtain.

[2a]   "Big ones?" a woman asked from the doorway.

[3a]   "Yes. Two big ones."

The woman brought two glasses of beer and two felt pads. She put the felt pads and the beer glasses on the table and looked at the man and the girl. The girl was looking off at the line of hills. They were white in the sun and the country was brown and dry.

[4]   "They look like white elephants," she said.

[5]   "I've never seen one," the man drank his beer.

[6]   "No, you wouldn't have."

[7]   "I might have," the man said. "Just because you say I wouldn't have doesn't prove anything."

[8]   The girl looked at the bead curtain. "They've painted something on it," she said. "What does it say?"

[9]   "Anis del Toro. It's a drink." "Could we try it?"

[4a]   The man called "Listen" through the curtain. The woman came out from the bar. "Four reales."

[5a]   "We want two Anis del Toro." "With water?"

[10]   "Do you want it with water?"

[11]   "I don't know," the girl said. "Is it good with water?"

[12]   "It's all right."

[1b]   " You want them with water?" asked the woman.

[2b]   "Yes, with water."

[12]   "It tastes like licorice," the girl said and put the glass down.

[13]   "That's the way with everything."

[14]   "Yes," said the girl. "Everything tastes of licorice.

[15]   Especially all the things you've waited so long for, like absinthe." "Oh, cut it out."

[16]   "You started it," the girl said. "I was being amused. I was having a fine time."

[17]   "Well, let's try and have a fine time."

[18]   "All right. I was trying. I said the mountains looked like white elephants. Wasn't that bright?"

[19]   "That was bright."

[20]   "I wanted to try this new drink. That's all we do, isn't it—look at things and try new drinks?"

[21]   "I guess so." The girl looked across at the hills.

[22]   "They're lovely hills," she said. "They don't really look like white elephants. I just meant the coloring of their skin through the trees."

[23]   "Should we have another drink?"

[24]   "All right." The warm wind blew the bead curtain against the table.

[25]   "The beer's nice and cool," the man said.

[26]   "It's lovely," the girl said.

[27]   "It's really an awfully simple operation, Jig," the man said. "It's not really an operation at all." The girl looked at the ground the table legs rested on.

[28]   "I know you wouldn't mind it, Jig. It's really not anything. It's just to let the air in." The girl did not say anything.

[29]   "I'll go with you and I'll stay with you all the time. They just let the air in and then it's all perfectly natural."

[30] "Then what will we do afterward?"

[31] "We'll be fine afterward. Just like we were before."

[32] "What makes you think so?"

[33] "That's the only thing that bothers us. It's the only thing that's made us unhappy."

The girl looked at the bead curtain, put her hand out and took hold of two of the strings of beads.

[34] "And you think then we'll be all right and be happy."

[35] "I know we will. You don't have to be afraid. I've known lots of people that have done it."

[36] "So have I," said the girl. "And afterward they were all so happy."

[37] "Well," the man said, "if you don't want to you don't have to. I wouldn't have you do it if you didn't want to. But I know it's perfectly simple."

[38] "And you really want to?"

[39] "I think it's the best thing to do. But I don't want you to do it if you don't really want to."

[40] "And if I do it you'll be happy and things will be like they were and you'll love me?"

[41] "I love you now. You know I love you."

[42] "I know. But if I do it, then it will be nice again if I say things are like white elephants, and you'll like it?"

[43] "I'll love it. I love it now but I just can't think about it. You know how I get when I worry."

[44] "If I do it you won't ever worry?"

[45] "I won't worry about that because it's perfectly simple."

[46] "Then I'll do it. Because I don't care about me."

[47] "What do you mean?"

[48] "I don't care about me."

[49] "Well, I care about you."

[50] "Oh, yes. But I don't care about me. And I'll do it and then everything will be fine."

[51] "I don't want you to do it if you feel that way."
      The girl stood up and walked to the end of the station. Across, on the other side, were fields of grain and trees along the banks of the Ebro. Far away, beyond the river, were mountains. The shadow of a cloud moved across the field of grain and she saw the river through the trees.

[52] "And we could have all this," she said. "And we could have everything and every day we make it more impossible."

[53] "What did you say?"

[54] "I said we could have everything."

[55] "We can have everything."

[56] "No, we can't."

[57] "We can have the whole world."

[58] "No, we can't."

[59] "We can go everywhere."

[60] "No, we can't. It isn't ours any more."

[61] "It's ours."

[62] "No, it isn't. And once they take it away, you never get it back."

[63] "But they haven't taken it away."

[64] "We'll wait and see."

[65] "Come on back in the shade," he said. "You mustn't feel that way."

[66] "I don't feel any way," the girl said. "I just know things."

[67] "I don't want you to do anything that you don't want to do—"

[68] "Nor that isn't good for me," she said. "I know. Could we have another beer?"

[69] "All right. But you've got to realise—"

[70] "I realise," the girl said. "Can't we maybe stop talking?"
They sat down at the table and the girl looked across at the hills on the dry side of the valley and the man looked at her and at the table.

[71] "You've got to realise," he said, "that I don't want you to do it if you don't want to. I'm perfectly willing to go through with it if it means anything to you."

[72] "Doesn't it mean anything to you? We could get along."

[73] "Of course it does. But I don't want anybody but you. I don't want any one else. And I know it's perfectly simple."

[74] "Yes, you know it's perfectly simple."

[75] "It's all right for you to say that, but I do know it."

[76] "Would you do something for me now?"

[77] "I'd do anything for you."

[78] "Would you please please please please please please please stop talking?"
He did not say anything but looked at the bags against the wall of the station. There were labels on them from all the hotels where they had spent nights.

[79] "But I don't want you to," he said, "I don't care anything about it." "I'll scream," the girl said.
The woman came out through the curtains with two glasses of beer and put them down on the damp felt pads. "The train comes in five minutes," she said.

[80] "What did she say?" asked the girl. "That the train is coming in five minutes." The girl smiled brightly at the woman, to thank her.

[81] "I'd better take the bags over to the other side of the station," the man said. She smiled at him. "All right. Then come back and we'll finish the beer."
He picked up the two heavy bags and carried them around the station to the other tracks. He looked up the tracks but could not see the train. Coming back, he walked through the barroom, where people waiting for the train were drinking. He drank an Anis at the bar and looked at the people. They were all waiting reasonably for the train. He went out through the bead curtain. She was sitting at the table and smiled at him.

[82] -"Do you feel better?" he asked.

[83] -"I feel fine," she said."There's nothing wrong with me. I feel fine."

A COMPARISON OF COGNITIVE METAPHORS DENOTING THE CONCEPT OF "LOVE" IN TRINH CONG SON'S SONGS AND IN MARIAH CAREY'S SONGS

Do Thi Loan[1]

Abstract: *Cognitive Linguistics differs from other approaches of language study because that language is assumed to reflect certain fundamental properties and design features of the human mind, that is, it studies the relationship between language, the mind, experience and especially patterns of conceptualization. The researcher finds out 65 cognitive metaphors of LOVE in Vietnamese and 47 in English. In this investigation, readers may get more understanding and realize their common cognitive metaphors regularly used for the concept of LOVE. As a result, this investigation is likely to lay a foundation for some implication for teaching and learning English. These concepts are not only the unique creation of the composers but they also reflect a part of the way members of a culture have in conceptualizing their experiences. Music composers in every country, as a member of their country's culture, naturally employ their basic cognitive metaphors to communicate with other members and their audience. That is to say, this paper is hoped to help Vietnamese learners of English achieve better communicative competence in a cross-cultural communication.*

Keywords: *Conceptual metaphor, cognitive metaphor.*

1. Introduction

Lakoff and Johnson's research (1980) brought about a multitude of studies within this research area, and many of the conceptual metaphors regarding for instance ARGUMENT, TIME and LOVE that they discovered are used by people and are also extensively studied by linguists. The use of conceptual metaphors in everyday language may not always be evident since they are used almost automatically (Lakoff & Johnson, 1980, p.3), but when analysing for instance song lyrics, one may be able to distinguish phrases which demonstrate the very extensive use of these kinds of metaphors. By choosing to focus on the conceptual metaphors regarding the conceptual domain LOVE, and by choosing the works of one particular artist, it is possible to study how conceptual LOVE metaphors could be used by that particular artist.

LOVE is one of the by far most popular topic which inspires composers, musicians, poets, painters and writers to create so many masterpieces for humans. It is investigated by a large number of linguists to find how it is used in poetry, literature and painting. However, few investigations in the song lyrics are carried out with this topic, especially conceptual metaphors used in the song lyrics. Trinh Cong Son's songs are chosen because he is one of the most well-known composers of Vietnam in the twentieth century. Also, he is a

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philosopher in music with many unique and typical attitudes to life, love, war and piece. In contrast, Mariah Carey is very young, talented and characterized with a by far different culture and attitudes. However, the conceptual metaphors of love in her song share something in common with Trinh Cong Son's. Additionally, she also uses these concepts in a different way compared to previous song writers.

2. Theory of conceptual metaphor

In cognitive Linguistics, conceptual metaphor (CM) is defined as "understanding one conceptual domain in terms of another conceptual domain; for example, using one person's life experience to understand a different person's experience. A conceptual domain can be any coherent organization of experience [3]. CMs are seen in language in our everyday life. CMs shape not only our communication, but also the way we think and act. In Lakoff and Johnson's work, *Metaphors We Live By* [3], we can see how everyday language is formed through metaphors that we may not always notice.

[1] According to Johansen, a CM is "a metaphor that exists in the mind of a speaker, and may thus be unconscious'. In order to generate a conceptual metaphor, the knowledge from one domain must be mapped onto another. To be more specific, the domain where the concept is mapped onto the source domain (SD) and the one where the concept is mapped onto is target domain (TD).

A brief and convenient way to represent this mapping can be recognized through the pattern: *Target Domain Is Source Domain,* which is called a conceptual metaphor [1]. Take an example to make clear what is a CM through the following expression: *Love is a journey.* The SD is a concept that is more basic and easily accessible by physical experience. The SD includes "a set of literal entities, attributes, processes and relationships linked semantically and apparently stored together in the mind [1]. In the example above, the SD is *a journey*, which can easily be accessed by human mind. The TD is an abstract concept which can not be experienced straight away. In the sentence *Love is a journey, LOVE* is the TD – a concept which can not be perceived directly by the five senses. The TD normally tends to be abstract, which is a set of "relationships between entities, attributes and processes", through CM [1]. The speaker and hearer must use their understanding and experience to conceptualize and recognize such as metaphor.

3. Methodology

A corpus of 150 Trinh Cong Son's songs were selected from his best albums and the lyrics were investigated to find out his conceptual metaphors denoting love or other aspects related to the idea of love and then, were classified into certain categories. Also, 150 Mariah Carey's songs were chosen because she is a famous singer for writing songs which are closely linked with the notion of LOVE, and also the fact that she has been active long enough for possible diachronic comparisons of conceptual metaphors regarding LOVE. The lyrics were gathered from a web page called http://www.metrolyrics.com/. The lyrics were

examined and analysed; and the occurrences which describe LOVE, or certain other aspects strongly connected to the idea of love such as relationships and couples were singled out and placed in appropriate metaphor categories in order to make comparisons with Trinh Cong Son's categories. The researcher finds out 65 cognitive metaphors of LOVE in Trinh Cong Son's songs and 47 cognitive metaphors in Mariah Carey's songs.

4. Finding and discussion

4.1. Similarities

4.1.1. Love is an object

When researching the samples, the concept denoting LOVE is found as the table below:

Table 4.1. CMs expressing LOVE: Love is an object

Target domain	Source domain
Love	An object
Conceptual words denoting the notion of love	Give, receive, hold, send, gave away Chìm, trôi, ra khơi, mềm, xây
The space containing love	Hands, a package or email (can be sent), in my arms Trong mắt, trong tay, bờ vai

In Trinh Cong Son's songs, love is recognised as a concrete thing that can be touched and felt via its existence in several specific spaces.

Tình yêu như trái phá, con tim mù lòa…

Rồi tình vui *trong mắt,* rồi *tình mềm trong tay*…"

(Tình Sầu)

"Cuộc tình *chìm* xuống xa vắng tiếng cười"

(Xa dấu mặt trời)

"Cho tôi đi *xây* lại cuộc tình"

(Xin cho tôi)

LOVE is a ship or boat.

"…*cuộc tình nào đã ra khơi* ta còn mãi nơi đây…" (Tình Xa)

"…Hôm nay thức dậy, không còn thấy ai/ *Cuộc tình chìm xuống*…"

(Xa dấu mặt trời)

"… Xin vỗ tay cho đều khi *tình trôi đã trôi xa*…" (Tình xót xa vừa)

The conceptual words "*ra khơi" "trôi" "chìm*" may be used to express the moving of the actual things in real life; however, Trinh Cong Son combines those concepts with "*tình"* to denote stages of love.

Similarly, Mariah Carey's songs present the idea that LOVE is related to the properties of the source concept OBJECT referring to LOVE and the idea that one needs to hold on to LOVE when it eventually comes around. LOVE is described as an OBJECT which can be manipulated, held in one's hands, embraced or held on to such as a precious artifact.

"And it was all that you *have **given*** to me"

"I'm so thankful that I've ***received***.

The answer that heaven has ***sent*** down to me"

"Holding you so close to me"

(Vision of Love)

"I ***had*** it all/ But I let it slip away" (Love takes time)

"The one you ***gave away*** will be the only one you've wishing for"

(Someday)

4.1.2. Love is a journey

Table 4.2. CMs expressing of love: Love is a journey

Target domain	Source domain
Love	*Journey*
Moving actions	*came to be,* it's *over, slip away, stay, take ..back lăn trên đường mòn, di trong tình dài,*

In terms of journey, love is conceptualized as a journey in which it is not a smooth road but it even is a harsh, mysterious one. However, the beginning and the final destination of love can not be determined.

"…***Đi trong tình dài***, có người đã tới/ Sao trong hồn này tiếng lời hấp hối…"

(Bay đi thầm lặng)

"…Khi tình đã vội quên**, *tim lăn trên đường mòn***.

Trên giọt máu cuồng điên, con chim đứng lặng câm…"

(Ru ta ngậm ngùi)

"…***Đường*** nào ***quạnh hiu*** tôi đã đi qua/***Đường về tình tôi*** có nắng rất la đà…"

(Bên đời hiu quạnh)

"…***Người tình kia mất con đường về/*** Và trời kia mất em từ độ…"

(Níu tay nghìn trùng)

The concept of road is the space for the journey of love where the love is beautiful when the way has "***có nắng rất la đà"*** and the loneliness covers in the meaning of "***quạnh hiu" .*** The meaning of its journey is likely defined as a road with long distance, its own state and space; and passed by many people with different stages of feelings and emotions.

In Mariah Carey's songs, love travels a great distance both geographically and emotionally. However, love comes from a certain place and goes somewhere else, or metaphorically it comes into existence and develops into something significant where LOVE itself goes through a sort of journey.

"The love that ***came to be***" (Vision of Love)

" I had it all/ But I let it ***slip away***" (Love takes times)

" Nothing in the world/could ***take us back***/ ***To where*** we use to ***be***"

"…But we still won't change/It isn't right to ***stay*** together…"

(I don't wanna cry)

LOVE can arrive and leave from one state to another but itself can not be constant. It may be even seen as the idea that the relationship can go nowhere if the journey is over.

"You might say that it's *over*" (Love takes times)

"But our little romance is *through*" (You don't know what to do)

4.1.3. Love is nihility

LOVE can be described as an undefined state and summarized as follows:

Table 4.3. CMs expressing love: Love is nihility

Target domain	Source domain
Love	Inhility/ an imagined thing
The existence of love	Vision, shadow, dream, *Một thoáng hương, nắng, mây hồng*

"…Em đến bên đời hoa vàng một đóa/ *Một thoáng hương bay* bên trời phố hạ.

(Hoa vàng mấy độ)

"…Ngày xưa sao lá thu không vàng

Và *nắng* chưa vào trong mắt em" (Nắng thủy tinh)

"Trời ươm nắng cho *mây hồng*" (Mưa hồng)

LOVE is defined as a dream or an imagined picture of something divine that can be realised if one tries hard enough, not only something another person can give you. In addition, it is shown that it is likewise a state the people involved have left behind them a long time.

"I've realized *a dream*/ And I *vizualised*/ The love that came to be".

(Vision of love)

"There's just *a shadow* of a memory"

"…go on *make-believing*" (I don't wanna cry)

From what have been discussed above, some similarities can be found out in the way authors depict the picture of love in songs in English and Vietnamese. First, love is seen as a concrete object that can be held or given, even go or sail. Second, lovers seem to be travellers, dreamers, passengers of the journey with many stages from good to bad mood. This road is harsh, tough but the passengers may not find their final destination. Finally, the state of love is difficult to clarify and it may exist somewhere and disappear at any time.

4.2. Differences

Besides sharing certain common notions of love, Trinh Cong Son and Mariah Carey's song lyrics express several unique notions which may merely be seen in any works. For example, while Trinh Cong Son's song lyrics describe the notion of LOVE IS HUMAN, Mariah Carey defines LOVE IS A CAPTIVE ANIMAL or MACHINE.

"…Nghe tình *chợt buồn* trong lá xôn xao…"

(Tôi ru em ngủ)

"…Em về đâu hỡi em/ Có nghe ***tình yêu lên tiếng***…"

(Đời gọi em bao lần)

"…***Tình khâu môi cười***/ Hình hài xưa đã thay…***Tình thắp cơn sầu***/ Tình chìm qua hố sâu…***Tình lên vời núi cao***…***Tình đi âm thầm***/Nghìn trùng như vết sương…"

(Tình sầu)

"…I no longer live in your ***dominion***…"

"***Letting go***, ***letting go*** ain't easy"

(The Art of Letting Go)

These verbs ***"thắp" "khâu" "đi âm thầm" "lên tiếng"*** are sticked with the subject "love" to express the negative and positive feelings in love when the love is in good and bad mood. However, in Mariah Carey's songs the lover seems to be under the control of the partner even though one does not want to remain constant. The notion of being captured and relationship being like cages both for the people involved and LOVE itself are described through following lyrics:

"Ooh, since you ***turn me lose***"

"I'm a ***set you free*** boy"

(You don't know what to do)

Additionally, in the notion of LOVE IS A MACHINE which is reflected when describing a very unhappy relationship which did not last; for instance by describing the people involved as a cold MACHINE.

"go to MiMi on your contacts, press ***delete***"

(The art of Letting go)

By this way, love is depicted in a negative way to reflect another side of love that may not be avoided in real life. In fact, it is possibly true for certain stages of love in actual situations when love nearly comes to the end or becomes meaningless in a relationship. This idea is rather similar to Trinh Cong Son's thoughts when the seasons change; however, the attitudes in Mariah Carey's lyrics reflect directly while those imply indirectly in Trinh Cong Son's words.

Another point should be mentioned is that the notion of love in Trinh Cong Son's lyrics refers to long-time experiences in real life which is followed with a circle of time. This is a principal rule that one certainly goes past; however, few people can feel and recognize. In contrast, Mariah Carey recognizes love and the ideas of love by practical phenomena, real situations or objects. It is likely easier for people to understand her ideas while if people want to understand Trinh Cong Son's ideas people need more living experiences.

5. Conclusion

Both similar and different features of conceptual metaphors denoting love in Trinh Cong Son's songs and those in Mariah Carey's songs inspire listeners and readers to be interested in their music. Furthermore, the language in music and poetry is the language of art. Thus, conceptual metaphors are the best choice to deploy the author's ideas and

attitudes. Another aspect should be mentioned is that culture, aesthetic habits and customs contribute to building the linguistic frame to convey the notions significantly. In Trinh Cong Son's lyrics, his own living experiences strongly affect the ideas of love that have hardly ever been seen in any Vietnamese songs before. Moreover, when comparing with Mariah Carey, his ideas share some common aspects although they are separated geographically and idealistically. Hence, it is likely that certain conceptual domains are integrated in people's mind in spite of the differences in culture, time and geography. This paper analysis also shows that there are various ways of describing this particular conceptual domain via other conceptual domains.

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MODALITY IN ENGLISH AND HOW TO EXPRESS MODALITY VIA MODAL AUXILIARY VERBS

Le Thi Minh[1]

Abstract: *Although modality is considered as the accompanying information, its impact power can cover the whole propositional content. In this paper, the writer presents the concept "modality" and some views on modality, two types of modality. Also, the writer mentions one of the ways to express modality, namely modal auxiliary verbs and reports the results of a survey research on the first-year students' mistakes in using modal auxiliary then gives some suggestions to teach modal auxiliary verbs effectively.*

Keywords: *Modality, modal auxiliary verbs.*

1. Introduction

Dealing with a language, either learning or teaching it, cannot be successful without the study of language meaning. Modality is one of the fundamental meanings of language as a means of communication. Going along with words, sentences or utterances, there are a wide range of emotions, feelings, attitudes of the speaker towards the propositional content and the listener. Therefore, focusing on extensive study of modality plays an important role in language teaching. If teachers only focus on the propositional content itself and do not capture enough emotions, feelings, attitudes of the speakers towards the propositional content, the idea conveyed in an utterance is not fully understood and this causes barriers to the communication process. Also, without adequate knowledge of modality, teachers cannot teach modal auxiliary verbs effectively because they cannot grasp different levels of emotions or attitudes expressed by each modal verb in different communication contexts.

2. Literature review

2.1. Modality in English

2.1.1. Definition of modality

Bybee (1985) defines modality in broad term as *"what the speaker is doing with the whole proposition"*. Pamper (1986) offers the definition of modality as *"semantic information associated with the speaker's attitude or opinion about what is said"*. In point of fact, modality concerns the factual status of the proposition.

By contrasting propositional content and modality, Vo Dai Quang (2009) clarifies the concept of modality. According to him, proposition is *"invariant meaning devoid of modality and without reference to context"* and modality is *"type of meaning which expresses the speaker's attitude towards the propositional content"*. For example:

Perhaps Tom is right.

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Proposition: TomRIGHT

Modality: probability / uncertainty

The speaker's attitude here is the uncertainty about what is presented in the proposition.

2.1.2. Classification of modality

Nguyen Hoa (2005) clarifies the two types of modality: Espitemic modality and Deontic modality.

2.1.2.1. Espitemic modality

"Espitemic", which is derived from the Greek word meaning *"understanding"* or *"knowledge"*, refers to the type of modality that indicates the degree of commitment by the speaker to what he or she says - the extent to which the truth of a proposition is possible. In other word, espitemic can be defined as possibility-based.

Example:

(a)She must be in love with him.

(b) She may be in love with him.

What we can see in (a) is a very strong commitment by the speaker to the truth of what he or she is saying. The speaker is quite sure that it is the case that she is in love with someone else. On the other hand, a weak commitment is expressed in (b).

According to Palmer (1986), there are two kinds of espitemic commitment on the part of the speaker towards the truth of the proposition: judgements and evidentals. The former involves possibility and necessity. The latter encodes the grounds on which a speaker makes an overtly qualified assertion. The use of evidentals makes it possible for the speaker to represent the proposition more "objectively" without committing himself to an unwise representation. Meanwhile, "judgments" would appear to be more "subjective" as the commitment comes from the speaker's knowledge or belief - that is from within rather from without.

Espitemic modality has the declarative as its unmarked member of the modal system. Some examples of judgement are given below:

Judgements	Evidentals
- She is likely to be late	- I heard that you are not coming
- She may be working on the report now	- They say the match has been called off
- They must have done the work by now	- I was told that she was sick

2.1.2.2. Deontic modality

In contrast to espitemic modality, deontic modality contains an element of will, as such it is concerned with action rather than with belief, knowledge or truth, etc. deontic can be characterized as necessity-based or obligation-based. Obligation and different degree of obligation can be expressed by verbs or adjectives as well. Example:

You need to leave now

You ought to help him

It is necessary for you to speak English

It is imperative that you come in time

Imperatives or directives (where we try to get people do things) are the grammatical type of deontic modality. However, commissives (where we commit ourselves to do things) which often surface as declaratives are also recognized another type of deontic since they are also concerned with action. For example, by the sentence *"I will give you a hand"*, the speaker commits himself to ensuring that a future course of action takes place.

It is interesting to note that while espitemic modality can be grounded in the present, past or future, deontic modality is firmly grounded in the future. This means that deontics always point to a future state of affairs. Consider *"She must be nice to see him again"*. Obviously, she "will", hopefully, from any point of time after the moment of speaking. However, in some cases, deontics can be seen as just conveying a sense of objectivity, or the speaker simply reports the obligation or permission.

2.1.3. Expressing modality via modal auxiliary verbs

Vo Dai Quang (2009) summaries three ways of expressing modality as grammaticalization (mood), lexicalization (modal auxiliaries; modal words and prosodification (accent, tone, intonation). In this paper, the writer focuses on how to express modality via modal auxiliary verbs.

The ten English modal auxiliary verbs or modals -*can, could, may, might, shall, should, will would, must, ought to* - have multiple meanings depending on use and context. The most common semantic and pragmatic meanings and uses of the ten English modal auxiliary verbs are presented as follows (Vo Dai Quang, 2009).

2.1.3.1. Can

Expresses ability:

Can you speak English?

Expresses permission:

Can I smoke in here?

Expresses theoretical possibility:

The road can be blocked

2.1.3.2. Could

Expresses ability, specifically past ability:

I never could play the banjio

Expresses present or future permission:

Could I smoke in here?

Note: The meaning "ability" can bring about the implicit meaning of "willingness", particularly in spoken language:

Can/Could you do me a favour?

sometimes "could" can be used to express the permission in the past:

This used to be the children's room but they couldn't make a noise there because of the neighbours.

2.1.3.3. May

Expresses permission: in this meaning, "may" is more formal than "can". In negative form, "mustn't" is usually used instead of "may not" to express allowance:

You may borrow my car if you want.

You mustn't/may not are not allowed to borrow my car.

Expresses factual possibility:

The road may be blocked.

2.1.3.4. Might

Expresses permission:

May I smoke in here?

Expresses theoretical or factual possibility:

We might go to the concert

What you say may be true

The meaning of "may" and "might" can vary when we change form from assertive to negative and interrogative. The modal meaning "permission" ("may", "can") and "obligation" ("must", "have to") convey speaker's authority in statements and listener's authority in questions:

A: May/Can I leave now?

B: Yes, you may/can (I will permit…)

2.1.3.5. Shall

Expresses intention:

We shall let you know our decision.

Expresses willingness:

You shall do exactly as you wish.

Expresses command in legal injunctions:

The vendor shall maintain the equipment in good repair.

2.1.3.6. Should

Expresses obligation and logical necessity:

Should you do as he says?

Expresses putative:

Are you surprised that he should feel lonely?

With this meaning, "should" is largely used in "that-clause" or clause having the function of object and main clause containing emotive verb or volitional verb:

2.1.3.7. Will

Expresses willingness (used in polite requests):

Will you have another cup of tea?

Will you open the window?

Expresses intention, used mainly with the first personal pronoun:

I will write as soon as I can.

We won't stay longer than two hours.

Expresses insistence:

He will do it, whatever you say.

He will keep interrupting me.

Expresses prediction:

The game will be finished by now.

He'll always talk for hours if you give him the chance.

2.1.3.8. Would

Expresses willingness:

Would you excuse me?

Expresses insistence:

It's your own fault; you would take the baby with you.

Expresses characteristics activity in the past:

Every morning he would go for a long walk.

Expresses contigent use:

He would smoke too much if I didn't stop him.

Expresses probability

That would be his mother.

2.1.3.9. Must

Expresses obligation or compulsion at the present:

You must be back by 10 o'clock.

Expresses logical necessity:

There must be a mistake.

With this meaning, "can" is used instead of "must" in negative and interrogative form:*Can there be a mistake?*

There can't be a mistake.

2.1.3.10. Ought to

Expresses expectation: *You ought to start at once.*

Expresses shades of obligation: *Have I said anything I oughtn't?*

3. Research methodology

3.1. Participants

The sample included 60 freshmen majoring in English at Hong Duc university. Most come from various places in Thanh Hoa province with some exceptions from other parts of the country. They belong to the age group ranging from 18 to 20 and have learnt English for seven years or more.

3.2. Instruments

One instrument was used to collect data for this study, namely the written test. A test was conducted at the beginning of the semester to 60 English majors to investigate students' level of understanding of the form and use of English modal auxiliary verbs. The students' answers were analyzed and appropriate corrections were given.

3.3. Results and discussions

The students' answers to the written test revealed a lot of students' mistakes in the form and use of English modal auxiliary verbs, among of which 3 following mistakes are the most remarkable:

3.3.1. Choose the wrong modal auxiliary verbs

Many students had wrong choice of modal auxiliary verbs to complete sentences. For example, in the following sentence, instead of choosing "should", they chose "must":

"*I _____ have gone to see my instructor during office hours but I did not have time.*"

In this sentence, the suitable modal auxiliary verb is "should" because the phrase "should have done" expresses the action that should be done in the past while the phrase "must have done" expresses a subjunctive or a certainty. The reason why students had this mistake is that most modal auxiliary verbs have more than one meaning which cause confusion for learners.

3.3.2. Use the wrong form of modal auxiliary verb phrase

When a modal combines with an action verb, the action verb must be in bare infinitive form. But when doing the written test, more than 50% of the students put the action verbs in "to" infinitive form or obsessed with the tense of the action verbs. For example, when completing the following sentence:

"*She might_____ at the library tonight*".

they gave the answer "to study" or "studies" while the correct answer is "study".

3.3.3. Use the wrong tense with modal auxiliary verbs

Many students did not competently understand the time meaning expressed in sentences so that they put modal auxiliary verbs in wrong tense. They usually confuse between present and past tenses. For example, the action of "excercising" in the following sentence belongs to past time (yesterday), the correct sentence is *"My muscles are sore. I should not have exercised so hard yesterday"* but students gave the answer "should not exercise".

4. Suggestions for teaching English modal auxiliary verbs

4.1. Teaching modal auxiliary verbs - an important part of teaching verb phrases

Learning a language is not a master of acquiring a set of grammatical rules and building up a large vocabulary. It is unacceptable to produce ungrammatical sentences in

both spoken and written forms. Every English sentence has a verb phrase. Therefore, teaching modal auxiliary verbs should not be separated from teaching verb phrases, especially in the first stage. When learning modal auxiliary verbs, some students often confuse "will" and "shall" or "must" and "have to", etc. Sometimes, it is difficult for them to distinguish the use of the structure "must do something" and "must have done something" so the teacher's task is to explain in a simple way.

4.2. Steps and techniques used to teach modal auxiliary verbs

In general, modal auxiliary verbs are taught in two stages: Presentation and Practice. Firstly, teachers explain the meaning and the sound, the uses, the forms with the help of visual aids, context or situation and give more examples to clarify them. Secondly, in the practice stage, teachers help learners grasp the structure thoroughly so that they can use them correctly when communicating.

4.2.1. Presentation stage

In this stage, teachers present modal auxiliary verbs through contextualization

"Modal auxiliaries are very problematic for most students as well, because, unlike other verbs in English, modals act like sentential operations, that is, they impact a quality of probability, obligation, etc to the entire sentence. Therefore, to communicate the function and meaning of a modal, lesson must be richly contextualized with a variety of examples" (Bybee, 1994).

Teachers should create authentic situations and make full use of this in the classroom then combine with appropriate facial expression and activities to make the lesson easy to understand.

Example: When teaching the modal verb "must", teachers create the situation*"I told you something important. You don't tell anybody what I said. It is necessary that you keep it a secret"*. Then teachers give the sentence *"You must keep it a secret"* and emphasize the modal "must". After that, teachers give the form of the verb "must" and ask students to make some examples.

An example with the modal "need" is extracted from the textbook "Essential grammar in use" by Raymond Murphy. The situation is *"Geogre had to go out. He thought it was going to rain, so he decided to take the umbrella. But it didn't rain, so the umbrella was not necessary"*. Teachers give the sentence that describe this situation *"Geogre needn't have taken the umbrella"*.

In all cases, teachers should remind students of the time meaning so that students can put modal auxiliary verbs in correct form.

4.2.2. Practice stage

In this stage, teachers let students work in pairs or groups. Students often enjoy working in pairs or in groups so that they can freely practice and check for one another. Roles-play and re-phrasing are two useful activities.

4.2.2.1. Roles-play

For example, teachers divide students into pairs, and each pair is given a situation. The situation might be:

"Student A, you want to go to a concert with your friends. Please ask Student B for permission. Student B, you are worried about Student A going to the concert. Negotiate with Student A and command him be home at a specific time."

Another situation might be:

"Student A, you are going to a business meeting in Tokyo with Student B. Please discuss your trip with him and say when you expect the meeting to start and finish, and when you expect to return home. Student B, discusses the trip with Student A, and says that it is necessary for you to be back at a certain time because you have another meeting."

The situations chosen should, of course, be meaningful to the students. Modals should be avoided in the description of the situation, but used during the role play itself. The students should be given a couple of minutes to prepare the role play, which is then presented in front of the class. Examples of modals are then taken from the role play, and the students who did not participate are asked to identify what the modals referred to. For example, teachers can give some questions like:

"Student A said, "We have to be back by tomorrow evening".

Was she making a suggestion?

Was she talking about being certain that something was true?

What do you think?

4.2.2.2. Re-phrasing

This activity can be done either as a speaking or writing exercise, and offers an advantage over more traditional cloze exercises in that the context is not open to interpretation. Generally with re-phrasing, students are given a sentence which expresses modality without using a modal. They are then asked to re-phrase this sentence, using the appropriate modal. One example would be:

I am reasonably certain that Francesca is home.

Francesca _____ . (should be home)

A variation which might be helpful for lower-level classes would be to give students a choice of three possible re-phrases.

I am reasonably certain that Francesca is home.

a. Francesca should be home.

b. Francesca doesn't have to be home.

c. Francesca must be home.

5. Conclusion

Modality does not exist as a special type of meaning along with the content of proposition. The study of modality cannot be ignored in teaching and learning language.

Different linguists have different views on modality. However, all of them seem to have one common point, which agrees that modality expresses the speaker's attitudes, emotions towards the propositional content and the listener. In English, there exists a relation between modality and propositional content. Although modality is considered as the accompanying information, its impact power can cover the whole propositional content. It uses the propositional content to function its tasks: evaluating, remarking, etc. In short, propositional content does need modality to function as a means of communication.

In English, there are two types of modality: espitemic and deontic. Espitemic modality indicates the degree of commitment by the speaker to what he or she says and it can be described as possibility-based. Deontic modality contains an element of will as such it is concerned with action rather than with belief, knowledge or truth and can be characterized as necessity-based or obligation-based.

Modality in English can be expressed through means of grammaticalization (mood), lexicalization (modal auxiliaries; modal words and prosodification (accent, tone, intonation). Due to the limited time, the writer only mentions modal auxiliary verbs by listing their most common meanings as well as relevant examples. The writer's suggestion about the speaking and writing activities to teach modal auxiliary verbs aims to help students use modal auxiliary verbs correctly and naturally in authentic communicating situation.

Students who are participants in the research should involve themselves in richly contextualized speaking and writing activities and frequent linguistic tests relating to English modal auxiliary verbs. Such linguistic exposures will effectively help them master the form and use of English modal auxiliary verbs.

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USING COMMUNICATIVE ACTIVITIES TO IMPROVE ENGLISH SPEAKING SKILLS FOR STUDENTS OF TOURISM AT HONG DUC UNIVERSITY

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Abstract: *The study aims to investigate tourism students' preferences when the teachers use communicative activities in teaching speaking. Basing on such findings, the study proposes some recommendations for the teachers of English of Tourism at Hong Duc university (HDU) in terms of preparation and class management to develop communicative activities in order to meet the students' preferences.*

Keywords: *Communicative, speaking skills, students of tourism*

1. Introduction

The communicative approach is assumed to provide learners opportunities for learning better than the grammar-based approach. It was argued that learners learn a language through the process of communicating. Instead of making use of activities that demand accurate repetition and memorization of sentences and grammar patterns, activities that require learners to negotiate meaning and to interact meaningfully are required. The remarkable changes in teaching and learning can be seen recently since Communicative Teaching Method was applied to satisfy students' needs. So, we are aware of the importance of using such methods to help students become good communicators of English.

On the other hand, like many other teachers at HDU, we have encountered a number of difficulties in helping the students of tourism enhance their English speaking skills, especially, in motivating reluctant students who speak English only when they are made to do. In order to improve English speakingskills for tourism students at HDU, communicative activities are carried out and applied.

2. Overview of Communicative Language Teaching

The concept of Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) can be said to originate from the language theory as communication. Hymes (1972) considers its goal as to develop "communicative competence"; CLT places emphasis on learning language functions and helping students use the target language in a variety of contexts. This means that successfully learning a foreign language is assessed in terms of how well learners have developed their communicative competence. Li (1998) states that the common characteristics of CLT are meaningful tasks communicative functions, the use of pair and group work and authentic materials.

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Littlewood (1981:17) argues that there are some contributions that communicative activities can make to language teaching such as "whole - task practice", improving motivation, allowing natural learning, and create a context supports learning.

Firstly, communicative activities can provide "whole - task practice". In foreign language teaching, learners carry out various kinds of skilled performance. Learners are trained in the part skills in which the performance is composed or practice in total skill, sometimes called "whole-task practice".

Secondly, communicative activities improve motivation. Learners' ultimate objective is to take part in communication with others.

As Byrne (1978), co-operation and competition in pair work and group work are essential motivation in learning English. In doing communicative activities, students interact in role - playing, arguing and debating and use language in different situations.

Communicative activities also create a context that supports learning. Communicative activities can banish boredom and create an enjoyable atmosphere in learning language. They provide opportunities for positive personal relationships among learners and between learners and teacher. Such relationship can help to "humanize" the classroom and to create an environment that supports the individual in his efforts to learn.

3. Classroom culture and culture context

Historically, classes, in Vietnam in general and at HDU in particular, are often teacher-dominated; teachers speak whilst students listen and take notes - a format greatly lacking in interaction. Many studies have suggested that teacher-dominated classes instead of learner - centered classes prevent students from practising oral skills effectively. And, in fact, in speaking classes, students are reluctant to present their views loudly for fear of losing face or offending others. Students are not acquainted with arguing for their own point of view.

English classes for tourism students are all large ones with the number of about over 40 students. Inside the classroom, students sit in long rows with four or five in one row, thus it is impossible for communicative activities while the teacher is under pressure to cover the allocated syllabus in the time allowed. The crowded classroom leaves hardly any room for free communicative activities such as information-gap or problem-solving tasks, especially those which require moving around or passing messages to one another. Over-sized English classes make speaking lessons stiff and unmoving. Teachers often feel stressful in doing lesson plan and designing activities to cope with such large multi-level classes.

The teaching materials currently used for the tourism students are "English for International Tourism" - pre-intermediate (IwannaDubica&MargraretO'keeffe; Longman Publisher; 2009) and "English for Tourism" (Faculty of Tourism, Hanoi Open University; 2007). These are textbooks designed towards the approach of communicative. The textbooks are programmed to be taught in 84 periods. Each unit in these textbooks treats four skills of listening, speaking, reading, and writing. Each skill or combination between listening and

speaking or reading and writing is taught in one or two periods. The textbook provides a range of communicative activities. Additionally, the English syllabus being followed in our University allows teachers to select supplementary materials/ activities in teaching speaking in the class.

We, teachers of Tourism English at HDU, realized the students' difficulties in speaking English and would like to change and made a decision to innovate the teachers' teaching. We decided to implement the innovation in our classes. We also designed the materials and curriculum suitable to student's abilities.

4. Methodology

The participants of this study are 56 students of K16-Vietnamese Studies, Tourism Management Orientation at HDU. All of them are third - year students. Their English proficiency is at elementary level.

The methodology we use in this study to collect data for the study is both qualitative and quantitative. The data came from the responses of 56 students of tourism English at HDU.

The pre-questionnaire was designed for the students to collect information concerning. The data collection and analysis are concretely analyzed in the sections. 56 copies of pre-questionnaire were delivered to students to ask for their attitudes towards communicative activities being used by the classroom teachers and their effectiveness, as well as students' preferences then we analysed the results and consulted with other colleagues to draw out some strategies on lesson preparations and class managements to conduct communicative activities in favor of students' preferences.

The classroom questionnaires including pre-questionnaire and post-questionnaire are used to collect data for the study.

5. Findings and Analysis

5.1. The pre-activity questionnaire:

The pre-activity questionnaire aims at gathering the information for the research of using communicative activities (C/As) in speaking class for tourism students of English at HDU.

5.1.1. The frequency of students' participation in communicative activities

Table 1. The frequency of students' participation in communicative activities

Frequency	Number	Percentage (%)
Always	11	19.65%
Usually	34	60.7%
Sometimes	11	19.65%
Never	0	0

It is easy to realize that most students learning Tourism English at HDU often join in communicative activities in speaking class. 19.65% say that they always take part in such

activities. Students who usually participate in communicative activities in the class achieve the largest percentage, 60.7%, and 19.65% of them sometimes do which shows that there are some reasons that prevent them from getting involved in communicative activities during their learning. No one refuses to take part in communicative activities.

5.1.2. The effectiveness of communicative activities for students' speaking learning

Table 2: The effectiveness of communicative activities for students' speaking learning

Effectiveness of C/As	Number of students	Percentage (%)
Ineffective	17	30.36%
Effective	39	69.64%

The interactive results explored in the effectiveness of speaking in current communicative activities are shown unsurprisingly that the percentage of ineffectiveness predominates 69.64%. This number reveals that the teacher's methodology of using communicative is not appropriate to those students. Only 30.36% of them said that C/As are effective for their learning speaking. Briefly, it can be concluded that the students learning Tourism English at HDU are not interested in current communicative activities being used by their teachers in the speaking class.

5.1.3. Students' opinions of communicative activities in the class

Table 3. Students' opinions of communicative activities in the class

Option	Number	Percentage (%)
easy	20	35.71%
difficult	23	41.07%
appropriate	13	23.22%

35.71% of students think that C/As are too easy for them. 40% of the students find them too difficult and only 23.22% find them appropriate. These numbers indicate that not all textbook activities are appropriate to students. Because the choice of an activity plays an important role in the success of using communicative activities, the teacher has to select appropriate activities for the students.

5.1.4. Students' opinions on teacher's instructions for communicative activities

Table 4. Students' opinions on teacher's instructions for communicative activities

Instructions for C/As	Number of students	Percentage (%)
Clear	25	44.64%
Not clear	31	55.36%

The results show that only 44.64% of students understand the teacher's instructions. 55.36% of them say that the teacher's instructions are not clear enough for them. They say

that the main reasons include the teacher who always gives an instruction in English so they sometimes do not understand, and the teacher does not usually give demonstration for the activity so they cannot imagine how they will do.

5.1.5. Students' preferences for different activities

Table 5. Students' preferences for different activities

Activities	Number of students participating	Percentage %
Activity 1	48	85.71%
Activity 2	38	67.86%
Activity 3	52	92.86%
Activity 4	46	82.14%
Activity 5	49	87.5%
Activity 6	43	77.79%
Activity 7	24	42.86%
Activity 8	35	62.5%
Activity 9	45	80.36%
Activity 10	46	82.14%

The table gives us an overview on the kinds of communicative activities that students like. The most preferred ones include activity 9-learning English songs, activity 10-information gap, activity 5-problem solving. These dislikes are reasonable because such activities require good listening and reading skill.Whereas, the students at elementary level are not good at all. Nevertheless, they find other activities interesting enough such as activity 6 - talking about yourself, activity 3 - finding the differences or similarities between two pictures, and activity 1 – discussion. Bearing in mind activities that students like will help the teacher select and prepare for the lesson better.

5.1.6. Students' preferences on the source of communicative activities

Table 6. Students' preferences on the source of communicative activities

Sources of C/As	Number of students	Percentage (%)
Textbook	21	37.5%
Other materials	13	23.2%
Both textbook & other materials	22	39.3%

The result shows that 37.5% like activities from textbook while 23.2% like activities from other sources. The left (39.3%) gives the idea that the activities should be combined. In general, they find activities for speaking in the textbooks interesting but some of them are difficult. For such difficult ones, teachers should modify to meet students' level or alternate by activities from other sources.

5.1.7. Students' opinions on communicative activities

Table 7. Students' opinions on communicative activities

Opinions on C/As	Number of students	Percentage (%)
Pairwork&groupwork	36	64.28%
The whole class	12	21.43%
Individual	8	14.29%

The students prefer pair work and group work to the whole class work and individual work. The former makes up 64.28%. The reason for such high percentage may be that the students find pair work and group work benefit them to interact together. The latter reaches only 35.71% in which 21.42% is for the whole class work and 14.29% for the individual work. This result will encourage the teacher to use more activities which take pair work and group work.

5.1.8. Group types that students like

Table 8. Group types that students like

Option	Number	Percentage (%)
Students at the same ability	24	42.86%
Students at mixed ability	32	57.14%

The result shows that the students who like working with others at the same ability reach nearly the same percentage of students who like grouping with students at mixed ability. The former holds 42.86% meanwhile the latter holds 57.14%, which suggests the teacher that he should vary the way to group level of students from activity to activity.

In summary, students are not interested in the teachers' use of current communicative activities. They do not find such techniques effective in learning speaking. The reason that the way the teachers organize and manage communicative activities as well as material selection does not match with the students' preferences. After one experimental month of the applying innovation in teaching speaking skills, we made the survey from the post-questionnaire. The following section will make clear the results from the data collection.

5.2. Post - activity questionnaire

The post questionnaire aims at gathering the information for the research after the teacher uses improvement methodology in using communicative activities

5.2.1. Evaluation on communicative activities after measures

Table 9. Evaluation on communicative activities after measures

Option	Number	Percentage (%)
Boring	4	7.14%
Interesting	45	80.36%
Other (satisfying)	7	12.5%

The results gained show students' pleasures in C/As. After the teacher improved his methodology in using C/As, it seems that the students have positive attitude about such techniques. Fairly high level of the students (80.36%) says that such activities are interesting. Some other students, 12.5% say that they are satisfied. The number of students still finds such activities boring holds 7.14%. This percentage is not very high. Since the number of students who are interested in C/As predominates, it seems that the methodology improvement is effective. This result will encourage the teachers to develop such strategies in the class.

5.2.2. Evaluation on the teacher's instructions

Table 10. Evaluation on the teacher's instructions

Option	Evaluation	Percentage (%)
Teacher's instruction	Short, clear	93%
	Difficult to understand	7%

The responses state that extremely high percentage (93%) of the students comment that the teachers give proper instructions so that they can do activities more effectively. This number increases considerably in comparison with the number before improving (93% to 45%). Only a small number (7%) give the opposite answer. The answer for this number is that there are a few students in the class whose English are not very good.

5.2.3. Evaluation on the teacher's feedback

Table 11. Evaluation on the teacher's feedback

Option of evaluation	Number of students	Percentage (%)
Very useful	45	80.36%
Useful	7	12.5%
Normal	3	5.36%
Not useful	1	1.78%

According to the table, there is strong evidence that 92.86% of students asserted their good impression on the teacher's feedback, which appeared to be very helpful and helpful to any individual if they need. However, it does not mean that the teacher provides useful feedback all time. Though 7.14% is small percentage; there remain students who find the teacher's feedback not useful or normal for them. The reason could be that those students are false beginners. They have difficulties in catching up with the class. So there is no doubt that they do not understand the teacher's feedbacks in case he gives the comments to the whole class generally. Nevertheless, this number of students is not the representative for the whole.

5.2.4. Evaluation on group types

Table 12. Evaluation on group types

Option	Yes		No		No idea	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
Pair work	53	94.6	0	0	3	5.4
Group work	54	96.4	2	3.6	0	0

It is easy to realize that 94.6% of students admit that they enjoy the way the teacher puts them in pairs. The fact is that the teacher varied the way to form pair work from activity to activity. They can work in pairs with students in the same row, column, randomly chosen by the teacher, or they chose partners by themselves. The left, 5.4% gives no idea. The percentage of students who like group work (96.4%) is less than students who like pair work. Only 3.6% of them dislike the way the teacher puts them in groups.

5.2.5. The effectiveness of communicative activities for students' speaking learning

Table 13. The effectiveness of communicative activities for students' speaking learning

Effectiveness of C/As		Number of students	Percentage (%)
Post measures	Effective	53	94.64%
	Ineffective	3	5.34%
Pre-measures	Effective	39	69.64%
	Ineffective	17	30.36%

The effectiveness of developing C/As is revealed through the students' assessment. We are glad to find out that the percentage of students who benefit from C/As for their speaking learning goes up, 94.64% against 30.36% in comparison with beforehand. Though communicative activities are still ineffective for 5.34% of students, this is not very high percentage. We still believe that the methodology used to develop communicative activities is helpful for students.

6. Conclusion

The study is aimed to investigate the gap between students' preferences and teachers' teaching in using communicative activities. With the use of pre-questionnaire and post-questionnaire for the students, we have reached the answers to the research question. After collecting students' preferences, we tried 8 lessons with strategies in which the teaching meets those preferences. The results from the post-questionnaire show that the students have positive attitudes to new strategies, their speaking learning becomes effective. However, limitations are unavoidable.

Though the research is still a long way from perfection and there remain limitations, it is believed that the study will contribute positively to the using of communicative activities

in teaching speaking for tourism students of English at HDU. As no single research design is flawless and complete, this study cannot cover everything in the field of matching teaching styles with learning styles. Basing on the foregoing findings from the study, we find that the preparation of communicative activities and class management play important roles in bringing students' learning effectiveness in communicative activities.

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TEXTUAL COHESION IN OBAMA'S ARTICLE
"THIS IS WHAT A FEMINIST LOOKS LIKE"

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Abstract: *Cohesion plays an important role in creating unity for a text. It can be achieved by the use of cohesive devices or ties. This paper provides an overview of textual cohesion, cohesive devices and Halliday & Hasan's taxonomy of cohesive devices. The article "This is what a feminist looks like" written by President Barack Obama will be analyzed as an illustration for the three main parts mentioned above.*

Keywords: *Textual cohesion, Halliday & Hasan's taxonomy of cohesive devices, Obama's article.*

1. Introduction

A text or a discourse does not just contain disconnected sequence of sentences. It is the combination of sentences in a logical way according to their meaning, which helps to create unity for a text. This is what we call cohesion, in which sentences are linked together to function as a whole. It is clear that cohesion plays an important role in text organization as it makes the text connected and easy to be followed. Cohesion can be achieved by a number of cohesive devices or ties. There are different ways to classify cohesive devices, but the taxonomy of Halliday & Hasan is among the best well-known ones.

On August 4th 2016, President Barack Obama wrote the essay "This is what a feminist looks like" published in Glamour magazine - a young women's magazine. In his article, Barack Obama described himself as a feminist and called for men's effort to break down gender stereotypes. Besides its significant role in boosting gender equality, this article is also considered a good example of using textual cohesion. In this essay, the writer will analyze Barack Obama's article "This is what a feminist looks like" based on Halliday & Hasan's taxonomy of cohesive devices in order to further understand the use of textual cohesion in discourse in general and the Halliday & Hasan's taxonomy of cohesive devices in particular.

2. Definition of Cohesion

This section will review definitions of cohesion given by some famous scholars. Halliday and Hasan (1976) define cohesion as "a semantic relation between an element in the text and some other elements that are crucial to the interpretation of it". According to Morris & Hirst (1991), cohesion is "the textual quality that makes the text sentences hang together." Another definition given by Beaugrande & Dressler (1981, p.3) refers to cohesion as "the ways in which the components of the surface text (the actual words we hear or see) are mutually connected within a sequence"

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Based on the aforementioned definitions, it can be understood that cohesion is the semantic relationship between different elements of a text which hold it together. Cohesion distinguishes a text from a disconnected sequence of sentences. It makes the text smooth and easy to be followed and understood by its readers.

3. Halliday & Hasan's Taxonomy of Cohesive Devices

Halliday and Hasan (1976) define cohesive devices as "the means whereby elements that are structurally unrelated to one another are linked together, through the dependence of one upon another for its interpretation".

Accoding to Halliday & Hasan (1976), cohesive devices are classified into grammatical cohesive devices and lexical ones. Grammatical cohesive devices are further catagorized into four types: reference, substitution, ellipsis and conjunction.

3.1. Grammatical Cohesive Devices

3.1.1. Reference

In Halliday and Hasan's model, reference refers to the relationship between two linguistic expressions. Halliday and Hasan (1976) think that "cohesion lies in the continuity of reference, whereby the same thing enters into the discourse a second time". According to Halliday and Hasan (1976, p.33), there are three types of reference: Endophoric (anaphoric and cataphoric) and Exophoric.

Exophoric reference: According to McCarthy (1991, p.41), "Exophoric reference directs the receiver 'out of' the text and into an assumed shared world". In other words, it is reference to items outside the text. Halliday and Hasan considered exophoric reference not cohesive, since it does not tie two elements together in a text.

Endophoric reference: Brown and Yule (1983, p.192) state that "where their interpretation lies within a text they are called 'endophoric' relations and do from cohesive ties within the text". It can be refered that Endophoric reference is reference to items within the text. Endophoric reference can be devided into Anaphoric and Cataphoric reference.

Anaphoric reference: The referent precedes the cohesive device; it occurs when the writer refers back to something that has been previously identified.
E.g. "Mary learns very hard. <u>She</u> often gets good marks in exams".
In this example the pronoun "she" refers back to the person called Mary.

Cataphoric reference: Cataphoric reference means that a word in a text refers to another later in the text and you need to look forward to understand. In this example, "he" refers to John:
E.g. "When <u>he</u> arrived, John noticed that the door was open".
Haliday and Hasan (1976) divide referential cohesion into three sub-types; namely, personal, demonstrative and comparative.

Personal reference: is a reference by means of person. It includes:
Personal pronouns (e.g., I, he, she, it, they, we, you, one)

Possessive pronouns (e.g., mine, hers, his, its, theirs, ours, yours)

Possessive determiners (e.g., my, your, her, his, their, our, its, one's)

(*Haliday and Hasan, 1976, p.38*)

Demonstrative reference: is an essentially form of verbal pointing. The speaker identifies the referent by locating it on a scale of proximity. In general, "this, these, here" imply proximity to the speaker; "that, those, there" imply distance from the speaker.

(*Haliday and Hasan, 1976, p.38*)

Comparative reference: contributes to textual cohesion by setting up a relation of contrast expressed by such adjectives as "same, identical, equal, similar, additional, other, else"; adverbs such as "similarly, identically, likewise, so, such, differently, otherwise"; adjectives and adverbs in a comparative degree such as "bigger, more, less, better". (*Haliday and Hasan, 1976, p.39*)

3.1.2. Substitution

Substitution is the replacement of one item by another. There are three types of substitution: Nominal, verbal and clausal.

Nominal substitution

+ for noun head: one/ ones

+ for nominal complement: the same

+ for attribute: so

E.g. "*My house is too small for my family to live in. I need to buy a new <u>one</u>.*"

("*One" is the substitution for "house"*)

Verbal substitution

for verb: do, be, have

for process: do the same /likewise

for proposition: do so, be so

E.g. *A: Have the children <u>gone to sleep</u>?*

B: They must have **done** *(Halliday 1994, p.321)*

Clausal substitution

for positive: so

E.g. A: *Is Mary friendly?* - B: *Everyone says <u>so</u>.*

for negative: not

E.g. A: *Will it rain tomorrow?* - B: *I hope <u>not</u>.*

3.1.3. Ellipsis

Haliday and Hasan (1976) state that ellipsis can be "interpreted as that form of substitution in which the item is replaced by nothing". It can be understood that ellipsis is the deletion of words, expressions or phrases. It is simply "substitution by zero".

There are three types of ellipsis: Nominal, verbal and clausal.

E.g. *I have made some cakes. Take some* ϕ *if you like.* → Nominal ellipsis

Have you been swimming? Yes, I have ϕ. → Verbal ellipsis

A: Somebody telephoned and asked to see you last night.

B: Who ɸ? → Clausal ellipsis

3.1.4. Conjunctions

According to Paltridge and Burton (2000), conjunctions are words joining phrases, clauses, or sections of the text in ways that express their logical-semantic relationship. According to Haliday and Hasan's taxonomy, there are four main types of conjunction: Additive conjunctions, adversative conjunctions, causal conjunctions, and temporal conjunctions.

Additive conjunction is a kind of conjunctive relation which is closer to coordination. Some additive words are: *and, also, nor, or else, moreover, in addition, besides, by the way, that is, likewise, similarly, conversely, thus, for instance.*

E.g. *He is intelligent and hard-working.*

Adversative conjunction shows the adversative relation, which means "contrary to expectation". Some adversative words are: *yet, but, however, despite this, on the other hand, in fact, instead, either way, anyhow, nevertheless, rather.*

E.g. *She worked very hard. However, she did not pass the entrance examination.*

Causal conjunction interprets the relationship between the cause and consequence. Some causal words are: *so, thus, hence, therefore, arising out of this, in that case, otherwise, because, as a result (of this), on this basis, accordingly.*

E.g. *I did not know that he was in hospital. Otherwise, I would have visited him.*

Temporal conjunction expresses the relationships exiting when the events in a text are related in terms of the timing of their occurrence. Some temporal words are: *first, then, after that, at the same time, when, while, meanwhile.*

E.g. *At last, he found his keys.*

3.2. Lexical Cohesion

Lexical cohesion can be achieved by the selection of vocabulary. There are two main types of lexical cohesion: Reiteration and Collocation

Reiteration is a form of lexical cohesion which involves repetition, synonym or near synonym, superordinate and a general noun.

E.g. *"If you think <u>you can win, you can win</u>". (William Hazlitt) →* Repetition

E.g. *In front of the house were parked three <u>vehicles: a lorry, a car</u> and a <u>bike</u>*

→ Superordinate

E.g. *I turned to the <u>ascent</u> of the peak. The <u>climb</u> is perfectly is easy.*

→ Synonym

E.g. *I turned to the ascent of the peak. <u>The thing</u> is perfectly easy.*

→ General noun

E.g. *There is a <u>boy</u> climbing that tree. The <u>lad</u> is going to fall if he doesn't take care*

→ Near-Synonym

Collocation is cohesion that is achieved through the association of lexical items that regularly co-occur. These lexical items or words tend to occur in similar environments. For instance: *reader/writer, teacher/students, chair/table, north/south, peace/war*, etc.

4. Analysis of Textual Cohesion in the article "This is what a feminist looks like"

4.1. Reference: In the article, three types of reference are applied to achieve the textual cohesion

4.1.1. Personal

In the discourse, personal reference includes:

Personal pronouns: I (27 times), you (11 times), they (8 times), she (8 times) , we (19 times), me (4 times);

Possesive pronouns: theirs (1 time);

Possesive determiners: my (17 times), her (4 times), their (6 times), our (14 times) , your (9 times).

For example:

(1) One of <u>my</u> heroines is <u>Congresswoman Shirley Chisholm</u>, who was the first African American to run for a major party's presidential nomination. (2) <u>She</u> once said, "The emotional, sexual, and psychological stereotyping of females begins when the doctor says, 'It's a girl.'" (3) <u>We</u> know that these stereotypes affect how girls see themselves starting at a very young age, making them feel that if they don't look or act a certain way, they are somehow less worthy. (4) In fact, gender stereotypes affect all of <u>us</u>, regardless of <u>our</u> gender, gender identity, or sexual orientation.

In sentences (1) and (2), Obama uses personal pronoun "she" as an anaphoric reference, which refers to the information in the preceding text; namely, "Congresswoman Shirley Chisholm".

Likewise, in sentence (3), "themselves", "them" and "they" are also used as anaphoric references to refer to "girls".

Besides, other personal pronouns (we, us) and possesive determiners (my, our) also help create the cohesion between sentences in the text.

4.1.2. Demonstrative

In the article, demonstratives "this" (7 times), "these" (4 times) and "here" (1 time) are used as anaphoric reference to refer to objects close to the speaker. For instance, in the 1st sentence of the 2nd paragraph, the demonstrative "this" is an anaphoric reference to replace the phrase "being President", which helps connect the ideas between the 1st and 2nd paragraphs.

"There are a lot of tough aspects to being President. But there are some perks too. Meeting extraordinary people across the country. Holding an office where you get to make a difference in the life of our nation. Air Force One.

But perhaps the greatest unexpected gift of <u>this</u> job has been living above the store...".

Other good examples of the use of demonstratives to enhance conhesion are in the following sentences: *"We need to keep changing a culture that shines a particularly unforgiving light on women and girls of color. Michelle has often spoken about <u>this</u>."* Clearly, the ideas are linked closely together by using anaphoric reference "this" to refer to the whole preceding sentence.

Likewise, the demonstrative "these" in the following example is also used as an anaphoric reference to create the cohesion between sentences in the paragraph.

"...And you're helping all of us understand that forcing people to adhere to outmoded, rigid notions of identity isn't good for anybody—men, women, gay, straight, transgender, or otherwise. <u>These stereotypes</u> limit our ability to simply be ourselves."

"These stereotypes" are all the aforementioned information in the previous sentence. By using the demonstrative "these", Obama can avoid repeating words and make two sentences become more connected to each other.

While "this" and "these" in the above examples are demonstrative adjectives, they are also used as determiner pronouns as "this" in the following sentence: *"Michelle has often spoken about this"*.

Besides, two demonstratives "that" (7 times) and "those" (2 times) also contribute to the cohesion of the discourse. These demonstratives are used to show distance from the speaker. The use of demonstrative "that" to connect ideas is shown by analyzing the 2nd and the 3rd paragraphs of the article:

"...For many years my life was consumed by long commutes—from my home in Chicago to Springfield, Illinois, as a state senator, and then to Washington, D.C., as a United States senator...But for the past seven and a half years, <u>that</u> commute has been reduced to 45 seconds—the time it takes to walk from my living room to the Oval Office..."

In this example, the demonstrative adjective "that" helps the text become shorter by replacing long lines of information given earlier; namely, *"...by long commutes—from my home in Chicago to Springfield, Illinois, as a state senator, and then to Washington, D.C., as a United States senator"*. At the same time, the 2nd and the 3rd paragraphs are well-connected.

Besides, "that" is also a demonstrative pronoun as in the following sentences: *"<u>That</u> would do a disservice to all those who spent their lives fighting for justice"* or *"In fact, the most important change may be the toughest of all—and <u>that</u>'s changing ourselves."*

Although the word "that" appears 36 times in the discourse, only 7 of them are demonstratives which are used as cohesive devices as in the above examples. The rest are used in a relative clause *(e.g. "In my lifetime we've gone from a job market that basically confined women to a...")* or in a noun clause *(e.g. "We know that these stereotypes affect how girls see themselves starting...")*.

It can be seen that most of the references used in this article to create textual cohesion belong to anaphoric reference. However, there are some cataphoric references in this text. For example: *"<u>The</u> good news is that everywhere I go across the country, and around the*

world, I see people pushing back against dated assumptions about gender roles". In this sentence, readers need to look forward to understand what is "the good news".

4.1.3. Comparative

In the article, compartive adjectives also contribute to textual cohesion. Adjectives in a comparative degree are used 5 times in the discourse; namely, *"harder"," better", "older"* and *"more".* Besides, a relation of contrast is created in the following sentence with the use of adjective "*equal*": *"And those same stereotypes affected my own consciousness as a young man. we need to work hard and be deliberate about creating truly equal relationships."*

4.2. Conjunctions

In the article, Obama uses a wide range of conjunctions to connect words, phrases, or clauses and mark relationships between clauses and sentences.

The first category of conjunctions is additive. In the discourse, the linking word "and" is used 9 times to add the information. For instance:

"And yes, it's important that their dad is a feminist..."

"And as spouses and partners and boyfriends, we need to work hard and be deliberate about creating truly equal relationships."

"And you're helping all of us understand that forcing people to adhere to outmoded..."

"And it's just one more example of how far women have come on the long journey toward equality."

Besides, the cooperation relationship between sentences in the discourse is expressed by the conjunction "also", which is used 3 times in the passage.

"And I say that not just as President but also as a feminist."

"...I was often away from home serving in the state legislature, while also juggling my teaching responsibilities as a law professor"

The second type of conjunctions used in the article is adversative. The connector "but" appears 6 times to show a relationship of contrast between ideas of one sentence and its preceding one.

"But for the past seven and a half years, that commute has been reduced to 45 seconds"

"There are a lot of tough aspects to being President. But there are some perks too."

Another adversative transitional word is "in fact".

"Gone are the days when you needed a husband to get a credit card. In fact, more women than ever, married or single, are financially independent."

Thirdly, sentences in the text are also well-connected by a causal relationship with the use of causal words such as "*so*" (3 times), *"because"* (1 time) or *"as a result"* (1 time).

"So we shouldn't downplay how far we've come."

"So we need to break through these limitations."

"And yes, it's important that their dad is a feminist, because now that's what they expect of all men."

"As a result, I've been able to spend a lot more time watching my daughters grow up into smart, funny, kind, wonderful young women."

Lastly, temporal connectives make the discourse more cohesive when ideas are written on the basis of time and order. Conjunctions of temporal relation are such as *"then"* (2 times), *"now"* (3 times) or *"after"* (3 times) in the following sentences:

"Then you're being too bossy."

"Now, the most important people in my life have always been women."

"Even after achieving success in her own right, she still held doubts."

4.3. Lexical Cohesion

Lexical cohesion of a discourse can be achieved by the selection of vocabulary. There are two types of Lexical cohesion; namely, Reiteration and Collocation.

4.3.1. Reiteration

In the article, Reiteration involves repetition, synonym or near synonym and superordinate.

4.3.1.1. Repetition

The repetition of words in the speech contributes to the expression of the speaker's ideology and cohesion of the text. In this article, some phrases appear with high degree of frequency, which helps us recognize some important points that the speaker wants to convey.

In the following examples, the phrase *"we need to"* is repeated 10 times as a call for readers' involvement in protecting women's rights.

"So we need to break through these limitations.

We need to keep changing the attitude that raises our girls to be demure...

We need to keep changing the attitude that punishes women for their sexuality and rewards men for theirs.

We need to keep changing the attitude that permits the routine harassment of women..."

Obama also stresses his high expectation for women's equality by repeating the phrase *"I want"* 3 times in his article:

"I want all of our daughters and sons to see that this too is their inheritance. I want them to know that it's never been just about the Benjamins; it's about the Tubmans too. And I want them to help do their part to ensure that America is a place where every single child can make of her life what she will."

In general, with the repetition of some phrases, Obama has succeeded in sending his strong messages about women's rights to readers. At the same time, the article become more cohesive and well-connected.

4.3.1.2. Superordinate

In the article, superordinate terms are used to provide writers with a more explicit means for linking their ideas to earlier pieces of text. For example, in the following example,

"parent" is the superordinate concept for *"dad"*; *"kids"* is superordinate concept for *"daughter"*.

"As a parent, helping your kids to rise above these constraints is a constant learning process. Michelle and I have raised our daughters to speak up when they see a double standard or feel unfairly judged based on their gender or race—or when they notice that happening to someone else...And yes, it's important that their dad is a feminist, because now that's what they expect of all men."

It is clearly that the two superordinate terms tell the reader what to expect when they occur before an idea.

4.3.1.3. Near synonym

The discourse becomes more cohesive when near synonyms are used. Near synonyms are not fully intersubstitutable, but vary in their shades of denotation or connotation. Near synonyms are used in the following sentence in the article: *"And as spouses and partners and boyfriends, we need to work hard and be deliberate about creating truly equal relationships."*

"Spouses", *"partners"* and *"boyfriends"* are near-synonyms which help link ideas in the sentence.

4.3.2. Collocation

Cohesion is achieved through the association of lexical words that tend to occur in similar environments. For instance, in this paragraph, Obama uses collocation *"kids"*, *"parent"*, *"daughter"*, and *"dad"* as cohesive devices:

"As a <u>parent</u>, helping your <u>kids</u> to rise above these constraints is a constant learning process. Michelle and I have raised our <u>daughters</u> to speak up when they see a double standard or feel unfairly judged based on their gender or race—or when they notice that happening to someone else...And yes, it's important that their <u>dad</u> is a feminist, because now that's what they expect of all men."

Likewise, *"a job market"*, *"poorly paid positions"*, *"workforce"* and *"sector"* are phrases related to job:

"In my lifetime we've gone from a <u>job market</u> that basically confined women to a handful of often <u>poorly paid positions</u> to a moment when women not only make up roughly half the <u>workforce</u> but are leading in every <u>sector</u>, from sports to space, from Hollywood to the Supreme Court."

Another example of collocation in the article is the use of words *"policies"*, *"rights"* and *"laws"* in the following sentence:

"And while I'll keep working on good <u>policies</u>—from equal pay for equal work to protecting reproductive <u>rights</u>—there are some changes that have nothing to do with passing new <u>laws</u>."

In general, in the aforementioned examples, collocation also contributes to the cohesion of the article.

5. Conclusion

This paper provides an overview of Halliday & Hasan's taxonomy of cohesive devices and uses it as a theoretical framework to analyze textual cohesion of Barack Obama's article "This is what a feminist looks like". Accoding to Halliday & Hasan (1976), cohesive devices are classified into lexical cohesive devices and grammatical cohesive devices which are further catagorized into four types: reference, substitution, ellipsis and conjunction. After this discourse analysis, it can be concluded that Barack Obama's article is a cohesive text, in which both grammatical and lexical cohesive ties are used to achieve the cohesion of the text.

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THE IMPLEMENTATION OF PROBLEM-BASED LEARNING IN TEACHING ENGLISH FOR NON-MAJORED STUDENTS AT HONG DUC UNIVERSITY

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Abstract: *This paper focuses on Problem-Based Learning (PBL) in relation to the implementation of PBL tutorial in teaching English for non-majored students at Hong Duc university in Thanh Hoa province, Vietnam. This writing enables the readers to approach comprehensive insights of PBL. The study examines the effectiveness of PBL tutorial in English classrooms with respect to the students' participation, performance, and improvement. Whiteboard model; therefore, is employed to keep the students being on track in their learning process. The findings reveal that the students are improved significantly in all three evaluation criteria.*

Keywords: *Problem-Based Learning, Problem-Based Learning tutorial, self-directed learning, teaching English, Whiteboard.*

1. Introduction

It is undeniable that the influence of English as a global language on the whole educational system in Vietnam is considerable. Hoang (2013) emphasizes that "in a new market economy of Vietnam with the growth of international businesses and trades as well the increasing number of foreign tourists, the ability to communicate in English has become a passport to a better job not only in the tourism and hospitality industries but also in many other enterprises in both national and global labor markets" (p. 9). At present, English is known as a compulsory subject applied across the whole educational system in Vietnam due to a growing awareness that the requirement of English language skills enables learners to gain competitive advantages in the workplace (Nunan, 2003), open more opportunities to connect to others around the world and access a vast storehouse of knowledge in English. Unlike other lower educational levels, the Vietnamese Ministry of Education and Training allows individual university to establish its own curriculum which is applicable for the cultural diversity and condition in each university. Accordingly, Hong Duc university (HDU) has been using their own English curriculum for many years. These English courses aim at developing the students' communicative competency in English by employing TOEIC, which is published by Education Testing Service and stands for Test of English for International Communication, as a foundation for designing teaching and learning activities for non- English major students. Teaching and learning practices are based on the TOEIC test structure which defines specific skills for assessing listening and reading. In the listening part, the learners respond to questions of four types: Photo descriptions, selecting appropriate responses to questions, answering questions based on conversations, and answering

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questions based on short talks. In the Reading part, the students are requested to answer three types of questions including incomplete sentences, text completion, and reading comprehension. Totally, the students are required to study 10 credit hours for English course while studying at university. The students participate in this study are known as non-English majored students who study in different departments of HDU such as the Faculty of Natural Sciences, the Faculty of Social Science, the Faculty of Economics and Business Administration, the Faculty of Information and Technology, the Faculty of Agriculture and Forestry, and the Faculty of Physical Education.

Given the importance of English language skills in the 21st century, standardized tests for English proficiency such as TOEIC are often required for job placement and matriculation from higher educational institutes. As a result, the implementation of TOEIC in English teaching at HDU is relevant to the current trend. However, it seems unauthentic because teaching English still emphasizes on providing the students with grammatical and theoretical knowledge from textbooks which are designed for learners to build TOEIC test-taking skills. Furthermore, the use of traditional teaching methods are no longer appropriate to the present era of education. One of the most controversial issues in relation to English teaching is how to design the course which students not only gain knowledge of the subject, but also become self-directed learners who develop problem-solving skills and enable to apply the insights for their future learning and their careers as well. As a result, a new teaching method is employed to match the changes of education. The *problem-based learning* (PBL) approach will be applied as an effective solution to the English teaching context at HDU.

2. Background knowledge of problem-based learning

2.1. Definitions of problem-based learning

PBL begins with the assumption that learning is an active, integrated and constructive process influenced by social and contextual factors (Barrows, 1996). PBL is also defined as a student-centered approach with the main focus is on the students' involvement in the learning process, and the teachers act as facilitators rather than disseminators (Wilkerson & Gijselaers, 1996). These definitions provide overviews of PBL in terms of its characteristics which are fundamental elements to formulate PBL in the classroom. In addition, Wurdinger & Rudolph (2009) also discuss the main basis of PBL is on having students undergo a problem solving process and often work together in small groups to figure out appropriate solutions. As a result, building group work becomes an essential factor for educators to develop a successful PBL session. These above definitions contribute integral suggestions and guidance for the teachers who are interested in employing PBL in their teaching practice.

2.2. Strengths and weaknesses of problem-based learning

Barrow (1989) asserts that PBL focuses on creating real life problems for medical students to participate in small groups. However, the purpose of PBL has changed, reflected

on the emphasis of Barrett and Moore (2011) that in the 21st century, the use of PBL has become popular across the globe in diverse disciplines. Moreover, as known as an active learning approach (Pawson et al., 2006), the tendency of using PBL spread widely because of its contributions to both teaching and learning practice. Specifically, PBL enables the learners to develop essential skills such as critical thinking, analyzing, problem solving, evaluation, cooperative and communication skills.

For learners, Englel (1997) asserts that PBL enhances key generalizable competencies during students' learning process. These competencies are listed later by Stephenson and Galloway (2004). First, PBL enables the learners to adapt and participate in changes because they deal with authentic problems which occur in the real life context. Second, PBL helps the learners in fostering problem solving skills through making reasoned decisions in unfamiliar situations because they are involved directly and actively in this problem solving process. This, in turn, develops the students' capacity of reasoning critically and creatively. By working in PBL groups, the students' behaviors and attitudes relating to learning English are improved. Students, therefore, gradually undertake more responsibility for their learning environment through exercising judgment for themselves and for their peers (Hussain, Mamat, Salleh, Saat, & Harland, 2007). Finally, PBL promotes peer and self-evaluation to support continuing and self-directed learning as well as lifelong learning.

For instructors, the PBL also contributes numerous advantages which assist teaching practice in increasing attendance in the classroom, intrinsically rewarding, having higher level of student comprehension, encouraging students to spend more time studying and promoting interdisciplinary (Pawson et al., 2006). For instance, in terms of promoting interdisciplinary, the teacher encourages the students to bring their specific knowledge from their field into the English classes. By doing this, the students not only study the language but also integrate with the knowledge of other courses which closely relate to their main study. The study reveals that in some Asian universities (Hussain et al., 2007), both the teachers and students experience positive attitudes to PBL in developing useful knowledge and lifelong learning skills. Moreover, Khoo (2003) affirms that Asian students' behaviors regarding to their participation and performance change positively when they are involved in PBL environment. Specifically, in Vietnamese higher education context, the implementation of PBL approach also shows the teachers' and students' strong commitment (Nguyen, 2009). This study affirms the excellent participation of the teachers and learners, which reflects their readiness and enthusiasm on employing the method.

Besides benefits, some limitations of PBL which are criticized in the literature may hinder the implementation of PBL at HDU; therefore, it is challenging for PBL educators. According to Collins (1995), PBL approach seems to take insufficient account of political considerations and social context. Moreover, Hillman (2003) argues that "some PBL can be mechanical; doomed only to train students to answer problems and obtain the knowledge needed for this" (p. 2). In addition, this is an obstacle for the educators to encourage the students in broadening and integrating knowledge among disciplines. In some Asian universities (Hussain et al., 2007), the major issue of implementing PBL is that the students

loose opportunities for developing higher-order thinking skills including analysis, evaluation and creation. In these universities, the tutorials focus mainly on sharing information instead of developing new thinking through debates or testing ideas. This, in turn, prevents students from their intellectual development. Obviously, the benefits of using PBL in English teaching practice far outweigh its obstacles; therefore, it encourages the researcher as an educator to apply this approach to the real teaching practices. Two following parts will provide suggestions in order to create PBL problems and to organize PBL tutorials adopted as an effective teaching method for English teaching.

2.3. Designing problem-based learning problems

According to Barrett and Moore (2011), the starting concern of PBL is PBL problem design. Hence, it is fundamental for each PBL educator to select and/or construct "relevant, motivating, challenging, interesting, multifaceted, and up-to-date problems for students" (p. 5). This is challenging and time consuming for the teacher to design the problems that meet these demands of designing PBL problems. However, the problem is key success factor so that the educators try their best to construct meaningful PBL problems. To obtain these requirements, it is important to incorporate suggestions among stakeholders such as lecturers, employers, workplace supervisors, educational developers, education technologists, students, librarians and information technologists (Barrett & Moore, 2011). In this English program, questionnaire, survey and informal interview are offered to collect basic and essential information which is used as the foundation for designing PBL problems.

2.4. Implementing problem-based learning tutorials in the English classes

The other key feature of PBL approach is to encourage active participation of the students in the tutorials. Therefore, the PBL tutorials are implemented each week in the English classes. The purpose of the tutorials is not only for sharing information like demonstrating in the study about implementation of PBL in Asian Universities (Hussain et al., 2007) but also for promoting higher order thinking by motivating students to analyze the potential solutions, evaluate and create the appropriate plan for the problem solving process. In the PBL tutorials, Whiteboard model is used as an effective method for the students to record their work. This results in changes of teaching and learning culture which the students are becoming self-directed learners with critical thinking skills. The teachers who play less visible role as tutors facilitate learning by supporting, guiding, and monitoring the students' participation, performance and motivation. PBL represents a paradigm shifts from traditional teaching approach, which is more often lecture-based, to learner-centered approach. The following parts of this study will present experimental period and some significant findings.

3. The experimental teaching

3.1. The description of the English course

In this study, each PBL tutorial is held once a week and the content is based on the theme set for each week. Therefore, four themes are presented in four experimental weeks.

For example, one theme of a week is *"Environment"* so that the problem for the tutorial is "pollution" in your community. The students are assigned to work in groups of four or five and are introduced to the problem with minimal information. The tutorial takes place during the final period of the week. In the tutorial, the students use the knowledge which they have gained from the course materials and their own research to present and discuss the solutions to the problem.

While working in their groups to solve the problem, the students use *Whiteboards* (Hmelo, 1995) which are used to brainstorm and record the ideas to carry out the tasks. The following table provides the demonstration of Whiteboard.

Table 1. The Whiteboard

Facts	Ideas	Learning Issues	Action Plan

Whiteboard is divided into four columns, including *Facts* column which contains information regarding what the problem is and where it occurred; *Ideas* column which consists of the students' related thoughts and hypotheses*; Learning Issues* column in which the students present their questions for further study; and finally *Action Plan* column which is used to keep track of plans to solve the problems. In this English curriculum, Whiteboard, as a model of systematic approach, enables the students to organize the problem solving process comprehensively and co-construct the knowledge, including more difficult aspects. In the tutorials, under the teacher's assistance and the use of the prior knowledge, the students brainstorm the issues and research for more information; then they discuss findings with their group members to accumulate the growing list of evidence in four columns which will be used to formulate their arguments in the final group presentation. During discussions, students are encouraged to judge and challenge their peers' perspectives in the same group and other groups.

3.2. The preliminary results of the experimental teaching

The experimental teaching takes four weeks with the participation of 140 students from four non-English major classes. Before the start of the first experimental week, the students are given two periods for being trained what the PBL is and what they can do in the PBL tutorials. Each tutorial is held once a week in the last period of the week. The teacher assesses the effectiveness of PBL tutorial by recording the students 'participation in the tutorial, the students' performance in the tutorial and the students' improvement in their learning process. Each criterion for evaluation has four levels of assessment (1 is "not achieve", 2 is "achieve", 3 is "achieve well" and 4 is "achieve very well").

After 4 weeks of implementation, the results recorded by the researcher are illustrated in the following table.

Table 2. The demonstration of changes in the students' learning process

	SS' participation (%)				SS' performance (%)				SS' improvement (%)			
	1	*2*	*3*	*4*	*1*	*2*	*3*	*4*	*1*	*2*	*3*	*4*
Week 1	78	12	7	3	80	7	8	5				
Week 2	36	23	27	14	40	29	24	17	57	18	10	15
Week 3	11	35	29	25	13	17	42	28	32	27	23	18
Week 4	10	27	37	26	10	16	45	29	16	39	25	20

It is noticeable that the results demonstrate the significant progress of the students' learning. In the first week of the implementation, 78% of the students do not know how to get involved actively in the discussion. Therefore, most of them (accounting for 80% of the participants) cannot perform successfully in the first tutorial. This is the first week so there is no comparison in the students' improvement section. In Week 2, there is much higher percentage of students who can achieve the participation and performance criteria, 64% and 60% respectively, than that in Week 1, 22% and 20% respectively. In comparison with previous observations and examination, the teacher figures out that there are no signs of improvement among over 50 per cent of students in Week 2. The results collected in Week 3 prove ongoing improvement of the learning process. Finally, the statistics shown in Week 4 remarkably indicate the progress of the student's learning. The most striking feature is that most of the students (90% or more) gain positive outcomes in all evaluation criteria. As a result, the application is successfully utilized in the teaching process in order to facilitate the students' learning.

4. Conclusion

The analyses of the current English curriculum used in courses for non-English major students at HDU demonstrate insufficiency. The paper enables the readers to obtain thorough insights of PBL in relation to its strengths and benefits. Besides, the recognition of their weaknesses in the study contributes vital meanings to preventing failure and suggesting effective solutions toward the real teaching context at HDU. Because of its effectiveness, Whiteboard is appropriate for the course as a learning model which assists the students in brainstorming and organizing the problems. Moreover, the prior knowledge is activated successfully so that the students have become more creative in finding out appropriate solutions. By designing and selecting controversial, authentic problems, the students are encouraged to work collaboratively to build their own knowledge and understandings by the ways which are practical and meaningful to them. Furthermore, the positive results gained from the experimental teaching motivate ongoing application, further studies and sharing among colleagues.

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CULTURAL COMPETENCE IN TEACHING ENGLISH AS AN INTERNATIONAL LANGUAGE

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Abstract: *This secondary research recaps and sketches results and findings of previous studies on the issue of teaching English as an International Language. Its focus is on the notion of English as an International Language and the place of cultures in a case of shifting from teaching English as a Foreign Language or as a Second Language into Teaching English as an International Language. Then, conclusions and implications for educators and English language teachers are also proposed.*

Keywords: *Cultural competence, International Language, Teaching English as an International Language.*

1. Introduction

The enormous spread of teaching and using English recently highlights the change in roles and position of English in the world. Native speakers are no longer the only people who own and maintain English (Brumfit 2001, p.116). The ownership and preservers of English will belong to those who use it. For this reason, the concepts such as global English, world English or English as an International Language (EIL) have been used to describe the developments of this language. English pedagogy in many countries is therefore shifting from Teaching English as a Foreign Language (TEFL) or as a Second Language (TESL) into Teaching English as an International Language (TEIL). Many controversies and questions concerning this issue have been raised and discussed. One of them is the question of which cultures should be taught in case of TEIL. To answer this question, this paper will firstly review literature on the notion of EIL and cultural roles in English teaching as well as in TEIL. Secondly, it will briefly recap and sketch findings of previous studies on this issue. Lastly, conclusions and implications for educators and English language teachers will also be proposed.

2. English developments and the notion of English as an International Language

With the significant growth in the number of English speakers around the world, the status of this language has changed significantly. This development is evident in the statistics in the figure 1 by Yi-Shin (2009). Accordingly, 80% of English users are multilingual speakers who speak or learn English as a foreign or second language. Only 20% of them are native speakers.

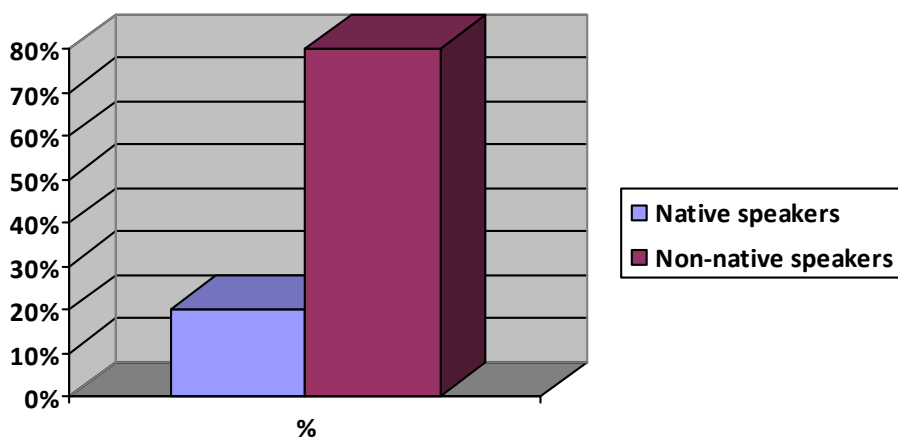*1,2 Faculty of Foreign Languages, Hong Duc University*

Figure 1. Global usage of the English language

In addition, the following framework of English usage with three concentric circles by Kachru (1985, 1992) with specific numbers of English speakers latter added by Crystal (1997), further emphasizes the change of English positions and roles.
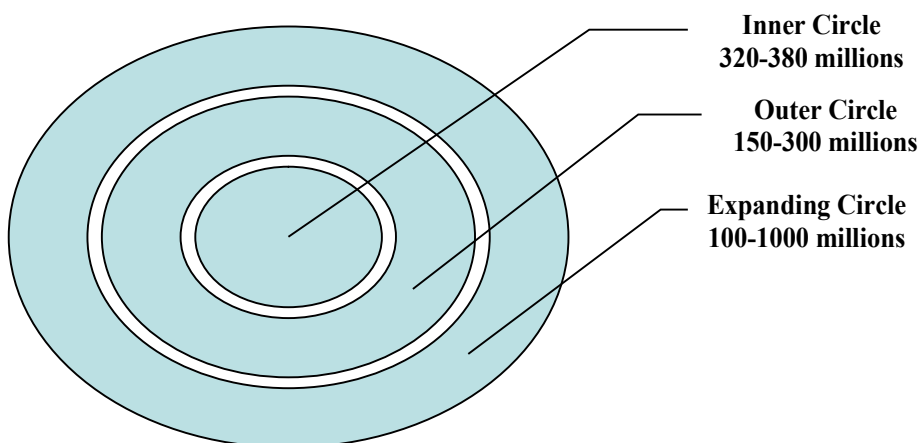
Figure 2. The three circles of English

(According to Kachru (1985) with estimates of speaker numbers by Crystal (1997)

In this framework, Inner Circle refers to the countries in which English is spoken as a first language. In Outer Circle countries, people use English as a second language. In countries counted in Expanding Circle, English is learnt as a foreign language. Amazingly, as can be seen from the framework, the number of English speakers in the Outer (150 - 300 millions) and Expanding Circles (100 - 1000 millions) is much higher than that in the Inner Circle (320 - 380 millions). This result is the same as percentages of native and non-native speakers revealed in the figure by Yi-Shin. It thus further affirms that English belongs to people around the world who use it regardless of being native or non-native speakers.

The notion of EIL has been introduced and widely employed in linguistic circles and related domains to describe the current global flow of the English language. EIL refers to issues of English diversities and their equivalent cultures, and more practically, to the subject

of teaching and learning of English (Xu, 2012). It emphasizes that with many diversities, English is a language of 'international communication', and therefore, also a language of 'intercultural communication' (Sharifan 2009, p.2). In other words, Bickley (1982, p.86) assumes EIL as a 'blanket' which covers all the meanings and usages of English in all the countries. He further explains that EIL situations are common and can be categorized in perspectives of communicators who participated in such situations. For instance, they are situations in which a Singaporean speaks in English with an American in Perth or a Vietnamese uses English to communicate with a Korean in Hanoi. The concept of EIL is concerned with all these different situations.

3. Cultural roles in language teaching and in TEIL

Culture and language are inherently connected: language is an element of culture, and culture is illustrated through language (McKay, 2002). It could be said that they together signify two combined sides of a coin (Bhabha, 1994; Kramsch, 1998; Hinkel,1999; Jiang, 2000). The way people express and interpret messages is deeply influenced by their cultural background. Such a link between language and culture has a significant consequence for language pedagogy. It means that when a learner is expert in a language, he must be familiar with its culture. It may also explain why cultural elements are always involved in language teaching programs.

In language teaching, especially in TEIL, cultural features are divided into three types: source culture, target culture and international culture (Cortaszzi & Jin, 1999). Source culture refers to students' native cultural artifacts. Target culture comprises cultures of English native speaking countries such as the UK and Australia. International culture embraces various cultures all over the world. The following section will review the findings of previous studies on which types of cultural elements are comprised in TEIL.

4. Findings and analysis

4.1. Researchers' views towards cultural content in Teaching English as an International Language

For a long time in TEFL or TESL, native speaker models have acted as key goals of learning and teaching. As a result, the cultural content involved in English teaching was cultures of native speakers. However, recently, with the role as an international language, there has been a significant growth in cross-cultural encounters in communicating in English around the world (Jiang, 2011). For this reason, researchers have formed new views on issues of cultural roles in TEIL. Most of these views flow in two directions. One is a claim for the role of source cultures. The other is the idea of teaching international cultures.

According to the authors who hold the first view, international language students are not necessary to enhance the target cultural features (Smith, 1976). The reason is that, in many cases, they use English to communicate with non-native speakers more often than with native ones. The idea of comprising source cultures in TEIL is believed to provide learners

with not only the knowledge of their own culture but also the language to describe and explain it in English (McKay & Sandra, 2002). In addition, source cultures can improve students' self-expression. This ability is helpful for students in exploring their 'changing identities in a new linguistic environment' (Post & Rathet, 1996). Through using the familiar contents teachers can promote students in comprehension of the target language (Anderson & Barnitz,1984; Johnson, 1981; Long, 1990) or inversely, motivate them to explore and maintain target language to describe and express these contents. This theoretical point's effectiveness, then, has been proven in a variety of materials in different contexts. For instance, 'The Japanese Mind', a collection of learners' discussion questions and essays on Japanese culture, is used to provide students with opportunities to use English to describe and discuss their own culture. This way, they can 'participate effectively in an increasingly globalized world' (Davies & Ikeno, 2002, p.3). Another example is a textbook produced in South Korea which presents conversation situations in which learners can talk about their own cultural issues in English (Martire, 2003).

Nevertheless, many other researchers declare that local culture is not enough for TEIL. Blended cultures which include both local and global ones should be promoted (Sukarno, 2013) in the current English language climate. The reason for this argument is that the main goal of introducing culture in TEIL is to help learners participate in cross-cultural communication (Mckay, 2002, p.82). It is not appropriate to use one's own cultural norms in understanding and evaluating other cultures (Gnutzmann, 1999, p.158). Owning the knowledge of only one culture is hence not sufficient to reach this goal. To bridge this gap, involving cross-cultural contents in TEIL prepares students with 'high sensitivity toward cultural diversity' (Sukarno, 2013). This way, their communication is assumed to take place smoothly. More broadly, on the other hand, it can provide both students and their society with some particular benefits. This is because when people can have their cultural identity in all its diversity, they will get new perspectives and 'well contribute to world peace' (Sukarno, 2013, p.438). In short, cross-cultural approach in TEIL allows learners to use international English to communicate internationally for any international purposes.

It can be said that both of the above points of view are convincing in some ways. The roles of source cultures and international-cultures in TEIL generally and in TESOL settings particularly cannot be denied. However, the choice of which cultures should be paid more emphasis is thought to depend on many other aspects such as learners' goals, language programs' purposes, and available teaching materials. Thus, it is necessary to explore these features before reaching a conclusion for this issue.

4.2 English teachers' and learners' attitudes towards cultural competence in Teaching English as an International Language

Another important aspect that needs to be discussed and analyzed is users' opinions towards cultural issues in TEIL. Valuable findings can be found in some previous research.

One of them is surveys on Portuguese teachers and trainers' attitudes by Guerra (2010). Table 1 below illustrates the predictable results. In general, teachers keep a positive

attitude towards the suggested cultures. The vast majority of them highly appreciate the importance of teaching target cultures, international cultures and source culture. However, most of them do not see much importance in teaching or learning ESL or EFL cultures.

Table 1. Teachers' attitudes towards the importance of different cultures

	British Culture	**American culture**	**Other ENL cultures**	**ESL cultures**	**EFL cultures**	**International cultural aspects**	**Portuguese culture**
Very important	69,3 %	65,5%	28,0%	12,0%	4,2%	42,3%	32,0%
Important	26,9%	26,9%	44,0%	28,0%	12,5%	30,8%	44,0%
Neither important nor unimportant	3,8%	3,8%	24,0%,	36,0%	29,2%	23,1%	20,0%
Unimportant		3,8%	4,0%	20.0%	12,5%	3,8%	
Very unimportant				4,0%	41,6%		4,0%

In terms of the role of studying cultures in general, teachers' attitudes are reflected in Table 2.

Table 2. Teachers' attitudes towards the role of studying cultures in learning English

	It is important to know that different cultures use English differently		**It is important to learn about the cultural patterns of English speaking as well as non-English speaking people**	
	Number	*%*	*Number*	*%*
Strongly agree	12	46	9	35
Agree	12	46	11	42
Neither agree nor disagree	1	4	6	23
Missing system	1	4	0	0
Total	26	100	26	100

Table 2 shows that a major number of respondents strongly agree or agree with important roles in knowing different usages of English in different cultures. Interestingly, their reactions towards roles of cultures which comprise both English and non-English speaking people's cultures are more positive when not mentioning to the terms of non-native cultures (Guerra, 2010).

Another important study which in part deals with the same issue is set in Greater Taipei by Yi-Shin (2009).

Table 3. Participants' attitude towards integrating Target Culture in teaching

Statement	Participants	Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
If cultural materials are to be integrated in English language classes, they should focus on the English speaking countries' cultures	Teachers	25%	43%	31%	1%
	Students	20%	49%	28%	3%

Table 3 above briefly shows teachers and students' views on integrated target cultural elements in English language teaching. Both teachers and students show high percentages of agreement with the idea of emphasising the importance of target cultures.

In a Vietnamese setting, a study by Nguyen (2013) presents a similar finding. The result of his investigation shows that Vietnamese students have supportive attitudes towards diverse cultures in ELT. They embrace the incorporation of diverse cultures in language practice.

Generally, teachers and students attach the most importance to studying cultures of Inner countries. In contrast to researchers' opinions reviewed in section 4.1, they put the position of EFL or ESL cultures or Expanding culture at the bottom of the role ranking system. In TESOL contexts, this can be an affection of TEFL or TESL in many countries. For instance, in the writer's country English is still taught as a foreign language. Many teachers are not familiar with the notion of EIL; they keep native speakers as models. Hence, they highly value the importance of target cultures.

4.3. Cultural content in current English language teaching materials

Cultural content in ELT materials has been examined in many studies. Although these studies were set in different contexts, some similar findings have emerged.

The first one is that most ELT materials place an emphasis on target cultures, not on cross-cultures. This has been evidently proven in the following studies. First of all, Ilieva's (2000) investigation on Canadian textbooks for adult second language learners found that target cultural features are paramount and prevail in the examined textbooks. The texts in the books seem not to present an integrated way which is required by the new settings. A similar result is shown in an examination of 40 texts in a series of books named 'College English: intensive reading' used for Chinese University students by Xu (2002). Eighty percent of the investigated texts have American sources or are written by American authors. Texts from British sources or by British writers account for 17.5% (Figure 3).

Figure 3. Standards of English in the 40 focus texts of College English
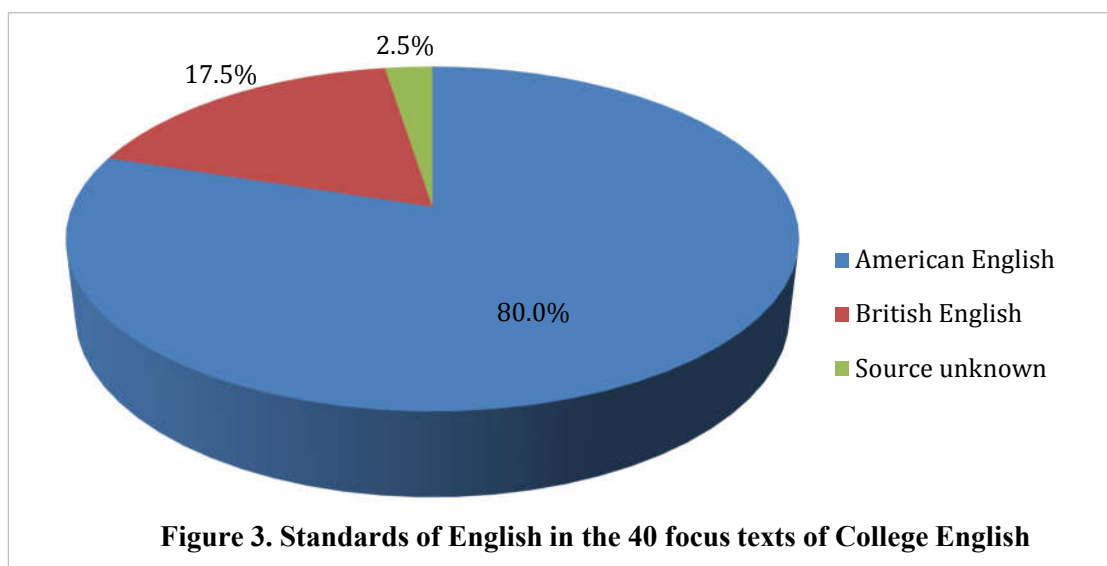
In addition, Garcia (2005) concludes that the EFL textbooks in Spain do not reveal a cross-cultural approach when he carries out studies on international and intercultural elements in 14 EFL teaching materials in Spain. More recently, Taki (2008), in his investigation on relationships between ideology and power in EFL materials used in Iran, affirms that these materials convey Western-dominated discourses, illustrate de-contextualized conversations and a lack of cross-cultural provenance.

Secondly, in the locally produced ELT materials, local cultures gain its significant position. This discovery has made in the contexts of Iran, Japan, South Korea. With Iranian contexts, Majdzadeh's study (2002) shows that textbooks produced in Iran mostly reveal Iranian culture. Similarly, McKay (2002) and Jiang's (2011) examinations on some materials published in Japan, and Martire's (2003) analysis on a text-book in South Korea reach to the same conclusion.

These findings on TEL materials can add a valuable explanation for the reviewed attitudes of teachers and students. When the materials mainly reveal target cultures, book users have the potential to think that it is what they need to reach. For this reason, the best answer to the question of which cultures should be taught needs to cover material aspects.

5. Conclusions and implications

On reflection, with the current role as a global language, the shifting from TESL or TEFL to TEIL in pedagogy will be a matter of course. Culture in TEIL (one of the essential dimensions) has caught the attention of many researchers, educators and learners. According to findings of many previous studies, in general, most of them share the same positive opinions on involving international cultures in TEIL. Besides, while some other authors express their preference for teaching home cultures in TEIL, the majority of English teachers and learners, aside from international cultures, support for target ones. There are two reasons which explain for their support target cultures. One is teaching contexts of TEFL/ TESL, and the other is the effect of used materials.

Although all reviewed theoretical approaches on cultural elements are more or less convincing, generally, the writer supports the idea of promoting international cultures in TEIL. The first reason for this is because international culture is a mixture of target, source and Outer-circle cultures. Hence, it is an expansion and connection between the approaches of source and target cultures. It covers all cultures. This way, learners can easily participate in all English communicating contexts. Although it is a quite challenging task for both teachers and learners in many contexts, learning and absorbing cross-cultural features is ideal and perfect for learners in the age of EIL. The roles of teachers and educators are to adapt materials, provide additional authentic materials and changing teaching methods so that learners can absorb international cultures effectively.

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LEARNERS'ANXIETY IN SPEAKING LESSONS AT HONG DUC UNIVERSITY, THANH HOA PROVINCE

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Abstract: *The present study is concerned with sources of speaking anxiety withdrawn from learners' responses presented in a survey questionnaire and an informal interview. The quantitative questionnaire first examined the existence of speaking anxiety and factors causing students' anxiety when speaking English. The results showed that the tendency of students' nervousness was obvious. Based on the students' explanations, factors viewed as causing anxiety were divided into four categories: the content of the lessons, communication apprehension, test anxiety and fear of negative feedback. From the students' suggestions in the interview, the researcher proposed some strategies for students and teachers to ameliorate negative effects of speaking anxiety.*

1. Introduction

Speaking well is of great importance to students when communicating with others in a second language, not only in teaching and learning environments, but also outside the classroom. Students should be able to speak in a well - structured way and develop their ability to take part in conversations, discussions and negotiations and to express with subtlety their own views and consider those of others. Speaking does not only reflect the speaker's social and cultural background, but is also a part of speaker's identity.

Having considerable levels of anxiety in the classroom has been regarded as an experience that is more likely to occur in foreign language lessons than in other subjects. This seems natural as in foreign language classrooms, students have to use a foreign language - an instrument they are not familiar with - to sustain communication. As a teacher of English, the researcher has noticed that non English majored students often experience foreign language anxiety in speaking skills. Some students experience pressure when being asked to speak in front of the whole class because they fear criticism. Some may feel nervous since they lack vocabulary to express their ideas; consequently, they may tremble and stutter, etc. This situation has inspired the researcher to carry out a study on non- English majored students' anxiety about speaking to identify the causes and give solutions to alleviate students' anxiety about learning speaking.

2. Literature review

2.1. Foreign language anxiety

Foreign language anxiety is a universal phenomenon that has a significant factor adversely affecting the language learning process. Gardner & MacIntyre (1993, cited in

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Arnold 1999:59) refer to language anxiety as "fear or apprehension occurring when a learner is expected to perform in the second or foreign language."

A more detailed description of language anxiety was provided by Horwitz, et al. (1986). They regarded communication apprehension, test anxiety, and fear of negative evaluation as the conceptual building blocks for the description of foreign language anxiety. Communication apprehension is considered as fear or anxiety related to communicating with people. They suggested that the inability to express one's thoughts and ideas in the foreign language or the inability to comprehend another person were potential sources of anxiety for language learners. Test anxiety is a type of performance anxiety due to a fear of failure (Gordon & Sarason; Sarason, as cited in Horwitz, et al., 1991). Test-anxious students often set excessively high standards for themselves and get anxious when they fail to show perfect test performance. Students who are anxious in foreign language class suffer a lot owing to the frequent assessment inherent in the learning. Fear of negative evaluation is defined as the apprehension about the evaluation from others, the avoidance of being involved in evaluative situation, and the expectation that one is negatively evaluated by others (Watson& Friend, as cited in Horwitz, et al., 1991). Fear of negative evaluation is not limited to test-taking situations, which separates it from the concept of test anxiety.

2.2. Speaking anxiety

The anxiety associated with second language speaking performance is called speaking anxiety. Speaking anxiety has been supposed to be the result of speaking and has also been found to influence speaking.

MacIntyre (1999, p. 33) claimed speaking seems to be "the single most important source of language anxiety". Students in foreign language classrooms have been found to feel most anxious when they respond to the teacher or are singled out to speak in class (Liu, 2007). The predominance of the number of items related to speaking on instruments designed to measure general foreign language anxiety also reflects the widely held view of speaking being the most anxiety- provoking aspect of foreign language learning for many students.

2.3. Sources of foreign language anxiety and speaking anxiety

There are various causes of anxiety. In the context of speaking English as a second language, Young (1991) listed six potential causes of language anxiety which include both personal and interpersonal factors, learners' beliefs about language learning, instructors' beliefs about language teaching, instructor-learner interactions, classroom procedures and language tests. However, to date, findings by Horwitz, et al. (1986) have been the most influential. They identified three causes of language anxiety, that is, communication apprehension, test anxiety and fear of negative evaluation. Based on these three components they also designed a Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale comprising thirty-three items. This scale was later used widely by researchers to measure foreign language learners' anxiety and examine the effect of anxiety on learning in different contexts.

3. Methodology

3.1 Subjects

The participants of the study were 135 non- English majored students at Hong Duc university in Thanh Hoa Province, Vietnam.

3.2. Data collection instruments

In this study, the researcher used one questionnaire and conducted an informal interview to collect data.

By administering the questionnaire, the researcher could collect a huge amount of information in a little amount of time. The researcher could also process the data fast and relatively straight forwardly. The purposes of using questionnaire were to identify student's problems, which might have increased their anxiety about speaking.

The questionnaire for the students (see Appendix 1) consists of 32 statements reflecting the factors making students anxious about speaking. These statements are designed in the format of five-point scale (never, seldom, sometimes, often, and always).

The informal interviews with the students were conducted to investigate and clarify their opinion of why each problem of speaking skills, which was shown in the questionnaire, made them nervous and stressful in speaking lessons.

3. Procedures

First, after being carefully adapted and piloted, the survey questionnaire was delivered to the students when they had completed the first - term of the academic year 2016. Then, an informal interview was conducted. After all the data were recollected for analysis, the authors embarked upon the calculation and analysis work.

The data obtained from the questionnaire were tabulated, presented, and frequencies and percentages were calculated.

The data obtained from the informal interviews were transcribed and analyzed so that the researcher of this study could gain a deep understanding of the problems, based on which possible solutions were suggested. In the analysis, a numerical system was applied to identify each data entry.

4. Findings and discussion

4.1. Student's general speaking anxiety

The great majority (77%) of the students in the study responded that they felt more tense and nervous in English speaking class than in other classes. 16% of the respondents admitted that they always felt tense and nervous in speaking classes. 42% of them often said they often and 19% said sometimes. The students' level of anxiety reported on the survey was also supported by their answers in the interview. In short, the tendency of speaking anxiety of students at Hong Duc university was obvious.

4.2. Sources of speaking anxiety experienced by students at Hong Duc university

Factors causing students' speaking anxiety were categorized into different sources including the contents of the lessons, communication apprehension, test anxiety and fear of negative feedback, which will be discussed in details below.

4.2.1. Speaking anxiety associated with the contents of the lessons

Item No.	Content of the lessons	Never (1)	Seldom (2)	Sometimes (3)	Often (4)	Always (5)
2	I feel anxious when the speaking topic in the text book is difficult.	5.2%	17.8%	21.5%	20.7%	34.8%
3	I feel nervous when I lack background knowledge and vocabulary related to the topics.	3%	11.1%	19.3%	37.8%	28.9%

As shown above, difficult topics caused the most students anxiety. The cause of their nervousness and tension in speaking classes was that they did not have enough background knowledge and vocabulary related to the speaking topics.

From the interviews, most students considered difficult topics, about which they lacked background knowledge and related vocabulary, as a factor causing their nervousness. The subjects believed that their inability in communicating English making them anxious and nervous stemmed from their lack of vocabulary knowledge. If their vocabulary size were increased, they would express themselves better.

4.2.2. Speaking anxiety associated with communication apprehension

More than half of the participants (54.1%) responded that they felt anxious when they were asked to discuss with their classmates. On being called on to answer questions in English, the majority of the respondents reported that they trembled and felt their hearts pounding.

4.2.2.1. Communication apprehension associated with student's factors

There are many factors causing students' communication apprehension such as their previous learning experience; the speaking environment; their personality, the self-perception of their own speaking ability.

Previous learning experience

The majority of the respondents (81,6%) were not accustomed to speaking English. It is easy to understand because as reported in the interviews, their English study at upper secondary schools was strongly exam-oriented, most of the students used to work hard at written English while neglecting speaking and listening practices. Therefore, it is understandable why they became so nervous when they had to speak English at university.

Student's learning environment

67,4% of the students surveyed were not given much chance to practice and improve their speaking skills because of their large-sized classes. Nearly 70 % of the informants

agreed that another obstacle was that they had too little exposure to the language they learned outside their classes. In fact, all of the participants in this study came from rural area and they seemed to have no chance to practice speaking with English speaking people outside classroom. Thus, classroom was only an environment for them; however, the majority of them were not willing to speak. In other words, they were reluctant to speak English.

Student's personality

The data collected revealed that 41.4% of the respondents reported that their introverted personality (often or always) made them shy and anxious about speaking in English class. 25.2% of them reported *"sometimes"*.

Student's self -perception of their own speaking ability

Most of the respondents were reluctant to speak English. It is comprehensible because they were not confident in their English proficiency. The interview also revealed that many students seemed to agree upon the anxious feelings associated with their lack of English proficiency. They expressed a deep concern about the difficulty communicating in English, compared to the case of communication in Vietnamese. Some students related their frustrated feelings to their lack of English proficiency in comparison to their native language facility.

There are many reasons for their lack of confidence leading to communication apprehension.

First, the majority of the students reported that they had a fear of being less competent. They compared themselves with the good students in the class and this comparison led them to feel a greater amount of anxiety.

Second, while the minority of the students (14.8%) responded that they did not mind risk –taking, the great majority of the participants (85.2%) reported that they feared making mistakes. They were concerned about their inability to choose appropriate words or expressions, grammatical structures to express their ideas when answering teachers' questions. Explaining why they felt anxious when they had to speak English, some students admitted their anxiety about their inability to communicate in the target language in an efficient way. In other words, they had low confidence in their ability.

Next, in the case they had chosen appropriate words or structures to answer teacher's question, they were afraid of mispronouncing. The great majority of the students (80.9%) reported that they (always, often or sometimes) had a fear for this. Only 19.3% of the respondents said they seldom or never experienced this feeling. It is understandable because students had a lot of trouble with difficult pronunciation of English sounds.

4.2.2.2. Speaking anxiety associated with teacher's factor

More than half of the respondents reported that teachers' unenthusiasm prevented them from speaking English in class. They did not dare to interrupt their teacher to ask questions or ask for explanation even when the teacher's instruction was not clear.

In the interviews, some students responded that their teacher favored the better students when soliciting responses. Their teacher often gave them little or no time for speaking. After her instruction, she required them to speak up immediately, which caused

their pressure and stress. That was the reason why some lower proficient students in class had little chance to speak out.

It cannot be denied that the way teacher behaved in teaching also had a great impact on students' speaking. Whether learners are anxious about and reluctant to speaking or not depends partially on teacher's behaviors in classrooms. Thus teacher should find appropriate ways to alleviate students' communication apprehension.

4.2.3. Speaking anxiety associated with testing

More than half of the students reported that they felt panic. When being asked why they had this feeling, most of the participants said that they suffered the fear of getting bad marks. This would lead to other psychological stresses, such as the fear of losing self-confidence or feeling inferior to others.

In general, the great majority of the students (70.4%) mentioned their nervousness when getting low marks. 16.3% of the participants sometimes got nervous when they got low marks. In contrast, the rest (accounts for 13.3%) did not pay much attention to marks. They seldom or never got nervous.

4.2.4. Speaking anxiety associated with fear of negative feedback

4.2.4.1. Speaking anxiety associated with teacher's negative feedback

More than half of the students often or always viewed being asked to answer teacher's questions as threatening, particularly in such situations as when the teacher suddenly interrupted them because of the their wrong answers. In addition, most of the students also reported that teacher's anger or interruption was one of the most anxiety-provoking factors. When students gave wrong answers or took much time to give the answers, teacher often got impatient.

The results from the interviews showed that the participants also emphasized the teacher's manner as an anxiety-provoking factor. They reported that their teacher's manner toward the errors they made while speaking was the reason of anxiety they experienced in speaking classes.

4.2.4.2. Student's speaking anxiety associated with peers' negative feedback

Factors that made students afraid or uncomfortable were teacher's asking their peers to correct their mistakes in English classes. All of the participants expressed serious concerns about various kinds of evaluative situation in which their knowledge and performance of English were to be assessed by their classmates. In relation to the fear of negative evaluation from others, fear of losing face in front of their peers was found to be a shared anxious feeling by 74.1% of the respondents.

From the interviews, most of the participants responded that they felt embarrassed when their answers were criticized in front of the class. The students indicated that they did not want to be negatively evaluated by their classmates. They did not want to create a

stupid image for themselves. Therefore, they remained silent or did not participate in the classroom activities.

5. Solutions to alleviate student's anxiety in speaking lessons

To reduce the negative effects of anxiety on the students so as to better facilitate students with their English learning, possible solutions to cope with the above-mentioned causes of speaking anxiety are classified into four categories as follows:

5.1. Solutions related to the contents of the lessons

Topics should be relevant to the students' level, as their inability in communicating English which made them nervous stemmed from their lack of vocabulary knowledge. Thus, too many unknown words will make students anxious about speaking. Speaking topics of simulated real-life situation are usually of great interest to the students.

Students need to try to enrich their vocabulary for effective English speaking. It is, consequently, essential for teachers to enhance their students' vocabulary acquisition.

Teachers should be flexible in using the textbook. For long speaking lessons, teachers can adapt the topics in the textbook to make them more suitable, interesting and easier for the students. Sometimes, it is advisable to let them choose the topics they like to talk about.

5.2. Solutions related to learners' communication apprehension

First and foremost, teachers should identify individuals with signs of stress and anxiety and should apply appropriate strategies to help them counteract these feelings.

Second, teachers should encourage anxious students to share their feelings with others. In order to enhance the students' speaking, it is important for teachers to help students form a habit of using English.

Third, in order to enhance the students' speaking, it is important for teachers to help students form a habit of using English. Teachers should give the students more chances to practice listening to get acquainted to native speakers' voice. Having a habit of speaking English in class, students will practice more often in classroom speaking activities.

To increase the level of efficiency in the English language we need to practice. For active participants in the classroom discussion, it should be ensured that students are provided friendly, informal and learning –supportive environments. In addition, teachers should make the effort to create a sense of cooperation among the students. This will help them to speak more confidently and with less anxiety in the class.

Teachers should show the low proficient students that they always care for them, give them more time for preparation, respect their extra- preparation and practice and accept such a variety of their answers. Establishing close and good relationship with the learners, especially with the reluctant, to encourage them to communicate. In addition, teachers should pay attention to the matter of grouping students for group work and pair work activities so that everyone gets a chance to speak. Finally, there should be some specific

teacher training courses on language anxiety in order to make teachers aware of this complex issue and, hence, be better at alleviating it.

5.3. Solutions related to test anxiety

In order to allay students' fear that their mistakes in front of the teachers and the class will influence their end of course grades, more emphasis should be given to formative assessment (assessment for learning) and feedback rather than summative assessment (assessment of learning) and feedback. Teacher should not focus on possible negative consequences of a low mark and instead encourage students to put out their best effort and work carefully.

5.4. Solutions related to learners' fear of negative feedback

Teachers should avoid setting up activities that enhance the chances for them to fail or interrupting students in mid-flow to point out grammar, lexical or pronunciation errors. All the errors of the students should be treated tactfully. Self- correction or peer- correction is an effective alternating technique. In other words, the teachers' selection of error correction techniques should be based upon instructional philosophy and on reducing defensive reactions in students. In addition, teachers should give students immediate praise, compliment, encouragement than criticism.

6. Conclusion

This study aimed at exploring the literature review in foreign language anxiety and speaking anxiety, investigating the causes of student's anxiety in speaking lessons and suggesting some solutions to alleviate EFL student's speaking anxiety.

This study only focused on student's anxiety in speaking lessons and then had no chance to deal with other three skills in language teaching: Listening, Reading and Writing. Moreover, the study only mentioned a very small aspect of the issues related to the teaching and learning speaking skills. It is expected that more research conducted on the same topic could provide more insights into student's speaking anxiety as well as techniques and activities for students to help them reduce anxiety in speaking classes in order to improve the quality of teaching and learning English at Hong Duc university.

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APPENDIX 1: SURVEY QUESTIONNAIRE FOR STUDENTS

This questionnaire is used in a research on "Learner's anxiety in speaking lessons at Hong Duc university, Thanh Hoa province." Your assistance in completing the survey is highly appreciated. All the information provided by you is solely for the study purpose, and you can be confident that you will not be identified in any discussion of the data. Thank you for your cooperation.

Speaking anxiety scale

The following is a list of some of the factors commonly thought to cause anxiety in speaking. In your experience – as a second language learner, which factors seem to you most likely to be associated with speaking anxiety in second language acquisition in the classroom? Please circle the letter which represents the description appropriate to your situation most

Scale division:

A. Never or almost never true to me

B. Seldom true to me

C. Sometimes true to me

D. Often true to me

E. Always or almost always true to me

1. I feel more tense and nervous in speaking English class than in other classes	A	B	C	D	E
2. I feel anxious when the speaking topic in the text book is unfamiliar or difficult.	A	B	C	D	E
3. I feel nervous when I lack background knowledge and vocabulary related to the topics.	A	B	C	D	E
4. I get frustrated when I am asked to discuss with classmates in English in a short period of time.	A	B	C	D	E
5. I tremble and feel my heart pounding when I am going to be called on to answer questions in English.	A	B	C	D	E
6. I am not accustomed to speaking in English.	A	B	C	D	E
7. I fear making mistakes.	A	B	C	D	E
8. I fear mispronouncing English words.	A	B	C	D	E

9. I can not find ideas to answer my teacher's questions.	A	B	C	D	E
10. I can not find appropriate words and structures to express my ideas.	A	B	C	D	E
11. I feel reluctant to speak English because of my low proficiency in English.	A	B	C	D	E
12. Teachers' unenthusiasm prevents me from speaking English in class.	A	B	C	D	E
13. I start to panic and I am confused when I have to speak in English without preparation.	A	B	C	D	E
14. Even when I am prepared to speak English, I get nervous.	A	B	C	D	E
15. I always feel that the other students are speaking English better than I do.	A	B	C	D	E
16. I feel reluctant to speak English because learning goal is not to communicate, just to pass the exam to get General Certificate of Secondary Education (G.C.S.E.)	A	B	C	D	E
17. My introverted personality made me shy and anxious in speaking English in class.	A	B	C	D	E
18. I do not have much opportunity to practice speaking in class because of my large-sized class.	A	B	C	D	E
19. I do not have good environment to practice speaking skills outside class.	A	B	C	D	E
20. My teacher's instruction is sometimes not clear.	A	B	C	D	E
21. I start to panic when I know I will be graded in English class.	A	B	C	D	E
22. I feel nervous when I get low marks .	A	B	C	D	E
23. I fear giving a wrong answer while answering questions in English class.	A	B	C	D	E
24. I am afraid that my teacher is ready to correct every mistake I make.	A	B	C	D	E
25. I am confused and nervous when my teacher interrupt me when I am speaking.	A	B	C	D	E
26. I fear teachers' interruption unpleased attitude	A	B	C	D	E
27. I will be more willing to speak if my teacher accepts a variety of my answers.	A	B	C	D	E
28. My teacher sometimes repeats my mistakes many times, which Makes me lose face.	A	B	C	D	E
29. I feel uncomfortable when the teacher asks other students to correct my mistakes in English class.	A	B	C	D	E
30. I am afraid of being laughed at by others when I make a mistakes in English.	A	B	C	D	E
31. I am afraid that the other students will have bad perceptions at me when I speak in front of the class.	A	B	C	D	E

HOW TO MOTIVATE NON ENGLISH MAJORED STUDENTS AT HONG DUC UNIVERSITY TO LEARN ENGLISH

Le Thi Thanh Tam[1]

Abstract: *Motivation is an inner state that arouses individual's desire for a goal and maintains their efforts in a certain direction and time. Through analyzing the current situation of motivation problems for non English majored students at Hong Duc university, the author generates some suggestions on strengthening learners' motivation to developing their autonomous learning abilities.*

Keywords: *non English majored students learning motivation, suggestions*

1. Introduction

English is included in the curriculum of most schools and universities. Unfortunately, the interest of students who are not majored in this subject is not the same as how well they understand the vital role of it. Students seem reluctant to learn English as a compulsory subject in their colleges. Tran (2007) stated that non English majored students just concentrate on English for the external needs for higher education and future career. The other typical reason to motivate them to learn English is the pressure of getting high marks in the university examination. This was confirmed by Nguyen (2008), Ton and Pham (2010) and Nguyen (2011) who reported the same reasons. I would argue that, for students whose majors are not related to English, the main motivational reasons to learn English are from the extrinsic factors. There is a big lack of students' interest in English in this kind of class. The argument also rose when students could see the true value and benefit of being good at English while they consider it as an international means of communication. The reasons for the ignorance to English of non English majored students were originated from poor learning conditions and traditional teaching methods.

2. Definition of motivation

People's actions are often associated with some certain kinds of motivations, and students' learning activities are aroused by motivation. Motivation, an inner mental process, which arouses people's activity, maintains it, and makes it close to their setting target. It is considered as a crucial affective factor that directly motivates students to keep learning. Different academics hold various views on the definition of learning motivation. Portuguese scholar Dornyei (1998, p.118), a forerunner of studying motivation, gave a new integrated definition of learning motivation from dynamic and static aspects: Motivation is a procedure that produces sufficient dynamic to stimulate people's action, and keeps it working until it goes to an end result from being weakened by other forces. Gardner (1985) divided it into

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three major parts which are motivational intensity, the desire of learning a language, and the attitude towards language learning.

3. Classification of Motivation

Motivation can be described in many types and the main broad categories are intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. Intrinsic motivation is a response to needs that exist within the learner, such as curiosity, the need to know, and feelings of competence or growth (Eggen & Kauchak, 1994, p.428). It exists when someone works because of an inner desire to accomplish a task successfully, whether it has some external value or not (Spaulding, 1992, p.4). In other words, students are willing to learn the knowledge that is new and interesting in the purpose of fulfilling their curiosity, the need to know and feeling of competence and growth that cause intrinsic motivation. Their purpose of learning is also the enjoyment of the learning process not for praise or rewards.

Students with intrinsic motivation study English on their own initiative and tend to prefer moderately challenging tasks. This has a great value and importance in learning, for the inward interest making them self-starting and self-perpetuating and can keep the motivational machinery going for a long time. In contrast, extrinsic motivation is as an outward force in the form of expectation, praise, and rewards powers students in English learning. It exists when individuals are motivated by an outcome that is external or functionally unrelated to the activity in which they are engaged (Spaulding, 1992, p.4). When students work hard to win their parents' favor, gain teachers' praise, or earn rewards such as pocket money, we can rightly conclude that their motivation is primarily extrinsic, their reason for work and study lie primarily outside themselves and the aim of learning is not for the knowledge itself but the outward rewards in order to gain self-esteem. The outward praise and rewards encourage students to study more actively.

The different theory comes from Gardner and Lambert (1972) who suggest that motivation can be divided into two types: integrative motivation, referring to positive attitudes and feelings toward the target language group, and instrumental motivation, referring to the potential utilitarian gains of second language (L2) proficiency, such as getting a better job or higher salary.

4. Current situation of English non-majored students' motivation at Hong Duc university

When working with English non-majored students at Hong Duc university who are majored in different subjects for years, I found that they are not willing to learn English. Although English has been taught for a long time, the results are still not good with students who do not pay attention to their English learning. The lack of concentration in each lesson of students made me disappointed and I started to blame for my ability. It seems that many students do not have enough motivation to be aware of the important role of English in their life. This problem makes me really concerned. As a teacher of English, I have always cared

about how to get students more involved and passionate in learning English. As a result, the study on English language learning and teaching motivation had a great meaning to me. In order to have a general idea of learning motivation of English non-majored students, the author made a questionnaire survey among non-English major students from four grades at Hong Duc university. The researcher distributed 100 questionnaires in total and retrieved 100 questionnaires, among which 90 questionnaires are chosen for analysis. The results are as follows.

5. Analysis of English non-majored students' motivation in learning English

After collecting the questionnaire, the author calculated the percentage of each item. From Table 1, it was found that nearly 70% of the students choose English as because of the extrinsic motivation. Compared to intrinsic motivation, extrinsic motivation contributed more among the English learning motivation.

Table 1. Comparison Between Extrinsic Motivation and Intrinsic Motivation

Answers types	Agree totally (%)	Agree (%)	Uncertain (%)	Disagree (%)	Disagree totally (%)
Intrinsic motivation	34.5	22.4	18.6	18.7	5.8
Extrinsic motivation	38	30.5	16.5	11.6	3.4

Table 2. Students' Intrinsic Motivation

Items	Agree Totally (%)	Agree (%)	Uncertain (%)	Disagree (%)	Disagree totally (%)
1. I am interested in English.	63	14	8	10	5
2. I like English and American culture.	36	27	30	6	1
3. I am curious about English-speaking countries and nationalities.	29	24	18	25	4
4. I like English songs and movies.	33	27	16	22	2
5. I take special pleasure in language learning.	42	19	11	24	4
6. I don't like English, but learning English is very important for me.	23	12	10	32	23
7. I feel at ease when learning English.	24	32	34	10	0

Table 2 revealed that nearly 77% of the students chose item 1 "*I am interested in English*". That is to say, among the intrinsic motivation, the most common reason for

students to choose English was their interest. In other words, their choice was good for their English learning to some extent. However, 15% were not interested in English, and nearly 40% have anxiety about English learning; therefore, it was crucial to help the students with negative attitude develop a proper and correct concept of English learning.

Among the extrinsic motivations, "*getting a good job*" and "*regarding English as a useful means of communication*" were the two most common reasons for learning English. Furthermore, among the below items, nearly or more than 90% chose items 12, 13, and 14, that means most of the students had already realized the importance of English in their life. "*Going abroad*" was regarded as the least important reason for students to learn English. Only 24% chose item 10 "*I learn English in that my teacher's appreciation*", but it could not deny that teachers played a significant role during the process of English learning (see Table 3).

Table 3. Students' Extrinsic Motivation

Items	Agree totally (%)	Agree (%)	Uncertain (%)	Disagree (%)	Disagree totally (%)
8. I learn English at my parents' request.	26	18	4	40	12
9. I want to study, work and live abroad.	18	24	44	14	0
10. I learn English in that my teacher's appreciation.	14	13	40	24	9
11.English is a useful means of communication.	74	19	7	0	0
12. Learning English could help me understand the English articles, newspapers and TV programs better.	42	41	9	4	4
13. English is an international language, which helps me to understand the world better	52	38	9	1	0
14. Learning English can help me know about the difference between eastern and western culture.	30	53	12	4	1
15. I study English in that I want to get a good job.	60	32	7	1	0
16. English is a trendy subject, so I choose it.	22	22	20	24	12
17. I want to make friends with English-speaking people.	29	42	17	12	0

18. Learning English can broaden my horizon.	34	35	14	13	4
19. I could get a feeling of achievement from English learning.	21	40	26	13	0

6. Findings

According to the analysis, the findings about the main types of English learning motivation of non- English-majored students could be concluded as following:

First of all, the two most common motivations among the non-English majored students at Hong Duc university were the instrumental motivation and extrinsic motivation. Integrative motivation and intrinsic motivation ranked third and fourth respectively.

Secondly, in terms of intrinsic motivation, interest was the vital factor that influenced students' English learning.

Thirdly, "*getting a good job*" and "*regarding English as a useful means of communication*" were the most universal extrinsic motivation; furthermore, the reason why many students chose English was that English was a useful language in the daily life, such as reading and communication.

Last but not least, as far as intrinsic motivation was concerned, the least important reason, which affected students to choose English major, was "*going abroad*".

The open-ended question for both students and teachers "*What do I want to do in my English class?*" allowed teachers to think of goals they want to achieve in teaching. At the same time, students were given the opportunity to reflect on their needs, their goals and expectations in learning English. It appears that students did not have the same objectives or the same goals. The students who completed this self-analysis motivational activity can be seen as being more motivated than the students who did not respond. From the responses I could measure the level of motivation they brought into the English classroom. The following statements are quotes from some of the students' responses:

"*I'd like to do many practical tasks, games for learning, role plays with my classmates, listening to pronunciation using records and repetition drills when necessary*"

"*In my English class I want to learn to speak with my classmates and teacher in English*"

"*In my English class I want to be a good student*".

"*I want to practice English though games*"

"*At the moment, nothing*"

In relation to teachers, the question elicited similar replies from teachers. It appears that all the respondents are concerned maximizing the opportunities to practice the English language to foster effective communication in and outside of the classroom. Some statements that could illustrate this idea are:

"*I want students to use the English language and express themselves in English*"

"I want to do a class where English is our first language. I want to explore my students' abilities"

"I want to use different techniques and strategies, with the good will of the students (which is little) to feel more self-realized in this area"

"I want to apply some new methods, multimedia, Internet more and more in teaching English"

7. Suggestions on stimulating English non - majored students' motivation

Motivation is very important for English learners. Motivating students involves not only leading them to English, but also making them thirsty for knowledge and understanding of English. English learning has its own characteristics that need the learners remember more, practice more and communicate more than other subjects. Students' motivation is critical for English learning. English teachers are organizers or leaders in teaching. They have responsibility to increase their students' inclination to perform willingly and actively on English learning.

7.1. Using various and interesting activities

It is effective and functional to apply various and interesting activities with moderate challenge to attract students to arouse their curiosity in English learning in view of intrinsic motivation, arousal and the characteristic of language learning. Language learning is a little different from other subjects that need students to develop roundly in four skills of listening, speaking, reading, and writing by remembering plenty of vocabulary, sentences, and grammar, practicing and speaking more in class. Students are willing to participate in English learning by combining English with recreation and to realize that English learning can be interesting and fun with their involvement. This is the key to maintain motivation throughout a lesson. Games are welcomed in English teaching.

Guessing game, gap filling, and chain story games are practical and interesting in English learning. In-role play, songs and summer English camping trips are also effective. Some real situation discussion and creative activities such as create an advertisement are encouraged in higher level. Various and interesting activities encourage students involve as much of the time and effort as possible and as well as enhance learning motivation.

7.2. Involving new and effective techniques

As some techniques have been employed in teaching, there are more choices and more methods for teachers to stimulate students' intrinsic motivation such as computer assisted language learning (CALL), multimedia, using Internet and educational software. These methods are innovative, interesting, practical, and effective with colorful pictures, vivid voices, plentiful information, and effective interaction that arouse students' curiosity and interest and as well as promote their intrinsic motivation. With intrinsic motivation, many students can start self-study at school or at home to effectively improve their listening, reading, and writing through this method.

7.3. Providing opportunities for students to experience success

The most important use of learning English is to communicate with people by using the target language, but not all learners are active to use English, especially when they are frustrated by failure in English learning.

The more ways we can give our students to use English, have fun with English and experience success in English learning, the more likely we are to keep all our students motivated and successful based on the theory of needs and beliefs. Hamachek (1972) has done a good deal of research on the effects of failure on school achievement, and almost without exception concluded that success tends to encourage students to raise their level of aspiration, whereas failure generally causes them to lower it. This point can be reached by providing more chances to join activities for students to experience success with more freedom and self-determination. For instance, teachers can take five minutes out of every class time for students to do the "I am a teacher today" activity in which students are given an opportunity to change their role into teacher to teach other students English on class as a sense of success. During these five minutes, students can decide what to teach such as to review, to teach new words, and to tell story.

7.4. Creating a relaxed and positive learning atmosphere

Atmosphere is important because it creates an environment that encourages both achievement and motivation. In order for students to learn English effectively, a relaxed and positive learning climate should be provided for students. In a friendly atmosphere, students can feel secure and their sense of understanding and challenge as well as learning motivation can be promoted. In English learning, students need a great deal of practice to speak in class, thus implementing some rules to ensure them making sufficient use of the practice time and at the same time to make them feel safe and comfortable and are away from criticism and laughing by making mistakes. Meanwhile, teachers should allow students to discuss broadly without the fear of expressing their own thoughts different from others. When students make some mistakes, teachers describe them as opportunities for improvement with warm comments, such as "This is a good experience for you. When you finally get it, you will have improved a lot". With more smiles and encouragments, teachers can have more interactions and stand closer to students. Before starting the lesson or an activity, teachers' explanation of what students are supposed to be learning and why they are learning it promotes a sense of value and makes students more positive about learning English. Then teachers should present challenging tasks in the principle of neither too easy nor too difficult, because tasks that are too difficult discourage them from trying; tasks that are too easy produce boredom and decreased feelings of competence and self-efficacy. When students are dealing with the tasks, teachers should prepare to give supportive aids at any moment.

7.5. Setting up adequate evaluation systems

Learners in the process of becoming autonomous need teachers for a variety of reasons. The role of teachers in the developing of learner autonomy is generally considered

to be that of facilitator and counselor. In addition, it is necessary for a teacher to set up an adequate evaluation system to motivate learners. In the case of vocational college learners, there is of course, a pressure to hunt a good job. When asked if teacher evaluation is necessary, many learners express the view that their teachers cannot have knowledge of all aspects of the process they are going through. Therefore, accurate evaluation of learning by a teacher is not possible. But learners still need to evaluate themselves in order to make a greater progress.

8. Conclusion

Motivation is critical in English learning. However, Hong Duc university's non English majored students' learning motivation is quite low. Thus, how to effectively motivate students in English learning is an important issue. Both students and teachers need to make great effort. On the one hand, students need to kick the habit of depending on their teachers and develop a habit of being independent in English learning. Moreover, teachers ought to keep on playing a leading role in the procedure of English learning, helping their students to motivate and keep learning motivation through creating new teaching methods and respect them. Besides that, teachers ought to shoulder more responsibilities of students. Hopefully, with the cooperation of teachers and students, the situation will gradually get improved.

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FACTORS AFFECTING NON- ENGLISH MAJOR STUDENTS' SPEAKING COMPETENCE AT HONG DUC UNIVERSITY

Nguyen Huy Tau[1]

Abstract: *The best way to improve any skill, including English speaking, is to practice every day (Chotpal,2015). Most of the non-English major students at Hong Duc University (HDU) have difficulties in speaking English. The main objective of the present study is to investigate the factors affecting non-English majors' speaking competence. The study also investigated the problems in four interrelated dimensions: First, it identified the factors affecting students' English speaking related to the teachers. Second, it identified the factors related to the students. Furthermore, the hindrances related to the learning-environment and the learning-materials were mentioned in this study. The scope of the study was one hundred and twenty students and ten teachers of English. The research instruments used in the study were questionnaires and class observation. Based on the research findings some recommendations were made. The study was expected to help non-English major students at HDU improve their English speaking competence.*

Keywords: *Non-English major students, English speaking competence, speaking performance, speaking problems.*

1. Introduction

English today is believed to be the most influential medium in bridging the global communication. A large proportion of learners in the world study English hard to communicate with native speakers or speakers of other languages. Learning a language involves skills of listening, speaking, reading and writing. Among them, speaking seems to be the most important skill because people who know a language are usually referred to as speakers of that language (Ur, 1996). Furthermore, as Yunzhong (1985, cited in Hughes, 2002: 133) stated that many language teachers consider speaking as the most effective means in achieving a fluent reading knowledge and correcting speech as the foundation for good writing. Those teachers also argued that during all one's life, one will probably talk more than one writes. Thus, to a language teacher, teaching speaking well is often a valued issue in the field of English as a Second Language/ English as a Foreign Language (ESL/ EFL).

The major goal of all English language teaching is to give learners the ability to use English effectively, accurately in communication (Davies &Pearse, 1998). However, not all language learners can communicate fluently and accurately after many years studying English because they lack necessary knowledge.

At Hong Duc university, non-English major students are not good enough at speaking English. Their English speaking competence is still low. Over 60% of them didn't pass the exam of the program outcome standard tested in December, 2016 and January, 2017. They

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find it difficult to use English to communicate. In order to improve students' speaking ability, it is necessary to find out effective ways to help them overcome their problems; therefore, the teachers need to know the factors that affect their students 'speaking competence; however, until now, no research on this area has been conducted at this university. This study focuses on three main issues:

1.What are the teachers-related factors that affect students' learning English speaking skills?

2.What are the students-related factors that affect their learning English speaking skills?

3.What are the learning-environment related factors influencing students' learning English speaking skills?

2. Material and methodology

2.1. Participants of the study

As far as the scope of this study is concerned, the participants are 120 second-year non- English majors randomly selected from different faculties(Faculty of Economics and Business Administration, Faculty of Social Sciences and Faculty of Primary Education, Hong Duc university) and varied in the level of English as well as speaking competence, and 10 teachers of English who are responsible for teaching English for this kind of students at Hong Duc university. In order to get data for the study, these teachers and students were chosen to answer the questionnaires.

2.2. Instrument

On the purpose of gathering satisfactory information, different tools were employed. The researcher mainly used questionnaires and classroom observation. With these instruments, the descriptive research methods were better analyzed. The questionnaires were delivered to both ten teachers of English and 120 students. The teachers' questionnaires consisted of 16 closed-questions designed in English. The students' questionnaires also contained 16 closed-questions designed in English.

In addition, in order to increase the reliability of those data that were gathered from the tools above, the researcher also used classroom observation, so the researcher could see and hear clearly how both the teachers and students perform their speaking lessons, and what problems the students really have in speaking lessons. Three classes were observed, 2 periods for each one during three weeks.

2.3. Data analysis procedure

To do the quantitative and qualitative analysis, the analysis of both types of data was run independently. This idea is supported by Hanison (2007), who states that "in an embedded design for mixed study, the analysis also proceeded independently of each other". In order to answer the research questions, the quantitative data derived from the questionnaires were analyzed with Statistical Product and Services Solutions (SPSS), and the descriptive statistics of frequencies and percentages were clearly shown. The qualitative data gained from the class observation were also described in detail.

3. Results and discussion

This part particularly discusses the results of 120 students and 10 teachers' questionnaire and classroom observation.

3.1. The discussion of the students' questionnaire

According to the students' replies, the factors related to the teachers' use of the techniques or activities, strategies and the students' roles in learning English speaking skills are shown in the following tables.

Table 1. Students' replies related to the teachers' use of the techniques/activities

No	Techniques/activities used by teachers	Frequencies				
		Always (1)	Usually (2)	Sometimes (3)	Rarely (4)	Never (5)
1	Questioning and answering	29/120 (24.17%)	37/120 (30.83%)	28/120 (23.33 %)	26/120 (21.67%)	0%
2	Pair or group work	0%	22/120 (18.33%)	52/120 (43.33%)	46/120 (38.33%)	0%
3	Conversations or dialogues	0%	25/120 (20.83%)	52/120 (43.33%)	43/120 (35.83%)	0%
4	Role play and drama	0%	0%	0%	0%	120/120 (100 %)
5	Picture descriptions	0%	0%	0%	0%	120/120 (100 %)
6	Storytelling	0%	0%	0%	0%	120/120 (100 %)
7	Peer interview	0%	0%	0%	29/120 (24.2 %)	91/120 (75.8 %)
8	Giving instructions on given topics	75/120 (62.5%)	33/120 (27.5%)	12/120 (10 %)	0%	0%
9	Listening to the script on the radio, tapes, video or TV and report back to the class.	0%	0%	0%	0%	120/120 (100 %)
10	Daily or weekly individual or group presentation on the completed project.	0%	0%	0%	0%	120/120 (100 %)

When the students were asked to give their ideas about the techniques or activities that the teachers used for teaching speaking skills, it can be seen that the first technique

(questioning and answering) and the 8th one (giving instructions on given topics) were more often used than the others. For the use of the 1st technique, 24.17%, 30.83%, 23.33% and 21.67% of the respondents answered "always", "usually", "sometimes" and "rarely" respectively; 62 % of students replied "always" and 27.5% of them responded "usually" for the use of the 8th one. The observation results also revealed that these were the techniques not frequently used in the classroom. This indicates that teacher didn't often provide students with the opportunity to practice English speaking through these techniques.

As presented in table 1 above, the 4th, 5th, 6th, 9th and 10th techniques were not used at all. The 7th one (peer interview) was less focused on. Thus, the learning environment was not encouraging or favorable. Likewise, from the classroom observation, it was learned that these techniques were rarely used as means for practicing English speaking skill. It can be inferred from the above discussions that the absence of applying these techniques could not give the students chances to practice speaking skill in the class context; therefore, it can badly affect students' speaking performances. Fontana (2003) shows that regarding speaking, providing students with as many opportunities to practice the language orally as possible which is an essential aspect of teaching this productive skill.

Similarly, classroom observation also presented the same results that teachers did not let students learn English speaking through daily or weekly presentation on the given titles. This also means that no provision of this technique could also hinder the students' spoken performances. Cotter (2007) states that in order to give students a structured class where they can interact with each other, the teacher should organize his or her class with the Presentation, Practice, and Production (PPP).

Table 2. Students' responses related to their roles in learning English Speaking Skills

No	Students' roles	Frequencies				
		Always (1)	Usually (2)	Sometimes (3)	Rarely (4)	Never (5)
11	I am motivated to learn English speaking because I see that it is advantageous.	0%	0%	0%	14/120 (11.7%)	106 /120 (88.3%)
12	I actively participate in classroom activities and like to present my group's ideas to the whole class in English.	0%	0%	0%	11/120 (9.2 %)	109/120 (90.8%)
13	I ask the teacher for feedback or mistake correction.	0%	0%	5 /120 (4.2 %)	7/120 (5.8 %)	108/120 (90%)

14	I have good knowledge of English grammar that lets me express sentences freely when speaking.	0%	0%	0%	0%	120 /120 (100%)
15	I have good knowledge of English vocabulary that lets me be easily understood by others.	0%	0%	0%	0%	120 /120 (100%)
16	I practice speaking English outside the classroom by talking with friends or someone else in English and watching or listening to English TV & radio programs.	0%	0%	0%	0%	120 /120 (100%)

From the items 11 to 16 above, we can see that most of the students are not motivated to learn English speaking: 11.7 % of them said "rarely", and 83.3 % replied "never". This is one of the factors that badly affected their participation in the classroom activities and presentation of group's ideas to the whole class in English. When asked, 9.2% and 90.8 of them answered "rarely" and "never" respectively. The results from the classroom observation also revealed like that. These factors could lead them to their shyness and laziness of asking the teacher for feedback or mistake correction. Only 4.2% of them said "sometimes", 5.8% responded "rarely" and 90 % of them replied "never". Sadler (Sadler, 1989, p.84) tells us that by quality of feedback, we now realize we have to understand not just the technical structure of the feedback (such as accuracy, comprehensiveness and appropriateness) but also its accessibility to the learner (as a communication), its catalytic and coaching value, and its ability to inspire confidence and hope.

Especially, concerning the uses of good knowledge of English grammar, vocabulary and practicing speaking English outside the classroom by talking with friends or someone else in English and watching or listening to English TV & radio programs etc. that let them express sentences freely when speaking or easily understand others, 100 % of students responded "never". Furthermore, classroom observation also presented the similar results. Hence, the absence of good language knowledge can be considered as a big setback for the learners to easily learn English speaking skill.

3.2. The discussion of the teachers' questionnaire

Ten teachers were asked to give their ideas about the techniques they used for developing students' English speaking skills, and their students' roles in learning English speaking skills. The results are presented in the following table.

Table 3. Teachers' replies related to their use of the techniques/ activities

No	Techniques/ activities	Frequencies				
		Always (1)	Usually (2)	Sometimes (3)	Rarely (4)	Never (5)
1	questioning and answering	3/10 (30 %)	5/10 (50 %)	2/10 (20 %)	0%	0%
2	pair or group work	0%	2/10 (20%)	5/10 (50 %)	3/10 (30 %)	0%
3	conversations or dialogues	0%	3/10 (30 %)	5/10 (50 %)	2/10 (20 %)	0%
4	role play and drama	0%	0%	0%	0%	10/10 (100%)
5	picture descriptions	0%	0%	0%	0%	10/10 (100%)
6	storytelling	0%	0%	0%	0%	10/10 (100%)
7	peers interview	0%	0%	2/10 (20%)	5/10 (50 %)	3/10 (30%)
8	Giving instructions on given topics	4 /10 (40 %)	6/10 (60 %)	0%	0%	0%
9	listening to the script on the radio, tapes, video or TV and report back to the class.	0%	0%	0%	0%	10/10 (100%)
10	daily or weekly individual or group presentation on the completed project.	0%	0%	0%	0%	10 /10 (100%)

Under item 1 above in which the respondents were asked if they used questioning and answering, we can see that teachers often use this technique for teaching speaking skill. Generally, 80% of the teachers often used this technique, and only 2 (20%) of them answered "sometimes" that they used these techniques in the classroom. Likewise, classroom observation results also showed that these were among those techniques frequently used in the classroom.

For items 2 and 3 above, regarding the use of pairs or group discussion, and conversations or dialogues, the table shows that 50% of the respondents said "sometimes", 20-30% of them replied "usually" or "rarely". Likewise, it was observed that these techniques were not often used in the classroom, either.

Similar to the responses of students related to the teachers' use of techniques or activities, items 4 to 6 and 9 to 10 about the techniques of role play and drama, picture descriptions, storytelling, listening to the script on the radio, tapes, video or TV and report

back to the class, and daily or weekly individual or group presentation on the completed project are never used in class at all.

For item 7, peer interview technique is sometimes used by 2 (20%) of the respondents only. Conversely, item 8 was always or usually used in class. The classroom observation also presented the same results.

Generally, the above findings show that teachers did not often use these learning techniques that could help students develop their English speaking skill. In this regard, most of these techniques can be considered as the factors currently affecting badly the students' English speaking acquisition. According to Byrne, (1991: 10-12) learners' directed pair-work, or group-work activities that focus on accuracy involve role-plays, controlled conversations or working with questionnaires, while fluency activities make use of project work, various games, and also discussions carried out within groups or pairs.

Table 4. Teachers' replies related to the students' roles in learning English speaking skills

No	Students' roles	Frequencies				
		Always (1)	Usually (2)	Sometimes (3)	Rarely (4)	Never (5)
11	They are motivated to learn English speaking because they see that it is advantageous.	0%	0%	0%	0%	10 /10 (100%)
12	They actively participate in classroom activities and like to present their group's ideas to the whole class in English.	0%	0%	0%	1/10 (10 %)	9/10 (90%)
13	They ask the teacher for feedback / mistake correction	0%	0%	0%	7/10 (5.8%)	3/10 (4.2%)
14	They have good knowledge of English grammar that lets them express sentences freely when speaking	0%	0%	0%	0%	10/10 (100%)
15	They have good knowledge of English vocabulary that lets them be easily understood by others	0%	0%	0%	0%	10/10 (100%)
16	They practice speaking English outside the classroom by talking with friends and watching or listening to English TV & radio programs…	0%	0%	0%	0%	10/10 (100%)

Comparing with the replies of the students related to their roles in learning English speaking skill, the replies of the teachers given in table 2 above show the similar results. Most of the respondents (90-100%) agreed that students were never interested in these roles or responsibilities. Only 10% of the respondents replied that the students rarely participated in classroom activities and like to present their group's ideas to the whole class in English; 5.8% reported that the students rarely asked them for feedback or mistake correction. Likewise, the classroom observation also revealed the equivalent results. Thus, these are problems the students are reluctant to speak inside and outside classroom in the target language, they are afraid of using English outside class, and in some ways, they are unenthusiastic to use English inside classroom (Lin, 1998).

Moreover, it is also clearly showed by the classroom observation that students did not often tend to speak in English, but their native languages. This means that when students like to speak in their native languages instead and the teachers are aside encouraging them to use local codes, students can hardly happen to acquire the skill (Chotpal, 2015).

3.3. The discussion of the classroom observation

Classes were observed. Six observation sessions were carried out for three weeks. It was clear that the techniques or activities about questioning and answering, pairs or group work, and giving instructions on given topics were more usually used than the others in general. The following techniques such as dialogues, role play, picture description, peers interview, storytelling, listening to the script on the radio, tapes, video or TV then report back to the class, daily or weekly individual or group presentation on completed project were rarely seen used. On thecontrary, in relation to communicative language teaching, Revell (1991, p.5) reminds that 'theories of communicative competence imply that teachers must do more than just supply learners with a number of language structures to manipulate' and suggests that it is necessary to make a link between "linguistic competence" and "communicative competence".

The researcher also recognized that students had no confidence and motivation for English speaking, they were afraid of taking part in English speaking activities inside as well as outside the classroom, they always preferred to use their mother tongue because they had high shyness. They did not have good knowledge of grammar and vocabulary that could let them express their ideas so easily.

The environment for learning speaking skill was also discovered. The researcher realized that classes were large in size or overcrowded with 40 to 50 or even 60 students per class. Moreover, the desks were fixed in rows; hence, they were not arranged in the way that could facilitate the students' learning English speaking skills. The classes were not equipped enough with modern learning resources. Besides, Teacher Talking Time (TTT) was much more than Student Talking Time (STT). This led to unsuccessful speaking lessons. A common problem is that the teacher talks too much of the time, thus taking away valuable practice time from the students (Ur, 1996).

Finally, as regards the materials they used for learning English speaking, there were no varieties of audio and video materials in the university that could be used by the students as a model for learning English speaking skills and that teachers did not also use accompanying materials that might help students learn English speaking skills more fascinatingly and effectively.

4. Conclusions

To conclude all the issues that have been presented, analyzed and discussed in this paper so far related to the factors affecting students' speaking competence and the problems they encountered at Hong Duc university. Based on the findings, we reached the following conclusions:

Teachers were not active in developing students' English speaking skills. They did not often use various techniques, strategies, and speaking activities in class to encourage students to speak in English such as role-play, dialogue, picture description, storytelling and peers interview. They did not let students listen to the records on the radio or watch TV or video and present the report back to the class. Teachers also gave less time to various speaking exercises, rarely let students practice speaking English through daily or weekly individual or group presentation on the completed project and other activities.

Students were not eager to speak English. They were inactively observed participating in class discussions. They rarely listened to English radio station programs, or watched the foreign TV station programs as a model for learning English speaking skills. They had less knowledge of English grammar and vocabulary; hence, they hesitated a lot when speaking in English.

In addition, as far as Hong Duc university is concerned, classes were too large in size or overcrowded. The classrooms were not conveniently arranged for students to join in speaking activities. Furthermore, the curriculum of training general English for this kind of students consists of 10 credits correspondent to 210 hours in class. Thus, these were also the factors affecting students' learning English speaking skills related to the learning environment.

5. Recommendations

Based on the results of the study, some recommendations would like to be shared with the teachers of English and the students at Hong Duc university. First of all, the teachers should plan and design speaking lessons in the way that can motivate students. Secondly, the teachers should often organize various helpful techniques, strategies and activities for teaching speaking skills, and create an English speaking environment by encouraging the students to use English in the classroom to make it a habit. Thirdly, the teachers should always encourage students to take part in speaking activities. Moreover, learners-centered approach should be always applied in order to let students do their tasks when practicing English speaking skills. TTT should be less than STT. Reducing TTT and increasing STT is

an important aspect of creating a communicative classroom. Finally, speaking skills should be included in tests and exams because the students will be more motivated to learn speaking skills that they are tested.

As for students, they should first be responsible for learning English speaking skills. They need to develop the following kinds of capacities: confidence, curiosity, intentionality, self-control, relatedness, communication and cooperation (Kohonen et al, 2001, p.36-37). They have to participate actively in the classroom speaking exercises such as asking and answering questions, asking for clarity, group and pair discussions etc. Second, they should practice speaking English outside the classroom more often by doing the speaking tasks in the textbook at home with their classmates, joining speaking club where they can use English to communicate and speaking on their own in front of a mirror. Finally, they should use English in class instead of Vietnamese to make it as much as possible.

In addition to this, learning environment needs to be favorable. The class size needs to be changed in the way that supports students' learning. Class setting needs to be arranged in the ways that encourage students' English speaking learning. Hopefully, the study can contribute to the improvement of English teaching and learning at Hong Duc university.

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INTEGRATING TEACHING CULTURE IN TEACHING A FOREIGN LANGUAGE

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Abstract: *Language and culture have an inseparable connection. Thus, it is impossible to learn a language without learning culture. In case of Hong Duc university, it is important to integrate culture-teaching in language–teaching in order to improve learners' language competence. This paper aims at researching current situation of teaching culture in language classes at Hong Duc university. From that, the writer has some suggestions to speed up the process of teaching culture in foreign language teaching and learning.*

Keywords: *Integrating, culture.*

1. Introduction

Currently, the aim of foreign language teaching is to obtain effectively communicative competence. Integrating culture of target language into the process of teaching and learning is becoming more and more important. Although the advantages of this integration has been proved, culture teaching has not become a significant part of the core program in many universities in general and in Hong Duc university in specific. Recently, educators have recognized the important role of culture in teaching and learning a language. Therefore, the selection of appreciate and effective methods to incorporate culture into language classes is primary concern.

In order to finger out the current situation of teaching culture in language classes at Hong Duc university, the writer conducted a survey which asked teacher about the role of culture teaching in language classes. This survey aims at answer the research question " What is teacher's attitude toward the role of culture-teaching in language classes at Hong Duc university?"

2. Literarure review

2.1. What is culture?

First of all, it is necessary to understand what "culture" is. Through history, "culture" has been discussed by many researchers. But perhaps cultural issues never have been of widespread concern and deeply analyzed as currently when the process of globalization is happening rapidly. It is assumed that 'culture' is a broad and extremely complex concept. Montgomery and Reid-Thomas (1994, p.5) argued that culture is the whole way of life of a people or group. In this context, culture includes all the social practices that bond a group of people together and distinguish them from others. Anthropologists define culture as "the way of people" (Lado, 1957). This view governs 'culture' as a group's way of thinking, feeling

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and acting which regulates people's lives at every turn. This point of view also reflects the natural description of teaching culture and the problems of teaching culture in foreign language teaching that we are referring cause "a central aim in any language endeavor is human interaction" (Lo Bianco, J., Liddicoat, A. and Crozet, C. 1999, p. 69).

2.2. The relationship between culture and language

It is believed that language and culture have an inseparable connection. Acording to Wierzbicka, A (1997, p.1) "There is a very close link between the life of a society and the lexicon of the language spoken by it. This applies in equal measure to the outer and the inner aspects of life". Culture is something people can learn which is transferred from generation to generation based on the interaction between people, or communicative activities, in particular. From this perspective, language not only is an evitable component of culture, but it is also a mean in which culture is transformed. An individual will naturally express his culture through his speech. On the other hand, culture and language have a very close relationship in which both of them link together to become an inseparable entity.

2.3. The role of culture in teaching and learning a language

As clearly seen in the literature, it is important to incorporate cultural elements in language teaching. Because language is so closely entwined with culture, language teachers entering a different culture must respect their cultural values. Language teachers must realize that their understanding of something is prone to interpretation. The meaning is bound in cultural context. One must not only explain the meaning of the language used, but the cultural context in which it is placed as well. Often meanings are lost because of cultural boundaries which do not allow such ideas to persist. As Porter (1987) argues, misunderstandings between language educators often evolve because of such differing cultural roots, ideologies, and cultural boundaries which limit expression.

Language teachers must remember that people from different culture learn things in differrent ways. Prodromou (1988) argues that the way we teach reflects our attitudes to society in general and the individual's place in society. When a teacher introduces language teaching materials, such as books or handouts, they must understand that these will be viewed differently by students depending on their cultural views (Maley, 1986). For instance, westerners see books as only pages which contain facts that are open to iterpretation. This view is very dissimilar to Chinese students who think that books are the personification of all wisdom, knowledge and truth (Maley, 1986).

One should not only compare, but contrast the cultural differences in language usage. Visualizing and understanding the differences between the two will enable the student to correctly judge the appropriate uses and causation of language idiosyncrasies. For instance, I have found, during my teaching, that it is necessary to contrast the different language usages, especially grammatical and idiomatic use in their cultural contexts for the students to fully understand why certain things in English are said. Most Vietnamese students learning English are first taught to say "Hello. How are you?" and "I am fine. Thank you, and you?"

This is believed to be what one must say on the first and every occasion of meeting a westerner. If I asked a student "What's new?" or "How is everything?" they would still answer "I am fine, thank you and you?" Students often asked me why westerners greet each other using different forms of speech which, when translated to Vietnamese, didn't make sense. This question was very difficult to answer, until I used an example based in Vietnamese culture to explain it to them. One example of this usage: In Vietnamese, one popular way to greet a person is to say "Ăn cơm chưa?" This, loosely translated to English, would have an outcome similar to "Have you eaten?" or "Are you full?". It was culturally (and possibly morally) significant to ask someone if they had eaten upon meeting. This showed care and consideration for those around you. Even now, people are more affluent but this piece of language remains constant and people still ask on meeting someone, if they have eaten. If someone in a western society was greeted with this, they would think you are crazy or that it is none of your business. The usage of cultural explanations for teaching languages has proved invaluable for my students' understanding of the target language. It has enabled them to differentiate between appropriate and inappropriate circumstances of which to use English phrases and idioms that they have learnt. Valdes (1986) argues that not only similarities and contrasts in the native and target languages have been useful as teaching tools, but when the teacher understands cultural similarities and contrasts, and applies that knowledge to teaching practices, they too become advantageous learning tools.

3. Current situation of teaching culture in language classes at Hong Duc university

In order to have an insight into the importance of teaching culture in teaching a foreign language, a survey was designed to investigate teachers' opinions on the place of target cultural information in English language teaching, as well as their related practices and applications in EFL classroom at Hong Duc university.

3.1. Teachers' attitudes toward the role of culture in language teaching

The survey showed 100% of teachers believed that culture plays a "very important" or "important" role in teaching a language. All of them mentioned that integrating culture in language classes stimulates students' interest in learning. However, that positive perception has not actually gone into practice effectively. Some teachers said that cultural points have been mentioned very little during their teaching process because of time limitation.

3.2. The cultural information which teachers give in their lessons

Table 1. The cultural information which teachers give in their lessons

British/ American culture	Holidays and Festivals	Cultural Variations	Cross cultural communication	Songs, dances and films
40%	30%	10%	15 %	5%

To the interviewed question, which asked teachers to specify the cultural information they give in their lessons, 40% interviewees indicated that they mostly talked about

"British/American people's specific customs, traditions and beliefs that differ from those of our". "*I think learning about the difference between our everyday life features and those of their appeals the students most, and I do what interest them*" – stated one teacher. 10% teachers declared that they "clarified idioms and vocabulary that lead students to misconceptions". 30% teachers said that they usually give specific information on holidays and festivals such as Eater and Halloween". 15% participants stated that "for students to be communicatively competent they need to develop an awareness of cross cultural communication; otherwise they cannot become successful language users". Only 5% interviewees use songs, dances and films relating to culture to make their lasson more intersting cause it takes time to prepare.

3.3. The most popular methods to teach culture

Table 2. The most popular methods which teachers use to teach culture

Methods	Usually	Often	Sometimes	Rarely/Never
Lecture and Reading	62,5%	3,5%	35%	0%
Group Disscussion	0%	37,5%	62,5%	0%
Problem and Solving	0%	0%	10%	90%
Culture Assimilation	0%	0%	85%	15%

The survey's results also show that one of the most popular way that teachers in Hong Duc university apply to teach culture is "lecture and reading". 62,5% interviewees indicated that they "*usually*" use this method to teach culture, 35% teachers "*sometimes*" apply this method in their culture teaching. They also explained that this is the most common and simple way of teaching culture cause they do not need to spend much effort and time on preparing. Therefore, it is time-consuming for them to pay more attention on their skill teaching which is defined as main task.

"Group discussion" is one of the culture teaching activity that teachers carried out in their class. 37,5% participants indicated that they "*often*" give students topics relating to culture to discuss and compare them to their own culture. 62,5% teachers "*sometimes*" require students to discuss cultural topics in class. However, some cultural teaching methods such as Problem Solving, Culture Assimilator are rarely applied in culture teaching because of its complicating. In short, most of the teachers applied only familiar methods to provide knowledge of culture to students. On the other hand, the survey also shows that the content and preparation of cultural instruction is only "accidental" occurring at certain times of the lesson which is not a matter of constant and systematic attention.

4. Some suggested activities to integrate culture in language classes at Hong Duc university

In fact, there are many researchers on the topic how to deal with these communication differences. As an intercultural communicator as well as a language teacher, from my own

experience, depending on age and level of learners, there is a number of way teachers can apply for teaching culture in their skill lessons, such as:

Cultural environment: Teachers can create cultural environment in his/her class by asking students to prepare posters, pictures, or even authentic materials involving to cultural matters. For example, in a speaking class, when teacher introduces students to talk about the topic "Wedding", she can ask students to prepare some pictures or videos about wedding in Vietnam and in some other countries to help them have a comparison of wedding custom among these countries. This activity also gives students more information as well vocabularies to improve their speaking skill.

Authentic Materials: Using authentic sources from the native speech community helps to engage students in authentic cultural experiences. Sources can include films, news broadcasts, and television shows; Web sites; and photographs, magazines, newspapers, restaurant menus, travel brochures, and other printed materials. Teachers can adapt their use of authentic materials to suit the age and language proficiency level of the students. For example, even beginning language students can watch and listen to video clips taken from a television show in the target language and focus on such cultural conventions as greetings. The teacher might supply students with a detailed translation or give them a chart, diagram, or outline to complete while they listen to a dialogue or watch a video. After the class has viewed the relevant segments, the teacher can engage the students in discussion of the cultural norms represented in the segments and what these norms might say about the values of the culture. Discussion topics might include nonverbal behaviors (e.g., the physical distance between speakers, gestures, eye contact, societal roles, and how people in different social roles relate to each other). Students might describe the behaviors they observe and discuss which of them are similar to their native culture and which are not and determine strategies for effective communication in the target language.

Dramas: In this activity, students engage in drama in which misleading communication situations occur. After that, the problem is discussed by the class and given appropriate solution.

Visuals or media: films, short videos, pictures and magazines, television programs, etc, is very interesting authentication which can be used for teaching culture. In the opinion of Peck (1998, cited in Fleet,), film, video or pictures is also very useful for job-related cultural non-verbal communication such as gestures, attitudes, facial expressions, etc.

Proverbs: Discussing common proverbs in language learning helps students understand the similarities and differences with the equivalent idiom in their language. Consequently, students can recognize the major differences in cultural background and history between the two languages.

Generally, the activities are used to teach culture in foreign language are not only limited to the activities mentioned above. There are many methods and strategies for teachers to exploit cultural application in the target foreign language teaching. However, the choosing method depends on particular learners. The teachers carefully considers the objective of learning as well as the content to select and adjust the available activities, and

create new ways of teaching following their own culture, which incorporates elements of culture into language classes so that it can bring the effectiveness.

4. Conclusion

In conclusion, understanding the close relationship between language and culture enables teachers and learners to raise the awareness of the importance of intercultural background in language teaching and learning process. The study of cross-culture in teaching and learning foreign language would be an important part of education system, and the cultural studies will have an important contribution to the theory of teaching foreign languages, which help learner overcome the difficulties in language learning. Considering intercultural language and analyzing cross-cultural communication breakdown is an important part in language learning, which enables language teachers to influence on learners' attitudes toward other cultures in a positive way. As the main aim of language teaching is building communicative competences for learners.

From the result obtained through out the research, the incorporating culture into language classes at Hong Duc university has not become the primany concern yet. Based on the findings from the study and the results from the research, the authors propose some methods for integrating cultural factors in foreign language teaching for students. These methods should be applied extensively not only to language students but also to non-major students of the school in order to improve the quality of education.

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EXPLORING VIETNAMESE TERTIARY LEARNERS' PROBLEMS IN PRODUCING THE DENTAL FRICATIVES /θ, ð/ AND POSTALVEOLAR FRICATIVE /ʃ, ʒ/

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Abstract: *This study investigates Vietnamese university students' difficulties in the production of the /θ/, /ð/, /ʃ/, /ʒ/ sounds. A mixed method with the usage of the questionnaire and interview guide as research tools was used. The questionnaires which consisted of 12 questions was delivered to 60 second-year and third-year students at Hong Duc university. Eight out of these 60 participants were then selected for semi-structured interviews to gain an insight into the quantitative data. The results show that all of the /θ/, /ð/, /ʃ/, /ʒ/ sounds were problematic for students to produce. The most challenging sound was the /θ/ sound, followed by /ð/, /ʒ/ and /ʃ/ respectively. Students' first language (L1) adversely affected their second language (L2) pronunciation whereas pronunciation training had a positive impact.*

Keywords: *dental fricatives, post alveolar fricatives, mother tongue, pronunciation training.*

1. Introduction

The demand of learning English, especially for intelligible communication in English, has increased significantly amongst Vietnamese learners. According to Pennington (1996), the most important part of learning a second language is pronunciation; the error which most severely impairs the communication process of EFL/ESL (English as a Foreign Language/ English as a Second Language) learners is pronunciation, rather than vocabulary or grammar (Hinofitis & Baily, 1980, pp. 124-125). Dan (2006) also claims that phonetics both in theory and practice constitute the basis of speaking above all other aspects of language and pronunciation is the foundation of speaking. Good pronunciation may make communication easier, more relaxed and more useful. (p.19)

Despite the all-important role of correct pronunciation in communication, many Vietnamese EFL students have seemingly found it difficult to produce English sounds correctly. One of the reasons for the students' pronunciation problems is possibly the differences between Vietnamese and English phonological systems (Tang *et al*. 2007) and the lack of pronunciation training. Thus, this present research continues investigating some problems with the phonetics and phonology of Vietnamese adult learners learning English (i.e. problems with the production of the dental /θ, ð/ and post alveolar fricatives /ʃ, ʒ/) which seems to be a limitation of the previous studies.

2. Literature review

2.1. Description of the dental /θ, ð/ and post alveolar fricatives /ʃ, ʒ/

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The sounds /θ, ð/, both spelled *th* like in *thick* and *this* respectively, are "pronounced by placing the tongue tip behind the upper front teeth" (Fromkin *et al*., 2012, p.201). "*When these sounds are produced, the airflow is severely restricted but not totally blocked so that it causes friction. Friction occurs at the narrow opening between the tongue and the teeth* (Cruttenden, 1962, pp. 206 - 207).

The other sounds /ʃ, ʒ/, which occur in *fish* and *leisure* respectively, are made by raising the blade of the tongue (the part just back from the tip) to the area behind the alveolar ridge. These sounds are produced with the friction created as the air passes between the tongue and the post alveolar region. /ʃ/ is considered as voiceless post alveolar fricative while /ʒ/ is a voiced post alveolar fricative (Fromkin *et al*., 2012, pp. 202-211).

2.2. Previous studies relating to L2 (Second Language) students' production of dental /θ, ð/ and post alveolar fricatives /ʃ, ʒ/

Regarding language acquisition, Lado (1957) proposed the Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis which focuses on comparing two language systems to predict learners' difficulties in L2 learning and which relies on the differences between the two languages. Particularly, the learner will find it more difficult to learn a second language if there is a big difference between the first language and the second language. Selinker (1972) also points out that some items, rules, and subsystems of a learner's interlanguage, which is defined as the observable output which results from a learner's attempted production of a target language norm (p.214), may be transferred from the L1.

There are two kinds of native language transfer; positive and negative transfer. The positive transfer occurs when there are similarities between the first language and the second language, which can facilitate the process of L2 acquisition; while the negative transfer occurs when there are differences between the two languages, which can inhibit the L2 acquisition. The positive transfer thus results in correct performance in which the new behaviour is the same, and as appropriate as the previous. The greater difference between the L1 and the L2 is the lower rate of L2 accuracy (Ellis, 2008).

In the context outside Vietnam, there have been a very limited number of studies with a focus on investigating students' problems with L2 pronunciation. Lukaszewicz (2009) conducted research on the acquisition of the dental fricatives /θ, ð/ of 20 Polish secondary school students. One finding shows that 72% of the participants substituted /d/ for /ð/; 56% substituted /f/ for /θ/; and 34% substituted /t/ for /θ/. Those mispronunciations occurred because the dental fricatives /θ, ð/ are absent in the Polish language (Lukaszewicz, 2009). The findings of Lukaszewicz 2009's study are supported by Wester, Gilbers, and Lowie (2007) that the mispronunciation of the dental fricatives /θ/ and /ð/ by Dutch native speakers of English are due to the absence of those sounds in the Dutch language.

In the context of Vietnam, there is very limited research about this problem. One of the studies was carried out by Tam (1999) who studied Vietnamese EFL learners' production in /θ, ð/ and /s, z/. The results from the study show that the students have more problems with the production of the sounds /θ, ð/ than /s, z/. The interference of Vietnamese first language

is considered as an important reason for these students' problems. Duong Thi Nu (2008) conducted research on the mistakes of Vietnamese learners of English when producing 4 English sounds /ʃ/, / ʒ /, /ʧ/ and /dʒ/. The result shows that the reasons for the mistakes created by the students are the lack of knowledge of articulation of the English sounds and the interference of the mother tongue.

Overall, previous studies agree on effects of L1 transfer to students' learning of L2 pronunciation. However, these studies reveal the weaknesses in showing the frequency of the difficulties of in producing the /θ/, /ð/, /ʃ/, /ʒ/ sounds. Also, there is no study conducted on the production of these four sounds of Vietnamese English majors at university level.

3. Research Methodology

3.1. Research questions

With the aim of better understanding of university-level Vietnamese students' problems in producing of the /θ/, /ð/, /ʃ/, /ʒ/ sounds, the present study attempts to answer the following questions:

Do the university students find any difficulty in producing the dental /θ, ð/ and post alveolar fricatives /ʃ, ʒ/? If yes, what is the frequency of difficulties of these sounds for Vietnamese students majoring in English to produce?

How do pronunciation training and first language affect the production of the four English sounds /θ, ð/ and /ʃ, ʒ/?

3.2. Participants

The study was implemented with the participation of 60 students who were in their second and third year at Hong Duc university. Here are the descriptions of the participants' profile collected from the survey questionnaire.

Table 1. The participants' general background

	Number	**Age**	**Gender**	**Years of learning English**
2nd-year students	30	19-21	Female	7-14 years
3rd-year students	30	21-23	1 male & 29 females	

3.3. Research methodology, data collection and analysis

This study employed a mixed method of qualitative and quantitative analysis. A questionnaire was delivered to 60 students to find out the students' general information and to see if they have any difficulties with /θ/, /ð/, /ʃ/, /ʒ/ sounds. Then, 8 students were selected for semi-structured interviews to check quantitative data and see how their L1 and pronunciation training influence their L2 pronunciation.

The quantitative data were categorized according to theme such as students' general background. SPSS version 22 was used to analyze frequencies of difficulties in producing

the four sounds. The manual interview transcription was used to analyze the data and for transcribing the recordings into text. Phonemic transcription was used to transcribe lists of words in the interview. British English was selected as a Standard English pronunciation to compare the pronunciation of all participants. Errors related to 4 sounds /θ, ð/ and ʃ, ʒ/ were counted carefully for analysis.

4. Findings and discussion

4.1. Findings from the questionnaire

All 60 (100%) of the students who participated in answering the questionnaire reported that they only studied one intensive pronunciation training course when they were in their first year at university. 100% of the students claimed that the course was significant since it was a foundation for them to improve their speaking. Through the course, they learned many important aspects of English pronunciation, including, place and manner of articulation, word stress, sentence stress, and linking words. Such valuable knowledge helped the students a great deal:

"I learned a lot from the course. After the course, I know the way to pronounce words in English dictionaries correctly. This is important for my self-study; I can check the pronunciation of a new word and read the word correctly" (Participant 38, question 8)

In their response to question 9, all 60 students (100%) admitted that they had certain problems in the production of the four English sounds: /θ/, /ð/ and /ʃ/, /ʒ/. Overall, frequencies of difficulties are presented in the following table:

**Table 2. Students' frequencies of difficulties in producing / θ/, / ð/, /ʃ/, /ʒ/**

	Rank (From the most difficult to the least difficult)			
	/ θ/	/ ð/	/ʃ/	/ʒ/
2ⁿᵈ -year students	1ˢᵗ	2ⁿᵈ	3ʳᵈ	3ʳᵈ
3ʳᵈ -year students	1ˢᵗ	2ⁿᵈ	4ᵗʰ	3ʳᵈ

As can be seen, the voiceless dental fricative /θ/ is the most challenging sound for the second-year and third-year students to produce. It is followed by the voiced dental fricative /ð/. It is interesting that while second-year English majors reported that the sounds /ʃ/ and /ʒ/ had equal difficulties to produced, third-years ones had more problems with the sound /ʒ/ than the sound /ʃ/.

When asked about the factors affecting their production of the sounds /θ/, /ð/, /ʃ/ and /ʒ/, 60/60 students (100%) said that Vietnamese language and intensive pronunciation training courses both impacted on their English pronunciation. This result supports the Contrastive Analysis Hypo theory from Lado (1957) which states that discrepancies between the first language and the target language can result in students' difficulties in second language learning.

4.2. Findings from the interviews

The results from interviews with 8 students agreed with the results from the questionnaire that students had problems with pronouncing the dental /θ, ð/ and post alveolar fricatives /ʃ, ʒ/. Error occurrence of the /θ/ sound was highest while that of /ʃ/ sound was lowest see the figure below:
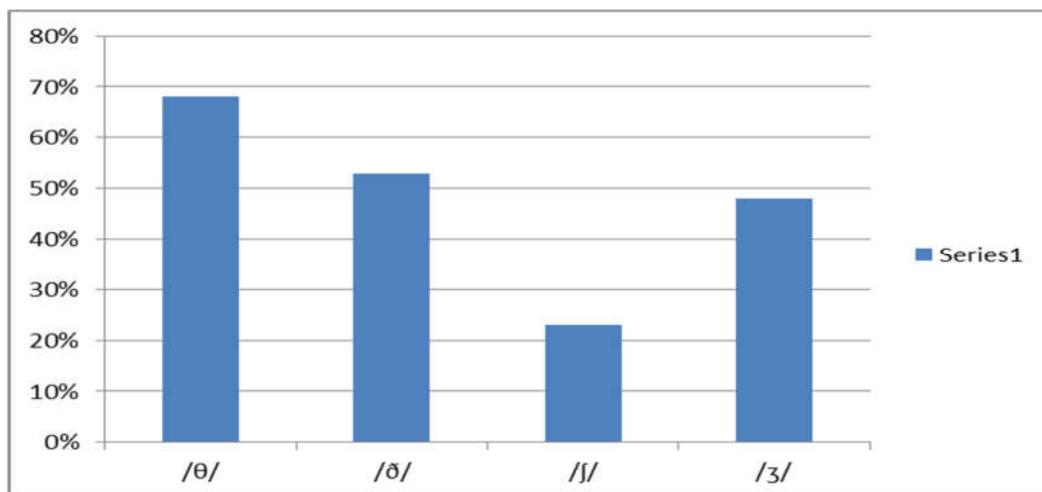
(Chart 1: Percentage of Error occurrence of of /θ/, /ð/, /ʃ/ and /ʒ/ sounds)

As can be seen from the chart, the /θ/ sound had the highest percentage of error occurrence of 68%. It is followed by /ð/, /ʒ/ and /ʃ/ at 53%, 48% and 23% respectively. The /θ/ sound is the most and the /ʃ/ sound is the least challenging for the students to pronounce.

The influence of Vietnamese language and pronunciation training on the students' production of the sounds

All eight participants agreed that their first language strongly affected their pronunciation of the /θ/, /ð/, /ʃ/, /ʒ/ sounds. For instance, participant 1 commented: "*For me, all of the four sounds are difficult to master because in Vietnamese we don't have these sounds. That's the reason why I often replace these four English sounds with the ones which are similar in Vietnamese language'.* Student 5 also stated that *"The words 'thank' or 'then' have the same spelling as the Vietnamese sound 'th', like in the words 'thanh' or 'thích thú'. They have the same letter 'th' so I just pronounce them like Vietnamese".*

Participants 2, 3 & 4 also express similar opinions on their problems with the production of the dental fricatives /θ, ð/ and post alveolar fricatives /ʃ, ʒ/. They both agreed that their first language significantly affected their mastering of the four English sounds. It is interesting to note that Vietnamese dialects also had impacts on how the students pronounce the English sounds:

"I think there are many Vietnamese people who do not speak Vietnamese correctly in term of pronunciation. For example, people in Thanh Hoa often pronounce /s/ in 'xuất' and /s/ in 'sắc' similarly. Thanh Hoa people often say 'xuất xắc' while this phrase should be pronounced 'xuất sắc'. Therefore, when I learn the sound /ʃ/ in English, I mispronounce this sound like /s/ in 'xuất xắc'. But I think students in other regions of Vietnam where they can

pronounce correctly /s/ in 'xuất' and /s/ in 'sắc' like in 'xuất sắc', I believe they have no problems with pronouncing / ʃ/ in English correctly." (Participant 2)

The length of the speaking also played a vital role in her production of the sounds:

"If I read the sound /θ/ in word level, I mean…one word at a time, like 'thirty'; I may read the word including /θ/ sound correctly. But if I read that word in a sentence, for example, it's thirty dollars, I can read the word like /ʈʰə: tɪ/ in Vietnamese language. Especially, when it comes to a long conversation with others in English, I often focus on the meaning of the conversation rather than paying attention to correct pronunciation of every word". (Participant 8)

Some participants also revealed that the degree of Vietnamese native language transfer was different. They reported that their mother tongue influenced them significantly when they were beginner learners of English. However, the level of their first language transfer gradually declined when they practiced a great deal. *"When I started learning English at a secondary school, I replaced all the English sounds with Vietnamese sounds, but after several years learning English, my pronunciation of English words is much better now".* (Participant 4)

The first finding of the first language influence on learner's second language learning confirms the Contrastive Analysis Hypo theory from Lado (1957) and also agrees on the findings of previous studies (Jalal Ahmad, 2011; Lukaszewicz, 2009; Tam, 1999). Students have more problems with sounds in a second language that do not appear in the first language; also they tend to replace those difficult sounds with the ones which they believe are similar in their native first language.

In addition to their mother tongue, all eight participants stated that they were strongly affected by pronunciation training. They all took an intensive pronunciation training course at the first year at university and agreed on the benefits of the course. This result also agreed with findings from quantitative data that students could learn a lot from such a course.

"Of course, it is important to take the pronunciation training. Although I still cannot speak like a native speaker after I take the course, I know why I am wrong and how to practice the sounds." (Participant 7)

This finding supports the previous studies by Dewing & Resister (2003), Duong Thi Nu (2008) and Gilakjani (2012) on the positive effect of pronunciation training. The previous studies show that the proper instruction on pronunciation can facilitate students achieving intelligible pronunciation. All 60 students participating in the questionnaires reported that they took one intensive course on English pronunciation and they did learn a great deal from the course. The knowledge of place and manner of articulation is the foundation for them to practice difficult sounds /θ/, /ð/, /ʃ/ and /ʒ/. Students were more aware of how those sounds are produced and the position of their tongue, teeth, and lips when producing the sounds. However, although the students taking part in interview had a pronunciation training course, they still had problems with pronouncing the four sounds.

One reason for the students' mispronunciation of the English sounds seems to be the fact that the length of the training course is not enough for them to master the sounds. Six out of eight students in response to question nine of the questionnaire agreed that one pronunciation training course was not enough; at least one more such a course should be added into the curriculum so that the students will have more opportunities to practice the English sounds. Another reason could be students' English proficiency. The eighth participant involving in the interview, who reported to have a better level of English (C1) than the others, had fewer mistakes when reading the words containing /θ/, /ð/, /ʃ/ and /ʒ/.

In short, Vietnamese first language strongly affected the students' mispronunciation of the four English sounds. However, it is obvious that mother tongue is not the only factor affecting the students' production of the sounds. Other factors, such as pronunciation training, students' English proficiency, and the length of speaking also had an impact on their learning of English pronunciation.

5. Conclusion and implications to language teaching and learning

This study explored Vietnamese university students' problems in producing the dental /θ, ð/ and post alveolar fricatives /ʃ, ʒ/ sounds. The main result was that the students had difficulties with the /θ/, /ð/, /ʃ/ and /ʒ/ sounds as these sounds do not appear in their Vietnamese native language and they overcame the problem by substituting those sounds with the similar ones in Vietnamese sound system. The /θ/ sound was the most difficult to pronounce and the /ʃ/ sound was the least difficult. The interference of students' mother tongue is not the only culprit for the mispronunciation of English sounds. Other factors such as pronunciation training and the length of their speaking also had an impact on students' learning of English pronunciation.

From these findings, some recommendations can be drawn to better English teaching and learning. The first implication is that English language teachers should pay more attention in assisting students to pronounce the sounds /θ/, /ð/, /ʃ/ and /ʒ/ correctly. The teachers should also inform students of the differences between Vietnamese and English. In teaching, the teachers should compare the two languages to find out the similarities and differences between them. Such knowledge can assist students in practising English sounds. Dinamika Bahasa & Budaya (2009) suggest that students should be taught the manner and the point of articulation of /θ/, /ð/, /ʃ/ and /ʒ/ so that they can produce the sounds precisely; and that mispronunciation may cause misunderstanding.

Furthermore, Vietnamese EFL teachers should constantly advance their knowledge of English phonetics and phonology. Such savvy may enhance teachers' confidence in teaching students pronunciation. Also, as students reported, one training course at the university is not enough for students to master the sounds; the teachers should therefore incorporate teaching the pronunciation of English words whenever possible. For example, in teaching English reading skills, teachers can give students knowledge of English pronunciation through teaching new words in the reading text. Teachers can also correct the wrong pronunciation of

the words when students read out loud the reading passage or when they response to teachers' questions in English.

Equally important, 'practice makes perfect', students should pay attention to out-of-the-class practice of the sounds. There is a common phenomenon in language acquisition called fossilization which is defined as a mechanism in which speakers tend to keep in their interlanguage productive performance, no matter what the age of the learner or amount of instruction he receives in the target language (Selinker, 1972, p.229). In other words, it is challenging for EFL teachers to reach native-like pronunciation of the sound /θ/, /ð/, /ʃ/ and /ʒ/. Hence, together with advancing teachers' knowledge of English pronunciation, it is essential to guide students to practice those sounds, using audio and videos made by native speakers on the Internet.

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SUGGESTED MEASURES TO IMPROVE THE FRENCH OUTPUT TEST RESULTS FOR HONGDUC UNIVERSITY ENGLISH MAJORS IN ACCORDANCE WITH VIETNAM'S FOREIGN LANGUAGE COMPETENCY FRAMEWORK

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Abstract: *In order to meet the requirements of Decision No.98/QD-DHHD June 15, 2016 on Regulation of standard outcomes in foreign language for students, English major students at Hong Duc university must take standardized output exam in French, the second foreign language and reached a score of 3.5 points / 10 in the format of the exam of the Ministry of Education or 200 points of TCF for 3 year-course students and the equivalent of 300 points 4/10 TCF for 4 year-course students. In reality, the teaching is very weak in the practical skills and hands-on skills. While these are the main components of the outcome test. This is an opportunity and also a challenge for students and teachers in foreign language teaching. To help students achieve the best results in the critical period, we analyze the situation as well as the difficulty of French teaching at Hong Duc university and propose positive measures to improve the quality of teaching in general and improve the standard outcome exam results in French for students in particular.*

Keywords: *Output exam, French, English majors.*

1. Introduction

The Regulation of standard outcomes in foreign language and in Informatics has been applied at many universities in our country from 2012. Most major universities have adopted regulations in line with the standard output capacity of their students. It is significant to improve the quality of teaching and learning. For trainers, this standard is a basis for designing the content of teaching, for choosing active teaching methods, clearly quantifying the criteria in evaluating the learning. Thereby, it also stimulates active teaching. For students, through standard outcomes, they can quantify their learning goals, identify the specific requirements for themselves. They constantly try their best to study and to practice under the standard outcomes, to meet the requirements of the school and of the society. Also, due to this regulation, learning and job opportunities for students are strengthened.

In Vietnam, French is a foreign language which is learned, taught and researched. To help the students majoring in French to achieve the high marks in the test like TCF, DELF, DALF, there are many documents and materials. However, for English-majored students who study French as a second foreign language, these materials are unsuitable to the purposes of the students. In particular, the prescribed level of this regulation decided by Hong Duc university is quite difficult for our students.

[1]

Because of this situation, to help students achieve the best results in the test, we studied the current status of teaching French at school and propose specific measures to enhance teaching quality in general and improve the French outcome exam results in for students in particular.

2. French teaching situation at Hong Duc university

According to the curriculum, English major students must take a second foreign language course as compulsory subject. The French has been chosen at Hong Duc university. The students have 3 semesters of French (French 1: 4 credits; French 2, 3: 3 credits and the 3 year-course has only 2 semesters. This is quite long compared to other specialized courses. It also requires students to have a serious attitude in learning. However, the actual teaching and learning of French language exist some difficulties as follows:

To the students: This is a difficult subject, so many students are not motivated and do not have positive attitudes toward learning, lack in concentration in class. This attitude leading to poor school performance. The importance in learning foreign language is that the Students have to spend time to self- study. In reality, they spend only 15-30 minutes to prepare the lesson before the course in class. Some of them even do not spend time to self-study. In particular, they do not spend time to practice language skills which is the most important in learning foreign language.

On the side of teachers and teaching methods: Most lecturers are active in innovating teaching methods using modern equipment. However, they spend a lot of time on grammar and vocabulary instead of developing the practical skills for students. This method sometimes reduces the student motivation in class and the complete skills development.

In terms of teaching materials and facilities: The classrooms are fully equipped with television, projector. However, the quality is not good and not maintained continuously upgrading and the service has always problems which impede the teaching. The lack of the teaching materials and reference books appropriate for students is also a big difficulty for an active teaching.

With the difficulties mentioned above, we would like to suggest some concrete measures.

3. Measures to raise results of the standard output exam in French

To raise awareness and motivation for learners, first of all, we need innovate teaching methods and improve the quality of equipment and teaching materials for learners. Here are the specific solutions:

3.1. Using the information technology in teaching effectively

To use ICT effectively, we need to determine exactly what content is suitable, based on the characteristics of each lesson, each section.

a. Using the video cartoons in class to develop the communication skills in French:

To select suitable animation to improve listening and speaking skills for the students, teachers should pay attention to the content: The film has the content of the daily dialogues

with the short, simple lines, with new information, current affairs, in accordance with students. In particular, the content of the film must be consistent with the content of the lessons. The images and sounds in the film should be lively. The duration is as short as possible, 2-3 minutes or 4-5 minutes which depends on the level of students. Teachers can download the cartoon from website or YouTube. We arrange time for using animation in class as follows: The teachers should spend time for practice, after the theoretical teaching of vocabulary and grammar. We can arrange time as follows: After introducing the film content in 2-3 minutes; teachers explain the questions about the content film in 5-7 minutes. The teacher plays back and gives some time for students to answer the questions in 3-5 minutes. Teachers give the questions in details about the grammatical structure, vocabulary related to the content of the lesson and ask students to listen and repeat in 5-7 minutes. After that, they listen and practice in 2-5 minutes. Thus, this method using the cartoons film helps teachers to improve the skills of students and inspire them for this course. Using it once a week to improve listening skills for students.

b. Using the French songs in teaching grammar and vocabulary:

The teachers are always looking for the latest methods to attract students and improve the teaching of grammar and vocabulary which is always boring and difficult for students. One method which has been successfully applied is the use of French song in teaching grammar. This approach helps the grammatical structure to be easier to understand for students. In particular, this method helps students quickly memorize grammar rules on the application-specific context. Moreover, the music will create a pleasant classroom atmosphere and inspire students to participate. However, how to promote all its effects in the most scientific way, the teachers must invest time and effort. We would like to share the following specific steps to successfully apply this method in teaching French grammar with the following steps:

Step 1: The teacher introduces the grammar structure without an introduction of using.

Step 2: Teachers asks students to listen the song first time and asks them to pick out all of grammatical phenomena. For example, the articles, the possessive adjectives, pronouns etc.

Step 3: The students have the song lyrics with the blanks and after listening, they have to fill in the blanks.

Step 4: Teachers and students fill in the blanks. Ask students to find out how to use the new grammar structure.

Step 5: The teacher draws out the structure and its use to help students memorize and practice.

Step 6: The teacher captures the lyrics, lets students listen again the song and asks them to rewrite the grammar structure.

Step 7: Compare the first results with the last results. Draw conclusions.

With these steps, the teacher will attract students to work actively and energetically. The students will participate actively in a stimulating way and acquiring grammatical structure.

c. Organizing games in grammar and vocabulary practice:

The practice of language games is very useful for students, especially for first-year students, who have less vocabulary. This game helps them to fix and develop the language elements such as pronunciation, spelling. These factors are important to them before they practice the communication skills. The communication game that gives students the opportunity to communicate in real communication contexts. At the same time, they help to develop communication skills, particularly speaking. The trainers can use some of the following games:

The structure games: This game can be used to teach new grammar structure, or to review the grammar structures learned. They are useful in helping students to practice and develop communication skills.

Vocabulary games: Games help students learn and remember new words easily and quickly. Here are some games to help students enrich their vocabulary: Body Fishing: aim to practice new words; Bingo: aim to practice and review vocabulary...

Spelling Games: Students often have difficulty in spelling. The spelling games can help them avoid mistakes in pronunciation lexicon. Some games spelling: Complete The Word, Cross Words, Filling the Gaps, Fill in the O's. The aim of all there games is to learn to spell correctly the vocabulary for students.

Pronunciation Games: Pronunciation is an aspect of language and the application of teaching method to help students have a good pronunciation is always not easy for teachers. Pronunciation games are exciting, fun and not too complicated to play. Therefore, we can increase student interest and get them actively involved in the game.

3.2. Designing the supplementary materials

We designed self-study materials and complementary study with a 4 part structure:

Part 1: Guided documentation: We make note and use materials to help students exploit the most structures effectively.

Part 2: The Theory section: This section presents the requirements for standards of grammar, vocabulary and skills needed the content from the standard outcomes exam. Helping students to summarize and memorize easier after classroom lessons.

About the Knowledge: note the degree that student need to learn, understand and apply.

About skills: listening, reading and writing skills will be the skills in the outcomes exam, therefore, students need to practice and develop. The document will introduce the basic skills, for each skill students have to apply and practice to have the best results in the outcomes exam.

Part 3: The exercise: This document has been classified by topic, and by A1-A2 level.

For each topic, there are sections: Vocabulary, Grammar, Reading, Listening, and Writing.

The chosen exercises are suitable also to the content of teaching and learning in class. It helps students to memorize the most effectively the new knowledge and to practice just after the lesson. For example, in class, the lesson 5 of the Unit 4 in "Campus", French

Method for English student, we teach the Pronoun Complement. That why we design the suitable exercises in this material in the form of multiple choice questions like this:

" Choisissez le correct pronom pour compléter ces phrases suivantes :

1 .Sais-tu où est mon père ? Je _____ cherche depuis une heure.

A.leur   *B. lui*   *C. le*   *D. la*

2. J'ai téléphoné à mes parents. Je _____ ai parlé de notre projet de mariage.

A.leur   *B. lui*   *C. les*   *D. en*

3. Il adore la France. Il _____ est allé cinq fois l'année dernière.

A.la   *B. y*   *C.en*   *D.l'*

4. Est-ce que le directeur est là ? Je veux _____ voir.

A. la   *B. lui*   *C. le*   *D. l'*

5. Il va chez son amie pour jouer aux cartes avec _____

A.eux   *B. lui*   *C.elle*   *D. la"*

In each level from A1, A2, with all parts arranged in the form of multiple choice questions ranging from easy to difficult levels.

The system of multiple choice question of the French exam as TCF, DELF

Answers to the exercises.

Part 4: Assessment:

The self-examination;

Answer

Form answered quizzes;

After adding and standardizing the knowledge of teachers through classroom lectures, students will do exercises (mainly multiple choice), followed by self-examination as a subject. This is a diverse system of exercises (both easy and difficult exercises to strengthen and improve the knowledge) effectively test the content knowledge acquired.

3.3. Guiding students to effectively use the supplementary materials

To help teachers obtain better results in using self-learning materials in teaching, the author proposes the measures as follows:

a. Guiding students to plan the self-studying with the supplementary materials.

Teachers should state the purpose, importance and the steps taken to build a study plan according to the document;

- Guiding students' plan

- Check students' plans,

- Let students modify their plan.

b. Using the system of questions and exercises to guide students to the lessons

Teachers need to use self-learning system questions and some exercises in supporting student to prepare the lesson at home. This means to help students visualize the upcoming

skills and content lessons. A system of self-study questions and exercises supporting documentation is needed to help students study. With this good prepation at home, they are more active in the class.

c. Organizing group activities to help students activate and cooperate.

Teachers can organize group activities for students in many different forms: style couples or group discussions as conventional learning. Teachers can guide students to work in group content based on a number of self-study materials combined with textbooks and other reference materials. To stimulate all members to participate in learning activities, teachers can organize competitions among groups. Teachers should keep the overall score for groups and let students divide themselves according to the contribution of each member of the group.

d. Arousing the passion and the motivation of students.

When students are excited, infatuated with the subject, they would voluntarily use self-study guide regularly. For this, in the self-study guide, teachers must:

- Use the questions and exercises suitable for each subject and for the level students.

- Use measures to reward and punish clearly to motivate the students in the process of using the documentation.

4. Conclusion

These are the most positive and concrete solutions in the teaching methods as well as the supplementary documentation in preparation for students outcomes exam in order to improve the quality of teaching and the exam results for students, to meet the increasing requirements of the school and the society. These measures should be used simultaneously and continuously to support each other interact and achieve the best results. That depends mainly on the effort and the dedication of the teachers also the enthusiastic responses of the students.

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SOME ACTIVITIES IN THE FACULTY

Metting of Heads of units and unions before acdemic year 2017-2018

Cuture night 2017

Voluntary activities in Pu Luong, Ba Thuoc District

English skill practice with a foreign lecture