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The International Journal of TESOL & Education runs a special issue to create collections of papers presented at the 4th Conference on Language Teaching and Learning (LTAL-2022), which is organized by the Ho Chi Minh City University of Food Industry, Vietnam, from 19-20 June 2022. The aim is to build a community of authors and readers to discuss the latest issues and make innovations in Language Teaching and Learning. This special issue is led by a Guest Editor, Dr. Tran Tin Nghi, who is an expert in these fields. Authors should note that the same quality, originality, and significance criteria apply to articles in this special issue as to regular papers. All articles must undergo double-blind peer reviews and approval from the Editorial Board before they are accepted for publication.

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The Effectiveness of Teaching and Learning Online: A Study on HUFI's English-majored Students

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ABSTRACT

Keywords: teaching and learning online, teaching and learning during COVID-19, benefits of online teaching and learning, challenges of online teaching and learning.

Teaching and learning any courses online used to be considered ineffective in most educational institutions in Vietnam. However, during negative impacts of COVID-19 on education, teaching, and learning online should be an effective alternative solution. This study aims at the benefits and challenges of teaching and learning online via the course *Introduction to Linguistics* for English-majored students at Ho Chi Minh City University of Food Industry (HUFI). Both qualitative and quantitative research methods are applied in this study. Data collected shows that teaching and learning online has its own strengths; nevertheless, to maximize its benefits, positive cooperation between lecturers and students should be a need. Furthermore, lecturers should perform the virtual classroom management roles positively via appropriate online tasks and assignments in order to help students avoid boredom in gaining knowledge and skills. The study also draws out some suggestions aiming to help maximize the benefits that teaching and learning online may have.

Introduction

With the assistance of technology in modern society, there are many opportunities for lecturers and students to gain effectiveness in teaching and learning, among which should be online classes. Not only do students have access to printed materials, they now can use abundant resources so as to maximize the knowledge they long for as well as perform the assignments more persuasively and attractively (Allen & Seaman, 2007; Alexender et al., 2012; Nicole et al., 2019; Yuhanna et al., 2020). The convenience of teaching and learning online should be proved during the spread of COVID-19 worldwide. However, teaching and learning online also faces challenges such as professional development for lecturers, training for learners, teaching methods for online courses, technical support, time pressure, and course design for online

teaching and learning (Cavanaugh, 2005; Chametzky, 2014; Crawley et al., 2009; Hung et al., 2010; Kebritchi et al., 2017; Luyt, 2013). Hence, maximizing the benefits of online teaching and learning while minimizing its drawbacks is a must.

Like many other countries globally, to protect learners from the danger of COVID-19, educational institutions in Vietnam have been experiencing online teaching and learning. If online teaching and learning were previously believed to be ineffective during the COVID-19 pandemic, it must be a saver for education. To ensure the training programs for students, HUFI has also applied learning courses for students. Experiencing teaching various courses online, including the course named *Introduction to Linguistics*, for HUFI's English-majored students, it must be clearly that teaching and learning online has both advantages and disadvantages. Thus, this study aims to determine the benefits and challenges of teaching and learning online to come to effective suggestions for online teaching and learning.

Literature review

Online teaching and learning

As it is simply defined, online teaching and learning can be understood as education taking place over the Internet, which online learning can be referred to as a type of distance education or as web-based learning, digital learning (Matthew et al., 2018). It can also be defined as using different devices such as iPads, smartphones, laptops, and Internet access in synchronous or asynchronous environments (Pham & Vo, 2021). With the development of the Internet, online courses have now become an integral part of higher education (Kebritchi et al., 2017; Luyt, 2013).

Allen and Seaman (2007) defined courses into four groups called traditional courses, and web facilitated courses, blended or hybrid courses, and online courses. These authors based on the proportion of content delivered online in order to classify types of courses as in Figure 1.

Proportion of Content Delivered Online	Type of Course	Typical Description
0%	Traditional	Course with no online technology used — content is delivered in writing or orally.
1 to 29%	Web Facilitated	Course that uses web-based technology to facilitate what is essentially a face-to-face course. Uses a course management system (CMS) or web pages to post the syllabus and assignments, for example.
30 to 79%	Blended/Hybrid	Course that blends online and face-to-face delivery. Substantial proportion of the content is delivered online, typically uses online discussions, and typically has some face-to-face meetings.
80+%	Online	A course where most or all of the content is delivered online. Typically have no face-to-face meetings.

Figure 1: Types of courses
(Source: Allen and Seaman, 2007, p.4)

There are various definitions of online learning. Expressly, online learning can be understood as the teaching and learning process between lecturers and students involving such digital mediums as 'Zoom,' 'Ms. Teams', 'Google Classroom". (Zulaikha et al., 2021). As Allen and Seaman (2007) suggested, based on the actual situations, different educational institutions can apply online learning in various ways.

It can be said that online teaching is a challenge (Daniel & Andrea, 2020); hence, in order to bring success to online teaching, Matthew et al. (2018) suggested various principles, including: *"(1) encourage student participation, (2) encourage active learning, (3) encourage student reflection, (4) encourage active learning, (5) encourage social reaction, (6) address individual differences, (7) emphasize time on task, (8) provide hands-on activities, (9) communicate high expectations, (10) avoid information overload, (11) motivate the students, (12) create a real-life context, (13) give prompt feedback, and (14) respect diverse talents and ways of learning."*

Benefits and challenges of online teaching and learning

Under the advancement of the Internet, online education offers both lecturers and students numerous benefits.

Media diversity can be considered one of the benefits that online teaching and learning brings to lecturers and students (Yahanna et al., 2020; Nguyen, 2022). Students can use various resources from libraries and databases all over the world. Furthermore, students may have more opportunities to exchange ideas and work in groups and pairs via different applications, software, and websites. This may make teaching and learning more enjoyable, and students may have more opportunities to widen their knowledge in each specific field.

Next, online teaching and learning must be convenient for both lecturers and students. Lecturers and students may not pay much attention to dress, worry about getting stuck in traffic congestion, or to face bad weather (Alexander et al., 2012). In addition, both lecturers and students have their own freedom in choosing comfortable places for teaching and learning. This may make the process of transferring and getting knowledge more effective.

Then, low cost is also a benefit that online teaching and learning offers to lecturers and students (Yahanna et al., 2020). This may help students reduce the burden of related fees while getting convenience in their studies.

Another point is that students can have more chances to review the lessons via the recording of each lecture (Zulaikha et al., 2021). This can be considered a positive side of learning online, in which students can prepare better for final tests.

Besides the benefits that online teaching and learning may offer, there are still negative impacts that need to be considered.

First, not all students are ready to attend online courses (Hung et al., 2010; Luu, 2022; Pham et al., 2022). This may have a negative impact on their final result. Thus, how to help these students be willing in online courses must be in the hand of online lecturers (Kebritchi et al., 2017). Lecturers offering online courses must pay attention to five dimensions to assist these students, including self-directed learning, learner control, computer and Internet self-efficacy, motivation for learning, and online communication self-efficacy (Hung et al., 2010).

Second, in order to attract students to online lectures, lecturers should diversify teaching methods and teaching materials. This may be a challenge to lecturers due to the burden of time and workload (Hartman et al., 2000; Cavanaugh, 2005; Li & Irby, 2008; Kebritchi et al., 2017).

Third, lecturers have not been provided with proper training and support when teaching online (Kyei & Keengwe, 2011). Dynamic presentations, simulations, conceptual discussions, interaction, and collaboration with students are considered suggestions for improving online lecturers' teaching effectiveness (Juan et al., 2011).

Last but not least, students may be distracted by other online content; thus, they may not actively engage in-class activities (Daniel & Andrea, 2020; Pham et al., 2022). To solve this problem, lecturers must be trained to have effective virtual classroom management skills (Tran & Pham, 2021).

Research Questions

The following research questions are used to address the mentioned issues:

1. Is teaching and learning online as effective as teaching and learning offline?
2. What are students' opinions and expectations toward teaching and learning online?

Methodology

Pedagogical Setting & Participants

There are 115 English-majored students from two classes joining this study. The first class, called class A, includes 55 students, and the second class, class B, includes 60 students. These participants are in the second semester of the second year. They all passed compulsory courses in English language skills, including listening, speaking, reading, and writing. To prepare these students for English linguistics courses, students are required to take a 2-credit compulsory course named Introduction to Linguistics, which would provide students with fundamental concepts in various aspects of English linguistics.

Students in class A studied this course 100% offline, whereas students in class B studied this course 100% online due to the negative impacts of COVID-19.

As it is designed by HUFI's Foreign Language Faculty teaching staff, the required material for this course is The Study of Language (4th Edition), written by George Yule and published by Cambridge University Press in 2010. There are 20 chapters in this book; however, only the first nine chapters are covered in this course due to limited time.

In order to pass the course, students must get an average score of 5 based on a GPA out of 10. Students must sit for two tests, including a Mid-term test and a Final test, each of which accounts for 50% of the final score.

Design of the Study

The instrument of this study is the Mid-term written test, the contents of which are those from chapter 1 to chapter 7 in the required material. The Mid-term test is limited to 60 minutes, and all materials are allowed, not except for information on the Internet.

The purpose of not using the Final test as an instrument for this study is that because class A studied this course offline, the Final test is in multiple-choice format; instead, class B studied this course online; thus, the Final test is designed in a type of assignment. In order to ensure the reliability of this study, Mid-term tests are used.

The range of points used for later analysis is divided into five groups: 0-4,9 (below average), 5- 6,9 (average), 7-7,9 (good), 8-8,9 (very good), and 9-10 (excellent).

Moreover, interviews are conducted to figure out whether students find it interesting to study online and students' thoughts about studying online. 10 out of 60 students in class B (online class) are randomly chosen for these interviews. The participants are informed about the purposes of the interviews, and their private information is kept in privacy. All ten chosen students are willing to join in these interviews.

Data collection procedures

To reach the aim of this study, the following steps were conducted:

First, both classes A and B studied all required contents designed for this course by HUFI's teaching staff.

Second, after finishing the first seven chapters of the textbook, students are asked to sit for a Mid-term written test. The format and the test contents for both classes were the same. Time-limited to 60 minutes for the test, and students can use all materials for references.

Third, the lecturer would collect all test papers, give marks, and transform the collected data into percentages using Microsoft Excel. Then, information gained from collected data was used for practical analysis later.

Last but not least, 10 out of 60 students in class B were randomly chosen for the interview. Each separate 10-minute interview was conducted for each student. The answers from the interviews should be meaningful in figuring out the opinions and expectations of students about teaching and learning online.

Findings

Research question 1: *Is teaching and learning online as effective as teaching and learning offline?*

To figure out the answers for research question 1, collected data from the result of the Mid-term written test will be analyzed.

With the same test format, test contents, limited time, and usage of all materials for references, the test results for both class A and class B were presented in Table 1.

Table 1. Mid-term test results

	Class A (offline)		Class B (online)	
	Number of respondents	**Percentage**	**Number of respondents**	**Percentage**
0-4,9 (Below average)	5	**9,1%**	8	**13,3%**
5-6,9 (Average)	21	**38,2%**	28	**46,7%**
7-7,9 (Good)	17	**30,9%**	14	**23,3%**
8-8,9 (Very good)	10	**18,2%**	8	**13,3%**
9-10 (Excellent)	2	**3,6%**	2	**3,4%**
Total	*55*	*100%*	*60*	*100%*

The percentage of students who cannot succeed in the test accounts for 9,1% in class A, and 13,3% in class B. Those who can pass the test are in a high percentage, 90,9% in class A and

86,7% in class B. This percentage can imply that teaching and learning the course of *Introduction to Linguistics* online may be effective.

Among those who can pass the test, the percentage for excellent performance may be similar, 3,6% in class A and 3,4% in class B, the difference is not too much.

A good and very good performance, it seems that class A is better than class B. 49,1% of the students in class A (including 30,9% at good performance and 18,2% at very good performance) while only 36,6% of the students in class B (including 23,3% at good performance and 13,3% at very good performance) gain from 7 to 8,9 points. The proportion of the former class is higher than that of the latter one by 12,5%.

Regarding average performance, class B is in higher percentage than class A, 46,7% compared to 38,2%; the difference is 8,5%.

From the findings above, it can come to a brief conclusion that although teaching and learning *Introduction to Linguistics* online may not so effective as it is taught and learned offline, the output via test results can be acceptable, with more than 85% successfully passing the test.

Research question 2: What are students' opinions and expectations towards teaching and learning online?

To determine the answer to Research question 2, ten participants will conduct ten separate interviews.

Ten out of 60 students studying Introduction to Linguistics online were invited to sit for short interviews (called interviewees), which aimed at students' opinions and expectations towards teaching and learning online, and the results were as follows:

First, most interviewees (90%) believe in teaching and learning online convenience. The interviewees may not travel a long distance to join the class. Additionally, it is not so time-consuming to prepare everything before going to school. Also, it is cost-saving to study online: students may not spend many fees when studying online at home, agreed 85% of the interviewees.

Second, 80% of the interviewees think that it is possible to integrate online courses into the English language training program. They think that others can be taught and studied with 70% online and 30% offline, except for courses aiming at skill development. Students can ask lecturers to clarify content in the courses that are hard to understand during offline periods, with the integrated online and offline. In addition, lecturers and students may have opportunities to discuss various interesting aspects of the courses so as to help students enrich the knowledge related to such courses.

Third, about the drawbacks of teaching and learning online, 95% of the interviewees agree that investment in infrastructure for teaching and learning online should be a must. Unstable network transmission lines and unpredictable events in connection with the Internet cause a lot of trouble for the interviewees studying online. Hence, 90% of the interviewees think that HUFI must take these two mentioned problems into good consideration before the beginning of online

courses. Moreover, lecturers should pay attention to online classroom management. 75% of the interviewees state that tasks must be appropriate to teaching and learning online, and teamwork or group discussions to avoid boredom while studying online is a need.

Fourth, regarding expectations towards online courses, most interviewees think that the integration of online and offline courses may bring more benefits with the advancement of technology. 85% of the interviewees would like to study some courses online during a semester in order to save time and related costs. However, in order to take advantage of studying online, 75% of the interviewees agree that educational institutions must put more investment in infrastructures for online courses.

Last but not least, 90% of the interviewees think that the cooperation between lecturers and students as well as learner autonomy are two key factors bringing the success of teaching and learning online. Thus, most interviewees hope that lectures should diversify online teaching methods so as to stimulate students to maximize essential knowledge of the course.

Discussion

Via the findings from the Mid-term written test result and the interviews, the answers to the above research questions are revealed.

First, the findings are consistent with discussions stated by Alexander et al. (2012), Yahanna et al. (2020), and Zulaikha et al. (2021). Students can access various resources online. This can help them deepen their knowledge more effectively. The quality of teaching and learning online and offline is not so much different, which is proved by the high percentage of students who can successfully pass the Mid-term test. Furthermore, both lecturers and students have more freedom in selecting an appropriate location for their teaching and learning. The convenience that online teaching and learning offers can be a factor in making the teaching and learning environment more relaxing and enjoyable, leading to the effectiveness in the process of transferring and getting knowledge. Additionally, online courses may help both lecturers and students save related costs, reducing the burden of finance.

Second, challenges that lecturers and students must face to is unavoidable. Due to the fact that online teaching and learning is still new to lecturers and students, they are not in good preparation for teaching and learning online. Normally, lecturers fail to get support in online infrastructure as well as online teaching methods from educational institutions. Therefore, lecturers may lack confidence in performing online lectures. About Students, not all of them are willing to join online classes because they may lack self-directed learning or find no motivation for learning (Luu, 2022). This can be a key factor leading to bad results in the final exam. Additionally, without positive cooperation between lecturers and students through effective activities in online classes, students get bored easily, which may negatively impact the effectiveness of teaching and learning online.

Hence, in order to maximize the benefits of online teaching and learning, there are some suggestions:

Firstly, lecturers must have good skills in using various technologies to teach online. Educational institutions should provide training courses in applying technology for online teaching and learning. Furthermore, with the advancement of the Internet, lecturers can learn various applications useful for teaching via Youtube and similar channels. Mastering how to use different applications useful for teaching can be considered one of the factors leading to success in the teaching in the technology age. Pham & Vo (2021) suggested that lecturers combine Moodle and online-meeting tools with Google Meet and Zoom to conduct the learning effectively.

Next, lecturers should save time by carefully preparing the lesson for each lecture. Different from traditional classes, the diversity in designing lesson plans with various online teaching methods can help lecturers encourage students actively take part in-class activities (Tran & Pham, 2021). Studying individually for a long period of time may make students feel bored and distracted; thus, delivering teamwork or pairwork with the management of the lecturers must be essential. Lecturers can use the function of "break-rooms" or other additional applications to manage the work of students in teams or in pairs. Besides, balancing between theory and practice during the duration of each lecture is also necessary. This may help students become more concentrated in the lecture and maximize their knowledge as expected.

Then, encouraging students to overcome barriers to studying online is also a need. To gain success in this, lecturers must learn how to build a good relationship with students. With positive cooperation between lecturers and learners, students may find it interesting to join the course; hence, they may actively take part in activities during the lectures, and learn autonomy may be gradually formed.

Last but not least, to keep track of students' progression, tasks and assignments should be appropriately designed. Students working in groups or as individuals may be challenged to integrate different materials on the Internet so as to perform a more persuasive presentation or discussion in each lecture. This can also help students learn how to select reliable sources on the Internet as well as learn how to summarize and integrate different sources of information.

Conclusion

Online teaching and learning are now proven to be effective education solutions, thanks to their numerous benefits. Not only do online teaching and learning bring conveniences for both lecturers and students, but online teaching and learning are also cost-saving. As it is proved from this study, online teaching and learning, if applied appropriately, may bring similar quality to training compared to offline teaching and learning. However, due to specific characteristics of the online environment, challenges caused by online teaching and learning cannot be avoidable. Thus, to maximize the benefits of online teaching and learning, both lecturers and students should consider the suggestions mentioned above.

The effectiveness of online teaching and learning has been discussed via numerous studies by researchers all over the world. However, limiting the drawbacks of online teaching and learning to maximize its benefits should still be a puzzle. Although there are certain limitations in this current study, like a small number of participants as well as simple statistical methods, suggestions from findings should be meaningful for effective online teaching and learning.

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Biodata

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Delegating Critical Thinking Skills in Learners through Effective Questioning Technique in the Class

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ABSTRACT

Keywords: Thinking Process, Critical Thinking, Scaffolding Questions, Questioning Technique

The 21st century is known as the "flat world" where people can communicate from anywhere, anytime. It is imperative that educators ensure their students have the necessary skills for adapting to the modern world, such as communication, creativity, critical thinking, and collaboration. By learning English, students will not only shorten their learning gaps for new opportunities but will also increase their chances of becoming global citizens. However, since most Vietnamese students do not know how to practice or promote their critical thinking skills while learning English, it is crucial that teachers understand and apply a variety of techniques and strategies to activate and guide students' critical thinking. Brookfield and Preskill (2005) state that well-structured- questions raise students' awareness of using their knowledge and comprehension of a subject at lower-order thinking skills (remember-understand-apply) to higher-order thinking skills (analysis, synthesis, evaluation, and creation). To learn how Vietnamese teachers delegate critical thinking questions to their students and how often they do so, the researchers conducted the study using a quantitative method to figure out how teachers' questioning techniques promote students' critical thinking skills. This study uses a quantitative methodology in which the researchers developed the questionnaires based on Bloom Taxonomy's thinking orders and contributed to Vietnamese Teachers for data collection. The results showed that most Vietnamese teachers know how to use questioning techniques and frequently develop them during their teaching. They use questions to evaluate learners' conceptual understandings and provide them with feedback on their thinking processes from simple to complex concepts and provide hints or alternative explanations, which boost the development of students' critical thinking skills.

Introduction

Critical thinking, one of the four pillars of the 21st-century skill along with communication, collaboration, and creativity, not only describes the ability to "focus on deciding what to believe

or do," (Ennis, 2011, p.10) but also the ability to analyze, argue, clarify and refine the viewpoints, as well as to suppose or integrate the logic of viewpoints and then to apply these skills to real-life problems. Furthermore, according to the Society for Human Resources Management (2006), critical thinking is ranked as the highest skill - even more than creativity or the application of information technology. That reflects how critical it is for teachers to instill in their students. Meanwhile, educators must recognize that critical thinking is a skill that must be developed rather than intelligence. As a result, critical thinking should be taught in the classroom in a structured way that allows and encourages students to think for themselves, question hypotheses, analyze, and synthesize the information and facts to make a decision.

Moreover, the findings in Nguyen and Lo's research (2022) indicated that Vietnamese society only considers students to be excellent if they can communicate fluently in English and not just if they have high test scores. In addition, it is noted that Vietnamese students' language proficiency is not as high as expected, suggesting that educators should adapt teaching methods or conduct additional research to improve students' learning outcomes (Le & Le, 2022). Moreover, the way EFL teachers approach their classes will profoundly impact their students' attitudes about English learning and their learning outcomes in general. Thus, teachers should use questioning techniques to help students develop their critical thinking skills, which in turn results in students improving their learning outcomes.

Literature review

Thinking

The history of thinking research is determined by the time when people realize that they are thinking. It is clear that thinking is unique to human beings, and that also is the main feature that distinguishes humans from other living things. According to Halpern (2003, p.84), intervention or transformation of internal representation is called thinking.

Thinking is the basis of any cognitive activities and processes, including manipulation and analysis of information received from the environment. The manipulation and analysis occur through abstracting, reasoning, imagining, problem-solving, judging, and decision-making. Obviously, the thinking process of the brain is involved in the processing of information that a person perceives before performing an action or making a decision.

Critical thinking skills

According to McGregor (2007), thinking is reasoning, and that reason is a chain of simple concepts connected by using strict rules of logic. Students will develop their thinking through a lot of activities, and one of many important activities that students can enhance their thinking is to learn. Remarkably, both learning and thinking are the concepts that support and complete one another. Brockett & Roger (1991) state that learning is a personal act of an individual to make full use of the potential, which happens to insight learners and leads them to actualize their self-experience through new comprehensions. In addition, the learner is perceived as a very active participant in the learning process in which a learner undertakes knowledge based

on the form of rules and concepts. He/she organizes and relates new information to existing knowledge in memory. He/she will connect all knowledge together and analyze or evaluate them before having the final decisions in the different contexts (Jonassen, 1991b). Critical thinking is defined as the process involving analysis, evaluation, and a synthesizing of facts, ideas, opinions, and theories. In other words, critical thinking is regarded as a way that a thinker takes charge of his/her thinking, and it is as a reflective and reasonable thought process embodying depth, accuracy, and astute judgment to determine the merit of a decision, an object, or a theory (Alwehaibi, 2012). Similarly, Paul and Elder (2006) interpret critical thinking as the ability to withdraw conclusions based on observation and information through learning. Thus, students must develop critical thinking skills so they can collaborate effectively, think critically, communicate effectively, and solve problems effectively in the workplace (Nor & Dishes, 2021).

In the learning process, learners are not only involved in how they process, store, and retrieve information but also in their thoughts, beliefs, attitudes, and values. It is crucial for teachers to understand the process of learning, which is divided into two levels- lower thinking order and higher thinking order in order to design lesson plans to activate students' appropriate thinking order to help them develop their thinking effectively. One of the thinking order theories widely used and developed that were based on various taxonomies of learning is the one mainly and originally developed by Benjamin Bloom (Sue, 2020).
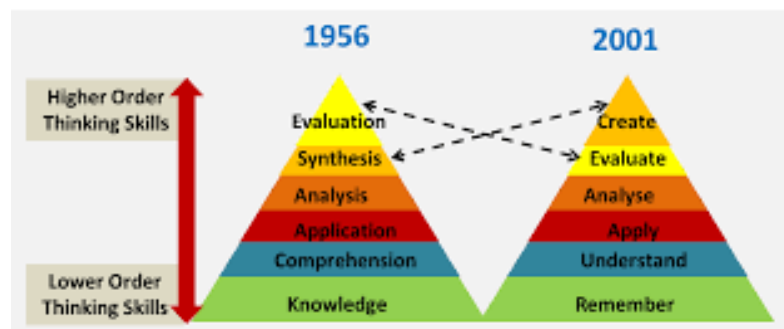
A revision of Bloom's Taxonomy of Educational Objectives (Anderson et al., 2001)

Bloom's Taxonomy of thinking skills includes six levels of thinking, starting with knowledge, comprehension, application, analysis, synthesis, and evaluation. The later revised version began with remembering, understanding, applying, analyzing, revising, and creating. The first three levels in Bloom's Taxonomy, Remembering, Understanding, and Applying, are regarded as lower-order thinking skills. It means that before students can understand the facts, they must remember them. Then, they must understand them; they are able to apply the facts.

Higher-order thinking skills are reflected by the top three levels in Bloom's Taxonomy: Analyzing, Evaluating, and Creating. Students at these levels are able to analyze the facts or process before they evaluate them, and from the completed evaluation, they will create an accurate conclusion of their own. Using these skills, students are more likely to widen their

perspective on the world and be able to make good decisions, both in school and in life. According to John (2018), it is the goal of teachers to help students promote higher-order thinking. One of the ways to help teachers is to improve students' critical thinking skills by encouraging them to reach a deep level of understanding and thinking through questioning (Dalton & Smith, 2000). Hence, delegating questioning techniques in the classroom will help students dig deeper into the reasoning process, as well as learn how to think critically.

Questioning techniques

Questioning definition

Questioning can be a useful tool, as it opens lines of communication; provides information; facilitates analysis and diagnosis of a situation; forces us to think outside the box; motivates us to learn; spurs creativity; and, most importantly, promotes scientific inquiry, explanations, and its application (Neirotti, 2021). Lorsch and Ronkowski (1982) assert that questioning is effective in helping students develop critical thinking skills, reinforce their understanding and correct misunderstanding, as well as provide feedback. Moreover, questioning, known as a powerful and dynamic form of communication, requires expertise and time to master. Especially in a learning environment, questioning strategies describe how questions are used to enhance students' learning, and these strategies should be incorporated into a series of procedures in the classroom (Cunningham, 1987; Wilen, 1991). In the meantime, Cotton (1988) argues that teachers must not base that on simply increasing the number of questions. By using questioning techniques effectively, teachers encourage students' critical thinking without focusing on the number of questions asked. Generally, student thinking is influenced by the level of questions that the teacher poses; if teachers systematically raise the level of their questions, students respond accordingly (Orlich et al., 2013).

Questioning techniques

Several types of questions are used for many different purposes, including procedural, divergent, and convergent questions (Richards & Lockhart, 1996). Typically, procedural questions have to do with classroom routines, while divergent questions encourage students to express their opinions or judgments rather than recall previous information. Alternatively, convergence questions demand students to recall prior information. On the other hand, according to Yang (2010), open and closed questions are two different kinds of questions. Questions with only one correct answer are defined as closed questions, whereas questions with more than one correct answer are described as open questions. In addition, Kao and Weng (2012) state that display and referential questions depend on the nature of the interaction. A display question is a question where the teacher knows the answer, whereas a referential question is one whose answer is unknown by the teacher. As a result, it is crucial for teachers to consider the types of questions that should be used so that students will have opportunities to use the target language as they answer these questions (Erlinda & Dewi, 2014). For example, the types of questions that teachers use during the teaching-learning process may serve several purposes, such as cultivating student curiosity, improving students' critical thinking abilities,

stimulating the expression of information, and motivating students' active participation (Cotton, 1998; Padmadewi et al., 2017:102). Studies (Nunan & Lamb, 1996; Wu, 1993) have demonstrated that there is a tendency for language teachers to use closed/display questions rather than open and referential questions. As a result, students' responses are limited and simple. Tan (2007) asserts that the prevalence of low-level and closed questions "places the students in a passive position by depriving them of opportunities to think independently and critically" (p. 100). Therefore, it is evident that teachers need to enhance their questioning strategy that can be used to develop their students' critical thinking skills.

Using questioning techniques to enhance critical thinking skills

According to Shanmugavelu, Ganesan, et al. (2020), engaging students through questioning is one of the most effective strategies for teaching because teachers can practice a number of questioning techniques during a question-and-answer session, which motivates students and encourages their thinking.

Using Bloom's Taxonomy questions

An instructor can strengthen a student's critical thinking skills when they inquire about the student's viewpoint on a discussion topic by asking for clarification, explanations, and justifications from the student. Using the bloom taxonomy, teachers will have an idea of what questions they need to use to build and design curriculum and lesson plan, then encourage and develop students' thinking order from low to high order.

To promote students' thinking, Dalton and Smith (1986) point out that teachers can use sample questions in the potential activities in the classroom to promote students' thinking order from low order to higher.

Remember

It is to recall or remember adequate information previously learned to produce factual (usually correct) answers. Utilize keywords and phrases such as: memorize, define, identify, repeat, recall, state, write, list, name and etc., when asking questions, aim to get factual answers, and test students' memory and comprehension. The following are some sample questions that teachers should ask during activities such as discussion or making a list of the main events:

- What happened next?
- How many...?
- What was the name of the person...?
- Can you list the events in the …?
- What is the reason...?
- Are these statements true or false?

Understanding

This low level of thinking order is intended to help students understand the meaning of informational material. Questions using keywords or phrases like explain, estimate, predict,

identify, differentiate, etc., to encourage students to translate, interpret, and extrapolate. The following sample questions can be asked:

- Can you write a brief outline in your own words...?
- Can you predict what happens next?
- How would you generalize…?
- How would you differentiate between...?
- What do you think the definition of...?
- How can you interpret...?

Application

Being able to apply previously learned information (or knowledge) to new and unfamiliar situations helps students develop high-order thinking skills. To encourage students to apply knowledge to scenarios that are new and unfamiliar, teachers can ask questions with words such as: demonstrate, apply, describe, elaborate, solve, classify, experiment, etc. such as:

- What factors would you change if...?
- Could you provide a set of instructions based on the information given?
- What facts would you choose to illustrate...?
- What is the best approach to...?
- How would you classify...?
- How would you demonstrate…?

Analyze

Students need activities during the teaching process that will help them develop their analytical skills in order to reach deeper layers of problems, such as drawing a diagram to illustrate data or gathering evidence to support an argument. It will promote students the skills to break down information into parts, try to understand the organizational structure of information, or find subdivide information and show how it is put together. As a result, with the aim to help students attain this level, it is vital to ask some specific questions that use words and phrases such as: what are the differences, analyze, explain, compare, separate, classify, arrange, etc.

- In what ways was this similar to...?
- How would you describe the underlying theme of...?
- What are other possible outcomes?
- What caused these ...?
- Would you be able to compare your ... to the one presented in...?
- What inference can you draw...?
- What evidence do you have...?

Evaluation

By analyzing all the information, students are able to develop their evaluation skills, which allow them to judge or decide according to some criteria without realizing whether their answer is right or wrong. In evaluation questions, students are encouraged to develop opinions about issues and make value decisions based on specific criteria by using keywords, and phrases like

assess, decide, measure, select, explain, conclude, measure, summarize, etc., in the following questions:

- What would you select...?
- What is the best way to prove...?
- Do you know how effective... is?
- What do you think about ... is a good or a bad thing?
- In what way would you have handled...?
- What changes to ... would you conclude?
- Could you provide some information to support...?
- How would you summarize this…?

Create

Students who develop this level of thinking will be able to apply prior knowledge and skills to combine elements into a pattern that was not previously apparent. To stimulate students to create something new using a combination of ideas from different sources in a new way, questions are made with descriptions or phrases like: arrange, invent, compose, construct, design, imagine, devise, etc. Specific questions include:

- Is there anything that could be changed to improve...?
- What would you do to test...?
- How would you design this?
- How would it be if you devised a unique solution?
- What are some unique and unusual uses you can imagine?

Research questions

With the aim to study how teachers delegate questioning techniques to promote students' critical thinking skills, the study attempts to answer the following questions:

1) What kinds of questions do teachers use in the class in order to promote students' critical thinking skills?

2) How often do teachers use Bloom Taxonomy questions in their teaching to improve student's critical thinking skills?

Methods

Research design

In this study, quantitative methods were used to collect data about how Vietnamese English questions and how frequently teachers use them in their classes to improve students' critical thinking because the quantitative methodology can easily be utilized in large groups to collect data. With the quantitative methodology, the researchers developed a descriptive survey method based on Bloom Taxonomy Questions in order to collect data in this study that includes six questions with six orders of thinking skills in Bloom Taxonomy. Moreover, the questionnaires were converted to a Google Form for Vietnamese teachers to easily answer them, and the

researchers could collect and analyze the data more conveniently. A Likert scale was used for data analysis which described each item ranged from 0 to "never", 1- "rarely", 2- "sometimes", 3- "often", 4- "always"(see Appendix 1).

Participants of the study

In total, 100 Vietnamese teachers at VUS participated in the study by filling out surveys on Google Forms. The questionnaire was only completed by 80 randomly selected VUS teachers due to the time limit. As a result, it allowed the researchers to be able to analyze the data to learn more about which questions and how often they use questions in their teaching to help learners develop their thinking order. The researchers were thus able to analyze the data in order to find out which questions teachers use in their teaching and how often they do so to help them develop their thinking order. Since it is particularly important to know how their teaching experiences affect their questioning techniques, the first part of the survey looks at their teaching experiences. The following table 1 summarizes the teaching experiences of 80 teachers.

Table 1. VUS English Teachers' Experience

Years of teaching	No of teacher	Percentage
1-3 years	10	12.5%
3-5 years	3	3.8%
5-10 years	7	8.8%
> 10 years	60	75%

Surprisingly, it indicates that most teachers who accepted surveys have reached 75% with over ten years of experience. It is unquestionably beneficial for researchers to determine what types of questions they typically utilize in the classroom.

Data procedure

The study was developed in the following steps. As a first step, the researchers contacted the school managers to ask for their support in sending out questionnaires to all Vietnamese teachers at VUS. After that, participants were free to complete questionnaires within two weeks. The researchers will then send a thank you note to VUS managers and teachers for their contribution. After collecting data and analyzing it, some conclusions were drawn.

Results/Findings and discussion

Data analysis

In quantitative research, data can be analyzed using a variety of techniques. A descriptive analysis of data was carried out in this study using statistical techniques. This term describes the basic characteristics of versatile types of data used in research. It presents data in such a meaningful way that the patterns in the data begin to make sense. In addition, descriptive analysis often provides absolute numbers, and the study's research will elaborate on what the

numbers mean.

There are six different types of questions based on Bloom's Taxonomy that are designed to collect data from lower to higher levels of thinking ability.

The first level of thinking skill is collecting what questions teachers use to check student's remember. Because 75% of teachers who have done this questionnaire have more than ten years of experience, the number of teachers who use all questions to check students' memory falls to these types of groups. Very few teachers with more than three-year experience share their never use of these questions. That means they use them sometimes or often. Figure 1 in the following is to show more in detail the frequency of questions that are used to check students' remembering and understanding.
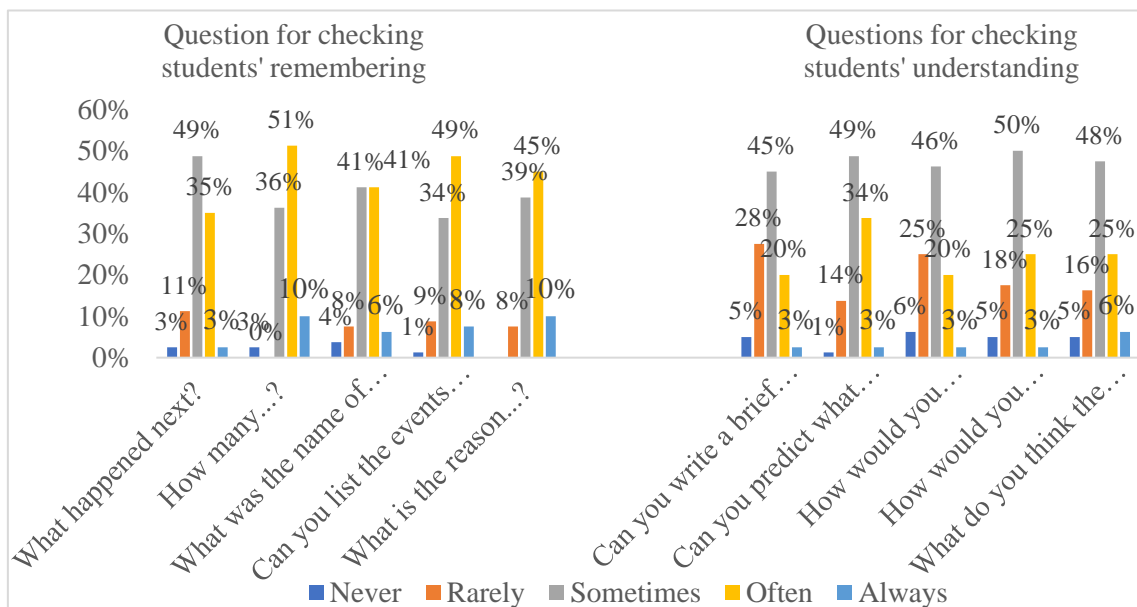
Figure 1: Percentage of questions used to check students' remembering and understanding

In this figure, the vast majority of teachers who frequently use these questions are teachers with more than 10 years of experience. Especially most questions are often and sometimes used by 34% of ten-year experience teachers, and among the most common questions used to test students' remembering, 51% and 49% of them often ask "How many...?" and "Can you list events...?". In the meantime, "What's next?" can be used by below five-year experience teachers, reaching 49%. About 3% of teachers with 10 years of experience never use the question "What was that person's name ...?". However, there are also about 20% and nearly 75% of teachers with the above five-year experience who never or rarely use some unfamiliar questions to check students' understanding.

Next, the results of the questions used to check students' applications are not surprising. All the questions that are used to check students' applications are sometimes used by teachers, particularly 10 years of experience teachers reaching 50%. Figure 2 shows the percentage of

questions used to confirm students applying and analyzing.
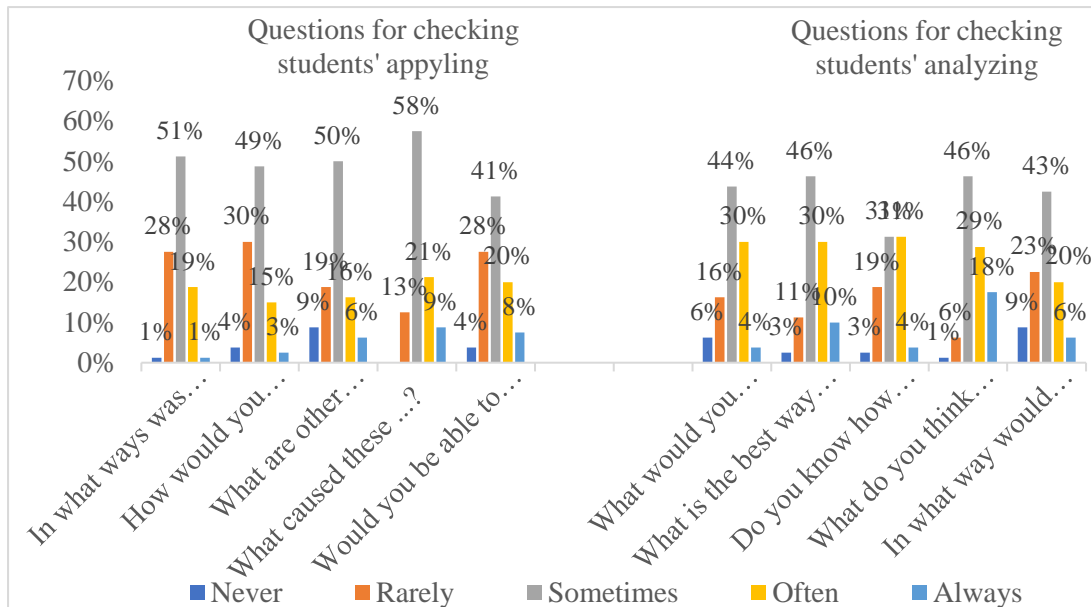
Figure 2: Percentage of questions used to check students' applying and analyzing

Almost 50% of all teachers use questions as a way to test students' analytical and application skills. At the same time, about 30% of these questions are hardly ever used, and the percentage of always use reaches as low as 10%. Around 20% of the questions are asked frequently, which means that teachers may skip checking the analyzing skills of the students. As a result, there are not enough opportunities for them to practice their middle-high level thinking skills. The last two levels of Bloom's thinking order include students evaluating and creating skills. The following figure 3 shows the results of a questionnaire that teachers can use to help their students reach these levels.
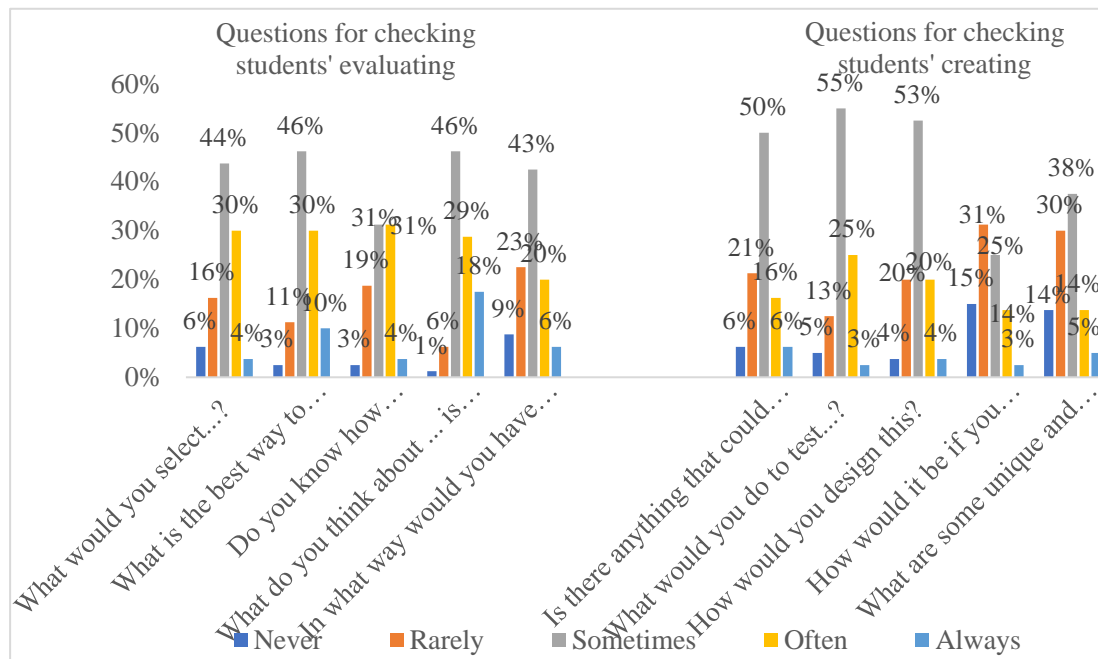
Figure 3: Percentage of questions used to check students' evaluating and creating

In figure 3, there are more than 45% of questions aimed at improving students' evaluation skills are sometimes used, while 30% of these are frequently used.

Fewer than 10% of the questions are rarely asked, which may mean that most teachers give attention to promoting students' evaluation skills. Meanwhile, about 30% of total teachers rarely use these questions to build up students' creating skills. Moreover, it is surprising to learn that teachers with more than 10-year experience use 55% to promote students' creative skills.

Discussion

Teachers who understand critical thinking involve assessing, examining, and reflecting on existing information, ideas, and beliefs should consider some other techniques with questioning strategies.

Remarkably, due to the fact that most classes have teachers dominate the interaction between them and their students by exchanging questions and answers quickly, students are accidentally placed in passive roles, and their critical thinking and creativity are dampened (Fisher, 2011). As a result, when teachers ask high-level questions, students should be given adequate time to think, develop their reasoning skills, then formulate coherent responses (Orlich et al., 2013). With the questionnaire results, it is clear to see that most teachers understand and sometimes use questions to activate students' high-order thinking skills. The fact is that according to the results, it seems that teachers are not always active in students' critical thinking skills, using questioning techniques frequently. They are quickly sometimes or often use all these question types, but it is not frequently to help learners realize the benefits of answering the questions. Moreover, students are not able to challenge their thinking skills by asking questions to the others at each level of thinking. They are not familiar with asking questions to others and

understanding why they have to ask questions. That's why there are needed pre-training teaching workshops for teachers to get used to this method and delegate them effectively to promote students' critical thinking skills.

Conclusion and recommendation

In brief, this article has demonstrated the importance of delegating critical thinking skills in the classroom through questioning strategies. In addition, it provides some suggestions on how teachers can incorporate questions and question types in their teaching and learning processes to enable students to learn how to think critically and prime their reasoning abilities. It provides educators with a new insight into how to develop critical thinking skills through questions.

The act of questioning provides students with intellectual stimulation and empowers them to take responsibility for their own learning (Rothstein & Santana, 2017; Salmon, Campo, & Barrera, 2019). Thus, it is suggested that by engaging students in the process of questioning, teachers can encourage them to explore techniques to promote their critical thinking skills and to take responsibility for their own learning. It is advisable for teachers not to answer their own questions after a short silence that diverts the learners' attention from the task of thinking. Hence, it would be better for teachers to set students to work in active groups that allow more interaction and provides students more opportunities to exchange ideas, take responsibilities, and become critical thinkers (Slavin, 2011).

Last but not least, according to Simpson (1996), students can improve critical analysis and understanding of texts by asking questions and sharing responses, so it is vital for teachers to stimulate students' reasoning process through reciprocal peer questioning. Simply, using the sample kind of questions for each different purpose, teachers encourage students to work together in pairs or small groups to tackle these types of questions. For instance, the teacher will ask them to make questions for clarification to their partners, and the students will take turns to ask their prepared questions. They will answer each other's questions. Additionally, King (1992) concludes that students using peer questioning groups provided more coherent explanations, asked more critical thinking questions, and acquired higher levels of learning than students using single questions or engaging in discussion without the use of questions. The discussion should highlight the special and outstanding points of the research and explain research results and the impacts; compared with previous studies. Thus, teachers should delegate questioning techniques and combine them with a variety of teaching methods that will result in the formation and enhancement of learners' critical thinking skills.

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Appendix 1: Questionnaire

Dear Teachers,

This study aims to gain insight and understanding about what types of questions you are using in the classroom to encourage learners to develop their critical thinking skills. This study also helps teachers improve their questioning techniques to help learners develop critical thinking skills. I would appreciate it if you read through the questions below and highlighted the option(s) that you selected. The results will only be used for research purposes.

Thank you very much for your help!

Part 1. Please share your teaching experience, how long have you been teaching English?

1. 1-3 years
2. 3-5 years
3. 5-10 years
4. >10 years

Part 2. Please choose the frequency of the following questions that you use in the class

1. How often do you use the following questions to check students' remembering?

Questions	Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Always
What happened next?					
How many...?					
What was the name of the person...?					
Can you list the events in the …?					
What is the reason...?					

2. How often do you use the following questions to check students' understanding?

Questions	Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Always
Can you write a brief outline in your own words...?					
Can you predict what happens next?					
How would you generalize…?					
How would you differentiate between...?					
What do you think the definition of...?					

3. How often do you use the following questions to check students' applying?

Questions	Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Always
What factors would you change if...?					
Could you provide a set of instructions based upon the information given?					
What facts would you choose to illustrate...?					
What is the best approach to...?					
How would you classify...?					

4. How often do you use the following questions to check students' analysis?

Questions	Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Always
In what ways was this similar to...?					
How would you describe the underlying theme of...?					
What are other possible outcomes?					
What caused these ...?					
Would you be able to compare your ... to the one presented in...?					

5. How often do you use the following questions to check students' evaluation?

Questions	Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Always
What would you select...?					
What is the best way to prove...?					
Do you know how effective... is?					
What do you think about ... is a good or a bad thing?					
In what way would you have handled...?					

6. How often do you use the following questions to check students' creating? How often do you use the following questions to check students' evaluation?

Questions	Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Always
Is there anything that could be changed to improve...?					
What would you do to test...?					
How would you design this?					
How would it be if you devised a unique solution?					
What are some unique and unusual uses you can imagine?					

Biodata

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The Effects of Using Online Applications to Teach Vocabulary to English Learners of HUFI in Ho Chi Minh City

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ABSTRACT

	This research aims at analyzing the outcome and effectiveness of applying several mobile apps or websites to teach and learn vocabulary in a particular university in Ho Chi Minh City (HCMC). Under the era of technological bloom and advances in mobile applications, teaching and learning English is certainly facilitated by these tools; as a result, many teachers use some apps, such as Kahoot, Quizlet, Quizizz, and so forth. In order to engage their students to learn and review lexical resources. This paper discusses how deeply and effectively online apps influence the way Vietnamese teachers teach lexicon to students and how they should be used in further context to maximize the efficacy of teaching new words. In this article, the author uses semi-structured interviews with six different interviewees who are currently lecturers at HUFI university in HCM city. This embraces questions about frequency, efficiency, self-judgment, and their ideas about this issue. Results indicate that vocabulary learning apps have a strikingly profound and meaningful impact on teaching and learning, facilitating students' learning process and enhancing vocabulary retention. The study also provides recommendations for the use of mobile applications in teaching vocabulary.
Keywords: mobile apps, teaching and learning vocabulary, technological advances, vocabulary retention.	

Introduction

In this day and age, using technologies in a classroom setting is proliferating around the world. Teachers and educators have a high tendency to utilize mobile-assisted teaching and learning systems to facilitate students' L2 learning, such as English (Parvin & Salam, 2015). Also, it can be easier and more convenient for students because they can easily bring a mobile gadget along with them to study when they study at school (Klimova & Polakova, 2020). As Stockwell (2010) commented, new versions of technological devices are more useful than older ones. Using a mobile phone to learn a second language enhances students' learning, for both those who learn by themselves and those who work with the teacher's instructions in class (Lee, 2014). There are some reasons why just mobile phones are mentioned in this study. Firstly,

mobile phones are the "widespread infiltration of the market" (Stockwell, 2010). Another culprit would be that phones are usually portable and affordable compared to other devices such as laptops or computers. The last reason is that a vast majority of phones today are smartphones that can connect to the Internet, so they significantly support learning in class and vocabulary in particular.

Learning a second language means learning all skills, like writing, speaking, reading, and listening. Besides, aspects such as vocabulary and grammar are also considered to be able to get fostered if they are taught via mobile applications. This study focuses on vocabulary because the author believes that teaching vocabulary is the most significant step to help learners become more competent in the target language.

Mobile apps that are about to be used to interview teachers are Kahoot, Quizlet, Quizalize, and Quizizz. These apps are pretty prevalent to learners and teachers because they can be used to teach or review lexical items, expressions, or idioms.

Literature review

This topic is not new among many other scholars who used to investigate the benefits of using mobile apps to teach vocabulary (Basal et al., 2016). Kukulska-Hulme and Shield (2008) highlighted that mobile learning could accommodate social contact and collaborative learning, but in their study, they encompassed some equipment like mobile phones, handheld computers, tablet PCs, MP3 players, podcasting, digital voice recorders, and multi-functional mini-camcorders.

Oberg and Daniels (2013) shed light on the issue of the positive attitudes of students towards learning autonomously at home with the support of an iPod touch-based instructional method. In this case, the authors concluded that students from the experimental group presented a better result compared with their counterparts from the control group. Because the former group learned with iPod, they can refer to the materials anytime they want, and they can access tasks multiple times, while the former one learned traditionally with the teacher's instructions. Nowadays, there have been about over 1000 to 2000 language learning apps (Sweeney & Moore, 2013). In addition, positive vocabulary acquisition was also recorded in the study by Burston (2015). Students showed satisfactory learning outcomes when using mobile apps to learn vocabulary at both schools and at home. Students have a chance to review vocabulary more thoroughly via apps. They can self-study at their own pace, pay more attention to personal goals and needs, or set up their own learning timetable (Nisbet & Austin, 2013). Also, the integrated use of mobile applications to teach and learn vocabulary and phrases could greatly boost language learners' learning capabilities (Klímová & Berger, 2018). Not only do online applications help students enjoy their lessons in class, but they also motivate them to independently study at home, increasing the likelihood of remembering new words later (Chen & Chung, 2008; Godwin-Jones, 2011; Poláková & Klímová, 2019).

Research conducted by (Kohnke et al., 2019) in Hong Kong concluded that students taught by mobile-assisted language learning apps show superior performance and memory of new words

about business topics, giving rise to a higher level of vocabulary retention. Similarly, the language accuracy was also proved to improve with the advancement of lexis, which was imparted via online learning apps (Castañeda & Cho, 2016; Rosell-Aguilar, 2018). Pham (2022) confirmed positive results of using the Quizlet app for vocabulary learning, albeit the fact that he only mentioned and measured results via one application, so a broader spectrum of various applications needs to be tested in order that findings could be more reliable.

However, some researchers like Heil et al. (2016) stated that teaching vocabulary via online technology in this modern era still tends to be taught isolated rather than in a context because they said there was "little explanatory corrective feedback, and there is little adaptation to the needs of individual learners" (p.49). Therefore, they recommended that mobile apps had better be designed and developed to serve the communicative purpose of learners and reinforce students' reflexes on acquiring language and culture. Furthermore, a synthesis study conducted by Nguyen (2021) revealed that learning new lexical items with the support of social media, such as videos, a digital computer games, and mobile applications, make great contributions to vocabulary acquisition; however, there was still no mention about different levels of students or class sizes.

This study investigates how efficiently online language learning apps can help teachers teach new lexical items in the context of a state-funded university in which each class has a large number of students (over 50 students).

Research Questions

To fulfill the purpose of the study, the survey seeks to answer the following research questions:

1. To what extent are mobile applications applied in English classes at HUFI university in Ho Chi Minh City?

2. What are the effects of inserting applications in teaching vocabulary in English classes from teachers' perspectives?

Methods

Pedagogical Setting & Participants

The participants are six individual lecturers/teachers currently teaching English at a public university and some private English centers in Ho Chi Minh City simultaneously. They have years of experience teaching English in general and applying online-based applications; as a result, most of them are accustomed to using technology in the classroom with the aid of mobile-assisted language learning apps to teach and revise vocabulary. Because of the impact of the Covid-19 pandemic, the interviewing process was conducted online via phone calls which were recorded and saved for further usage.

Instrument

This paper was designed to use semi-structured interviews since the author wanted to direct participants more closely while they were still allowed to express their thoughts and responses

about their use of online apps (Wilkinson & Birmingham, 2003) freely. The interview contents comprised 6 main, open-ended questions and some follow-up questions that may be improvised according to participants' answers. Below are six primary and fixed interview questions:

1.   How often do you use a mobile app to teach vocabulary in class?
2.   What are the apps that you use?
3.   What are the effects that you notice on your teaching? (maybe both positive and negative)
4.   What do you like and dislike most about these apps?
5.   How do these apps improve students' performance of learning and remembering English vocabulary?
6.   Is teaching vocabulary traditionally much better than using mobile apps?

These interviewees were discretely interviewed by making individual phone calls. And they were chosen randomly to call.

Results/Findings and discussion

The great integration of smartphone applications into teaching new lexical items in the class.

With respect to the first question, 5 out of 6 teachers have used mobile language learning apps to teach vocabulary in class, with frequency ranging from sometimes to very often. In their responses, they show apparent interest in applying technology in the classroom:

> *Almost in every lesson, I use the mobile apps or some kinds of websites (Teacher 2)*

> *I sometimes use mobile apps to teach vocabulary (Teacher 3)*

> *Due to the Covid-19, we have to stick to online teaching; therefore, I tend to use a lot of apps to teach vocabulary to everyday classes (Teacher 6)*

And the most frequently used online-assisted teaching and learning apps that interviewees use to teach lexical items embrace Quizizz, Quizlet, and Kahoot. Although different people may use many other apps, these three are the most popular in the teacher's community.

> *I often use Quizizz or Kahoot because they have many functions (Teacher 6)*

> *The app that I always refer to is the Kahoot app (Teacher 1)*

> *Every time I teach vocabulary, I use mobile apps, such as live worksheets or Quizizz more often (Teacher 4)*

> *I sometimes use mobile apps to teach vocabulary, such as Quizlet, Kahoot, or maybe Quizizz (Teacher 3)*

> *Gimkit, Kahoot, Quizizz, Quizlet, I use that vocabulary apps(Teacher 5)*

All of the participants give positive thoughts about inserting online apps to teach new words in class. They emphasize that online language learning apps help to generate an interactive, engaging, and motivating learning environment. Specifically, students become more excited

and active in learning new English vocabulary. In addition, mobile apps also exert an optimistic influence on students' attitudes, triggering their curiosity and incentive to absorb a new list of words.

> *I think that the effectiveness is ok, and I think I can draw a lot of student's attention to the lesson, and they participate in the class a lot [...] arouse students' interest and trigger their curiosity (Teacher 3)*

> *It is quite in the middle, an app like Kahoot is exciting at the beginning (Teacher 1)*

> *This is an effective way to engage students into the classroom, and I can adapt students' understanding [...] I try to incorporate as much as I can (Teacher 5)*

Another effective factor is that online apps are convenient, colorful, eye-catching, and user-friendly, so they have made a huge contribution to creating a positive experience for English learners; as a result, they get more eagerness and engagement toward new lexis. Moreover, convenience is also displayed in the way students work. Whether they work with individuals or as a team, their results have been recorded and tracked by teachers, allowing teachers to acknowledge how much they might proceed.

> *Usually, I would provide students with new vocabulary via Quizlet, but I also use Quizlet to let them play some games - a kind of checking vocabulary (Teacher 2)*

Teachers show both positive and negative effects of mobile vocabulary learning applications.

Question number four illustrates the discrepancies among the answers of attendees because they explained a variety of reasons why they like or dislike apps they have been using. The most observed reason for being fond of apps would be mobile apps were functional. They could be used as a teaching tool in the class, a tool to check homework, or even a means to deliver mini-tests with the help of many types of questions, including multiple-choice, true-false, and matching drop-and-drag questions.

> *It is user-friendly, and it offers many functions for me to decide the questions. For example, I can decide on multiple-choice questions, true-false questions, and short-answer questions. (Teacher 6)*

> *These apps offer different ways to teach children. For example, Quizizz, I like that it offers open-ended questions to let students write whatever they think. Moreover, Kahoot, on the other hand, students have to arrange all items so that they get the clause. (Teacher 5)*

The second popular choice for applying apps to deliver new words is teaching, and learning apps were strikingly supportive for their preparation stage. Teachers can refer to readily available online resources on the apps/websites to design or re-use activities; teachers just need to prepare once, and then they can re-use easily anywhere and anytime. Furthermore, there were also other explanations, such as flexibility, providing an easy atmosphere for students and teachers, and enhancing friendly competitiveness among students.

> *When you use the apps, there are many available resources for you to use. For example, there are a lot of other exercises designed by other teachers on websites. You can learn from them, and you can have a new idea, or you can even use their exercises (Teacher 4)*

> *Because students like competitions, because those apps – are designed for students to compete with each other, and they have a lot of visuals (Teacher 6)*

Nevertheless, there is only one feature that all teachers do not like of learning apps. The fact that apps must be upgraded or paid for the premium version to use full functions can turn out to be a financial burden for many.

> *What I don't like is that I have to pay. I don't like it because they want me to pay a huge amount every month. (Teacher 5)*

> *They have to require me to upgrade my account, and I have to pay the fee for an upgrade to access more functions. (Teacher 6)*

Additionally, one teacher reported that using mobile apps could become an enormous distraction for students because some students used their phones/tablets to surf the web or social networking sites in lieu of focusing on the tasks assigned, and this might be one thing that hinders this teacher from using it too often.

> *Some students make it very distracted because they are really into the game competition. Some of them might ignore some kinds of knowledge. (Teacher 3)*

These online learning apps could be only efficient for the first time used then later, when teachers re-use them; students are more likely to be less interested, according to one teacher.

> *An app like Kahoot is really exciting in the beginning, like it allows the class to play it for the very first time, and things will run very smoothly […] but is not guaranteed on their second or third time. (Teacher 1)*

Next, the interview teachers' outcomes shed light on the fact that many students significantly improve vocabulary retention. And they measure the results by giving students short tests, lexical quizzes, or composition exercises that require them to produce sentences using new words. Surprisingly, several teachers highlight that students can still remember new words when they have learned via mobile apps, and then they are able to use them correctly and properly in a sentence.

The final idea is a comparison between the traditional teaching method of vocabulary and using mobile-assisted learning apps. 4 in 6 participants agreed that there should be an integration between two types of teaching in order to maximize the learning outcome and experience in the classroom. In other words, whether learning online or learning in the physical classrooms, applying updated mobile apps while teaching vocabulary and using conventional methods will together guarantee a noticeably better result, improving students' memorization and spelling.

> *They can remember vocabulary and grammar more than in traditional ways. (Teacher 6)*

Whereas the two remaining said that traditional method had better be prioritized before the use of online apps because of distraction factors. Mobile vocabulary teaching apps should be regarded as additional tools to make the lesson more interesting and long-lasting. One suggested that apps could be used to teach complex and abstract lexical items while it is not necessary to use them to teach simple and easy terms.

Discussion

Broadly speaking, mobile-assisted language learning, or MALL, has been a prevalent term in the educational field. Many scholars around the world - with a substantial increase in studies published in 2008 - have conducted a variety of researches to enhance a deeper understanding of the development of handheld devices that facilitate authentic, mobile, flexible, and contextual settings (Duman, Orhon, & Gedik, 2014; Kukulska-Hulme & Shield, 2008). Chinnery (2006) states the upsides of using mobile apps in general, "they can be just as easily utilized outside of the classroom as they can in it; learners can study or practice manageable chunks of information in any place on their own time, thereby taking advantage of their convenience" (p.13). Specifically, online vocabulary learning apps, such as Kahoot, Quizizz, Educandy, Blooket, Quizalize, etc., have gained certain popularity among teachers and educators (Davie & Hilber, 2015).

The findings of this research clarify the values of online language learning applications. Although being discussed in many other studies, the results once again strengthen the usefulness and worthiness of applying mobile apps to delivering vocabulary English lessons, especially in the Covid-19 pandemic. Interviewees consistently align with important aspects of vocabulary improvement when they use mobile learning apps to teach lexical items for online classes, encompassing vocabulary absorption efficiency, lexical memorization, active learning atmosphere, and measurable learning process. Furthermore, teachers also agree on the point that mobile apps can be taken advantage of to review old words effectively. Another pivotal viewpoint is that apps are not only used for while-learning classes (both online and offline), but also applied to assign homework for students to review and self-study at home.

On the other hand, some stumbling blocks of these mobile vocabulary learning apps are mentioned by teachers. They put an emphasis on the commercial aspect of many learning apps nowadays, which means that teachers have to pay for the annual packages if they want to use the full functions of these apps. Albeit useful, this aspect causes obstacles for some financially disadvantaged. Another trouble interviewed teachers may encounter is that they are afraid of the fact that mobile apps could be counterproductive in some cases because they are distracting students from learning well in class. However, teachers are fully aware of this situation, and they try to handle and control the problem as much as they can so that they are able to optimize the benefits of language learning mobile apps.

The results of this study strongly confirm the positive effects of mobile-assisted language

learning via apps on teaching and learning lexicon. It seems to have the same result as a study carried out by Davie and Hilber (2015). They concluded that mobile apps like Quizlet have the potential to foster language learners' motivation.

Even though this research does not emphasize strengthening social contact like Kukulska-Hulme and Shield (2008), they also share one common thing: better collaboration among students because this cooperation could be displayed through games or competitions hosted by teachers on mobile vocabulary learning apps. Learner autonomy is another factor. This study showed when students in a public university did a vocabulary quiz on their mobile phones or when they were assigned to do a quiz as homework, and they had to do it on their own (Oberg & Daniels, 2013).

On a global view, mobile learning apps strikingly assist vocabulary retention, especially difficult words. To be more precise, students at all levels can drive benefits from learning vocabulary through mobile apps; language learners could feel more motivated and incentivized to focus on learning, making better progress in vocabulary memorization (Chen & Chung, 2008; Lee, 2014; Masrai & Milton, 2015; Kohnke et al., 2019). Mindog (2016) shares the same viewpoint with this study since it affirms that using smartphone apps will help to improve vocabulary and spelling as long as students desire to use the apps frequently. She writes on the idea that "It would seem that participants' inter- mediate language proficiency allows them to focus on understanding the content without worrying too much about individual words or grammar" (p.16).

Likewise, mobile vocabulary learning apps also demonstrate huge and positive impacts of mobile-assisted L2 word learning on language learners (Lin & Lin, 2019; Le, 2021). This research supports this result consistently with these two main points. Firstly, the mobile application learning mode is superior to the learning mode in a traditional context since apps provide more flexibility and creativity to learn for both teachers and students. Secondly, the rate of word retention thanks to experiencing smartphone apps is noticeable, although low-level students still depend on instructors more than higher-level peers who are more active and eager to learn with apps (Davie & Hilber, 2015; Godwin-Jones, 2011).

Conclusion

This study has strengthened online apps' pivotal role in teaching new words in the classroom. The author would like to emphasize the benefits that both teachers and learners can receive from using apps to deliver new lessons or review old lessons. It presents motivating factors, effectiveness, and foreseeable outcome of learning new lexical items via apps. Learners are more likely to get engaged in the learning process. Nevertheless, several drawbacks related to money matter, and copyrights of these apps become burdens for teachers. As a result, some pedagogical implications should be listed.

First and foremost, teachers had better use apps to impart new words selectively, depending on the topics or needs or students' levels. Secondly, although students are driving more benefits from vocabulary learning apps, they need to be controlled or appropriately instructed to not get

lost or distracted from concentration. Last but not least, the basic package of these apps could be optimized when teachers know how to exploit them without having to pay more money to upgrade accounts. Otherwise, teachers can share an account to save the cost.

Also, some limitations of this study are objectively recognized. The size of the interviews is not large enough to guarantee more objective and comprehensive results. In addition, interviewees were asked via phone call, and they did not know the interviewing questions in advance; thus, some of them may not remember as much information as they could about their usage of apps. Thus, more in-depth research should be done in the future. Besides, further investigation can be helpful in the following topics: the use of digital devices in the process of learning other productive skills (speaking and writing); and a quantitative study on aspects of online apps influencing learning performance: design, content, interface, and user-friendliness.

Acknowledgments

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Biodata

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Mundhum: Exploring the Narratives of Limbu Community in an Urban Setting

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ABSTRACT

| | This paper explores the hindering factors of ritual transformation from one to the new generation in an urban setting. Paper describes the ritual narratives of the Limbu community practices based on Mundhum, and how it has been impacted in an urban setting. Shared the narratives by generation gaps, its practices, and external influencing factors in Limbu communities on the transformation of Mundhum. The Limbu community are indigenous populations who were migrants from the eastern part of Nepal, especially Taplejung, Terathum, Dhankuta, and Panchthar districts, who are the sampling frame for the qualitative study of this paper. Used ethnography for the collection and interpretation of data from the field with a non-probability sampling technique. In-depth semi-structured interview schedules were used as data collection tools. Seven in-depth interviews were conducted during this research. Key reasons for ritual degradation are low Limbu (native) language practices. Migration, education system, urban socialization practices, and imported culture affect native language transformation from one generation, directly affecting understanding and the transformation of native rituals. Lack of employment, health, and education opportunities are push factors on migrations in an urban setting from their origin. Still, they have mixed experiences with their rituals and bridging native language in Mundhum. Furthermore, lower knowledge, fewer practices of native language, unknown proper practices, urbanization impact, and objectivist thought of the current generation are major hindering factors in transforming Limbu culture and Mundhum rituals into new generations. |
| **Keywords**: Language, Limbu, native, migration, Mundhum, urban | |

Introduction

The Limbus, one of the main branches of the historic Kirat dynasty living in the major part of eastern Nepal after the takeover by the Lichavi Kings, have their native language, tradition, religion, and rituals based on "Mundhum". The Mundhum is a common oral narrative

of all Kirat people. Limbu declares themselves as "Yakthungba," and they claim their native language is "Yakthungba Pan" and their language script is "Srijanga". Thus, Mundhum refers to a legacy of powerful and significant oral trials that travel from place to place and generation to generation. The living definition of "Mun" is Mura, which means oral, and "Dhum" which means strong enough, so "Mundhum" indicates a tradition of powerful and significant oral text traveling from place to place and generation to generation.

Since time immemorial, the Limbu people have followed the Mundhum, the religious scripture. Their entire lives are guided by the beliefs and activities mentioned in the Mundhum. The history is set in the region of the first Kirant king, 56 Yalamber Hang, and his region in the Kathmandu valley. According to historical documents, India's kind Ashok visited the Kathmandu Valley during the fifteenth Kirat King Stungko's region. Ashok's visit is reported to have taken place between 269 and 265 (Chemjong, D.D. 2017). He goes on to say that, while the Kirant monarch was unwilling to adopt Buddism as he requested of his royal visitor, he did allow outsiders to promote new faiths in his territory and treated all faiths equally. Several years later, particularly in the eighteenth century, the Gorkha ruler captured the Limbu regime (1774AD).

The Limbus regime fought with Gorkhas, and the Gorkhas king eventually handed a commission to the chief of each district with some ruling powers of "Thums", and tax privileges for this community members, leading to an agreement to end the war forever. Since then, the Limbu leaders and their fellow members have naturally begun to follow several Hindu creeds (Limbu, R. K., 2011). However, this does not mean that they rejected their previous religious beliefs in favor of the newest one. Rather, they took up both religious creeds side by side as an ideal example of religious tolerance. Cultural integration is never a one-way street, as the Aryans of eastern Nepal appear to observe and worship the Kirant festivals and deities.

The Limbu community has its rich tradition of narrating or reciting Mundhum and performing rituals and ceremonies in their distractive ways. Mundhum leads a great value in Limbu communities during culture execution. Legends, folklore, sermons, prehistoric accounts, and moral and philosophical language narratives are oral prettiness. Mundhum is a major source of inspiration, information, and benightment in the Limbu community, which considerably help shape the way of life, customs, and ritual from womb to after death. It has symbolic values, functional importance, and social sequences. The Mundhum has a wide-range impact through the many rituals.

'Mundhum' has a wide range of applications and forms that have been practiced in the Kirat community. According to Bairagi Kainla (2017) cited by Limbu, R.K. (2020), the Tongsing Mundhum of Kirat to the Purana of Hindus reflects the Tongsing Mundhum is as important to the Limbus as the eighteen Purans are to the Brahmins. This study attempts to elicit Mundhum's understanding in an urban setting, specifically among those who have internally migrated from Taplejung, Terathum, and Panchthar (eastern hills of Nepal) to Kathmandu valley, as well as how they have been practicing Mundhum and what the major barriers to further execution are.

The paper largely would like to explain why there is a lack of understanding and transformation of Mundhum in the Limbu community's urban setting. The paper would also seek to explore Mundhum practices and experiences with obstacles. The paper's primary goal is to present narratives of Mundhum traditions in Kathmandu valley, Nepal. This research aims to a) examine the causes of decreasing Mundhum practices in an urban setting and b) explore the experiences of Mundhum-related concerns in the Kathmandu valley.

As an insider researcher, I am also a member of the Limbu community, which must help me with my fieldwork. To collect the experiences of my community, it is easier for me to experience, feel, and engage in my community. But, due to a variety of obstacles, I, too, had the experience of being an outsider at times. Language difficulties, as well as growing up outside of the native Limbu group, made me an outsider. Though I am familiar with my cultural community, it is difficult to examine how myth, ritual, and religion based on 'Mundhum' influenced societal attitudes. There are numerous reasons for this, which I will discuss at the deeper level below: As a result, this research is useful in understanding and investigating my cultural community, how rituals and festivals are celebrated in the Limbu, and how my culture is degrading in urban settings, particularly in practices of the younger generation. Through this research, I hope to contribute to the formulation of a shared understanding of rituals in Limbu communities, as well as to build a bridge among communities to learn how language and rituals might contribute to the promotion and conservation of Mundhum. Through my research paper, I hope to make it easier for them to comprehend the importance of Mundhum protection and promotion in the Kathmandu Valley urban setting.

Literature review

Theoretical

This research focuses on the application of cultural transformation theory (CTT) to Mundhum traditions in urban Limbu communities in Kathmandu, Nepal. It was first introduced to the wider public in Riane Eisler's the chalice and the Blade (1987). It has since served as the foundation for a number of other works, including The Chalice and the Blade in Chinese history (1995). Cultural transition theory emphasizes the progression from "barbarism" to "civilization". This idea is based on archaeological and legendary facts, and it envisions a civilization built on collaboration. It goes on to suggest that now, more than ever, we must reverse that trend and collaborate to hasten the transition from domination to collaboration. According to Eisler, R. (2021), it is true that our world has been changing very quickly during the last few hundred years. Rapid technology and economic interference have changed not only the long-term profession but also long-term mentality and behavior. This is the root of a lot of dislocation and tension.

Mercanti (2014) describes that cultural development necessitates new ways of thinking. Which turn necessitates language changes, including the deconstruction and, where possible, reconstruction of the meaning of old terms, as well as the creation of new words. Linguists

argue that cultural language gives specific categories for experiences and that speakers of that language will tend to overlook events for which no universally agreed-upon categories exist.

However, technological and economic improvements have enabled us to question many previously held beliefs, including long-standing ideas about gender roles and relationships, parenting practices, and the use of native languages. The cultural transformation theory describes the data revealed by the narratives of Mundhum traditions in an urban setting, specifically what causes were influencing the transition from one generation to the next in the research area.

Empirical

The Mundhum has always been oral literature that has been preserved in the spirit of rituals. Tumbahang, M. K. (2013) explains the further relates the preservation of Limbu rituals to Limbu priests such as Yeba, Yema, Samba, Phedangma, Mahangba, and Tumyahang. As part of their culture, they have been reciting.

Mundhum is rooted in Kirant's myth and tradition from many eras and locations. Kirat's understanding and ideas are regarded as exceptional. It provides us with a perspective on the entire formation of the universe, as well as the birth, death, and rebirth of life. Its ceremonies include birth, death, marriage, and purification. It also incorporates guiding ideas and a societal code of conduct. It is regarded as a religious test by the Kirant people and has exploited complex and ancient meanings, making the bulk of Limbu native speakers difficult to understand. Mundhum's language is largely symbolic and rich in rhetoric.

Limbu (2010) explains the Mundhum is a term used to describe Kirant Limbu ritual narrative works, both oral and written, that include legends, folktales, prehistoric chronicles, and sermons, moral or philosophical exhortations in poetic language. It is made up of many sacred narratives based on Kirant mythology and folklore from diverse times and places. Chemjong, I.S. (1961) cited on Limbu, R.K. (2010) described the Mundum as a powerful force or knowledge. He linked Mundhum to Hindu literature, Veda. Mundhum is knowledge of Kirat literature, much as Veda is a knowledge of Aryan literature. This knowledge provides insights as well as power. In other terms, it is an oral religious Kirat cultural narrative test composed of mythical stories, folklore, prehistoric accounts, and practical and philosophical encouragements. Mundhum is regarded as a great scholar and philosopher of Kirat. It provides us with a perspective on the entire formation of the universe, as well as the birth, death, and rebirth of life. Mundhum ceremonies include birth, death, marriage, and purity. It also comprises guiding concepts and a society-wide system of rules. The Lempuhang Mundhum, among many other Mundhums, narrates the account of human annihilation by the deluge, the origin of existence, and the history of world disasters. It also explains social traditions seasonal god worship, and purifying rituals during childbirth and death.

According to the author, Tran, T. Q. (2021) claims that the introduction of Web 2.0 technologies and social networking sites has transformed the way people live and study. In terms of language education, they play a critical part in educational reform, as they are required

to use technology in teaching and learning. The necessity of collaboration and engagement rather than one-way communication is an obligation when learning a new language; social networking sites are considered for their many benefits. However, these network sites provide a variety of difficulties for teachers, students, and researchers to overcome. While using social networking sites as open educational tools, security and privacy are the two most concerning factors.

When students begin to understand, speak, and write in a second language, it might influence their native language learning. They abandoned their original languages beginning, believing that learning a second language would offer them more opportunities and income. Viet, H.Q. (2021) explains how many external factors, such as communicative environment factors, comprehensive inputs, and so on, are thought to affect second language acquisition. Additionally, the author has agreed the inside-learner factors or individual learner differences, such as physiology, age of onset, gender, emotion, or motivation of learning, and strategies adopted, are thought to play a significant role in the learning process.

Tumbahang, M.K. (2013) logically explains the Mundhum is found in the form of a unit that employs every language form available. Various language forms that are poetic are distinct from ordinary speech. The Mundhum language is only spoken by a few people, including Sambas, Yebas, Mangbas, Tummyang Sabas, and others. It has existed for a long time in the form of oral recitation. The majority of Limbu native speakers are said to be unaware of Mundhum's linguistic version. As a result, he claims that the Mundhum language is on the verge of extinction. Unless a meaningful move is taken quickly, the Limbu native speakers will be left with nothing but terrible sorrow. Ngo, T. H. T., & Tran, T. T. O. (2021) explains how the English language is being used globally and its impact on students learning. The author has raised how the students use mind maps in writing skills and how it will influence their language learning and further communication.

Because of the language (communication) barrier, most of these real Mundhum people, such as Sambas, and Yebas, are illiterate and unwilling to share their views with interested native people. The majority of the current generation is illiterate in the Limbu language and Srijanga script, and it is difficult to grasp and transform Mundhum from one person to the next without knowledge of native language literacy. As a result, there is an urgent need for the Mundhum language to be investigated and documented as soon as feasible. Only then would it be made known to all native speakers as well as other interested parties. So, the difficulty is determining how to analyze the Limbu Mundhum's linguistic quantity. The Mundhum, which the Kirant people view as their religious scripture, has used esoteric and archaic dictions that are difficult for the majority of Limbu native speakers to understand. Mundhum's language is largely symbolic and rich in rhetoric.

Tumbahang, M.K. (2013) further explains in the Limbu community, and there are primarily two Mundhum in use. They are Thugsap (I) and Peysap Mundhum (II). The first is the original form, which has been passed down orally from generation to generation since the beginning of time. When the script practices were being produced, the Mundhum was also

available in a book frame, which is the recipe book form, with contributions from Limbu priests (Sambas) from various events and occasions passed down from generation to generation. The Paysap Mundhum, a pamphlet about the Kirant religion with four segments, is also available. Soksok (I), Yehang (II), Sapji (III), and Sap Mundhum are the four. According to Mundhum, the concept of life is derived from "biogenesis". This signifies that life can only be achieved via the blessing of 'Yuma'. It is the belief that every living thing has a soul.

Language is a social phenomenon and plays a crucial role in human communication and lives. Communication is a collection of symbols and sounds. While using language, we use semiotics with signs, which involves signal, that can communicate meaning through the senses, like visuals and based on the symbols. The human languages include phonetics, phonology, syntax, and semantics. While the study of cultural transformation and lingual perspectives, ethnography can be used for collective study. According to Creswell (2014), "ethnography" is a design of inquiry coming from anthropology and sociology in which the researcher studies the shared patterns of behaviors, language, and actions of an intact cultural group in a natural setting over a prolonged period of time" (p. 42).

Edingo (2007) explains how various contextual elements and socio-cultural elements influence oral Mundhum-tests are produced, composed, presented, and received. The successful production, presentation, and reception of oral Mundhum-tests are dependent on how some of these aspects interact in the context and how they are understood. The term 'utilization' refers to the interdependently synchronous success of producing, presenting, and receiving a (Mundhum) text. A writer further concludes a Mundhum-text is a communicative phenomenon, both culturally and historically. The word 'utilization of Mundhum-text' here denotes the text's successful development. The presentation in the actual environment through rationalization is a process of incorporating potential information that is now active into the community's set tradition. To summarise in terms of its linguistic and rhetorical structure, an oral Mundhum-text has a highly developed, sophisticated, and pragmatically oriented system of text, which has to be referred to as a pragmatic structure in the further study frame.

Gautam and Thakur (2017) describe their conclusion: elderly people, children, women, social-worker, farmers, Dhami/Jhakri, those who do not go outside, and pre-literate people speak Limbu. Whereas educated people, government employees, students, teachers, people living in town, young people, the people doing inter-caste marriage, businessmen, politicians, and leaders speak Nepali. Similarly, school-age children, educated individuals, village leaders, merchants, Limibu community government personnel, experienced people, social workers, conscious people, and politicians are fluent in both their mother tongue and a language of wider communication.

Against the backdrop of little attention paid to Mundhum practices in the Kathamndu valley and issues concerning Mundhum practices-related experiences, this paper consults the narratives of first-generation adult migrants from eastern Nepal (Taplejung, Terathum, and Dhankuta), defining Limbu rituals based on their native language, particularly Mundhum practices in kathamandu valley, Nepal. The study paper focuses on the reasons for the Limbu

community's lack of Mundhum comprehension and transformation. The paper would also seek to explore Mundhum practices and experiences with obstacles.

Research Questions

The paper's overarching goal is to present narratives of difficulties concerning Mundhum practices in the Kathmandu valley, Nepal. The precise goals of this article are as follows;

A) What are the major hindering factors in shifting Mundhum practices in an urban setting?
B) Why is the Mundhum transfer being complicated from generation to generation in the Kathmandu valley?

Methods

This study proposed to describe the issues of Mundhum practices in Kathmandu valley and understand its experiences in an urban setting. The qualitative methodology was chosen to explore the overall experiences of the respondents, and the study used an exploratory design where semi-structured interviews were conducted with all the respondents. While data collection, I used non-probability convenience sampling. I organized seven in-depth interviews conducted in Kathmandu between June - December 2021. All the respondents were adults who migrated from eastern Nepal's Taplejung, Terathum, and Dhankuta districts.

Due to the need for deep and intensive people engagement, I used ethnography in this research. Through this method, I can go through an in-depth observational qualitative study. It provides a strategy in which the researcher observes the Mundhum user group's daily life for an extended period of time. Through this research, I hope to learn about the behaviors, values, and relationships of members of the Limbu community who are deeply involved in its rituals and traditions. It could add to this study on small societies' beliefs, social interactions, and behaviors by involving participation and observation of Mundhum practice.

All respondents' list is provided in table 1 below. The narratives shared by the interviewees were based on their practices of Mundhum. Some of the open-ended structure questions asked during the interviews are: Tell me the story about your Mundhum practices as rituals; Who was the major leader/priest on rituals execution?; How have your family practiced Mundhum?; Do you see any hinder factors to Mundhum practices? Does all your family understand the Shrijanga script or the Limbu language?; How do you know all the rituals based on Mundhum?; Do you think your next generation could continue to execute your rituals?; What are the major hindering factors to handover Mundhum rituals in your family?; Do you have any idea which could facilitate Mundhum handover to a new generation?. Most of the respondents used the Nepali language while the interview was conducted. The recorded interviews were transcribed precisely and then translated into English. Thematic analysis was then employed to look into the interview transcripts.

Some significant ethical concerns that were taken into consideration are anonymity of the interviewees (the paper only uses pseudonyms (false name) for all individuals mentioned),

informed consent (oral as well as written informed consent was obtained from the interviewees), professional competence (interviews were conducted by trained personnel only), respect for people's right, dignity and diversity. Voluntary participation and the principle of non-violence—do no harm—were also implemented in the study.

Table 1 Demographic Composition of the Respondents

S.N.	Name	Age	Sex	Education	Family's Occupation	Origin/Address
1	A	43	F	Bachelor	Business	Taplejung
2	B	57	F	Primary	Housewife	Dhankuta
3	C	77	M	SLC	Retired Army	Dhankuta
4	D	42	M	Intermediate	Business	Dhankuta
5	E	45	F	Intermediate	Teacher	Taplejung
6	F	35	M	SLC	Unemployed	Terathum
7	G	47	M	Master	Project personnel	Terathum

Results/Findings and discussion

This report highlights the primary Mundhum practices and impediments to generational transformation in Kathmandu valley. It also includes everyday experiences in family life (native language practices), in the community (native language practices and common communication), especially the cultural and religious similarities and differences, and struggling with other religions and languages.

Major practices of Mundhum in an urban setting:

The interviewees share the many practices of Mundhum in their daily life, from pre-born to post-death. They share major practices as follows;

Saapok Chomen (Nep. Garbha Pooja/baby shower):

This cultural practice is quite different from other religious groups due to pre-born practices in Limbu communities. We have been practicing the Saapok Chomen with full facilitation of Yuma since 2018 (A)

There are many practices, including Saapok Chomen, have been practicing with the support of Sambha and Yeba (B)

We cannot have cultural practices in our community without Sambha and Yeha support (C)

This ritual aspect is directly connected with women who are pregnant and are going to have a baby. This ritual is for the safety of both the mother and her baby. Ritual is wishing to the gods for the good health of the mother and baby in the womb as well as safe delivery of the

baby. We have been doing ritual practices with the support of Yeba, Sambha, and sometimes Yuma. The Saapok Chomen is our crucial ritual once in our community (D).

Only Sambha and Yeba can contribute to regularizing our cultural practices ahead (G)

Yaangdaang Phongma (Nep. Nwaraan):

In the Limbu community, the family and close relatives are believed to be impure when the baby is born in a family and needs to purify them via ritual performance, which is called Yaangdaang Phongma. During the purifying process, a ritual for cleansing as well as giving the name to the baby is perfumed as a ritual performance. After three days for baby girls and four days for baby boys, the ritual of Yaangdaand Phongma is performed.

Without of facilitation of Yuma, Shambhala and Phedangma, is it hard to the ritual practice Yaangdaand Phongma since we migrated (B)

It has been practiced Yaangdaand Phongma with the support lead of Sambha and Yeba (A)

We cannot have cultural practices in our community without Sambha and Yeba in the Yaangdaand Phongma due to lower practice ideas of rituals. (C)

Only Yuma, Sambha and Yeba can complete to regularize our cultural practices even in Yaangdaand Phongma (G)

We have been doing ritual practices with the support of Yeba, Sambha, and sometimes with Yuma, even in the Yaangdaand Phongma (E).

Magena (Nep: Shir Uthaune puja):

The Mangena is performed every six months at the beginning of the summer and winter seasons. If it is not possible twice in the year, it is suggested that it should be held at least once a year. The major purpose of this ritual is the person should be held at least once a year. The main purpose of this ritual is that the person may not feel any subsidiarity in his/her business. It is believed in modern times. The Mangena could protect from accidents, disputes, fighting, wars, and jealousy and get success in the desired shots.

We have been practicing twice in annual or once the Mangena. Generally, the red cock is dedicated to God when it is a chicken and worship to God when it is a young cock with bloodshed contribution. Most of the Yuma, Shambha, and Phedangma will read the Mundhum, and it has been practiced in our home since we migrated (B)

The Mangena is a vital ritual in the Limbu community. Our fathers and forefathers were migrated for foreign employment, especially on military service in the UK and the Indian Army. During their battle and fighting with their enemy, they get more courage on the battlefield, and God supplies brave through the Mangena. I saw this ritual in my mom was alive in Taplejung, and still, we are continually in Kathmandu with the support of Sambha and Yeba (A)

I saw this Mangena in 2020 (Bikram Sambad) when I was small in my childhood. Our parents were praying for God with young red cock, and took rituals based on Mundhum. They said with the worship of Mangena, our enemy can not make an obstacle in our progress, and God give us more superpower to gain our goal. These cultural practices have been continued with the support of Sambha and Yeba in this urban setting (C)

The Mangena rituals are old rites in the Limbu community; only Yuma, Sambha and Yeba can complete regularizing our cultural practices, even in Mangena (G)

Tendhaam Mekkhim (Nep: marriage):

The marriage includes a set of unified premarital as well as post-marital rites; the Mekkhim Yukmma (Nep: Lagan) is one of the crucial rituals. The Mekkhim Yukmaa is worshiping in the evening time incantation of Mundhum by the Phedaangbaa (Limbu priest).

We have been practicing a Tendhaam Mekkhim in our community with a full incantation from Phedaangbaa. When the couple and their family are ready to bond together through the marriage, the Phedangbaa facilitates this marriage ceremony via Mundhum for Mekkhim Yukmma and all rituals are guided by Phedangbaa. During the Mekkhim Yukmma, a couple of chicken, traditional ale, Ghungring (local plants), Tongba (dry ale in a wooden bottle), and a couple of glasses of water are major elements. All tools and Mundhum depend on Phedangbaa (B)

The Tendhaam Mekkhim is vital rituals in Limbu community. Which is based on Mundhum, I saw this ritual in my village at Taplejung, and our community has tried to continue these rituals even in an urban setting with the support of Phedangbaa, who is a major expert on Mundhum dialogue (D).

I had known the Mekkhim Yukmaa since 2022 (Bikram Sambad) when I was small in my family. When the couple is ready for Mekkhim Yukmaa (marriage), the Phedangbaa facilitates the rituals based on Mundhum. We cannot understand as much of all rituals but try to obey all directions of Phedangbaa. (C)

The Mekkhim Yukmaa rituals are old rites in the Limbu community, based on Mundhum and totally facilitation by Phedangbaa, Sambha, and Yeba (G)

I cannot understand much of Mekkhim Yukmaa Mundhum, but I saw Mekkhim Yukmaa Mundhum in each marriage ceremony, and even the Limbu community has tried to follow this ritual in their marriage ceremony with the support of Phedangbaa (D)

I know the Mekkhim Yukmaa Mundhum from the rural to the urban setting of eastern Limbuwan. In every Mekkhim Yukmaa, a couple obeys the direction of Phedangbaa, receiving a good wish with Chyabrung Nach (Dhol dance) with ancient signs and signals.   (E)

Tongsing (a link between the ancestors and the present):

The ritual base Tongsing in the Limbu community is significant, which generally refers

to the agreement to better bonding among family and community. The Tongsing is a ritual of achieving the truthfulness of ancestors and divinities through invocation, incantation, dramatic performances, and using symbolic objects.

We believed that through the Mundhum to separate the soul between the dead member of the family and the alive one. While Tongsing preparation, we need Samsing (a special plant branch and leaf) and Mukto (preparation with Ghungring), which are major tools for soul separation via Mundhum, is called Samlingma (separated soul from the dead body). The whole of Mundhum is elucidated by Yebaa, Sambha, Phedangbaa, and Mangpaa (B)

Tongsing in Limbu dialect, a term which means coming together. The Tongsings were customarily performed for two reasons, once a year for the great good fortune/ well-being of the family that arranges for it and as a funeral service ceremony. Presently, in any case, the huge custom is as it was utilized after somebody passes on. The man that perished and justified the Tongsing custom that I have gone to be an elder who lived within the same town. This Tongsing was very an enamors difficulty and at times included over a hundred individuals (family & community) all going to an evening devour organized totally by the family and community, and all of the rituals facilitation and translation is based on Phedangbaa (D)

Rituals are facilitated spiritual satisfaction and provide a peaceful mind. We believe that through the Tongsing, we could make satisfy our ancestors through the Mundhum with the support of Yeba and Phedangbaa. (C)

After death, we do not know whether our soul is alive or not, but it is our rituals' responsibility to make separate from this physical world and reach virtue. Tongsing rituals are old rites in the Limbu community, based on Mundhum and totally facilitation through the Phedangbaa, Sambha, and Yeba. (G)

It could be a much more complicated ritual since the beginning of culture. I can not understand much of the full of Tongsing Mundhum, but I saw the Tongsing used for a separate soul between dead and alive family members with the support of Phedangbaa, Yeaba, and Sambha (F)

It is much more complicated to worship Tongsing Mundhum in Kathmandu valley due to the limited number of Sambha and Phedangbaa. Phedangbaa requested through the Mundhum during the dead body to leave his soul for freedom. In these rituals, they were worshipped in rhetoric mode concerning to dead soul and requested separation from their family members. (E)

Sidobaa thim (death rites):

It is like another cultural ceremony; the passing ceremony moreover includes an arrangement of custom exercises like a funeral procession (Che-saamaa), acquiring the funeral ground (khamm ingma), taking out the soul of the living people (Saam laapmaa), giving over the soul of the dead individual to the predecessors (saam-saamaa), eating salt/oil i.e. taboo nourishments (yum-saa: nakmaa), last refinement ceremony (Khuaamaa), which consists of

conjuring the light that is, detach the dead individual with his/her relatives, possessions and human society, and at long last the ceremony of wiping away the tears (mikwaa saangmaa).

We believed that through the Mundhum to separate soul between the dead member of the family and alive once in a family in Sidobba thim. The whole of Sidobba thim (Mundhum) is elucidated by Yebaa, Sambha, Phedangbaa, and Manpaa (B)

Sidobba thim is in the Limbu dialect, a term that means death rituals. These cultural practices are passing ceremony moreover includes an arrangement of custom exercise like a funeral procession (Che-saamaa), acquiring the funeral ground (khamm ingma), taking out the soul of the living people (Saam laapmaa), and all rituals facilitation and translation by Phedangbaa (D)

We only follow the whole rituals of Sodibba thim based on Yeba, and Phedangbaa for ten years. (C)

The Sodibba thim is an ancient ritual among in Limbu community which is based on Mundhum and facilitated by the Phedangbaa, Sambha, and Yeba (G)

Even though I cannot understand much about Sodibba thim Mundhum but I believe the Sodibaa thim could facilitate on freedom of soul from the physical body, which rituals support to make heavenly path our ancestors, and save our family rituals which are the support of Phedangbaa, Yeaba, and Sambha (F)

I know this Sodibba thim from rural practices and even in now at Kathmandu valley with our communities' practices, but we cannot do alone, we must need rituals support of Phedangbaa (E)

Hindering factors of Mundhum transformation

Socio-economic, educational opportunities, and dominations:

A financial opportunity can pull from low to high opportunities area. The labor market, employment chances, education, health facility, and security are major pull factors from rural to urban settings.

We migrated from Taplejung in 2017 to Kathmandu valley to search for a better education system for our new generation. We are both (couples) are quite poor in health and need frequent doctor's consolation. My daughter-in-law was also doing her own business and doing better than our previous habitant. Unfortunately, we cannot easily find cultural Phedangbaa, Yeba, and Yuma in Kathmandu for our ritual's execution. Annually we have been doing every Limbu ritual while we were at Taplejung, but since 2017, hardly we can manage annually to execute our rituals (B)

My family migrated to Kathmandu from Dhankuta in 2009. When I backed from South Korea, I saw more opportunities in this valley and started my workshop. I found some opportunities here, but I cannot speak my native language, and my kids do not understand and cannot speak the Limbu language. We have practiced our rituals, but hard to find Yeba, Sambha,

and Phedangbaa in this valley. (D)

I am a retired Indian Army, and mostly I have many health issues, so I have to stay in close consultation with doctors and I think Kathmandu valley is a major area for health services. Due to health services to me and other economic opportunities for a family member, we migrated in 2018 here. Unfortunately, every event has both parts, positive and negative once. I am facing much cultural isolation and hardly engage in rituals in my home, my second generation cannot understand and speak our native language, and they feel bored while cultural rituals are performed from Phedangbaa in my home. Due to high cultural domination, lack of native language, and centralized Mundhum in Phedangbaa, Yeba, and Sambha can degradation to understand and execute further Mundhum in my home (C)

We migrated to Kathmandu valley in 2010 permanently from Terathum. The major attraction of migration is kids' education opportunities and my parent's health consideration. After the first migration, we have been continued our rituals through the Phedangbaa and Yeba. Hindering on rummage to Phedangbaa and Yeba in an urban setting (E).

The major hindering factor on Mundhum rituals transfer one to another generation is the lack of native languages in the Limbu family, say for instance: in my family, only me and my spouse can understand a little bit, but our offspring are not understood and cannot speak our native language, which is significantly worrying factor ahead. Only the Phedangbaa, Sambha, and Yeba know the rituals, and without knowledge of the native language, we cannot understand and transform our rituals for next-generation (G)

My family migrated to Kathmandu valley in 1992; my parents migrated from Terathum in search of self-entrepreneurship opportunities. Due to high competition and low investment capacity, my family has invested in real-state and trying to bounce back better in socioeconomic conditions. With the economic constraint, we lost our native language, and even I forgot my fluency and could not supply for the next two sisters. Both of them have little knowledge of their native language. We don't know Limbu rituals based on Mundhum and always depend on Phedangbaa, Yeaba, and Sambha. In my family practices, the knowledge of Mundhum, and rituals knowledge should be only with Yeba and Phedangbaa, and my parents are not entertained with knowing Mundhum (F)

We migrated from Taplejung in 2001 to search for better education for my child. When the so-called modern and dominated education system is practiced with our children, they are unable to learn our native language; they have a rare chance to learn our native language and cannot find native peers in their school and hostel. We also have a low chance of native language practices and cannot make rich vocabulary through the daily practices. Due to the low practice of native language in daily life, we and our offspring cannot understand our rituals; they are fed up with our rituals, and we cannot be justified in this physical world. The Phedangbaa, Yeba, and Sambha have a piece of knowledge, but their number also decreases due to the low interest of the new generation. No one of the new generations would like to covert Yebaa, Sambha, and Phedangbaaa due to separated socio-cultural settings. With the limited number of Phedangbaa,

Yeba, and Sabha, they could not spread many of our rituals with justification in our Limbu community (A)

Social structure and socialization:

The current social structure and socialization frame also affect on native language and its rituals. Transmitting and establishing norms, customs, and ideological perspectives facilitate building the social structure and formative socialization.

Social structure is the highly complex and mixed community here; due to the mix of native and culture, our family members and our kids have a rare chance to interact in the native language, and result, they do not know how to speak, narrate and write their native language. When we cannot speak, write and narrate our native language, we cannot learn or know the Mundhum. There seems to be a huge gap between cultural and ritual bridging between layman and Phedangbaa, Yeba & Yuma. Which is hindering to execute, adapt and transfer our Mundhum to the next generation in an urban setting (B)

My whole business employee is non-native Limbu, only two are from the Limbu community, and they never communicate in their native language while working at the factory. I do not even know the proper pronunciation and speaking in native Limbu, which directly impacts my kids' communication. Due to low communication in my social setting and low native speaker at home, my next generation totally may chance to lose their native language. Due to lower knowledge of the Limbu language, the Mundhum sounds too hard to understand, and we have been uncomfortable using it. Still seems to bridge gaps between us, our kids, and the knowledge transformation of Mundhum from Yeba, Sambha, and Phedangbaa in an urban area (D)

Due to the high mixture of culture and rituals in recent habitat, it is too tough to gather on own native language. Cultural and ritual tolerance is eminent in the community but hindering to protect and promote own rituals. In my family, my spouse only can speak the native Limbu language, and other members cannot speak and do not know. Due to the low native language in home and community, it is too hard to transform the native language and rituals for a new generation. When they do not know or understand their language, they feel bored while doing rituals at home, which seems to panic on ritual protection. While the Phedangbaa, Yeba, and Sambha facilitate Mundhum from a cultural perspective, they became much bored due to the language barrier. (C)

In the young generation, most of us are running for employment, financial strengthening, and earning more money because these new liberal capitalist systems established the race of economy, and we became a competitor in the GDP marathon. Our young generation is not entertained and will to gain native language due to the market economy, and they ask us 'what pay back our native language and rituals in our unemployment status and global competitions?'. The young generation always likes to tie up with the rationale of employment, prosperity and earning, which is quite unanswered from a native language and promotion of rituals. Due to the disconnection between earning and native rituals, they are hardly ready to learn the native

language and their rituals, which is a major degradation issue of Limbu language and continues the transformation of Mundhum in an urban setting (F).

Discussion

Most of the native rituals of Limbus (Mundhum) were affected by the modern or Westernized culture. For instance, in the urban Limbu community, they have started *Baby showers* instead of Saapok Chomen due to a lower understanding of their rituals, influence from societal order, and accepted western culture due to migration and education practices. This ritual aspect is directly connected with pregnant women who are going to have a baby, which is for the best wishes to the safety of both the mother and her baby during pregnancy and delivery.

The new generation in the urban setting became more atheist and did not trust rituals and ideological execution. They think worship is irrelevant, so it was hard to convince the new generation of ritual execution, especially of Mundhum, which is hard to understand due to rare knowledge of the native Limbu language, and hardly the new generation engaged in the listening promotion, and protection of Mundhum.

Due to the high mixture of caste, ethnicity, and religion in the urban setting, native Limbus were hardly making promotion and protection of their culture and practices. Most of their rituals were based on their origin, and they were already left their native land. Now, it is like going their rituals in another cultural setting which seems too hard to replicate in another community and hard to isolate from a mixture community. The Social structure is highly impacted by one language and ritual transformation in a complex and mixed community.

The rituals are going to be inaccessible in urban cities like Kathmandu due to the lower accessibility of Sambha, Yeba, and Yuma for ritual procedures. Lack of own native rituals-based knowledge, the new generation hardly accepted the theist concepts, no access to the priest (Sambha, Yeba, and Yuma), and indigenous materials like; Samsing (a special plant branch and leaf), Mukto (preparation with Ghungring) also making constraint of executing Mundhum in an urban setting.

A financial opportunity, education practices of new generation, language and native practices of kids, and socioeconomic related factors also highly impacted on practice of Limbu language, which is directly impacted into practice, protection, and promotion of Mundhum in the big frame of society. The current social structure and socialization frame also affect on native language and its rituals. Transmitting and establishing norms in a new community, the effect of external customs, and changing ideological perspectives facilitate the building of the social structure and formative socialization, which is also can see in Mundhum's execution in an urban setting.

The new generation in the urban setting is more atheist and cannot make a linkage between rites and their daily life, which seems irrelevant. In some other rites, persuading the

new generation on Mundhum promotion is difficult due to the multiplier impact.

Ingrid, H. (2014) concludes his thesis by emphasizing the significance of the diversity of meanings and responses to variations on "mother tongue," "indigenous language," "intercultural," and other such policies (and their associated programs) by the various groups of actors involved in them, which are both multiple and inherently contextually-defined. As previously noted, transnationally circulating conceptions and frameworks abound on topics of educational choice, rights, school modernization, and "best practices" in education. In this study, he examined the *Anipaan* mother tongue program from the perspectives of individuals involved in its promotion and development, as well as those who experienced and executed it in a localized setting.

Kattel (2012) has mentioned in his book review how the anthropological traditions and used both functionalist and Marxist ethnographic work on indigenous knowledge shared in a wider perspective. His main concern is the nature of the political and economic interaction between Hindu (primarily Brahaman) and tribal (Limbu) populations in eastern Nepal. The author's attention is on Brahaman-Limbu social connections, with a particular emphasis on two themes that are currently of great interest in social research. The first section examines ethnic groups and the methods by which they sustain a sense of identity, as well as what happens to the community in the face of long-continued and exploitative rule by the so-called upper caste. In the second, this from the tenure became a dependent point, a source of ethnic identity and morale over the last century and a half. The author examines the fall of a tribal land authority system (Kipat) and the concurrent monogamous land-grabbing by emigrant Hindus with government support because the high caste also holds the controlling post. The author further raised the issues between the Hindu (mostly Brahamna) and tribal group (Limbu) on how one was exploited and another was victim due to land management with the support of the center to the periphery. He added that the state was set up to weaken this autonomy almost as soon as it was founded; a central government plan was to encourage Hindu caste groups to migrate into the eastern hills and convert *Kipat* land into *Raikar* since the government wanted to collect revenue from Limbuwan.

In the above discussion, *Ingrid* investigated the *Anipaan* mother tongue program from the viewpoints of those involved in its promotion and development, as well as those who experienced and implemented it in a localized setting. On the other hand, *Katel* strives to uncover how the center-favored society harmed Limbuvan on their indigenous land and succeeded in ruling them through the exploitation of their culture, religion, and rituals (Mundhum) which has an impact on the promotion and protection of the Limbu language.

Limbu (2020) discusses how the Mundhum language, also known as Ritual Language (RL), differs from ordinary language or Ordinary Language (OL) and aids in the expression of cultural perceptions, behaviors, and way of life. It also demonstrates how this ritual/liturgical language influences not just the types of speech but also aspects of tradition, culture, and way of life. He went on to say that the Mundhum language is mostly orally based and is primarily utilized by phedangma (ritual priests), yeba/samba (shamans), and tumyahang/tumyahangma

(well-versed gentlemen/ladies in the Mundhum). According to one of the authors, the Mundhum is told and repeated by Limbu ritual/religious actants/officiants in cultural/ritual observations, i.e., ceremonies from pre-birth to after death.

Chemjong, D.D. (2017) concludes his Ph.D. dissertation on identity politics in Nepal and collective identities by researching the ancestral history, territory, and place-naming of Limbus in east Nepal. His dissertation contrasts Limbu indigenous people's political movements with Nepali state makers, particularly Aryan Hindu upper caste groups. This book studies indigenous peoples' history, particularly the struggle against conquerors, as a resource for contemporary political movements, demonstrating the link between ancestral pasts and present-day political ties.

Chemjong concludes his thesis by saying, "In Nepal, it appears that one cannot escape his/her ancestral identity, as the data shows – why should the Maoist Party, whose cadres and leaders slaughtered cow oxen for feasts during the war, declare cow as the national animal when in power ironically when making the Naya Nepal [new Nepal]?" He says, "It's because of their ancient identity as the Bahuns, the cow protectors." For whatever reason, the Cow, Sanatan Dharma, and Aryan Race have been adopted by the constitution. As a result, it has established the Hindu Arya civilization's symbolic dominance and hegemony over other non-Aryans. It also serves to preserve the heritage of King PN Shah's orders. Limbu R.K.'s research focuses on how the Mundhum language, also known as Ritual Language (RL), differs from ordinary language or Ordinary Language (OL) and aids in the expression of cultural perceptions, behaviors, and way of life. It also demonstrates how this ritual/liturgical language influences not just the types of speech but also aspects of tradition, culture, and way of life. Chemjong concludes his thesis on how existing politics is divided on identity-based, ethnic minorities are just exploited during the identity-based revolution but rarely addressed their difficulties, and the entire state has been reconstructed. Limbu R.K. attempted to connect with his language movement in order to defend and promote identity. He further strengthens the means of protecting culture and customs by promoting the local Limbu language in the entire community and via education.

Conclusion

Most Limbus (Mundhum) native rituals have been influenced by modern or Westernized culture in urban settings. They are struggling due to the high mix of caste, ethnicity, and religion in the urban setting on promotion and protection of their rites. Their rituals were based on their origin, which is already left their native area, and now it is hard to single promotion of rituals in a mixed cultural environment, which felt too difficult to reproduce in new or in a mixed society and difficult to isolate their customs from mixed community rites. The transformation of language and rituals in joint and mixed community practices has significantly impacted Limbu rites promotion in complex social structure.

The new generation in the urban setting became more atheist and did not trust rituals and ideological execution; they believed worship was irrelevant, so it was difficult to persuade the new generation on rituals execution, particularly Mundhum, which is difficult to understand due to limited knowledge of the native Limbu language and Shrijanga script in the new generation. Major constraints on the promotion and protection of Mundhum in the urban setting include a lack of native language-based education practices, a lower native language engaging environment at home and in the community, external economic engagement, and the impact of external and inter-community socio-cultural impact on the new generation.

Ethnography is a subjective analysis, which is directly collected from people's experiences, based on deep dive. I don't want to limit my findings to the above-limited empirics. I am sure the above discussion and findings are not enough to draw theory, but my study can contribute as building blocks building theory on further protection and promotion of Mundhum in an urban setting. My paper can contribute insights to the new researcher who would like to explore some practices of their near future research on Limbu culture and its possible protection and promotion. In my study, only subjectivist thought is collected through their live empirical views but hardly collect objectivist evidence due to time and resource constraints. I insist on further research to make a comprehensive plan, collect big data, and make mixed-method (qualitative and quantitative) for data triangulation. Through this research, I am sure that future research can draw one comprehensive study plan, which can do more trustworthy research in the future in Mundhum protection and promotion.

Acknowledgments

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Biodata

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English-majored Students' Perceptions of the Translation Course at Ho Chi Minh City University of Food Industry

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ABSTRACT

Keywords: Translation, translation course, students' perceptions, students' perspectives, difficulties	The purpose of this study is to examine the efficacy of the 'Translation' course at the Ho Chi Minh City University of Food Industry from the English-majored students' perspectives via in-depth interviews. From the interviews data of 12 students, a critical evaluation was carried on to find out students' perceptions on different aspects of the course, including how they felt about the translation course, the difficulties they encountered throughout the course, what they thought about the teaching activities applied in the course as well as their expectations to improve the course. This study discovered that the lack of vocabulary, weak grammar and sentence structures, and not understanding the implied meaning of different contexts were their biggest challenges. In most students' opinions, they supposed that group work and e-portfolio were effective activities. The students were generally satisfied with the quality of the subject and suggested some viable recommendations to improve this course in the future.

Introduction

'Translation' is a subject that equips English-majored students with not only translation methods and translation techniques but also the awareness of mistakes needing to be avoided when translating. The translation is also a mandatory subject in the English curriculum of many universities in Vietnam, including Ho Chi Minh City University of Food Industry (HUFI). On the one hand, it was observed that English-majored students at HUFI normally had different perceptions of the efficiency of understanding and applying translation knowledge after completing this subject. On the other hand, lecturers who teach the translation subject also inquire about meaningful feedback from the students in order to self-reflect on their own teaching activities. The central purpose of this paper is to discover English-majored students' perspectives on the translation course, which is currently implemented at HUFI's Faculty of Foreign Languages. From the collected data, fundamental analysis is carried out to determine

the students' difficulties as well as which aspects need to be adjusted to meet their learning expectations.

Literature review

Catford (1965) defines translation as the replacement of textual material of one language (source language) with equivalent textual material in another language (target language). Sharing the same viewpoint, Bell (1991) describes translation as the expression in another language (or target language) of what has been expressed in another source language, preserving semantic and stylistic equivalences. In other words, translation is rendering a written text into another language in the way that the author intended the text (Dang & Bui, 1999).

In more detail, translation is a transfer process that aims at the transformation of a written source language text into an optimally equivalent target-language text and which requires the syntactic, semantic, and pragmatic understanding and analytical processing of the source language text (Wilss, 1982). The translation process can be illustrated by Nida's (1975) model in the following figure.
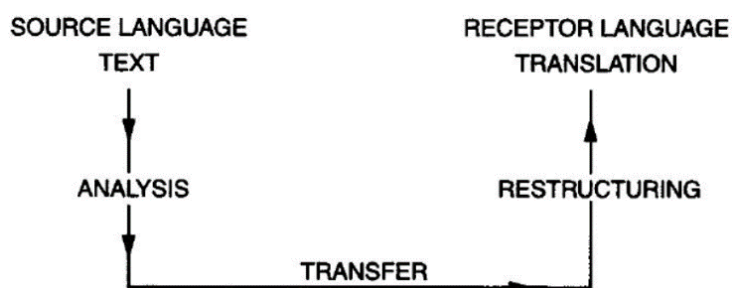
Figure 1. Nida's Process of Translating (adapted from Nida, 1975).

According to Nida (1975), the process of translation begins with an analysis of the source language text. At this initial stage, the translator's linguistic competence to properly comprehend and interpret the source language text is decidedly required. The next stage in the translation process is transferring the text from the source language text into the target language text. The capability to select the suitable equivalent in the target language text is a mandatory requirement to make sure that the text is appropriately presented in the target language text. The last stage is the restructuring process which can also be considered an editing stage. In addition to being required to be linguistically accomplished in understanding the source language, the translator will need to make a decision on which equivalent terms to use or which translation strategy to apply.

Combining core ideas from various scholars, translation can be generally described as a transferring process from an original language into a different language in the expression of the same information. It is obvious that translating is a complicated process because 'it involves many problem-solving and decision-making tasks which seem to strike the translator's mind simultaneously during the translating process' (Hoang, 2005, p. 106). There are four main

problems related to translation: technical terms or terminology, special expressions, syntactic ambiguity in long and complex nominal groups, and grammatical metaphor (Hoang, 2005). To teach grammar efficiently in translation as well as other English subjects, grammar knowledge should be integrated into specific contexts instead of teaching separate sentence structures (Ly, 2020).

In the Vietnamese context, Pham (2017) analyzes translation errors made by Vietnamese EFL students to identify the source of errors. By letting 36 Vietnamese English-majored students take a Vietnamese-English translation test, the researcher learns that translation errors and linguistic errors related to lexical choice, syntax, and collocation are the most frequent errors. In another research conducted at Tay Do University in Vietnam, Phan et al. (2022) discovered the most popular errors that English-majored juniors have frequently made are word order, grammatical errors, and lexical errors. The researchers found out that word order errors are related to noun phrases and adjective order. In terms of grammatical errors, they are linked to negative structures, passive voice, and pronouns. Regarding lexical errors, they are connected to collocation and idioms.

Translators and researchers are still studying to discover more comprehensive methods and better criteria systems for translation (Tran, 2022). Working with translating activities can facilitate learners' language ability of new languages in different language features, including lexis, grammar, reading comprehension, and new cultures (Nguyen & Ngo, 2021). In order to enhance students' ability in translation, a wide variety of techniques can be applied in teaching and learning activities in class. One of the most practical methods that can be mentioned is group work translation. Setiani (2020) applies this technique with the participation of groups of 3 to 4 students to translate a text provided by the lecturer. After finishing the translation, the lecturer checks the groups' products by showing the model answers, followed by some discussions. From Setiani's observation and evaluation, the author discovers that the students became more dynamic, motivated, and enthusiastic while doing translation together. Additionally, they advanced their mastery in translating activities when they supported each other as groups. Group work in translation activities can bring a lot of benefits to the learners not only in direct classrooms but also in an online studying environment. Oraif and Elyas (2021) use breakout groups in an online learning application called Blackboard to let the students collaborate with their classmates and assist each other in translating given texts. Their results reveal that breakout groups on Blackboard were beneficial to the students in many ways. Oraif and Elyas's students expressed their positive views of collaborative groups by sharing that they could accomplish translation tasks faster, did not feel embarrassed about making errors, and would freely exchange solutions to any translation problems.

In the COVID-19 pandemic that occurred in the last few years, a useful method that can be implemented effectively for teaching online translation classes is the e-portfolio. In addition to group work, the author also applied an e-portfolio to assess students' progress in translation ability. After studying each unit, students were required to submit one translation paper of a provided text with the theme of that unit into Google Classroom. These submitted papers would

be reviewed and provided a score based on the quality of the translation works. In the next meeting in class, the model answer would be shown to the students so that they could understand their mistakes as well as whether their translation products were qualified to receive a high mark or not. Besides, they were asked to find one bilingual article (having English and Vietnamese versions of the same text) with the same theme of that unit from the Internet and submit it with the main translation paper. This activity aimed to help them self-study translation from the open sources on the Internet by looking at useful words or phrases in both Vietnamese and English language. Also, the students could find out which grammar point or sentence structure to be used when translating a sentence from English to Vietnamese and vice versa. Most of the articles were collected from official well-known online newspapers or government websites in Vietnam.

Regarding the translation process, an e-portfolio assists students in tracing back their progress, providing and obtaining feedback from different peers, and having a virtual room to sort their translation works, which can be accessed conveniently (Rahmawati & Hakim, 2018). Handayani et al. (2021) evaluate the students' translation skill using an electronic portfolio and reports that students get a more favorable reaction. Because their sensitivity to creating better translation products increased, and their mistakes can straightforwardly be understood by accessing their e-portfolio archive, the students have become more motivated, consequently leading to improved translation outcomes.

Although there have been a wide variety of research papers reporting students' frequently-made errors when learning translation, very few studies have listened to the students' voices about their problems, expectations, and thoughts about their studying effectiveness. This study would put an effort to let students raise their viewpoints and investigate them to understand their problems deeply, self-reflect on current applied teaching and learning activities, as well as suggest viable solutions to enhance students' performance in translation ability.

Research Questions

To accomplish the purpose of the study, the interview was seeking to answer the following research questions:

1. What are the difficulties that the Vietnamese students have encountered when studying the translation course at the Ho Chi Minh City University of Food Industry?

2. What are English-majored students' attitudes towards the translating activities applied in the translation course?

Methods

Pedagogical Setting & Participants

The target participants aimed to collect data for the study involved 12 Vietnamese English-majored students having studied the translation course in the first semester of the school year

2021-2022. All participants were third-year students of HUFI's Faculty of Foreign Languages. The participation of these students is on a voluntary basis. Half of them (50%) were male, and another half were female.

Design of the Study

With the aim of listening to the problems of the students as well as appraising the effectiveness of the Translation course in the English Linguistics curriculum from the students' perspectives, qualitative data were collected by means of open-ended interviews. This technique of data collection was selected in this study because the author would like to explore the profound opinions of the students about different features of the course.

Data collection & analysis

The instrument used to collect data was a focus group open-ended interview provoking students' thoughts. The interview sessions would be carried out in groups in order to help students avoid being reluctant to share experiences in one-on-one interviews. Furthermore, the questions asked in the interviews were open-ended to gather more detailed information on the students' experiences from their studying interactions.

All interview meetings consisted of 8 open-ended questions, which were asked in the same sequence. In order to make the interviewees feel comfortable and relaxed, they were allowed to respond to the interview questions in the Vietnamese language. Using their mother tongue also encouraged them to deliver further comments and to exchange views conveniently with each other. The interview content included the following questions:

1. What benefits do the subject 'Translation' bring to you?

2. In your opinion, between translating from English to Vietnamese and translating from Vietnamese to English, which one is more difficult? Why?

3. What are the difficulties you have to face when translating a text from English to Vietnamese?

4. What are the difficulties you have to face when translating a text from Vietnamese to English?

5. What do you think about group work in learning translation? (Is it effective? Why or why not?)

6. What do you think about the method of weekly collecting translation articles from the Internet?

7. How do you feel after learning translation?

8. What are your expectations from the lecturer to help you learn translation better?

There were three meetings with the contribution of twelve volunteered participants randomly divided into three focus groups of four. Each session lasted about fifteen minutes and was conducted via Google Meet video conferencing software. The content of the interviews was

fully recorded with the awareness and authorization of all interview takers.

The interviews' content was fully transcribed into word files and then translated from Vietnamese into English. In the next step, the gathered data was prudently coded and examined line by line with the support of the available functions of Microsoft Word software. Following that, the analyzed data were categorized into five main themes: *benefits, difficulties, learning activities, attitudes, and expectations*.

The interviews' transcripts were coded by identifying and labeling keywords or phrases related to the core themes. Next, all coded terms were counted for their frequency of appearance. Finally, the qualitative data was intensely analyzed to prepare for the inductive findings in light of the research questions.

Findings and discussion

The subsequent findings were the result of analyzing and interpreting the coded segments from the focus groups' replies to the interview questions.

Benefits the subject 'Translation' brought to the students

Regarding the first questions of each interview, the participants were asked to share what they gained after studying the subject 'Translation' in their semester. Boosting word power, enhancing sentence structures, advancing translation techniques, and understanding implicit sense were the main benefits that the interviewees mentioned in their answers. One male student from group 1 shared his experience:

> *The 'Translation' subject brought me many benefits like reading more, experiencing more about how to write sentences in different ways, learning new sentence structures, and knowing good vocabulary.*

In addition to being learned new words and expressions from various topics, the students were taught how to choose proper equivalent words or phrases in the target language and how to apply them appropriately in different contexts. Another female student from group 2 also had the same view as the abovementioned one:

> *There were three benefits that I could clearly be aware of. First, this subject supported me in understanding word choices. Secondly, it helped me think more wisely when looking at a sentence instead of being affected by one single style of translation. Third, it made my grammar improve a lot.*

Besides the mentioned advantages, one male student from group 3 told his deep thoughts about his learning experience. He was impressed by the underlying implication behind the literal meanings when translating a sentence from the source language to the target language. He forcefully explained that:

> *I could find out more deeply about the source of the Vietnamese language by translating from English to Vietnamese, and understanding its implied meaning was very*

interesting. This subject helped me understand that translating not only polished the way of thinking as well as writing techniques regarding the literal meaning but also had to show literature knowledge and ability to comprehend the implicit meaning of a reading passage to translate more accurately and beautifully in the readers' eyes.

In comparison to the previous study by Nguyen and Ngo (2021), this study shares the same results regarding the benefits that learners gain after studying the subject of translation. Those good effects involve cultivating lexical resources, improving grammar structures as well as understanding cultural differences through being aware of the implicit meanings of each text.

Difficulties students encountered when learning translation.

The second, third, and fourth questions of each interview helped to answer the first research question. When being asked whether translating a text from English to Vietnamese or translating a text from Vietnamese to English was more difficult, most of the participants thought that the latter was more challenging for them. Ten out of twelve participants supposed that translating from Vietnamese to English was tougher than the opposite side because they believed that many Vietnamese words or phrases had no or very few similar equivalents in English. Consequently, they found it very hard to select suitable phrases or expressions to exactly describe the Vietnamese meaning in English. One female student from group 2 clarified that:

I think this is a two-way process, so both kinds of translation have the same difficulty level. However, in comparison between them, translating from Vietnamese to English has more trouble because I can consult various sources in my mother tongue surrounding me for references. In contrast, there is limited support when it comes to using English.

In another question regarding difficulties that students had to deal with when translating a text from Vietnamese into English, lack of lexical resources in English equivalents was still their biggest problem. Understanding Vietnamese folks and proverbs, as well as how to transfer those meanings into the English language, was not an easy task for the learners. Moreover, choosing correct tenses and compound and complex sentences were also other challenges to the students. One female interviewee from group 3 said that:

About translating from Vietnamese into English, the most difficult thing for me was finding a similar sentence structure and the most scrupulous adherence to the sense of the original texts. In Vietnamese, it is unable to transfer some sentences into Vietnamese if we keep their initial literal meanings. Instead, we need to understand the implied messages of those Vietnamese sentences. That is the reason why we need to find out and practice a lot in order to translate well.

On the other hand, having too many difficulties when translating from Vietnamese into English did not mean that the students did not meet any problems when translating in a reverse way. The participants were also interviewed about what challenges they had to face when translating

from English into Vietnamese. Inadequacy of vocabulary and grammar structures, as well as not correctly recognizing the contexts, were the main issues mentioned in the feedback. Furthermore, some English texts used metaphor, slang, similes, and idioms, which made the learners become confused when trying to understand the figurative sense or implicit meaning of the ideas inside those texts. As a result, they usually just translated the text based on the verbatim words and phrases because they did not get the true intention of the author of the text. One male student from group 1 added:

> *I think the difficult thing here is the author's way of using metaphor or implication in comparison. Due to cultural differences, instead of interpreting a text's hidden figurative sense, wrongly thinking about its literal sense sometimes makes me irrelevantly translate off the subject.*

Compared to prior studies by Pham (2017) and Phan et al. (2022), translation learners share the most frequent mistakes when doing translating activities. These common errors consist of lexis (word order, word choice, collocation, idioms), syntax (sentence structures), and grammar (tenses, passive voice, pronouns). In addition to similarities, the results of this study add that comprehending the figurative sense of a text is a challenging mission for the students. Because if they do not accurately recognize the implicit meaning of the source text, they may simply translate it into the target language with its literal meaning.

Students' perceptions of the learning activities

During learning interaction, the author applied group work activities in translation assignments by using the breakout rooms function on Zoom, a cloud-based video communications application officially used by HUFI during the online studying semester of the school year 2021-2022. Students were divided into groups and assigned to virtual breakout rooms to work together in translating given texts. After collaborating to complete the translating tasks, each group would present their work and compare the result with other works from other groups.

The fifth and sixth questions in the interview sessions assisted the author in partly answering the second research questions. In terms of using group work in translation assignments, most of the students supposed that it was effective because they could divide the translation process into different steps, and each step was in charge of one student, which boosted the speed of work. They recalled that working together as a group helped them find necessary words or phrases more quickly, correct mistakes from each other, and receive more varied ideas to select the best ones for their translation products. One student from group 1 said:

> *Working in groups would be helpful when members could receive proficient support from each other. Because of having groups, we had a variety of ways to translate a text. I believe that group work in translation is a good point. However, suppose all members in a group have the same level of language proficiency. In that case, I am afraid that we cannot solve some difficulties which I have mentioned in the previous questions.*

The above findings are similar to the discoveries of Setiani (2020) as well as Oraif and Elyas

(2021). It is obvious that group work activities let the students support each other in order to complete translating tasks. Students seemed to be more active, interested, and supportive while helping each other to translate a text. Collaborative work also allowed them to be more confident in exchanging ideas without fearing embarrassment.

As a matter of fact, not all the students agreed that collaborative work in translating activities was a good idea. Two interviewees claimed that translating in groups was not as efficient as translating individually because of some reasons. First of all, each teammate had his or her own style of expression, so the whole text could not have a strong connection. In addition, due to learning through an online platform, some teammates were still rather negative in communication and reluctant to speak out when discussing. One participant raised her concerns:

> *I have no idea. Because when we studied online, some of my friends showed very bad behavior in terms of connecting and communicating. They were shy to say their ideas verbally, so we had to type messages to chat. When working in a group at home, we couldn't agree on a suitable schedule to meet. Everyone has his or her own reasons for being absent, like 'My house is very noisy,' etc. In general, I cannot judge the effectiveness of group work activities at the moment.*

An overwhelming number of opinions agreed that the method of weekly collecting translation articles from the Internet was good and deserved to have long-term application in the next translation course. They thought that this activity could help them read more, learn more about difficult or technical terms as well as learn how to write sentences accurately. One student from group 3 explained:

> *This activity made me widen my knowledge about the lesson as well as collect more new vocabulary from the article and practice the translation skills learned in class and become more skillful in applying those skills. Next, reading bilingual articles from online newspapers is a good habit in the translation industry because these updated information sources are quick and easy to access. However, it is quite boring to read them.*

There was only one disagreement with this method. She told the truth that some of her friends and she rarely read nor analyzed the content they collected.

Although the format of applying the e-portfolio of this study is a little bit different from the ones applied by Rahmawati and Hakim (2018) and Handayani et al. (2021), the core effectiveness of this method is similarly viable. Most of the students from these studies showed a positive attitude towards using electronic portfolios in the subject of translation.

Students' expectations and level of satisfaction after studying translation

The last two interview questions helped to find out students' attitudes toward the translation course as well as their expectations over the course, which were mentioned in the second question. After raising their concerns, the students were expected to tell their feeling after studying this subject. They all thought that translation was a difficult but very fascinating

subject to study. In their opinion, it was hard because this subject required a stable foundation of grammar and vocabulary as well as various knowledge and skills from other subjects such as reading, writing, theory of translation, and so on. On the contrary, translation was also an interesting subject in the students' views because they felt that this subject was very useful in helping them learn the steps of translating a text most finely and accurately.

In terms of students' expectations from the course, their ideas were quite varied. One male student from group 1 expected that the lecturer should give more time for the students to think and translate. Furthermore, he suggested that more games should be added to translation activities. Additionally, one female student from group 3 raised that:

> *If possible, I still would like my translated works to be reviewed and revised by the lecturer so that I could be aware of all of my mistakes as well as could know how to translate a text in more different ways.*

Another student wanted to be provided full answer keys after each translation topic so that the students could review old lessons in case they forgot to record the lecture's presentation on Zoom. Regarding teaching attitude, it was recommended that the lectures continue to keep the sense of humor during class time in the next translation courses as they extremely preferred those humorous moments created by the lecturer. Moreover, one student shared:

> *I hope we can collect more translation articles from the Internet and translate them by ourselves to practice. Also, I expect that the lecture will continue to answer students' questions concerning translation even though the course has been over.*

Finally, when being asked about the students' satisfaction level after studying this translation course, most of them felt pleased or moderately pleased with the quality of the course. Although there were still some minor shortcomings throughout their learning experience, the students confessed that their core expectations were satisfied. One student commented:

> *I felt that everything was fine with the translation course in the last semester, so I did not expect more than that. I just hope that the lecturer will still maintain that interesting and effective teaching method.*

Conclusion

It can be clearly seen that translation is a critical subject in an English Linguistics curriculum. English-majored students at HUFI were well aware of the importance of learning this subject. Increasing word power, improving grammar and sentence structures, developing translation techniques, and recognizing an implicit sense of different texts' contexts were three main advantages that the translation course brought to the students. Despite the benefits, the findings from the study exposed that the major challenges that the students had to encounter throughout the translation course were the shortage of abundant lexical sources in both Vietnamese and English languages, weakness in grammar and sentence structures, and being unable to understand figurative meanings of a text when translating it into the target language, especially

from Vietnamese into English. Besides traditional activities like translating individually, group work and e-portfolio were implemented. Most of the students believed that collaborative activities were effective because they could assist each other and exchange ideas without feeling embarrassed. In addition to working in groups, weekly collecting bilingual articles from the Internet helped the students widen their knowledge, boosted their reading ability, and learn to write sentences more accurately. Although most of the interviewed students were satisfied or moderately satisfied with the course, some suggestions were raised for the lecturers to consider to enhance the quality of the similar courses in the future.

Because of time constraints, the major limitation of this study was that it mainly focused on interview data from a small-scale population. To gather more valuable data, further research can be carried on by getting a more significant number of volunteer participants from more classes. Besides, the qualitative data was just based on students' perceptions. Further research can also be done by investigating the lecturers' perspectives as well.

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Biodata

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Exploring EFL undergraduates' views of the impact teachers have on their online learning engagement during the COVID-19 pandemic in Vietnam

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ABSTRACT

	The COVID-19 pandemic has forced education systems worldwide to switch all learning and teaching to the virtual platform since late 2019. This swift transition has a certain impact on students' engagement during their online classes. Studies propose that online learning engagement, as a multidimensional construct, is affected by online connectivity and peer or teacher support. However, little has been done, specifically in the context of higher education in Vietnam, to study the influence of each factor separately. In pursuit of filling this gap, four focus group discussions are conducted. The discussions firstly aim to comprehend the participants' general perceptions about the influence of EFL lecturers on their online engagement, while the main part is to investigate how the four specific roles of online lecturers, including their pedagogical, social, managerial, and technical roles, affect learning engagement. This explanatory study concludes that how effectively EFL lecturers can perform these roles has a substantial impact on their students' engagement in learning English online. From the findings, the paper suggests language teachers should be provided with more training that caters to enhancing their flexibility in creating autonomy-supportive online tasks as well as their digital competence.
Keywords: EFL, teacher roles, online learning engagement, higher education, Vietnam	

Introduction

E-learning is more popular than ever because it is the mandatory means of education across the globe during the COVID-19 epidemic (Radha et al., 2020). In the context of higher education in Vietnam, the Vietnamese government has been implementing synchronous online learning for almost two years to sustain educational activities while protecting students and teachers from the threat of the virus (MOET, 2020). As expected, this learning mode has brought to the surface a range of challenges for learners and educators, one of which is the issue of making

students engaged in online classes. There have been works on discovering the degree to which students engage in English e-learning as well as exploring the determinants of online learning engagement (Atmojo & Nugroho, 2020; Famularsih, 2020; Laili & Nashir, 2021). However, such attempts are unfortunately scarce, let alone a more in-depth examination of the magnitude of how each factor influences EFL student engagement in online tertiary education in Vietnam. This study, therefore, is deployed to explore how EFL non-English major college students perceive the roles lecturers have in their online learning engagement.

Literature review

This part of the study is to review a range of literature relating to learning engagement and teacher roles. As for the former, various definitions and classifications of engagement are mentioned. Regarding the latter, the study specifically reviews the roles of online teachers as well as the ways they influence learners' engagement.

A. *Student engagement*
1. *Definitions*

There are different ways to define student engagement. The term can be understood as the degree of investment in terms of time and energy students dedicate to learning, which is identical to the "involvement, participation and commitment to some set of activities" (Fredricks et al., 2004; Mahdikhani & Rezaei, 2015, p. 110). The importance of understanding engagement in learning in general as well as in foreign language learning has been confirmed by many researchers. Fredricks et al. (2004) and Mosher and MacGowan (1985) both argue that strong engagement can prevent students from dropping out due to boredom or demotivation and positively influences academic success. In the field of language learning, concentration on the forms and functions of a target language is argued to be highly vital to help learners master that language (Schmidt, 2001; Gass, 2003). Moreover, Svalberg (2009) suggests the awareness of how engagement works can cast light on the rationales in terms of behaviors or attitudes behind a successful language learner. Regarding the nature of learning engagement, there is a general agreement among many practitioners that it is a multidimensional construct that incorporates the behavior, cognition, affection, and sociality aspects of a student (Fredricks et al., 2004; Henry & Thorsen, 2018; Hiver et al., 2021; Lambert et al., 2016; Svalberg, 2009). These dimensions of student engagement will be examined next.

2. *Dimensions of student engagement*

Concerning behavioral engagement, as stated by Fredricks et al. (2004), it is related to how participative learners are in academic and non-academic activities. Adhering to school regulations, paying persistent attention to lessons, or joining extracurricular activities are examples of behaviorally engaged students (Fredricks et al., 2004). Philp and Duchesne (2016) point out that a language learner's behavioral engagement is shown by him volunteering for interactive tasks. As for cognitive engagement, it is also about students willingly making investments in learning, but such efforts are made mentally (Fredricks et al., 2004). In other words, students cognitively engage in learning by applying various strategies such as raising

questions, explaining, or giving feedback to their peers (Fredricks et al., 2004; Helme & Clarke, 2001; Philp & Duchesne, 2016). In her work, Svalberg (2009) points out several indicators of cognitively engaged language learners, including their notice, memory, reflection, or inference of features of a language. Emotional engagement, in general, is about how students feel about their schools, learning tasks, peers, or teachers (Philp & Duchesne, 2016). Students can be considered positively and emotionally engaged when they are enthusiastic or interested in learning, while feeling worried, tired, or frustrated can disengage them from learning (Skinner et al., 2008). In language classrooms, indicators for emotionally engaged learners are their level of "willingness, purposefulness, and autonomy" in learning (Svalberg, 2009, p. 250). The final dimension, social engagement, is specifically relevant to the language learning context since it refers to learners' effort in whether they are willing to begin and prolong conversations (Philp & Duchesne, 2016; Storch, 2008; Svalberg, 2009). By reviewing the works on social engagement, Philp and Duchesne (2016) propose that this dimension can determine the success of learning a language since socially engaged learners often embark on activities such as exchanging ideas or providing peer feedback.

It is worth mentioning that these dimensions of engagement are argued to influence each other (Fredricks et el., 2004; Hiver et al., 2021; Philp & Duchesne, 2016; Svalberg, 2009). For example, Philp and Duchesne (2016) and Hiver et al. (2021) suggest emotional engagement can affect other dimensions of engagement in the way students exert efforts as well as coming up with different strategies to complete a learning task. Svalberg (2009) also proposes that whether students are willing to interact with their peers is determined by their current feelings. In other words, social engagement is dependent on emotional engagement. The role of behavioral engagement in affecting the remaining dimensions is also confirmed in the work of Luan et al. (2020).

3. Factors affecting student engagement
• The determinants of learning engagement

As stated previously, student engagement is a multifaceted notion in which its different dimensions are "interrelated" with one another (Fredricks et al., 2004, p. 61). To understand how such correlations take place, a range of studies about the determinants of learning engagement is examined.

One of the most cited works on student engagement, specifically the "antecedents of engagement," is by Fredricks et al. (2004, p. 73). There are four factors in their effort to summarize what influences learner engagement. Firstly, how an institution is organized, including its size or rules, can determine its students' behavioral engagement. Secondly, what is taking place inside a classroom is held accountable for the level of learning engagement. Precisely, whether peer support exists in a classroom can predict how engaged students are. While being accepted by other classmates can help a student grow more interested in their school, he or she can demonstrate poor manners when experiencing rejection or distrust from their peers (Fredricks et al., 2004; Svalberg, 2009). In their attempt to study the roles peer support plays in learning engagement, Dao and McDonough (2018) discover that EFL learners

are more socially and cognitively engaged when paired with those with higher proficiency. The explanation for this is that the formers are supported linguistically by the latter, which allows them to gradually perform better and become more active in a given task (Dao & McDonough, 2018). In addition, academically and personally, teacher support is argued to influence the three dimensions of engagement. For instance, when students know they are cared for by their teachers, they are willing to pay attention and adjust their attitudes more positively. Fredricks et al. (2004) also point out that by creating an environment where students know they are respected and supported, teachers are more likely to make students "more strategic about learning," which means they become more cognitively engaged (p. 75). This is furthered by Svalberg (2009) when she states language teachers can make their learners more emotionally engaged by providing clear instructions or informing students of the rationales behind what they must do. The next classroom-relevant context is about how the class itself is run. In their findings, Fredricks et al. (2004) conclude that a classroom with its norms being efficiently executed is bound to result in "higher time on task and fewer disciplinary problems" (p. 77).

In other words, behavioral engagement is increased. Whether students can be autonomous in learning is the last factor belonging to the classroom context category. In particular, learners tend to be more strategic as well as persistent when allowed to make choices in terms of tasks, which are signs of cognitive and behavioral engagement. The third indicator of learning engagement is the nature of a learning task. By reviewing the work of Newmann (1991, 1992) and Guthrie and Wigfield (1999, 2000), Fredricks et al. (2004) discover the five traits of an engagement-stimulating task. In particular, a task should be realistic and encourage all sorts of talents and skills from students to complete it. In addition, a good task should aim to generate learners' autonomy, collaboration, and joy. Some of these characteristics are identical to what Svalberg (2009) proposes about the kinds of language tasks that foster engagement. First of all, a task should be designed in a way it can provide a competitive yet enjoyable environment. Furthermore, high relevance in terms of a task topic and how it is performed must be considered. The fourth indicator refers to the relationship between students' needs and their learning engagement. According to Fredricks et al.'s findings (2004), students are more engaged when their needs for relatedness, autonomy, and competence are satisfied. Regarding the first type, it is about feelings of belonging. Fredricks et al. (2004) argue that if students find their classroom safe and supportive, they are more willing to engage in learning, which is clearly a sign of strong emotional engagement. As for the needs for autonomy, they are met when students are allowed to make choices or decisions regarding the types of learning activities. This, as a result, leads to them being more participative and interested in their schoolwork, which is related to increased behavioral and emotional engagement. Needs for competence refers to the belief that students can be in control of what they should do to thrive in class. This need can be achieved when students find themselves in a well-managed classroom where the input they receive is sufficient to help them learn successfully.

- *Studies about the factors influencing student engagement during the COVID-19 pandemic*

During the COVID-19 pandemic, the application of online learning on a global scale has exposed schools to many challenges, one of which is the problem of poor learning engagement (Aboagye et al., 2021; Mseleku, 2020). In the context of teaching and learning English in universities in Asia, there have been several efforts to investigate the causes of this phenomenon. The quantitative investigation by Susanti (2020) suggests that undergraduates' behavioral engagement is relatively high, which is shown by their attempts to pay attention to online lessons and submit their assignments on time. However, these learners' cognitive and emotional engagement are unstable. As for the former, though the claim is they can understand the lessons, they experience difficulties in expressing their ideas when having to perform a task online. Similarly, fears of mistakes exist among the participants, which results in their silence during an online lesson, despite the fact their interest in the lesson remains high. While cognitive engagement is reported to be relatively positive due to the students being able to use Google Classroom efficiently, the work by Simbolon (2021) confirms that "the lack of familiarity" in using the application can be an impeding factor to their engagement (p. 167). Furthermore, Simbolon (2021) also argues an online task in terms of its design and characteristics is related to their engagement in performing it, which reflects what Fredricks et al. (2004) and Svalberg (2009) suggest what an engaging task should be. In their understanding of tertiary students' views about their e-learning experience, Laili and Nashir (2021) also discover that students tend to have heightened attention to online lectures regardless of them occasionally experiencing technical issues such as unstable Internet connection. This is also demonstrated by their effort in handing assignments prior to their deadlines. Nevertheless, these undergraduates are poorly engaged in terms of their emotions and interaction. 75% of the responses reveal that communication breakdown tends to take place in an online lecture if the Internet connection is disrupted. Another reason for such breakdowns is the students are unable to express themselves via their device screen fully. This, as a result, leads to boredom in learning, which indicates a decrease in emotional engagement. Also, trying to study engagement from students' perspectives, Luan et al. (2020) point out the major role that behavioral engagement in fostering or hampering how tertiary EFL learners are socially, cognitively, and effectively engaged in their online lessons. Furthermore, the level of behavioral engagement is determined by the degree of teacher support they receive during the e-learning process (Luan et al., 2020). This is identical to what Laili and Nashir (2021) argue about the role of online teachers in keeping their students engaged in interacting with each other. Aboagye et al. (2021), while studying the challenges college students face in a virtual class, also propose that teachers with inadequate training in online teaching can negatively impact the degree of learning engagement.

The above literature is of vast significance in pointing out two arguments. Firstly, student engagement is a multidimensional concept that can be studied and understood differently depending on the context in which it is investigated (Christenson et al., 2012; Janosz, 2012).

Secondly, though many factors might determine online learning engagement, teachers are always among the most influential antecedents in helping students experience "less boredom and engaging more" in learning (Wang et al., 2017, p. 9). Therefore, the roles of teachers have been the center of attention in a number of studies (Alvarez et al., 2009; Baran et al., 2011; Franklin & Harrington, 2019; Maor, 2010). Such roles are challenged even more during the COVID-19 pandemic, especially in the developing countries of Southeast Asia, where teachers may not be sufficiently equipped with the essential skills to teach online effectively, thus leading to poor learning engagement (Ulla & Perales, 2021). Consequently, the final part of the literature is dedicated to reviewing teacher roles in an online classroom and how this factor influences student engagement.

B. *The roles of online teachers and their effects on student engagement*

According to Berge (1995), for teachers to foster an effective virtual learning environment, there are four roles they must fulfill, which are "pedagogical, social, managerial, and technical" (p. 2). While the first role refers to teachers working as a facilitator who helps students comprehend a lesson, the second role is about creating a close-knit online classroom where classmates are respected and, therefore, willing to interact with each other. Regarding the managerial role it is about the ability of teachers to organize the flow of discussions in an online lesson, which includes introducing and applying rules or procedures for the sake of effective interactions among students. The final role requires online teachers to familiarize students with any online systems or software implemented for their online classroom. Berge (1995) emphasizes that this role must be carried out properly, which allows students to focus on a learning task comfortably. Such claims regarding the roles of online teachers can be argued to be the foundation for the later attempts to identify what teachers are expected to do to establish an engaging online lesson (Aydin, 2005; Anderson et al., 2001; Bawane & Spector, 2009; Goodyear et al., 2001). These roles are summarized in Table 1.

Table 1- The roles of an online teacher

Researchers	Online teacher roles
Berge (1995)	Pedagogical, social, managerial, technical
Anderson et al. (2001)	Organizer, discourse facilitator, direct instructor
Goodyear et al. (2001)	Content facilitator, technologist, designer, administrator, process facilitator, adviser, assessor, researcher
Aydin (2005)	Content expert, process facilitator, instructional designer, adviser, technologist, assessor, material producer, administrator
Bawane and Spector (2009)	Professional, pedagogical, social, evaluator, administrator, technologist, adviser, researcher

Several studies have acknowledged the significance of online educators in fostering or hindering their learners' engagement. The findings from Gray and DiLoreto (2016) suggest an effective online classroom can be defined as how a teacher works as a technological strategist by coming up with different online activities or tools to encourage student engagement. Almarghani and Mijatovic (2017) further this by arguing teachers with sufficient online teaching techniques but being passive in using them are unlikely to engage their learners. On the other hand, by taking an active role, online lecturers are bound to increase the level of student engagement in group discussions, presentations, or debates (Almarghani & Mijatovic, 2017). More recently, the instant shift from offline learning into virtual learning due to the COVID-19 pandemic has driven more practitioners to investigate how this transition affects the ways online instructors engage or disengage their students. Thornberg et al. (2020) categorize "teacher doing" and "teacher being" as the substantial determinant of online learning engagement (p. 1). The former refers to how lecturers apply various methods to teaching virtually and their ability to manage online classrooms. In other words, a teacher's pedagogical and managerial are paramount. The latter term is related to a range of traits that students expect their teachers to possess in a virtual classroom. These characteristics include kindness, consideration, helpfulness, skillfulness, fun, and fairness. Such qualities are argued to resemble the social role suggested by Berge (1995). However, suppose teachers are unable to perform such roles. In that case, namely the technical role, their students are likely to demonstrate poor participation or boredom in online lessons, which are identified as declined behavioral and emotional engagement (Ulla & Perales, 2021).

Research Questions

This study, therefore, aims to answer a research question:

> How do non-English major undergraduates in Vietnam perceive the influence of online teachers on their English learning engagement?

Methods

Pedagogical Setting & Participants

Although universities across Vietnam have recently been able to resume on-campus teaching, the struggles that both lecturers and students faced in the period between 2019 and 2021, when online education was the only viable means, are worth examining to better equip educators with the capability to deliver proper online lessons whenever necessary. To answer the research question, the study aims to collect data from non-English major undergraduates at the Ho Chi Minh City University of Food Industry. The rationale for choosing such participants is they are the ones who are directly affected by the pandemic. In other words, it is students who are capable of "accurately recalling and reporting their engagement" (Hofkens & Ruzek, 2019, p. 315). Moreover, the fact the participants come from different classes is likely to increase how dynamic their responses are to the issues relevant to engagement, which reflects the

multifaceted and contextual-dependent nature of learning engagement (Fredricks et al., 2004; Christenson et al., 2012; Janosz, 2012; Philp & Duchesne, 2016). Furthermore, it is crucial to point out all the participants in this context attended their online English class via Zoom once a week during the most recent semester, which lasted 15 weeks. During the term, they had two lecturers, a Vietnamese and a foreign one, teach them English on an odd and even weekly basis. In addition, on the days when a foreign lecturer was in charge, a Vietnamese teacher still had a duty to stay in the Zoom class to provide any assistance if needed. With regards to how the respondents are chosen, the author sent his colleagues a Google Form link in which the study is introduced along with the call for participants. The colleagues then shared this link on social media. After two weeks, there was a total of 40 students responded to the link and 25 of them claimed they were available to attend the research. However, only 20 respondents could join the discussions, while the remaining could not due to their personal reasons.

Design of the Study

This study is exploratory in its nature. First of all, this design is applied to "scope out" the significance of a phenomenon or behavior. This is identical to the study's aim, which is to examine how influential teachers are in affecting online learning engagement (Bhattacherjee, 2012, p. 6). Second of all, the characteristic of exploratory work is it does not primarily try to discover any particular solutions to a research problem but rather serves as a call for "more in-depth" attempts, which is in line with the scope of this study (Bhattacherjee, 2012, p. 6).

Data collection & analysis

Focus-group discussion is applied to collect the participants' perceptions. The interest in this instrument has been growing over the previous decades as it is "effective" and "economical" (Morgan, 1996; Birmingham & Wilkinson, 2003, p. 90). It can be defined as the activity when individuals are grouped and interact with each other to discuss a given subject (Powell & Single, 1996). It is the interactive nature of focus groups that helps distinguish them from group interviews where all group members are interviewed simultaneously (Gibbs, 1996; Morgan, 1996). Birmingham and Wilkinson (2003) also add that successful focus-group discussion allows participants to not only freely express their views but also comment on others', through which "richer, deeper and more honest" responses are likely to be obtained (p. 92). This also explains why a focus group discussion is chosen for this study since the participants may find it more comfortable to interact with each other rather than directly with the interviewer, thus contributing to the higher quality of the data collected. Regarding the participants, the author chooses them by basing on the criterion of forming focus groups. Specifically, they are non-English major students coming from different English classes with different experiences in studying the subject online as well as "strong opinions" about the topic of this research that they are eager to share (Birmingham & Wilkinson, 2003, p. 98). As for the interviewer, though he does not seem to take an active role in the discussions, his part is still crucial in planning the meetings with great care in terms of seeking appropriate participants, forming questions, and analyzing the data (Birmingham & Wilkinson, 2003). Moreover, he needs to be an effective facilitator who probes questions, encourages everyone to contribute, and at the same time

"keeps the session focused" (Gibbs, 1996, p. 5). There is a total of four groups with five members in each, which is an ideal condition concerning group size and the likelihood of good quality responses emerging (Birmingham & Wilkinson, 2003; Morgan, 1996).

Results/Findings and discussion

Table 2: Focus-group questions

No.	Question
1.	What do you think about the roles of lecturers in your online learning engagement?
2.	In your experience, how can the pedagogical role of a lecturer affect your online learning engagement?
3.	In your experience, how can the social role of a lecturer affect your online learning engagement?
4.	In your experience, how can the managerial role of a lecturer affect your online learning engagement?
5.	In your experience, how can the technical role of a lecturer affect your online learning engagement?

As can be seen from Table 2, each discussion contains a set of five items designed to capture the members' perceptions. For the convenience of every group member in terms of time and language, the discussions are carried out and recorded in Vietnamese using Google Meet after school. All the recorded responses are then translated and transcribed in English prior to being thematically analyzed. It is also worth acknowledging the moderator briefly defines the four roles and gives examples for each before starting a discussion to make the participants know clearly about the topic, through which richer responses for questions 2 to 5 can be attained.

1. The general belief regarding lecturers and online learning engagement

The undisputed role of lecturers is acknowledged by all the groups though there is a difference in terms of how much it affects engagement. Specifically, while one group agrees that EFL teachers can be quite influential, the remaining three groups confirm a larger degree of effect teachers have on their engagement. The typical replies to this question are below.

> *I believe what teachers do in an online classroom can affect student engagement to a certain degree.* (Group 4 – Member 2)

> *Indeed, for me, lecturers can greatly impact my engagement in studying English online.* (Group 1 – Member 1)

2. EFL teachers' pedagogical role and online learning engagement

The discussions can let emerge the two themes related to how teachers can pedagogically influence the online engagement of EFL students. Firstly, a dictatorial lecturer who always forces things upon his learners is likely to hinder their engagement.

> *My lecturer rarely listens to what we have to say. He always wants to be the one controlling everything in our online lessons. This is really frustrating.* (Group 1 – Member 5 – declined emotional engagement)

> *He gives us a task and asks for our responses. In return, we do try to answer but never get a chance to speak freely since he never lets us finish our parts. I feel really discouraged because I have been preparing for the task so well.* (Group 2 – Member 5- declined emotional engagement)

> *My lecturer never explains why an answer is right or wrong while we need to understand it.* (Group 3 – Member 1 – declined cognitive engagement)

> *My lecturer always gives us a list of correct answers to our exercises without explaining them. We don't have an opportunity to comprehend a lesson fully because of this.* (Group 4 – Member 3 – declined cognitive engagement)

The second theme, which is also the most discussed one among the participants, refers to the flexibility in teaching English online. This quality of online lecturers, according to the focus groups, can be shown through their constant variation of the kinds of activities, especially the interactive ones, assigned to students.

> *I can understand a lesson more easily since my lecturer often links what he's teaching with reality.* (Group 1 – Member 4 – increased cognitive engagement)

> *The different activities my lecturer assigns us to do, give us a chance to interact with each other, which makes a lesson less boring.* (Group 2 – Member 2 – increased social/emotional engagement)

> *Knowing my lecturer always invests a lot in his teaching, I am willing to ask questions about the lesson.* (Group 2 – Member 4 – increased cognitive engagement)

> *My lecturer can make very funny and realistic examples about a grammar point she's teaching. I find that very interesting.* (Group 3 – Member 4 - increased emotional engagement)

> *I agree; my lecturer usually has an activity at the end of a unit to help us reflect on what we have learned.* (Group 3 – Member 5 – increased cognitive engagement)

> *I usually feel fun when joining my online class because my lecturer has many activities for my friends and me to talk to each other. Not just that, thanks to these exercises, I can review my previous knowledge.* (Group 4 – Member 2 – increased emotional/cognitive engagement)

I like it when my lecturer put us in pairs in a break-out room. It's more comfortable for us to communicate and brainstorm ideas for a given task. (Group 4 – Member 1 – increased social/cognitive engagement)

My foreign lecturer gave us a lot of speaking tasks which encouraged us to stay focused to interact properly. (Group 2 – Member 2 – increased behavioral/social engagement)

3. EFL teachers' social role and online learning engagement

The responses to this question suggest that a lecturer's characteristics can influence the degree of online engagement. In this context, it is the friendliness and enthusiasm of the lecturers that make the online environment more positive, which fosters positive feelings among the students. As a result, these students are more engaged in communicating with each other.

Sadly, I feel like my lecturer does not care about us. She just goes through everything from the book without having us communicate. I find her online lessons very boring. (Group 1 – Member 3 – declined emotional engagement)

My lecturer is very friendly. This helps her create a very relaxing learning engagement though we are doing it online. (Group 2 – Member 4 – increased emotional engagement)

Thanks to my lecturer's enthusiastic attitude in instructing us, I grow more confident in communicating with my peer. (Group 3 – Member 3 – increased emotional/social engagement)

Because my foreign lecturer cannot pronounce our names precisely, it is hard for us to actually know if he's calling us, so we hesitate to answer his question. Unfortunately, my Vietnamese lecturer did nothing about it, so the environment was very confusing. (Group 4 – Member 3 – declined behavioral/social engagement)

4. EFL teachers' managerial role and online learning engagement

With regard to the management role of English lecturers, it all comes down to the degree of online classroom discipline they are willing to execute. In particular, the following comments demonstrate how different degrees of discipline can determine student engagement.

My lecturer is ready to award us with bonus points if we show him that we want to learn. Meanwhile, he can be very strict with those who lack attention to the lesson. This really pushes me to stay concentrated when learning with him. (Group 1 – Member 2 – increased behavioral engagement)

My lecturer often tends to invite those students who don't raise their hand during a Zoom lesson. This drives everyone to stay alert in learning. (Group 3 – Member 4 – increased behavioral engagement)

Though I like the fact my lecturer allows us to join a break-out room to talk to each other, I must admit he may not be able to manage every room effectively since there are too many of them. Some of my friends can just sit in front of their screens and do nothing, and that often goes unnoticed. (Group 2 – Member 3 – declined behavioral engagement)

It is always weird for my foreign teacher to check attendance, we have no idea which name he is pronouncing, and my Vietnamese lecturer does not seem to care about it. I mean, I still see her online in Zoom, but she does nothing. As a result, some of us are thought to be absent, which is not really fair. (Group 1 - Member 3 – declined behavioral engagement)

5. EFL teachers' technical role and online learning engagement

The more familiar and flexible an EFL lecturer is in using different applications or websites is bound to nurture online engagement in learning English. Specifically, an attractive Powerpoint presentation enables lecturers to draw their students' attention. In addition, students feel they are being cared for since their instructor creates online group chats to help them with a lesson. They also benefit from the several English learning websites sent by their teachers through which they can recap recently taught grammar or vocabulary.

The well-designed Powerpoint slides by my lecturer really caught our attention to what is being presented. (Group 1 – Member 4 – increased behavioral engagement)

While my foreign lecturer is in charge, my Vietnamese lecturer usually supports us via a chat app if she finds us struggling with our tasks. I really like and appreciate it. (Group 1 – Member 2 – increased emotional engagement)

When my lecturer experienced an issue with Zoom, she quickly changed to using Google Meet. Our focus on the lesson is rarely affected, thanks to this. (Group 2 – Member 4 – increased behavioral engagement)

My lecturer often ends a lesson with an online game that aims at helping us review the lesson. (Group 3 - Member 5 – increased cognitive engagement)

My lecturer not only introduces a range of English learning applications to us, but he also guides us to use them. I feel very secure in his class, which helps me be more willing to respond to him. (Group 4 – Member 2 – increased emotional/social engagement)

Interpretation of the results

The responses above are among the most typical comments that confirm the significance of every role of a lecturer in encouraging or diminishing learning engagement. Aside from that, the interrelationship among the dimensions of engagement is also shown through some responses. Firstly, regarding the pedagogical role, lecturers may risk causing students to experience negative emotions such as frustration and demotivation if they keep dictating what the students do in an online classroom. Furthermore, it is this behavior of lecturers that is likely to influence how they provide feedback on any performance from the students. Specifically, some respondents claim that their chances to process the rationales for the answers to a particular exercise are taken away as their lecturers merely provide the answers without explaining anything. In other words, these participants are unable to engage cognitively.

Another aspect relating to the pedagogical role is the degree to which lecturers try to vary their teaching techniques. Specifically, lecturers' flexibility in terms of varying teaching activities is reported to greatly impact a specific dimension of engagement which then influences the others. Secondly, if lecturers can fulfill their role in creating a friendly and caring online learning environment, they are likely to raise their students' social engagement. On the contrary, by reacting indifferently to the students' struggles, lecturers will gradually reduce the attention of the students, thus making them less willing to engage socially. Thirdly, by applying different strategies to maintain online attention, such as giving additional points to a student who shows active participation or constantly calling different students to respond to a task, lecturers can help increase the learners' behavioral engagement. Finally, similar to how the other roles have affected online learning engagement, the technical role of lecturers can also trigger a chain reaction in terms of learning engagement in students. Some respondents state that by introducing students to a certain English learning application along with guiding them on how to use it properly, a lecturer can make these learners feel they are well cared for in his online class. This, as a result, pushes the learners to be more ready to interact with the lecturer. In other words, the learners become more socially engaged.

Discussion

The above findings echo what has been known about teacher roles and student engagement in e-learning. Besides, the study manages to bring to light the factor of having a foreign lecturer co-teach an online class with a Vietnamese counterpart, which will be discussed at the end of this section. Albeit not being the sole source of influence on student engagement in e-learning, EFL lecturers are perceived among the four focus groups as a highly impactful force that can determine their engagement. How the pedagogical, social, managerial, and technical roles of online teachers specifically affect the members of each focus group aligns with what has been found from an array of studies.

The findings relevant to the first role suggest that an online lecturer's dictatorship and flexibility are certain to influence different dimensions of his learners' engagement. This is, in fact, similar to what Fredricks et al. (2004), Franklin and Harrington (2019), and Aladsani (2022) argue about teachers should encourage learner autonomy by giving them choices to make through which they can freely think more strategies to handle a task. In addition, Svalberg (2009) recommends that language teachers should create a task or stimulate a classroom where learners can experience a sense of joy. Unfortunately, some participants of the study must experience an online English lesson with a lecturer dictating everything they do, consequently negating their cognitive and emotional engagement. The last and also the most frequent theme relating to the pedagogical role in this study is the significance of teachers' flexibility in nurturing online learning engagement. Such a finding also surfaces from the previous works attempting to identify how teachers affect learner engagement. Specifically, the students in these contexts admit their boredom in learning declines, and they are more eager to interact with each other if teachers manage to raise "the level of variation" or "employ many efficient strategies" in

teaching (Thornberg et al., 2020, p. 10; Aladsani, 2022, p. 178). In the context of language learning, such variations can be done by teachers creating topical and collaboration-stimulating tasks (Fredricks et al., 2004; Svalberg, 2009; Philp & Duchesne, 2016; Pham et al., 2021).

The findings referring to the effects the social role of teachers has on the participants' engagement reveal that online teachers' friendliness or enthusiasm can result in an emotionally safe online environment where student engagement flourishes. Franklin and Harrington (2019) share the same view by stating that friendly or kind teachers can serve as a model which "promotes higher levels of classroom participation" (p. 3). Moreover, the idea that teachers' sociability or enthusiasm can benefit learning engagement is proposed by Thornberg et al. (2020). Their theory of "teacher being" portray such qualities of teachers as one of the elements contributing to "students' academic engagement" (pp. 11-12).

With regards to how lecturers' ability to manage an online classroom influences the participants' behavioral engagement, the study also reflects what Fredricks et al. (2004) claim about teachers being able to establish the kind of classroom norms that leads to students paying more attention to a given task. Furthermore, Franklin and Harrington (2019) point out it is of utmost importance for teachers to formulate the kind of expectations they wish to see when students communicate together to foster mutual respect, which safeguards their positive behaviors. In other words, students are to demonstrate "great compliance" with their learning because they receive support and respect from their teachers and classmates (Luan et al., 2020, p. 8).

Most of the comments about the technical role of English lecturers in this study suggest that teachers who are digitally competent and willing to make flexible use of such competence are sure to engage their students in English e-learning. This is in line with Laili and Nashir's findings (2021) which state students' learning remains least interrupted in the face of unstable connection since their teacher has posted the learning materials on their Whatsapp group. However, Simbolon (2021) states that some of his undergraduates possess "limited familiarity" with their online learning platform, which disengages them from interacting effectively with their teacher (p. 167). Likewise, the undergraduates in Luu's investigation (2022) admit they have to face many challenges when studying English online because of their lecturer's "incompetence" in performing his technical role (p. 221). These results demonstrate the importance of teachers in "utilizing a variety of technology tools" for the sake of fostering engagement in an online classroom (Aladsani, 2022, p. 178).

It is worth stating that a teacher's capability in terms of his positive personality and pedagogical, managerial, and technological competence is of no value if he does not have an intention to act on it (Almarghani & Mijatovic, 2017). This is true to the context of the study. Though the majority of the participants possess quite an ideal degree of engagement due to their lecturers being able to perform their different roles effectively, those with a less positive experience should not be ignored. Specifically, some respondents do not receive sufficient support from their lecturers when it comes to correcting exercises and studying with a foreign lecturer. The first issue is likely caused by lecturers being unable to fulfill their pedagogical role, which has been discussed previously. Meanwhile, the second is considered quite a unique issue. The

degree of assistance the Vietnamese lecturers are willing to give to their expatriate colleagues can also manipulate the participants' online engagement. This paper considers this a unique discovery because every previous work mentioned in this study does not examine the interrelationship among native English teachers, non-native English teachers, and student engagement in e-learning.

Conclusion

The four group discussions confirm the relationship between EFL lecturers and online student engagement. Specifically, how efficient lecturers are in performing their pedagogical, social, managerial, and technical roles is proportional to how engaged their students are in learning English online. According to this study, the presence of a teacher's dictatorship in a classroom leads to a decline in students' cognitive engagement since they are not allowed to generate their own thoughts. As a result, this causes their frustration to rise, which is a sign of negative emotional engagement. Instead, when teachers strive to vary online learning activities, especially the ones in which students can freely interact with their peers, they are expected to raise students' interest in communication. In other words, students become more affectively and socially engaged. Secondly, caring teachers are likely to develop an online classroom where students feel safer and more confident to engage as they know they are respected. Thirdly, the matter of respect is, at the same time, achieved when lecturers prove their competence in managing the class with appropriate discipline. Finally, the participants are more ready to maintain their focus and invest more in learning English if they are carefully guided by the lecturers who possess great familiarity and flexibility in operating technological tools such as PowerPoint, applications, or websites. To put it in another way, students become more behaviorally and cognitively engaged if their teacher is a competent technologist. These findings confirm the multifaceted nature of student engagement which means the dimensions of behavioral, emotional, cognitive, and social engagement co-exist within a student, and they are connected with one another (Fredricks et al., 2004; Christenson et al., 2012; Hiver et al., 2021). Furthermore, it can be said that the EFL lecturers with high digital competence are often the ones with constant variations in terms of designing online tasks. In addition, several participants state not only do their lecturers provide them with different English learning applications or websites, but these lecturers also instruct them on how to use such tools effectively. This is consequently an indication of the technical and social role being properly performed. On the other hand, the context of this study shows that pedagogically, socially, and technically competent online teachers may not guarantee their efficiency in managing an online class which can put students' behavioral engagement at risk. Furthermore, the fact that there is a native English teacher and a non-native English teacher working simultaneously in an e-learning classroom and how the latter supports the former can also influence student engagement.

It can be concluded from the above summary that EFL lecturers need to be more prepared to deliver the kind of virtual lessons which strengthen online engagement in learning English.

Specifically, this study recommends that more in-depth training should be provided to EFL teachers to serve multiple purposes. Firstly, they must aim to raise the awareness of lecturers regarding how different online classes are from the face-to-face ones since the sudden transition from traditional face-to-face teaching to mandatory e-learning may put many lecturers in a confusing stage of how to teach effectively (Daniel, 2020). Secondly, these training sessions should emphasize the importance of English teacher flexibility in teaching an online lesson that contains a range of autonomy-stimulating tasks as students are more engaged when offered choices relating to their learning (Fredricks et al., 2004; Svalberg, 2009; Hiver et al., 2021). Thirdly, EFL lecturers should be trained on how to harness the usefulness of technological-related tools as well as the online world to attract and maintain students' attention. Most significantly, stakeholders must find an appropriate way to encourage lecturers to actually apply what they have attained from such training to teaching English online, as only the teachers with an "activating influence" are the ones who can foster their learners' engagement (Almarghani & Mijatovic, 2017, p. 11).

Two existing gaps can be identified in this study. Firstly, it is only conducted within one higher institution, especially in Ho Chi Minh city. This means its degree of generalizability may be low as student engagement could be understood more thoroughly if it is examined in many contexts (Janosz, 2012). Therefore, the results this paper yields may not be generalized, but such findings are expected to create "a holistic understanding" of the magnitude of EFL lecturers' roles in learners' online engagement from which larger-scale attempts can be made across universities to better understand the issue (Bhattacherjee, 2012, p. 40; Birmingham & Wilkinson, 2003). Secondly, the participants stated they are not so engaged in an online English lesson because of the problems related to their foreign lecturer. This is argued to be another gap in the study because it is not primarily designed to capture any matters regarding the roles of native English teachers, which should have been investigated separately due to their distinctive characteristics compared to Vietnamese EFL teachers. Another direction that future studies can take up is to identify whether there is a correlation between how supportive native and Vietnamese lecturers are of each other and online learning engagement.

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Investigating the Relationship between Home Literacy Environment (HLE) Activities and Emergent Literacy Skills Development

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ABSTRACT

Keywords: HLE; Emergent literacy skills; preschoolers, phonological awareness, decoding skills.

Early intervention is thought to be necessary to stimulate children's word knowledge. Children will be unable to encode and decode inputs on their own without adult assistance. As a result, interventions play a critical role in literacy development at all levels, especially during the emerging literacy phase, and parents are often the first to cast such interventions. The goal of this study is to identify the types of HLE Activities that parents regularly use, as well as the characteristics that contribute to the success of such activities in supporting the development of emerging literacy abilities in preschoolers. The current study surveyed 107 parents with preschoolers at home using a descriptive approach. The HLE activities in this study are limited to parent-child contact, phonological awareness, and decoding skills. The activities that parents most commonly carry out to promote the growth of emergent literacy skills are Phonic Awareness, which involves pointing out letters in isolation and words, and Decoding Skills, which involve introducing letters/words and their sound or pronunciation in songs or other fun ways. Then, in order to ensure the success of the implementation, parental education becomes a crucial aspect. Other issues, such as who raises preschoolers at home and infrastructure availability, become non-negotiable factors in determining the degree of HLE implementation. Overall, the study proposes that further research be done to help parents with less education and non-kinship caregivers practice HLE to help preschoolers develop their emergent reading abilities.

Introduction

One of the factors that have an impact on emergent literacy development is the home literacy environment (HLE). Children learn their first language in their homes. Furthermore, families, particularly mothers, are the primary caregivers that provide linguistic exposure to their

children. Children's decoding skills and phonological awareness, as well as spoken language skills, are elicited by mothers' conversations. Overall, though, children cannot become read by themselves. Niklas & Schneider (2013) and Vuong et al. (2021) suggest that early intervention is needed to stimulate children's word knowledge. Without assistance from adults, children will be unable to encode and decode inputs on their own. It is investigated in this paper how children's word knowledge is subsequently developed by providing children with the in-depth meaning of words, followed by the establishment of strings of semantic networks that become stronger predictors for later decoding and reading comprehension, allowing children to become critical readers at the end of the process. As a result, interventions become extremely important in literacy development at any level, particularly during the emergent literacy phase, and parents are the first actors to cast such interventions.

Emergent literacy development does, in fact, establish the groundwork for future literacy growth. However, increasing children's language skills cannot be done alone by preschool teachers. Nevertheless, the teachers' time and space in the classroom limit their involvement with children. Therefore, parents who have an abundance of time and space at home to spend with their children must take a greater role. As a result, HLE is the primary location where preschoolers learn and develop their language skills with their parents. Prior to formal schooling, parents are the primary educators of their children. Because not all parents can provide supportive HLE, Tong et al. (2021) have looked into some prospective places where parents might be trained to improve their children's language and literacy. They review parent-training studies of children's language and literacy in three contexts: parent-child book-reading, parent-child conversations, and parent-child writing in their article and find that parent-training programs, specifically shared book-reading, conversations, and writing interactions, are effective ways to improve preschool children's language and emergent literacy skills. Parents are taught in their studies to encourage their children to talk about the visuals in a book, to create fuller stories, and to focus on print to develop children's emergent print and writing skills. The study, however, believes that the findings can only be applied to a certain group. Future researchers will be able to see if parents' training is equally beneficial when applied to populations with varying levels of education.

Finally, HLE is regarded as the most important component that can explain a child's development of emergent literacy. It was developed for young children, notably preschoolers. Every child gets special treats, interventions, and stimulations at home to help them improve (White, 2021) their language abilities. For example, a child who receives a high level of vocabulary exposure at home through various activities will develop stronger vocabulary abilities than a child who receives low exposure at home. On the other hand, a school-aged child has superior reading abilities as a result of his prior experiences. They are exposed to a literacy-rich environment prior to entering their schooling years. The environment encourages youngsters to develop a profound understanding of words, allowing them to improve their ability to decode and comprehend strings of words in context printed materials (Pinto et al., 2013).

As emergent literacy has become a very illuminating issue in research, it opens opportunities for researchers to approach the issue from many different perspectives. Consequently, concepts behind the terminologies can be different to some extent; however, such different consensus among researchers has even enriched the concept behind the term "emergent literacy" (Hume et al., 2016; Lyakso et al., 2014). Researchers have come to a consensus on the term "emergent literacy" in support of emergent literacy theories. It refers to the process of learning to read and write on a continuous basis. The process of development begins in a child's early years before he or she enters formal schooling. Reading acquisition, on the other hand, implies a distinction between pre-reading and reading behaviors. This leads to a viewpoint in which pre-reading is regarded as a precondition for actual reading. As a result, while reading readiness refers to natural maturation or the acquisition of specific sets of discrete perceptual skills, the former emphasizes a broader sense that encompasses specific skills and a wide range of foundations to reading that emerge over the years of future schooling. In light of this viewpoint, it should be noted that the concept of emergent literacy has changed in recent years from convention to intentions. This means that emergent literacy now encompasses cognitive and socio-psycholinguistic theories; as a result, investigating emergent literacy requires a more dynamic and interactive process in which children are seen as active participants with intentions who assign meaning to print based on their experiences.

According to previous research, the characteristics of emergent literacy skills are linked to early decoding skills to predict subsequent reading ability. According to one theory, early oral language skills provide a basis for early and later decoding skills (phonological approach) (Liu et al., 2018; Lyakso et al., 2014; Quach et al., 2018). This approach suggests that children's vocabulary skills strongly envisage their phonological processing knowledge, which in turn forecasts reading skills during early school years. Furthermore, this perspective holds that oral language skills interact with decoding skills to predict future reading abilities, i.e., the cumulative language approach (Vandell et al., 2020). Consequently, emergent literacy skills are made up of both oral language and decoding skills that interact and provide equal variety in future reading abilities. Oral language abilities, phonological processing skills, and print processing skills, for example, all have an impact on one another (Girard & Girolametto, 2013; Puranik et al., 2011; Yeomans-Maldonado & Mesa, 2021)

In light of studies that show favorable connections between HLE and emergent literacy development, as well as their considerable effects on future reading skills and schooling achievement, there is a significant need to provide evidence that predicts the success of children's future learning. This is owing to the current regrettable situation in which, according to the results of the Program of International Student Assessment (PISA) for Indonesian students, the literacy rate is currently low. On the other hand, the government is constantly reforming the education system and processes to enhance the rate, which in turn means improving the quality of education. One way to reform is to instill a reading culture in children at a young age when they are still learning to read. This present study attempts to see the early process that has happened during the emergent phase of the children. Focusing on how parents'

efforts to intervene in their preschoolers to develop their emergent literacy skills, this present study figures out the activities utilized to help preschoolers to grow their emergent literacy skills.

Literature review

It is absolutely vital to notice and recall that emergent literacy development is linked to formal skills such as alphabet (letter) and word knowledge, print concepts and word or vocabulary recognition, phonological awareness, production, and narrative (Nicolopoulou et al., 2015). Such talents must be promoted, and children must also be intervened in order to acquire the skills and grow their emergent literacy. Furthermore, it is commonly acknowledged that emerging literacy skills serve as a foundation for children's future reading and learning.

Home is where the developmental process begins on the first day of life (White, 2021). As a result, a child's first resourceful site to acquire any exposure, including a language, is his or her home. When parents can establish a rich literacy environment for their children at home, the children will be able to do better in school. As a result, early childhood researchers regard HLE as a determining factor in later effective achievement. The majority of those researchers have proposed a wide range of literacy activities that have been carried out and have become strong causal variables in the development of children's literacy skills when they enter the schooling phases. The variety of literacy activities that make up the Home Literacy Environment (HLE) has led to discrepancies in concepts and perspectives among academics. Many studies concentrate solely on literacy activities (Guevara et al., 2020; Liu et al., 2018; Liu & Hoa Chung, 2022; Manolitsis et al., 2013; Myrtil et al., 2019; Nicolopoulou et al., 2015; Vuong et al., 2021). Others, such as (Girard & Girolametto, 2013), looked at five major skill areas that can be aided by home activities: phonological awareness, alphabetic knowledge, print concepts, vocabulary growth, and word recognition. On the other hand, others value parent-child interactions (Girard & Girolametto, 2013; Hume et al., 2016; Napoli & Purpura, 2018; Tong et al., 2021). In addition to parent-child interaction, some research associates HLE with other variables like parental book reading, storytelling, song singing, and the number of books at home (Quach et al., 2018; Rvachew et al., 2017; Shen & del Tufo, 2022a; Vuong et al., 2021). All these HLE variables have been found to influence young children's emergent literacy skills positively.

Aside from emergent skills, HLE is frequently identified as a predictor of future literacy development success. Synchronizing HLE and future learning, researchers claim that HLE is made up of various variables as a causal component for children's subsequent literacy knowledge. According to several studies, literacy-related activities can significantly determine children's literacy achievement (Pham, 2021). During activities such as reading books with their parents or participating in other literacy-related activities, children can be exposed to more linguistically sophisticated language and a broader vocabulary than they are exposed to during routine-based everyday activities such as mealtime and playtime (Gonzalez et al., 2011;

Jennings et al., 2012). Researchers have proposed that other features associated with HLE, such as vocabulary, exist. HLE was in charge of determining children's growth. (Goodrich et al., 2021; Liu & Hoa Chung, 2022).

Rather than some other research that studies the association between HLE and decoding skills, HLE and vocabulary have been confirmed to have a positive impact on the development of emergent literacy (e.g., letter recognition). In this regard, some studies have shown that HLE is both positively associated with concurrent decoding skills and predicts later decoding skills. (Girard & Girolametto, 2013; Lyakso et al., 2014; Niklas & Schneider, 2013; Quach et al., 2018; Shen & del Tufo, 2022b). In synchronizing between HLE and decoding skills, some researchers prefer to observe the skills before decoding. Researchers observe the association between HLE and phonological awareness (Lyakso et al., 2014)and awareness of rhyme and letter-sound knowledge(Liu & Hoa Chung, 2022). By the same token, studies conducted in the U.S. and other settings uncover consistent findings of HLE and phonological awareness(Niklas & Schneider, 2013). Higher HLE scores (e.g., more frequent engagement in reading activities) are associated with increased phonological awareness and letter-naming knowledge, according to those research studies. To put it another way, such research explains the situation. This phenomenon can be explained in part by the progression of young children's decoding skills over time. An expanded HLE allows toddlers to better understand the print-meaning relationship, which leads to the knowledge needed to learn to decode (Manolitsis et al., 2011). Overall, studies that demonstrate positive contemporaneous and predictive relationships of HLE with vocabulary have been more consistent than those that show positive concurrent and predictive associations of HLE with decoding skills. It is possible that HLE is connected with vocabulary and decoding skills in multiple ways.

As previously stated in this section, parents play an important role in the development of emergent literacy, which can be facilitated through a variety of HLE activities. Unfortunately, none of the studies look into the parents' educational backgrounds, which are thought to be related to the success of performing HLE activities. In light of this, the current study aims to examine parents' educational backgrounds and their relationship to HLE practices.

Research Questions

To fulfill the purpose of the study, the survey was seeking to answer the following research questions:

1. What HLE activities are promoted by parents to establish their children's emergent literacy skills development?

2. What is the relationship between parents' personal profiles and HLE activities?

3. How does the HLE influence the emergent literacy skills development?

Methods

Pedagogical Setting & Participants

By nature, a descriptive research design was chosen to investigate the intervention of parents to their children through the activities implied the attempts to establish Home Literacy Environment (HLE) and the relation between HLE and parents' personal background. Hence, the population of the present study was parents with children who were in the emergent literacy phase of preschoolers' development. Simple random sampling was used as a technique to approach the representatives of the population, so each of the population members had an equal chance to be selected. The researchers enlisted a sample frame to help them decide on the profile of the respondents needed for the study. The frame included age, education, occupations, monthly earnings, and child-rearing. In order to decide the number of the sample, it was determined that those who submitted the online survey constituted their consent to participate in the study.

Based on the frame determined by the authors, the respondents' profiles in this study could be described as the following:

a. the majority of preschoolers' ages were three years (25-36 months) and four years (37-48 months) with relatively the same percentage, namely 47.7% compared to 52.3%,

b. The majority of respondents of preschoolers' parents' ages were between 30 to less than 40 years (69.2%), while parents' education level mainly was a higher education level (Diploma/Bachelor) with a total of 59.8%.

c. Most of the respondents were from a working-age group (69.2%), with the most types of work being homemakers, private employees, lecturers, teachers, and civil servants, with a total of 83.2%.

d. More than half of the respondents had incomes above the local minimum wage, as much as 54.2%, and only 12.1% of respondents whose income was below the local minimum wage.

e. There were 43% of respondents who cared for their toddlers themselves, and the remaining 57% of respondents had their preschoolers cared for by other people. Most of the people who helped take care of toddlers were from the respondent's own family, either grandparents/aunts/ or others, with a percentage of 61.4%.

Design of the Study

In this study design, a survey was used to gain a greater understanding of a group of parents who reared preschoolers at home regarding their emergent literacy development phase. The survey consisted of a set of structured questions where each question was designed to obtain information about the background of the parents, the preschoolers' caregivers, and the state of the emergent literacy of the preschoolers. The survey was undertaken using online forms so that it was easy to access the respondents to share their information about particular issues. By

means of online distributions, it is more convenient to understand different populations or groups of people better. The survey has successfully gained 107 parents with preschoolers who are in the emergent literacy development phase.

Data collection & analysis

Through contact numbers on the author's mobile phones, the questionnaires are delivered to people with a variety of educational backgrounds; the national or second language is utilized to help them understand the questions (i.e., Indonesian language). In addition, the questionnaire used a six-scale Likert scale to describe the frequency of parents undertaking reading activities at home with their preschoolers, ranging from very low to very high. The exercises are separated into two categories: parent-child and phonic awareness and decoding skills activities.

The questionnaire used in the present study has passed validity and reliability testing that is demonstrated by the result of validity testing using *Pearson correlation* which shows that each statement item produced a significance value (Sig.) less than 5%, which means that the statement item is valid. The reliability is tested using Cronbach's alpha value which shows that the value is greater than 0.60, meaning that the questionnaire used in this study is reliable.

After testing the validity and reliability of the questionnaire, a descriptive analysis was carried out to describe or provide an overview of the research data, namely a description of the respondent's profile, a description of the Home Literacy Environment, and a description of the relationship between parents' profile and HLE.

Results/Findings and discussion

Description of Home Literacy Environment activities.

The HLE activities are described in 12 statement items. The description of the home literacy environment will be described based on the average value (mean) for each statement item and can be categorized as follows:

$$class\ interval\ = \frac{max - min}{class\ numbers} = \frac{6 - 1}{2} = 2.5$$

The scale in this study is 1 to 6, with two classes of category, low and high, so the class interval is known to be 2.5. With a class interval of 2.5, the following categories can be arranged:

$$1.0 < mean\ 3.5 : low\ category$$

$$3.5 < mean\ 6.0 : high\ category$$

The results of the description of each item of the statement of the home literacy environment activities are presented in Table 1 below:

Table 1. Home Literacy Environment (HLE) Activities

Variables	Min.	Max.	Mean	Category
Parents-child interaction activities: Shared Reading (LL.1a)	1	6	3.50	Low
Parents-child interaction activities – Reading books Aloud (LL.1b)	1	6	3.32	Low
Parents-child interaction activities – Telling Stories (LL.1c)	1	6	3.77	High
Parents-child interaction activities- Singing Songs or Playing with Rhymes (LL.1d)	1	6	3.98	High
Parents-child interaction activities – making book collections and reading nook at home (LL.1e)	1	6	3.39	Low
Parents-child interaction activities – playing words or alphabets puzzles associated with pictures (LL.1f)	1	6	3.68	High
Phonic Awareness and Decoding Skills Activities: Making Environmental Prints around the house (LL.2a)	1	6	3.40	Low
Phonic Awareness and Decoding Skills Activities: Asking Toddlers say out the first letter of a word (LL.2b)	1	6	2.64	Low
Phonic Awareness and Decoding Skills: Reading Aloud and Associated Pictures to Words and Pictures (LL.2c)	1	6	1.97	Low
Phonic Awareness and Decoding Skills: Point out letters in isolation and words (LL.2d)	1	6	4.72	High
Phonic Awareness and Decoding Skills Activities: Introducing Letters, Words and their sound or pronunciation in songs or other fun ways (LL.2e)	1	6	4.88	High
Phonic Awareness and Decoding Skills Activities: Identifying Alphabets (Letters) and numbers and recognizing words and pictures (LL.2f)	1	6	3.93	High
Mean variable			3.60	High

The results of the description of the HLE activities as a whole produce an average value of 3.60, which is in the high category (3.5 – 6.0), meaning that the home literacy environment that occurs in the respondent's family is already high, but still close to the low range or still far from perfect. The indicators of the literacy environment that have been carried out well are Phonic Awareness, including pointing out letters in isolation and words, and Decoding Skills, including introducing letters, words, and their sound or pronunciation in songs or other fun ways.

The description of the literacy environment activities based on the average value of each indicator can be more clearly illustrated in the bar chart as follows:
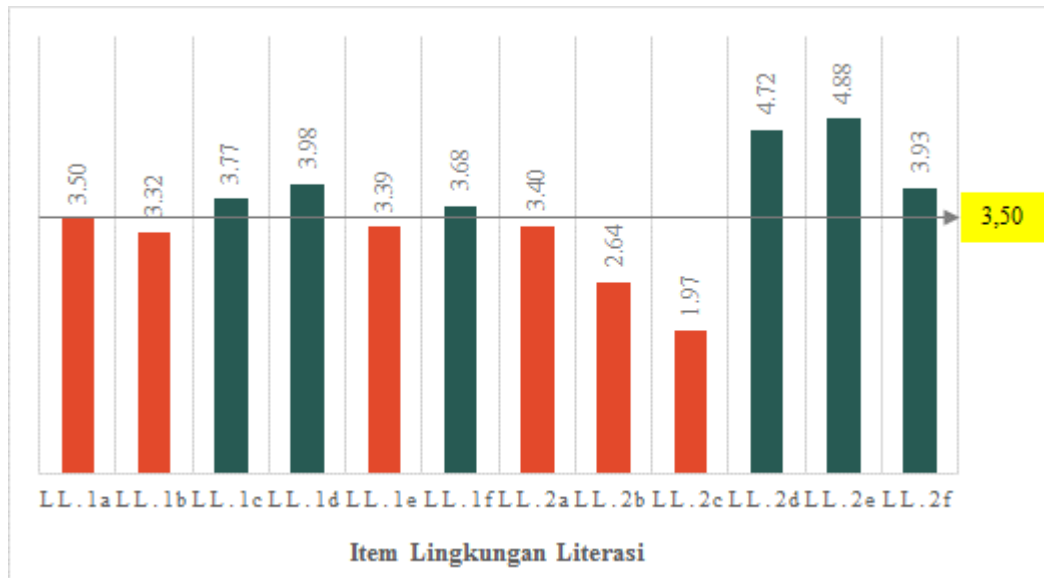
Figure 1 . Graph of Home Literacy Environment

Figure 1 shows six indices of HLE activities that are still ranked low (below the median value of 3.5), including:

1). Phonic awareness and decoding skills: reading aloud and associated pictures to words and pictures (1.97)

2). Phonic awareness and decoding skills activities: asking preschoolers to say out the first letter of a word (2.64)

3). Parents-child interaction activities – reading books aloud (3.32)

4). Parents-child interaction activities – making book collections and reading nook at home (3.39)

5). Phonic awareness and decoding skills activities: making environmental prints around the house (3.40)

6). Parents-child interaction activities: shared reading (3.50)

Relationship between Parents/Respondents' Profiles and HLE

The next analysis is to analyze the relationship between family profile and literacy environment in toddlers. The analysis technique uses the chi-square test on the cross-tabulation (crosstab) technique with the help of SPSS v.24 software. The chi-square test uses a guide if it produces a significance value (Sig.) less than 5%, then it is decided that there is a significant relationship, and if the value of Sig. is greater than 5%, it is decided that there is no correlation.

The results of testing the relationship between family profiles and the home literacy environment for preschoolers are presented in Table 2 below:

Table 2. C*ross Tabulation* Analysis on the correlation between respondent's profile and preschoolers' literacy environment

Respondents Profile	Sig.	Decision	Relationship pattern
Age	0.656	not significant	-
Education	0.010	significant	The higher the education level of parents, the better the home literacy environment
Work (NOT)?	0.760	not significant	-
Occupation Types	0.059	not significant	-
Family Income	0.140	not significant	-
Parents' child-rearing?	0.047	significant	Parents who look after their own preschoolers tend to provide a more literacy-friendly atmosphere for their children.
Caregivers	0.009	significant	Preschoolers reared by kinship caregivers (grandmother/grandfather, etc.) have a lower literacy environment than preschoolers raised by non-kinship caregivers.

Table 2 shows HLE for preschoolers, related to the education level of parents, child-rearing parents, and others who take care of the preschoolers. Based on the crosstab table regarding the pattern of linkages developed within the process of data analysis, it can be explained as follows:

1) The majority of respondents with a secondary education level experience a low degree of practicing the HLE activities (81.2%). Respondents with a Diploma/Bachelor's degree have a poor degree of practicing the HLE activities in the majority of cases, but the proportion is nearly identical to that of those with a high HLE, at 53.1 percent high against 46.9 percent low. Furthermore, individuals with a postgraduate education level (Master/Doctorate) have a high degree in the majority (66.7 percent). This data reveals that the greater the respondents' educational level is, the better degree of practicing the HLE activities for the preschoolers will be.

2) Respondents who do not look after their own preschoolers have a low degree of practicing the HLE activities in the majority of cases (60.7%), whereas those who do rearing their own preschoolers have a high degree of practicing the HLE activities in the majority of cases (58.7%). The data reveal that parents who look after their own preschoolers have a better practice of home literacy environment activities for their children than parents who have others look after their children.

3) In respondents whose preschoolers are cared for by their families (or relatives), the majority 71.4% of them have a low literacy environment; similarly, in respondents whose preschoolers are cared for by household assistants, the majority of them also have a low

literacy environment, but they are better than being cared for by families. Furthermore, the respondents whose preschoolers are cared for by Nanny/professional caregivers, the majority of whom have a high literacy environment. The information shows that parenting by parties other than the family tends to produce a better literacy environment for preschoolers.

4) There is no difference between parents who work and not to work in practicing the HLE activities. The reason is that parents who work use caregivers to support the HLE activities for their preschoolers.

Impacts of HLE on Emergent Literacy Skills Development.

The next analysis is to analyze the influence of the HLE on the development of emergent literacy skills. The analysis technique will use linear regression analysis with the help of SPSS v.24 software. The results of the regression analysis are summarized in Table 3 below:

Table 3. The impact of the home literacy environment on the emergent literacy skills development in preschoolers as determined by a linear regression analysis

Relationships Between Variables	Regression Coefficient	Sig.	Effect direction
HLE à Emergent Literacy Development	0.421	0.000	Positive (+), meaning that the higher the HLE activities are, the higher the development of emergent literacy skills in preschoolers is
R = 0.439 R-square (R^2) = 0.193			Sig. F = 0.000
Assumption Testing			
Normality Graph		Heteroscedasticity Graph	
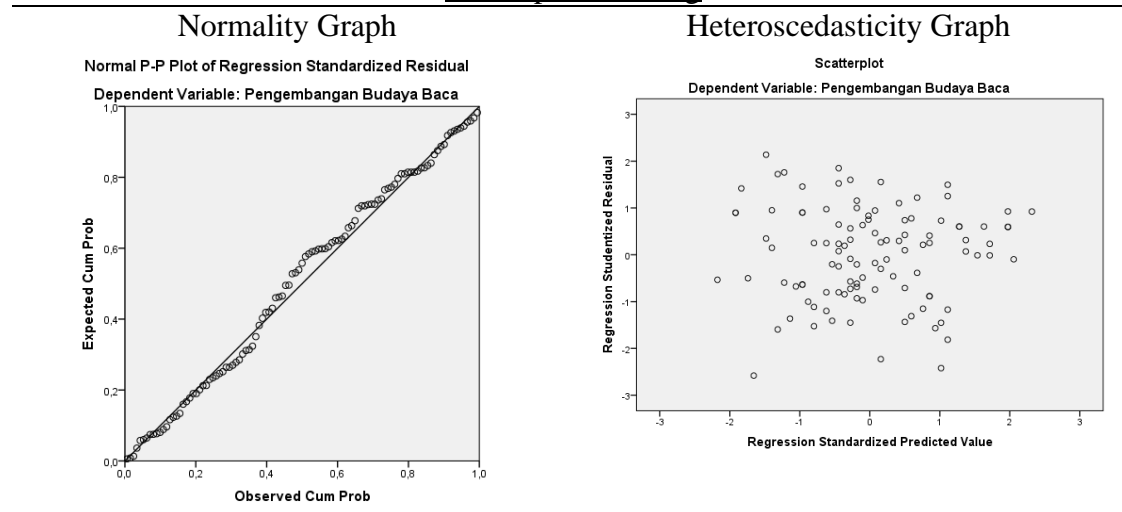
The results of the regression analysis, as summarized in Table 3 can be described as follows:

1) There are 4 assumption tests in regression analysis, namely normality, heteroscedasticity, multicollinearity, and autocorrelation. Multicollinearity testing is not carried out because the independent variable was only 1, and autocorrelation testing is also not carried out because the data are not time-series data, so the regression assumption test is only carried out on

normality and heteroscedasticity tests.

a. The normality test with P-P Plot shows that the residual data plot is spread around a straight diagonal line, so it can be concluded that the data are normally distributed or the normality assumption is met.

b. The heteroscedasticity test with Scatter Plot shows that the residual data plots are randomly distributed above and below the zero line and do not form a certain pattern, so it can be concluded that the heteroscedasticity assumption is fulfilled.

Because the assumptions of normality and heteroscedasticity are met, the regression analysis can be continued.

2) The regression coefficient of the influence of the literacy environment on the development of emergent literacy is 0.421 with a significance value of 0.000 (Sig. <5%). This shows that the literacy environment significantly affects the development of emergent literacy skills in preschoolers. The direction of influence is positive and shows a unidirectional influence, meaning that the higher the literacy environment is, the higher the development of reading culture in preschoolers will be.

3) The correlation coefficient (R) is 0.439, indicating that the relationship between the literacy environment and the development of emergent literacy skills is not moderate or moderate. The determination of the relationship level category is as follows:

Interval koefisien korelasi (r)	Tingkat hubungan
r = 0	No correlation
0 < r ≤ 0,20	Very weak
0,20 < r ≤ 0,40	Weak
0,40 < r ≤ 0,60	Moderate
0,60 < r ≤ 0,80	Strength
0,80 < r < 1,00	Very strongth
r = 1	Perfect correlation

4) The coefficient of determination (R2) is 0.193, meaning that the percentage of the influence of the literacy environment on the development of emergent literacy in preschoolers is 19.3%, and the remaining 80.7% of the development of emergent literacy is influenced by other factors, such as the ability of parents to motivate preschoolers, completeness of infrastructure, technological support, various procedures for the development of emergent literacy, and so on.

5) The results of the F test show a significance value of 0.000 (Sig. F<5%), meaning that the regression model concluded that the literacy environment could significantly influence the development of emergent literacy development in preschoolers.

Discussion

Based on the results of the analysis described in the previous sections of the article, the results of this study provide the following conclusions:

1. HLE activities that are described in the study show

   a. The majority of research respondents are mothers aged 30 - <40 years, have a higher education level (Diploma/Bachelor), have jobs as housewives, private employees, lecturers, teachers, and civil servants, and have incomes above the minimum wage, and give care for children. Another party is the family.

   b. The HLE in the respondent's family is already high but is still close to the low range or far from perfect. Six indicators of the literacy environment are still rated low, namely taking children to a reading park or library, taking children to the bookstore, reading books to children, training children's reading readiness by playing puzzles or word games, giving gift books to children, and storytelling to children.

   c. The development of emergent literacy for children formed in the respondent's family is already high. There are only two indicators of developing emergent literacy that are still rated low: the accuracy of children in recognizing letters and the accuracy of children mentioning letters when shown the letter symbol (Alphabets).

2. The HLE is related to the level of parental education, caring for children themselves or not, and who is taking care of these children. The higher the education level of the respondent is, the higher the literacy environment for children will be. Parents who care for the children themselves tend to have a better literacy environment for children than when children are cared for by other parties. Furthermore, parenting by parties other than the family tends to produce a better literacy environment for the children.

3. The development of emergent literacy skills is only related to the education level and the economic level of the parents. The higher the level of education of parents, the development of emergent literacy skills in children will also be higher. Furthermore, the higher the economic level of the family is, the higher the development of reading culture in children will be.

4. The HLE has a significant effect on the development of reading culture in children. The direction of the influence is positive, indicating that the higher the literacy environment, the higher the development of emergent literacy skills in children will also be. The level of closeness of the relationship between the literacy environment and the development of emergent literacy skills is moderate, with a percentage of influence of 19.3%, while the remaining 80.7% of the development of reading culture is influenced by other factors, such as the ability of parents to motivate completeness of infrastructure, technological support, variations in nurturing a reading culture.

The HLE activities supported by parents are limited in this study in two areas: parent-child involvement and phonic awareness and decoding skills. According to various studies, these two

sectors have become the foundation for the development of emergent literacy skills in preschoolers. According to various researchers like Niklas & Schneider (2013), Tong et al. (2021), and Vuong et al. (2021), interactions between parents and children at home have an important role in the development of emergent reading abilities in children in the early stages of literacy. In addition, several other researchers, Liu et al. (2018), Lyakso et al. (2014), and Quach et al. (2018), state that phonological awareness should be instilled throughout HLE activities, not to mention decoding, as mentioned by Manolitsis et al. (2011) has an impact on children's language and literacy development during the schooling phase. The current study confirms the findings of a prior study that highlighted the importance of parent-child connection in the development of emergent literacy skills. The current research has proved that parents have the most control over the practice of HLE activities, which plays a critical role in the development of children's emergent literacy skills. Parents use a variety of activities to develop their preschoolers' emerging literacy skills, such as phonic awareness, pointing out letters in isolation and words, and decoding skills, such as introducing letters/words and their sound or pronunciation in songs or other engaging ways.

Only parents with specified characteristics, on the other hand, can truly benefit from the activities. According to the findings of the study, the greater the parents' educational background is, the better the HLE activities will be implemented. Children nurtured by parents or other family members, on the other hand, have a better impact on the development of emergent reading abilities. Overall, certain other aspects such as parents' ability to encourage preschoolers, infrastructure completeness, technology assistance, and diverse processes for the development of emergent literacy add value to the implementation of HLE activities to support preschoolers' emergent reading skills. According to the findings, parents who must leave their preschoolers with caretakers or parents with a lower education background should follow the recommendations. More research should be done to develop tools to help parents and caregivers better use HLE activities at home to support emergent literacy development in preschoolers.

Conclusion

In this study, the parent-child involvement and phonic awareness, and decoding skills are the only HLE activities that parents support. These two areas have become the cornerstone for the development of emergent reading skills in preschoolers. Then, interactions between parents and children at home play a critical role in the development of emergent literacy skills. Furthermore, to have an impact on children's language and literacy development during the schooling phase, phonological awareness should be fostered throughout HLE activities, not to mention decoding. This present research highlights that parents have the most control over the implementation of HLE activities, which is crucial for the development of children's emergent literacy skills. Parents engage their preschoolers in a variety of activities to help them develop their emerging literacy skills, including phonic awareness (such as pointing out letters in isolation and words) and decoding skills (such as introducing letters or words and their sound or pronunciation) in songs or other engaging ways. Only parents who match certain criteria, on the other hand, will

get the most out of the activities. According to the study's findings, the higher the educational background of the parents is, the better the HLE activities will be implemented. On the other hand, children whom their parents or other family members nourish have a greater impact on the development of emergent literacy skills. Other factors that contribute value to the implementation of HLE activities to promote preschoolers' emergent reading skills include parents' ability to encourage their children, infrastructural completeness, technology aid, and a variety of procedures for the development of emergent literacy. Parents who must leave their preschoolers with caretakers or parents with a lower education background should follow the recommendations.

Finally, this study has drawn attention to the HLE activities and their relationship with the development of emergent literacy that is conducted using the survey method. In addition, simple random sampling is hard to arrive at the representation of the population. Further longitudinal research is now needed to assess the direction of this relationship and to see whether the HLE activities provided by parents or caregivers become an increasingly important predictor of children's emergent literacy skills development. Moreover, a specific test should be employed to really gauge the development that occurred prior to and after treatments are given.

Acknowledgments

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An Investigation into the Phenomenon of Morphological Conversion in Current Textbooks of English and Vietnamese Literature for High Schools

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ABSTRACT

Keywords: Conversion, teaching, English, Vietnamese Literature.	Conversion is a common phenomenon in both languages which are English and Vietnamese, especially in terms of morphology. The study investigates the phenomenon of morphological conversion in current English and Vietnamese Literature textbooks for High schools. Based on those survey results, the authors analyzed the similarities and differences of this phenomenon between the two disciplines to propose appropriate teaching methods when encountering it in the teaching process. The research used the inductive method to synthesize theories from available data about the phenomenon of conversion and the survey approach to analyze the conversion phenomenon density in the English and Vietnamese Literature books statistically at the high school level. Finally, the comparative method was used to point out the similarities and differences between the above phenomena in the textbooks of the two subjects. From the collected data, this study showed that the phenomenon of conversion in the textbooks of English and Literature has occurred. Through the research paper, the authors would like to give some notes and suggestions on appropriate teaching methods for high school teachers when encountering this phenomenon in the teaching process.

Introduction

Background of the study

Conversion is a new phenomenon that has been focused on since the second half of the 20th century. Due to the differences between morphological types of language, which are an analytic language like English and an isolating language such as Vietnamese, there are some differences in this phenomenon between these two languages. As Yule (2014) stated, the conversion process is very productive in modern English, while conversion is a typical and common phenomenon in isolated languages such as Vietnamese (Tran & Dang, 2014). Therefore, despite belonging

to different types of language, conversion is a common phenomenon in both languages, especially in terms of morphology.

Statement of the problem

The phenomenon of conversion is extremely productive in English. It has appeared in the high school English curriculum and caused many difficulties for Vietnamese students. Firstly, due to having the same signifier but different meanings and grammatical functions, the phenomenon has caused difficulties in recognizing and distinguishing the conversion words. Secondly, there are some dissimilarities between English and Vietnamese conversion words, committing the errors made by high school students. Besides, Diasti and Bram (2020) also stated that "most of the first-year students were not knowledgeable with conversion," which means that the morphological conversion was not focused on so much in high school's curriculum (p. 20). Therefore, it is necessary to investigate the morphological conversion phenomenon in current English and Vietnamese literature textbooks for high schools.

Significance of the study

On the one hand, this study provides several contributions to the classification of morphological conversion phenomena. On the other hand, making use of the similarities and differences of this phenomenon between English and Vietnamese, the study covers some common errors of this phenomenon and gives suggested notes which help teachers in their teaching activities when they encounter this phenomenon of conversion. From that, the study supports the development process of non-native teaching speakers who are Vietnamese.

Literature review

What is conversion?

Recently, there have been two different opinions among researchers on conversion. The first opinion is that conversion was not a word-formation process as "conversion – at least in analytical languages like English – is the process by which lexical items change category without any concomitant change in form" (Štekauer & Lieber, 2005, p. 418), which can be understood that conversion is simply a category shift and could be more related to the grammatical category. The second view is stated by Plag (2003) that conversion can be defined as the derivation of a new word without any overt marking. This means conversion is not only considered to be a word-formation process but also another type of derivation. Moreover, as a word-formation process, "conversion is considered as an affix-less way of word-formation along with compounding, sound-imitation, shortening by some linguists," and some researchers conceive of it as "a form of derivation which could be presented by the formula 'base + zero-affix'" (Girunyan, 2009, p. 130). Besides, Lee (2009) stated that conversion is a kind of derivation by adding zero-morphemes. In addition to this view, Adams (1973) also had a separate chapter about *derivation by zero suffix*es in her published book *An introduction to modern English word-formation*. From that, it is clear that both views indicate that conversion is the phenomenon that can change the part of speech of a word without any change in form.

Besides these two major views, there are also other opinions on conversion. On the one hand, Al-Murib (2021) did write in her paper: "Conversion is a process which is applicable to both morphology and syntax. In terms of morphology it is a word-formation process and in terms of syntax it is a case where elements change their functions according to the clause type." (p. 60). In other words, Al-Murib (2021) believed that the conversion phenomenon is related to both morphology and syntax, not just one of them. On the other hand, Gadimova (2021) claimed that "conversion operates at all linguistic levels: phonetic, derivational, morphological, lexical and syntactic", implying that this phenomenon is related to all linguistic levels, not simply morphology and syntax.

Due to these different opinions, there are many other terms for conversion phenomenon with different research directions, such as conversion, zero-derivation, root-formation, transposition, functional change, etc. In this study, the authors mainly focus on the phenomenon of conversion in terms of morphology, addressing some related topics such as derivation, inflection, affixation, etc.

Types of morphological conversion

At the end of the 19th century, Sweet (1900) posed an interesting problem, and that was to distinguish between a total and partial type of conversion by beginning with a verb *walk* in *he walks*. "The test of conversion is that the converted word adopts all the formal characteristics (inflection, etc.) of the part of speech it has been made into" (Sweet, 1900, p. 39). To clarify the statement, Sweet (1900) made the verb *walk* into a noun "by simply giving it the same formal characteristics, as in *he took a walk, three different walks of life"* (p. 38). Indeed, the verb *walk* became a noun because "it takes the form-word *the* before it" and "can take a plural ending *-s*" (Sweet, 1900, p. 39). Therefore, it is clear to assume that the verb *walk* has been converted into the noun *walk*, which is Sweet's example of total conversion. Additionally, Sweet (1900) stated that there were cases of partial conversion, in which a word partook of the formal peculiarities of two different parts of speech. For example, the adjective *good* in *the good is happy* is partially converted to a noun because it "takes the form-word *the* before it like a noun, and stands as the subject of a sentence like a noun, and yet in its want of plural inflection, it is an adjective, not a noun" (Sweet, 1900, p. 39). In that example, *good* means 'good persons', and when it is preceded by *the*, it becomes a noun. However, "*goods* in *goods and chattels*, on the other hand, shows complete conversion of an adjective into a noun" (Sweet, 1900, p. 39). Therefore, the pair *good - the good* could be seen as an example of partial conversion.

In English, since Sweet posed that problem, many researchers have agreed that there are two major conversion types: complete conversion (or total conversion) and approximate conversion (or partial conversion). However, there are also many other opinions about some cases of partial conversion. According to Adams (1973), the partial conversion could be seen as "a syntactic matter" rather than a morphological matter. Besides that, with an example of partial conversion, which is *poor* in *the poor are always with us*, Adams (1973) posed a question, if this was a noun, an adjective acting as a noun or if it belonged to both two parts of speech? Having the same concern, Fernández (2001) believed that "there is no conversion but rather words simply assume

a function that is different to their prototypical one" in some typical cases of the partial conversion, such as Adjective > Noun (*the poor*), Noun > Adjective (*car* in *car maintenance*), and Adverb > Adjective (*then* in *the then secretary)* (p. 10). In the study, Fernández (2001) used the so-called partial conversion from an adjective to a noun such as *the rich* to give evidence that "partial conversion does not exist" (p. 11). He said that the word *rich* could not function as a noun because it cannot take a plural ending *-s* (*the richs*). The word *rich*, however, is clearly an adjective because "it is gradable, cf. *the richer*, *the richest* and it may be modified by an adverb, *very*: *the very rich*" (Fernández, 2001, p. 11). Therefore, in this case, conversion from adjective to noun may not exist, but "it may very well exist, but only in certain cases and it is total conversion. (e.g., compared with 22 per cent of blacks and 12 per cent of non-Hispanic whites)" (Fernández, 2001, p. 11).

Additionally, Quirk et al. (1972) and Kiparsky (1982) have other views on partial conversion which are shift of stress (e.g., *export$_v$* - *export*) and voicing of the final consonant (e.g., *hou[s]e$_n$* - *hou[z]e$_v$*). Vo (2013) also agreed with these views and stated that in approximate conversion, words are converted with the addition of affixes, or a change in stress, i.e., a slight phonological change. However, her view is a little different from the opinions of Quirk et al. (1972) and Kiparsky (1982). Therefore, while researching theories about the conversion phenomenon, the authors find out this problem: *If a complete conversion is a form of derivation (zero-derivation), is approximate conversion another form of derivation?* (∗)

In Vietnamese, the conversion phenomenon is also subdivided into two types that are complete conversion and approximate conversion. According to Vo (2013), words are converted without changing spelling or pronunciation, which is the signifier in the complete conversion. For example, in complete conversion, about over 20 nouns can be converted to verbs such as *thuốc men, rượu chè, cờ bạc*, etc. Regarding the approximate conversion, Vo (2013) stated that words are converted with the addition of "witness word" (Nguyen, 1973), "beginning word" (Nguyen, 1997), or "by-product" (Ho, 1976). For instance, the verb *cưa* can be converted to a noun (*cưa* in *cái cưa*) by adding the word *cái*, which is called "witness word", "beginning word", or "by-product". In addition, Hoang et al. (1998) do not deny the existence of approximate conversion but pay more attention to the role of semantics when considering the conversion phenomenon.

Characteristics of morphological conversion

In *English Lexicology (Theoretical Course)*, Girunyan (2009) stated that "the essential characteristic of conversion is that a new word is made by changing the category of part of speech, while the morphemic structure of the source word remains unchanged. Being transferred to a different class, the word acquires a new paradigm. Apart from functional changes, semantic changes occur too" (p. 130). To describe the change in semantics, Girunyan (2009) took the pair hand$_v$ - hand$_n$ as an example. He said that "the verb *to hand* denotes a process, whereas the noun *hand* expresses the meaning of 'thingness'" (Girunyan, 2009, p. 130), showing that the meaning between conversion words changes a lot. However, Hoang et al. (1998) believed that although there are changes in semantics, meanings between the conversion words are still connected. Regarding the term semantics, Al-Murib (2021) strongly agreed that

meaning is also important to conversion because new words are formed with a new meaning which is related to their original words. In terms of morphemic structure, there is one problem (∗) which has been mentioned above. However, we believe that an approximate conversion is also a form of derivation. First of all, derivation is the forming of new words by combining derivational affixes (including prefixes and suffixes) or bound bases with existing words, and "in many cases, but not all, derivational suffixes change the part of speech of the word to which it is added" (Andini & Pratiwi, 2013, p. 37) (1). For example, an adjective *active* is formed by adding the suffix *-ive* to the noun *act*. It is clear that the category of part of speech has changed, and there is still a connection between the meanings of conversion words, which may meet two out of three characteristics of conversion. After that, Akmajian et al. (2001) said that some derivational affixes, which are derivational prefixes, do not change category (2). For instance, although the prefix *re–* is added to the verb *charge* to make the word *recharge*, *recharge* is still a verb, so both *charge* and *recharge* are verbs. Thus, this case could not be called an approximate conversion. Therefore, we will use the below diagram to express that approximate conversion (Y) can be a form of derivation.
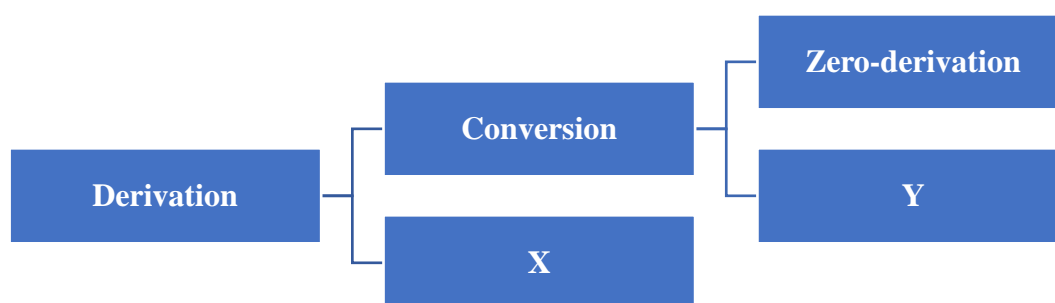
Diagram 1. Forms of derivation

In the diagram, derivation contains zero-derivation (complete conversion), Y standing for the case (1), and X standing for the case (2). Thus, there would be three characteristics of morphological conversion. Firstly, it is clear that the category of part of speech will change. Secondly, the morphemic structure of the source word can change or not. Thirdly, there will be sematic changes, but the meanings of the conversion words are still connected.

The classification of parts of speech

According to Vo (2013), in an analytic language like English, parts of speech are classified by semantics, syntax, and morphology. For example, in the sentence *we are students*, the word *student* is a word for a person (semantics), functions as a subject complement (syntax), and shows the plural form by adding *-s* (morphology), all of which are characteristics of a noun. There are eight main parts of speech in English, divided into two major groups, which are content words (nouns, verbs, adjectives, and adverbs) and function words (pronouns, prepositions, conjunctions, and interjections). In Vietnamese, which is an isolating language, the classification of parts of speech is based on semantics, combinability, and syntactic functions (Vo, 2013). There are some diverging views on dividing parts of speech based on

these characteristics into content words and function words. The three parts of speech, which are nouns, verbs, and adjectives, are absolutely content parts of speech. However, for pronouns and numerals, some researchers considered them as content parts of speech (Nguyen 1963, Le and Phan 1983), but others put them in the group of function parts of speech (Dao 1998, Diep 1998).

The problem of directionality

The problem of directionality occurs when it is difficult to identify which word is derived from the other one. Plag (2003) mentioned some ways to solve this problem. The first method to deal with the problem is to look at the history of the language by using the Oxford English Dictionary. The second way is considering the semantics, which means the derived word should be semantically more complex than the base word from which it is derived. The next is to consider the base and derived form and the stress. The final way is to check the frequency of occurrence of the derived word. Nevertheless, there are no criteria discussed above, leading to a clear result. Therefore, Plag (2003) stated that the directionality problem could be solved by combining historical, semantic, formal, and frequential evidence. However, Fernández (2001) believed that "the problem of directionality can be easily solved, in most cases, by resorting to etymological information" (p. 10). "The Oxford English Dictionary (henceforth, OED) has proven to be a useful tool to corroborate the existence of conversion processes. It has helped both to determine and decide whether or not there is a conversion by providing information not only on the etymology of words but also on their meanings (and uses)" (Fernández, 2001, p. 12). In this study, we did combine two ways mentioned by Plag (2003), which were using the Oxford English Dictionary to decide which word was derived from the other and checking the frequency of occurrence of the derived word. The result was the same as the statement of Plag. Therefore, the directionality of conversion in this study is relative.

Research Gap

It is a fact that a large number of researches with different views have been conducted to argue about conversion and problems related to this phenomenon. However, there are still many gaps that have not been filled yet. The first obvious matter is that although many studies have shown statistics on the quantity and density of conversion phenomenon, there is little research on conversion phenomenon in terms of morphology in the high school curriculum of Vietnam. Another crucial gap is that there is still little research related to the teaching process helping teachers when they encounter this phenomenon.

Research Questions

To fulfill the purpose of the study, the survey seeks to answer the following research questions:

1. What are the quantity and density of morphological conversion phenomenon in current textbooks of English 12 and Vietnamese Literature 12?

2. What are the similarities and differences between English and Vietnamese morphological conversion phenomena?

Methods

Pedagogical Setting & Participants

Using the induction method to research theories about the morphological conversion phenomenon, this study was conducted to investigate this phenomenon in the high school curriculum in Vietnam. Observing that the phenomenon is common in word formation and transformation exercises appearing in textbooks of English for High schools, the authors decided to survey these books. Besides, there are many mistakes when students do these types of exercises due to the similarities and dissimilarities of the phenomenon between English and Vietnamese. Therefore, the authors also investigated this conversion phenomenon in Vietnamese. Showing the similarities and dissimilarities of the phenomenon, this study suggested some notes to help teachers notice common mistakes when encountering this phenomenon in their teaching activities.

Sampling Method

Parts of speech are divided into two major groups, which are content words and function words. However, in this study, the authors just focused on the morphological conversion phenomenon of content words in English and Vietnamese. In English, there are four content parts of speech which are nouns, verbs, adjectives, and adverbs. In Vietnamese, the four content parts of speech are nouns, verbs, adjectives, and pronouns.

In terms of research samples, the current textbooks of English and Vietnamese Literature in grade 12 were the samples chosen to conduct a survey. Although there are many Vietnamese textbooks for High schools, such as textbooks in History, Chemistry, Geography, the textbooks of Vietnamese Literature were used to investigate the phenomenon and compare with the ones in English textbooks. The reason for using those books is that Vietnamese Literature textbooks are the most suitable ones because they are not too academic and have a variety of text genres, such as poetry, declaration, journal. Because of the different types of genres in the Vietnamese textbook, while conducting the survey, the authors found that the number of morphological conversion phenomena in the poetry genre is less than in other genres because the poems are quite short, and the poets usually use conversion words on purpose. Besides, the essays seem to have more conversion words than others. The samples of the English 12 textbook included audio scripts, instructions, sentences, and passages. For the textbooks of Vietnamese Literature 12, the survey was conducted in both two volumes and texts learned in the program.

Design of the Study

In addition to the deskwork method, the study employed a mixed-method research design, combining both qualitative and quantitative methods, to strengthen the study's result and conclusion. The qualitative method was primarily adopted during the survey process to identify the quantity and density of conversion phenomenon in the textbooks. In the meantime, the authors used the quantitative method to gather data in numerical forms.

Data collection & analysis

The survey approach was used to survey the quantity and density of this phenomenon. First of all, the authors read these books and identify parts of speech of words by using several online dictionaries, such as Cambridge Dictionary, Oxford Dictionary, TraTu Soha Dictionary, TraTu Vietgle Dictionary, and Vietnamese Dictionary (https://vtudien.com). Then we entered them into Excel. After entering all data, which were in the shortest form of the word, the software in Excel was used to find the same words with different parts of speech. The next step was to do statistics to classify the types of morphological conversion. The data collected after statistics were shown in percentages and tables. After the survey, the authors used the comparative method to compare the density and quantity of the conversion phenomenon in the two textbooks. Then some sentences containing the conversion phenomenon in the textbooks were chosen as examples for illustration. After that, the contrastive analysis method was adapted to compare and contrast the conversion phenomenon in English and Vietnamese in order to present the similarities and differences between these two phenomena. Finally, from those similarities and differences, the authors suggested some notes for teachers' teaching process when encountering the conversion phenomenon.

Results/Findings and discussion

Research question 1: What are the quantity and density of morphological conversion phenomenon in current textbooks of English 12 and Vietnamese Literature 12?

The textbook English 12

Table 1 presents the density of the morphological conversion phenomenon among four content parts of speech (nouns, verbs, adjectives, and adverbs).

Table 1. The density of the morphological conversion phenomenon among four content parts of speech in the English 12 textbook

	Complete Conversion	**Approximate Conversion**
Noun and Adjective	14	72
Noun and Verb	69	113
Noun and Adverb	1	0
Adjective and Verb	7	44
Adjective and Adverb	7	42
	98	**271**

Based on the data obtained from the investigation, there were 98 cases of complete conversion and 271 cases of approximate conversion, showing that approximate conversion had more cases than complete conversion. Looking at the table, it was obvious that there were five cases of conversion phenomenon among four content parts of speech, and there was no case of

approximate conversion between nouns and adverbs in the English textbook 12. Below are the percentages of these five cases of conversion phenomenon among four content parts of speech in Chart 1.

Chart 1. Percentages of five cases of the morphological conversion phenomenon in the English 12 textbook

Noun and Adjective	Noun and Verb	Noun and Adverb	Adjective and Verb	Adjective and Adverb
23.3%	49.3%	0.3%	13.8%	13.3%
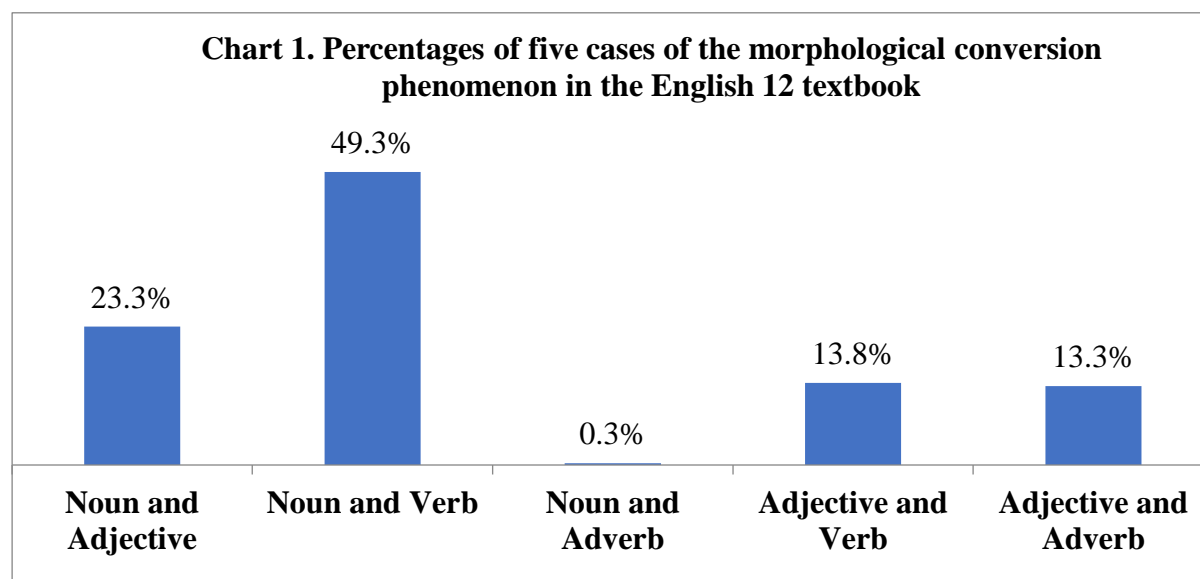
Among 271 cases of approximation conversion, we found that there were also three cases of stress shift and one case of vowel shift in the textbook. The cases of stress shift appeared in 113 cases of conversion between nouns and verbs (2.7% of the total). Besides, the vowel shift case was in 44 cases of conversion between adjectives and verbs (2.3% of the total).

From the above data, there were five cases of morphological conversion phenomenon among four content parts of speech, such as 182 cases between nouns and verbs (49.3%), 86 cases between nouns and adjectives (23.3%), 51 cases between adjectives and verbs (13.8%), 49 cases between adjectives and adverbs (13.3%), and 1 case between nouns and adverbs (0.3%). Below, these five cases are illustrated by showing several examples.

+ conversion between nouns and verbs

According to Chart 1, the morphological conversion phenomenon between nouns and verbs was the most popular case in the textbook, accounting for 49.3% of the total (182 cases). In complete conversion, we found that there are many cases of conversion from nouns to verbs because the frequency of occurrence of nouns was more than verbs. For example, we have some converted verbs such as *to list*, *to name*, *to mushroom*, *to score*, etc. However, there were also some cases in which the nouns were converted to verbs. These converted nouns were usually used to express emotions (e.g., *love*, *experience*, etc.) or to show actions (e.g., *smile*, *walk*, *jump*, etc.). For instance, we can see that *jump* is a noun in (1) and a verb in (2).

    (1) *Amri, the Malaysian, won the Men's Long <u>Jump</u>.*

    (2) *He <u>jumped</u> 7.76 meters.*

Regarding the approximate conversion, the phenomenon of conversion between nouns and

verbs contained 110 cases of conversion by adding noun suffixes (e.g., *-ion*, *-ee*, *-er*, etc.) or verb suffixes (e.g., -size, -en, -ise, etc.) and three cases of stress shift. For example, let us illustrate some cases of them.

(1) Conversion from verbs to nouns by adding *-er* to the verb *teach*: *In class to get my* <u>*teacher*</u>*'s attention, I usually raise my hand.*

(2) Conversion from nouns to verbs by adding *-en* to the noun *threat*: *The security of the earth will be* <u>*threatened*</u> *by terrorism as terrorist groups will become more powerful and more dangerous.*

(3) Three cases of stress shift: *ex'port$_v$* ➔ *'export$_n$*, *in'crease$_v$* ➔ *'increase$_n$*, and *'record$_n$* ➔ *re'cord$_v$*.

Conversion between nouns and adjectives

In complete conversion, four nationality words in the textbook, such as *American*, *Vietnamese*, *Indian*, *Chinese*, and *English*, could have a conversion phenomenon between nouns and adjectives. Besides, the word *young* was also a case of this conversion. Below is another example of conversion between an adjective (1) to a noun (2).

(1) *That's also* <u>*fun*</u>.

(2) *We're a big family — there are six of us - children - so it's always a lot of* <u>*fun*</u>.

In an approximate conversion, nouns were mainly converted to adjectives by adding adjective suffixes, such as *-able*, *-al*, *-y*, *-ful*, etc. Here are some examples: *peace - peaceful*, *value - valuable*, *person - personal*, etc. Additionally, nouns could be converted from adjectives by adding noun suffixes, such as *-y*, *-ity*, *-ness*, *-ion*, etc. For example, we have *aware - awareness*, *difficult - difficulty*, *extinct - extinction*, etc.

Conversion between adjectives and verbs

In complete conversion, adjectives were usually converted to verbs, and these verbs would carry the meaning 'become + adjective' or 'make something (more) adjective'. In the English 12 textbook, there are some converted verbs such as *better*, *clean*, *warm*,

and free.

In an approximate conversion, we found that verbs were mainly converted to adjectives by adding these suffixes: *-ed*, *-ing*, *-ive*, *-y*. For example, we have *limit - limited*, *grow - growing*, *attract - attractive*, *rain - rainy*. There was also one case of vowel shift which was *separate /sep.ər.ət/ - separate /sep.ər.eɪt/*.

Conversion between adjectives and adverbs

In complete conversion, there were seven words in the textbook which could be converted between adjectives and adverbs, such as *early, fast, hard, late, near, upstairs, and worldwide*. In the below example, the word *upstairs* is an adjective in (1) and an adverb in (2).

(1) *It's <u>upstairs</u>.*

(2) *The suitcase seemed to get heavier and heavier as I carried it <u>upstairs</u>.*

In an approximate conversion, adjectives were converted to adverbs by adding the suffix *-ly*. Here are some examples: *close - closely*, *active - actively*, *main - mainly*, etc.

Conversion between nouns and adverbs

As can be seen from Chart 1, the morphological conversion phenomenon between nouns and adverbs accounted for 0.3% of the total (1 case), having the least number of cases in the English 12 textbook. For example, the case below shows that an adverb could be completely converted to a noun.

(1) *I wish I could do <u>half</u> as well as you. In the first <u>half</u>, our team played pretty well.*

The textbooks of Vietnamese Literature 12

Table 2. The density of the morphological conversion phenomenon among three content parts of speech in the Vietnamese Literature 12 textbook

	Complete Conversion	**Approximate Conversion**
Noun and Adjective	20	43
Noun and Verb	29	54
Adjective and Verb	32	0
	81	**97**

Table 2 presents the density of the morphological conversion phenomenon among three content parts of speech (nouns, verbs, and adjectives). Based on the data obtained from the investigation, there were 178 cases of conversion, including 81 cases of complete conversion and 97 cases of approximate conversion. This showed that approximate conversion had more cases than complete conversion, which was similar to the cases in the English 12 textbook. Looking at the table, there were three cases of the conversion phenomenon among three content parts of speech. Below are the percentages of these three cases of conversion phenomenon among three content parts of speech in the Vietnamese Literature 12 textbook in Chart 2.

Chart 2. Percentages of three cases of the morphological conversion phenomenon in the Vietnamese Literature 12 textbook
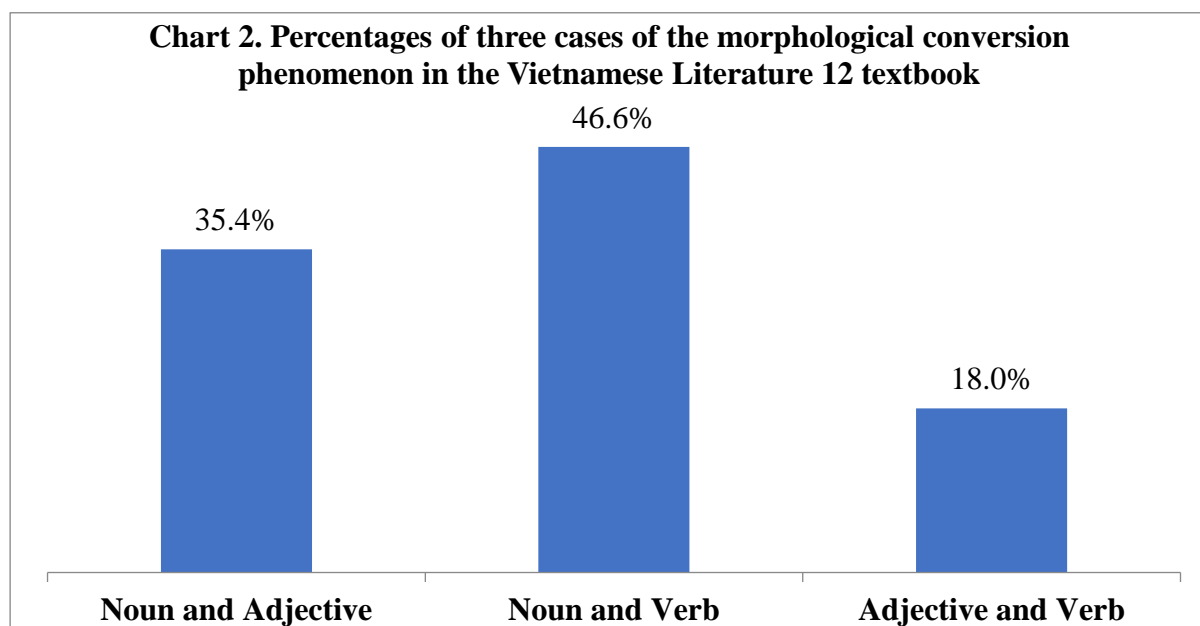
From the above data, it was obvious that there were three cases of morphological conversion phenomenon among three content parts of speech in the Vietnamese Literature 12 textbook, which are 63 cases between nouns and adjectives (35.4%), 83 cases between verbs and nouns (46.6%), and 32 cases between adjectives and verbs (18%). In the next part, we showed these three cases through several sentences, including the morphological conversion phenomenon.

Conversion between nouns and adjectives

To begin with, from Chart 2, the morphological conversion phenomenon between nouns and adjectives was ranked in second place with 35.4% of the total. First, in complete conversion, we found that 20 cases converted between nouns and adjectives. For example, the sentence below shows that there is a complete conversion between a noun and an adjective.

(1) *Và ở đây, một lần nữa, sông Hương quả thực là <u>Kiều</u>, rất <u>Kiều</u>, trong cái nhìn thắm thiết tình người của tác giả Từ ấy.*

Besides, there were also 43 cases that converted approximately between nouns and adjectives. The case below, for instance, will show an approximate conversion between a noun and an adjective.

(1) *<u>Sự giận dữ</u> căng thẳng làm nó khi chạy qua không nhìn thấy tôi.* → *Ông cụ đặt chén cơm xuống, <u>giận dữ</u>.*

Conversion between nouns and verbs

Next, the data from Chart 2 showed that the morphological conversion phenomenon between nouns and verbs was ranked in the first place, accounting for 46.6% of the total. In terms of complete conversion, there were 29 cases that converted completely between nouns and verbs. This case will be illustrated by the below example.

(1) *Giữa các dân tộc, chúng ta không thể tự hào là nền văn hoá của ta đồ sộ, có những*

cống hiến lớn lao cho nhân loại. Lịch sử Đảng đã ghi bằng nét son tên của thành phố Huế, thành phố tuy nhỏ những đã cống hiến rất xứng đáng cho Tổ quốc.

Additionally, there were 54 cases of approximate conversion between nouns and verbs. Take the case below as an example, we will see an approximate conversion between nouns and verbs.

(1) _Sau gần một tuần lễ suy nghĩ, tìm kiếm, Phùng quyết định thu vào tờ lịch tháng bảy năm sau cảnh thuyền đánh cá thu lưới vào lúc bình minh. Như một cuộc tìm kiếm có ý thức để đi tới nơi gặp thành phố tương lai của nó._

Conversion between adjectives and verbs

Finally, Chart 2 illustrated 32 cases of the morphological conversion phenomenon between adjectives and verbs, accounted for 18% of the total, and ranked last in three groups of morphological conversion in Vietnamese Literature 12. To be specific, all 32 cases were converted completely. For example, the below case shows the complete conversion between an adjective and a verb.

(1) _Anh rất gắn bó với đơn vị._ → _Em ơi em Đất nước là máu xương của mình – Phải biết gắn bó và san sẻ._

The purpose of the paper's first research question was to measure the quantity and density of morphological conversion phenomenon in current textbooks of English 12 and Vietnamese Literature 12. Below is the quantity and density of the morphological conversion phenomenon shown in Table 3.

Table 3. The quantity and density of the morphological conversion phenomenon

	Complete Conversion		Approximate Conversion	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
English 12	98	26.6%	271	73.4%
Vietnamese Literature 12	81	45.5%	97	54.5%

As can be seen from Table 3, it was clear that both English 12 and Vietnamese Literature 12 textbooks had more cases of approximate conversion than complete conversion. Besides, although there were more cases of complete conversion in the English 12 than in the Vietnamese Literature 12 (98 cases > 81 cases), the complete conversion phenomenon was more popular in Vietnamese Literature 12 textbooks than in the English 12 textbook (45.5% > 26.6%). Additionally, in the approximate conversion phenomenon, the number and percentage of the approximate conversion cases in the English 12 were both higher than in the Vietnamese Literature 12 (271 cases > 97 cases and 73.4% > 54.5%). Therefore, we could say that the complete conversion phenomenon was more popular in Vietnamese while the approximate conversion was more popular in English.

Research question 2: *What are the similarities and differences between English and Vietnamese Morphological conversion phenomena?*

Below is Table 4, which summarizes the main findings in research question 1. To solve research question 2, the authors used analyzed data in Table 4 to point out the similarities and differences between English and Vietnamese morphological conversion phenomena.

Table 4. The result summary of the morphological conversion phenomenon in the textbooks of English 12 and Vietnamese Literature 12

	Types of conversion	Textbook of English 12	Notes	Textbook of Vietnamese Literature 12	Notes
Complete conversion	Noun and Verb	69 cases		29 cases	
	Noun and Adjective	14 cases		20 cases	
	Adjective and Verb	7 cases		32 cases	
	Adjective and Adverb	7 cases			
	Noun and Adverb	1 case			
Total		**98 cases**		**81 cases**	
Approximate conversion	Noun and Verb	113 cases	3 cases of stress shift	54 cases	
	Noun and Adjective	72 cases		43 cases	
	Adjective and Verb	44 cases	1 case of vowel shift		
	Adjective and Adverb	42 cases			
	Noun and Adverb				
Total		**271 cases**		**97 cases**	

After investigating these two textbooks, we found several similarities in the morphological conversion phenomenon between the two languages. Firstly, the semantic criteria played an important role in determining whether a word was converted or not. This is because if there is no semantic connection between two words, it easily causes confusion between homonymy and conversion. Take the pair 'watch n - watch v' as an example. It was clear that 'watch' as a noun had a meaning of thingness while 'watch' as a verb showed an action. Therefore, despite having different parts of speech, these two words could not be a case of conversion phenomenon because there was no semantic connection between them. Secondly, according to Table 4, the morphological conversion of content words occurred in both complete type (98 cases in English

textbook 12 and 81 cases in Vietnamese Literature textbook 12) and approximate type (271 cases in English textbook 12 and 97 cases in Vietnamese Literature textbook 12). Thirdly, based on the quantity and density of conversion in the textbooks of English 12 and Vietnamese Literature 12, it could be said that the approximate conversion phenomenon had more cases than the complete conversion in both textbooks of English 12 (271 cases in approximate conversion> 98 cases in complete conversion) and Vietnamese Literature 12 (97 cases in approximate conversion> 81 cases in complete conversion). Finally, we found that the conversion between nouns and verbs was the most popular phenomenon in both English (69 cases in complete conversion and 113 cases in approximate conversion) and Vietnamese (29 cases in complete conversion and 54 cases in approximate conversion).

Besides, let us show some differences in this phenomenon between English and Vietnamese. First of all, in English, there were five cases of conversion between content parts of speech (nouns - verbs, nouns - adjectives, adjectives - verbs, adjectives - adverbs, and nouns - adverbs) while there were just three cases in Vietnamese (nouns - verbs, nouns - adjectives, and adjectives - verbs). Next, in terms of approximate conversion, from 271 cases in Table 4, we found that words were converted by directly adding derivational suffixes to the source word. For instance, there are some popular suffixes in the investigation: noun suffixes (e.g., -ion, -ness, -ity, -y, -er, -or, etc.), verb suffixes (e.g., -en, -ize, -ise, etc.), adjective suffixes (e.g., -ive, -y, -ed, -ing, -able, -al, etc.), and an adverb suffix -ly. In contrast, in Vietnamese, from 97 cases in Table 4, it was clearly to claim that converted words were formed by adding "beginning words", such as sự, cuộc, cái, nỗi, niềm, etc., or by adding quantifiers before the source word (e.g., những, các, mấy, etc.). Another dissimilarity was that there was no case of stress shift or vowel shift in the Vietnamese Literature 12 textbook but English 12 textbook (3 cases of stress shift and 1 case of vowel shift).

Discussion

This research attempted to investigate the phenomenon of morphological conversion in current textbooks of English and Vietnamese Literature for high schools. The authors first assumed that the morphological conversion phenomenon would cause many difficulties for Vietnamese students when they studied English because the phenomenon caused difficulties in recognizing and distinguishing the conversion words and had some dissimilarities between English and Vietnamese conversion words.

Although the results of the survey on the two textbooks were varied, the findings still lend support to the hypothesis. To begin with, it is interesting to note that in the textbook English 12, there are 369 cases of conversion, including 98 cases of complete conversion (24.5%) and 217 cases of approximate conversion (73.5%). Furthermore, there are five cases of conversion between content parts of speech, which are converted words between nouns - adjectives, nouns - verbs, nouns - adverbs, adjectives - verbs, and adjectives - adverbs. These findings are quite similar to the results of Vo (2013), but it is found in our survey that adjectives and adverbs can also be converted with each other. Meanwhile, in the textbook Vietnamese Literature 12, there are 178 cases of conversion including 81 cases of complete conversion (45.5%) and 97 cases

of approximate conversion (54.4%). Specifically, there are three cases of conversion between content parts of speech, which are converted words between nouns - adjectives, nouns - verbs, and adjectives - nouns. These findings are also in line with Hoang et al. (1998), who found three cases of converted words like these above.

What is more, in the study, the authors found some similarities and dissimilarities between English and Vietnamese regards to the morphological conversion phenomenon. Relating to similarities, the most important finding is the role of semantics. In both languages, the semantic criteria played an important role in determining whether a word was converted or not. The reason could be due to the confusion between homonymy and conversion when there was no semantic connection between two conversion words. This finding is similar to Hoang et al. (1998), who suggested that in Vietnamese, semantic criteria is a vital one determining the substance of conversion. As well as that in English, Ginzburg et al. (2004) also indicated the important role of semantics because, in a pair of converted words, a word is derived semantically from the other. Furthermore, it is found that words are converted completely and approximately in both English and Vietnamese not only in our survey but also in the research of Vo (2013). Besides, the conversion between Nouns - Verbs is more popular than other pairs of words. This finding is in line with Ginzburg et al. (2004), who found that the conversion between nouns and verbs is the largest group of words related to conversion in English. Furthermore, in Vietnamese, Hoang et al. (1998) indicated that 1752 cases of conversion (approximately 50%) in their survey are words converted between nouns - verbs.

Furthermore, the differences also support the hypothesis, which is the ways that conversion words are formed in terms of morphology and phonology of both languages. Firstly, a word is converted approximately in English by adding suffixes or changing the stress or vowel sounds. However, in Vietnamese, a word is added "beginning word" or "witness word" to convert. This different way of forming conversion words could be explained by the differences between those two languages – Vietnamese (an isolated language) and English (an analytic language). This finding is also suggested by Vo (2013), who found the same way to convert a word in Vietnamese and English. Last but not least, there are some special cases of the converted words in English by changing the stress and the vowel sounds, which is also similar to Vo (2013).

Therefore, because of these different ways, it is possible to conclude that the morphological conversion phenomenon would cause many difficulties for Vietnamese students when learning English. As a result, teachers should predict what kinds of problems students have with this phenomenon and have some appropriate notes for their teaching process.

In terms of complete conversion, we suggested two notes for the teacher. First, teachers should help students focus on the syntax and semantics of the sentences to recognize the parts of speech of the word, which could vary within different contexts. Furthermore, the teachers might need to inform the students that the word was the conversion form of the previous word, which they studied in the past. The above actions might help the students to familiarize themselves with this phenomenon resulting in the ability to identify the parts of speech by analyzing the context, not remembering the words.

Besides that, due to the quantity of approximate conversion in the English 12 textbook, the students would also encounter this phenomenon, which had more problems for the teacher to notice while teaching English.

First and foremost, the most common way to produce an approximate conversion was to add derivational affixes, yet because of the arbitrary matter of language, students could not randomly add an affix but must follow the rule of the English language. So, the teachers should be aware of this situation and help the students to notice this problem. Take the suffix -*er* as an example, and it can change a verb into a noun, which means a person who does that action as their job, namely, *teacher*, *painter*, *worker*, and so on. However, other verbs must use other suffixes that have the same meaning as the suffix -*er*, for instance, -*or* in *actor*. And other suffix sharing the same meaning must be noticed by the teacher in order to enhance students' knowledge about this phenomenon.

Second, the students might take advantage of the suffixes to identify the parts of the speech, yet there were a few suffixes that make a word into two different categories. So, the teacher should notice this situation to assist the students in avoiding this mistake. For instance, the suffix -*y* can make the word become a noun in *difficult* (adjective) and *difficulty* (noun), and make a word become an adjective in the *rain* (verb) and *rainy* (adjective).

Furthermore, in English approximate conversion, besides adding suffixes, a new word might be converted by changing the stress of the word, which we call stress shift. Additionally, there was also the phenomenon of vowel shift which could lead to some errors when students did exercises related to pronunciation. Hence, the teachers needed to show this phenomenon to students through theories and exercises to acknowledge this aspect of approximate conversion.

Last but not least, it was known that Vietnamese kept the original form of the word and added a beginning word, while English changed the form of the word by adding suffixes directly to the word in complete conversion. And the Vietnamese students were familiarizing themselves with their mother tongue, and they might forget to add a suffix to the word that needed to be converted approximately, resulting in their mistakes in some exercises in class.

Conclusion

In terms of morphology, the phenomenon of conversion could be considered to be one of the most productive ways to form new words in English. Besides, this phenomenon also became more and more popular in Vietnamese, helping enrich a large number of vocabulary in Vietnamese. In this study, the authors showed three characteristics of conversion: the changes in form, in the part of speech, and semantics - playing an important role in deciding if the phenomenon was conversion or not.

Additionally, the authors did solve three problems that they posed in the study. For the first research question, the authors found that the complete conversion phenomenon was more popular in Vietnamese while the approximate conversion was more popular in English. With the second question, the study also showed some similarities and dissimilarities in the

morphological conversion phenomenon between the two languages which were English and Vietnamese. Moreover, to solve the third one, several notes mentioned in the study could make a useful contribution to the teaching process when teachers encountered this phenomenon.

However, there were some limitations in the research. First of all, the research only worked on content words. Then the study was just conducted in the textbooks of grade 12 to investigate the conversion phenomenon. Hence, the scope of this research was not so wide. Additionally, the directionality of conversion in this research was still relative. Therefore, it would be necessary to conduct a study into the directionality of conversion to find new methods to solve this problem.

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Biodata

As Vietnamese juniors at the Department of Foreign Languages at Saigon University, Pham Thanh Hoai and Nguyen Xuan Minh Hai are students in an English teaching major who have won a championship in a contest "Pedagogy Expertise". Under the guidance of their lecturer, Truong Van Anh, M.A., they found their interest in the phenomenon of morphological conversion and conducted a paper to investigate the phenomenon in current textbooks of English and Vietnamese Literature for High schools.

Future meaning in Vietnamese and English: Similarities and Differences

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ABSTRACT

Keywords: modality, modal verbs, lexical means, grammatical means, marked	The paper describes in detail and employs one table and six discussions to compare expressions of future meaning in Vietnamese and English declaratives to find out their differences and similarities. The findings are the basis for giving some advice to learners of Vietnamese and English. Vietnamese neither distinguishes nor employs grammatical means to express various shades of future meaning. A lexical means like *sẽ*, *định*, *tính*, or *sắp*, or a combination of two or more like *định sẽ*, *tính sẽ*, or *dự tính sẽ*, does. The lexical means may be omitted when an adverbial of future time like *sáng mai*, meaning *tomorrow morning*, occurs. At first glance, Vietnamese learners face difficulty because one expression in their mother tongue separates into two or more in English, resulting in unnecessary differentiation; conversely, native speakers of English seem more enjoyable noticing that two or more expressions in their mother tongue merge into one in Vietnamese. However, to understand Vietnamese sentences, foreigners must depend more on contextual cues than when they process English sentences. This is uneasy for the native English speakers, who are accustomed to using a language in which all the modal meanings have signs, either lexical or grammatical or both, with an explicit indicator in the structure of the nuclear predication of the declaratives.

Introduction

Both Vietnamese and English have many ways of expressing the future meaning. In this article, we are interested in noting the ways in which the lexical means, which is the modal verb *sẽ*, and the words or word combinations that can substitute *sẽ*, express the future meaning in Vietnamese. And these expressions are translated into English on the basis of employing many sample translations from different authors, who are Vietnamese linguists as well as researchers in English linguistics. Then come comments made based on the results of comparing and contrasting *declarative sentences* (from now on called '*declaratives*' for short) written in Vietnamese and selected as illustrative examples, together with their English-translated versions.

Within the scope of this article, we only focus on presenting the notion of "nuclear predication" (Dik, 1978; To, 2011), a kind of *marked* modality expressed by either one of the Vietnamese modal verbs like *sẽ*, *định*, *tính* or *sắp*, or by a combination of two or more Vietnamese modals like *định sẽ*, *tính sẽ* or *dự tính sẽ*, and the expressions that are considered as their equivalents in English. Excluded from the description and analysis of this article is the *unmarked* modality of nuclear predication in declaratives. Cao (2017) describes this *unmarked* modality as 'the modality of the truth,' which "is expressed by *the indicative mood* of the verbs in inflected languages and by the absence a modal element in the well-formed sentence structure (i.e., linearized according to the rules of sentence formation) in non-infected languages" (p. 51). Also excluded from the article's description and analysis are such *adverbials* (To, 2019) of future time as *tuần tới* (next week), *hai ngày nữa* (in two days), etc.

This paper aims to find out how English and Vietnamese are different from and simultaneously similar to each other in their ways of expressing future meaning in order to give some advice to their learners, native or non-native, whenever they need to refer to an action that will happen in the future in the target language. To achieve such an aim, the paper first gives a full description of various ways to express future meaning in Vietnamese and English — the two natural languages in question. It then compares these ways, one by one, employing a summative table and its succession of six points of discussion, which attempts to summarize as well as highlight a number of key findings. The findings are the basis to give some advice to learners of Vietnamese and English as well as a number of topics for further research.

Vietnamese and English ways to express future meaning

Observing only ways to express future meaning, we simplify the subject of the Vietnamese declaratives by mainly using the personal pronoun *chị ấy*, meaning *she*, or the personal pronoun *tôi*, meaning *I*, which goes with *đến* — the Vietnamese equivalent of the English lexical verb *come*. Various expressions of future meaning are then examined by comparing and contrasting the Vietnamese declaratives selected as illustrations with their English equivalents.

2.1. Future meaning expressed by only one Vietnamese modal verb

When the future meaning of *the verb phrase* playing the role of *the predicate*[1] of the sentence is expressed by *only one Vietnamese modal verb*, which is *sẽ* in this case, we have the Vietnamese declarative numbered (1):

(1) Chị ấy **_sẽ_** đến.

2.1.1. Plain future: Sẽ vs. 'will or be going to + infinitive'

Thomson and Martinet (1986) believe that the simple future "normally conveys no idea of intention" (p. 181). In the same vein, Hayden et al. (1956) indicate that the simple future (or *be going to* + infinitive) expresses actions happening at a later time. "Modifiers indicating time often specify a definite time in the future (*He will leave in an hour*), but in some situations the

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[1] as contrast to *the noun phrase* playing the role of *the subject*

time is not specified (*He is going to go with me*)" (p. 84). This is also called the *plain future*. So, the first two English versions of (1) is:

> (1a) She ***will*** come.

> (1b) She ***is going to*** come.

2.1.2. Definite future arrangement

2.1.2.1. Sẽ vs. 'English lexical verb in the continuous present'

Thomson and Martinet (1986) give a subtly mixed case for further consideration. Being overweight and suffering from repeated fines for parking, Paul says:

> (2) I'*ll* sell my car and buy a bike.

> Tôi *sẽ* bán cái ô tô của tôi và mua một chiếc xe đạp.

This is *intention at the moment of decision*, also known as *an immediate decision*, which can only be expressed by the simple future, with '*will* + infinitive.' This may be the idea that suddenly appears at the moment Paul gives an unexpected answer to the question: '*What are you doing with your car*, *Paul*?' (p. 182).

Will (abbreviated to '*ll*) must be used for unarranged actions, as in (2). It is not *will*, but either *be going to* or the continuous present is used to refer to the speaker's second mention of this unarranged action, after his sudden decision: "*be going to* is always possible; the present continuous has more restricted use" (p. 181).

Thus, at some point after making the decision, Paul again shows his decision to sell the car by saying:

> (3) I'*m going to* sell my car.

> Tôi *sẽ* bán cái ô tô của tôi.

Unfortunately, it is not clear enough to distinguish the second mention of Paul's decision from the so-called *future with intention*, which is also expressed by '*be going to* ___.' (See section **2.**1.7.1.)

And when Paul finds a buyer, he can say:

> (4) I'*m* sell*ing* my car.

> Tôi *sẽ* bán cái ô tô của tôi.

Since the continuous present also represent a *definite arrangement in the near future* (p. 182), we can safely choose (5a) as the first English version of the Vietnamese declarative (5), with the definite thought that her arrival has been well prepared and arranged:

> (5) Sáng mai chị ấy ***sẽ*** đến.

> (5a) She ***is*** com***ing*** tomorrow morning.

It should be noted that (5a) is also the English version of the following (5'):

(5') Sáng mai chị ấy đến.

Although it has been confirmed that the lexical means like *sáng mai*, meaning *tomorrow morning*, is beyond the scope of this paper, it is possible to use the three Vietnamese declaratives marked (5), (5') and (5'') to record a quite interesting phenomenon in Vietnamese:

(5'') Chị ấy đến.

- In (5'), it is not the modal verb *will*, but *sáng mai* — the adverbial, that expresses future meaning;

- In (5), the very future meaning is conveyed by both the adverbial *sáng mai* and the modal verb *sẽ*;

- It is hard to say that (5'') expresses future meaning because this sentence includes neither the modal verb *sẽ* nor the adverbial *sáng mai.*

The same phenomenon occurs in English: because the continuous present is often used to express an action that is happening in the present, if you would like to use this tense to express future meaning, it is almost mandatory to have an explicit signal of future time, which is *tomorrow morning* as in the above-mentioned (5a).

2.1.2.2. Sẽ vs. 'English lexical verb in the simple present

Thomson and Martinet (1986) fully describe that the speaker does not necessarily make a definite future arrangement, but most likely by another person, or sometimes it is from such a completely objective regulation as a work schedule or airline timetable. Implying that she has decided to leave, the speaker says: *I'm leaving tomorrow morning*; *I leave tomorrow morning* means that the speaker herself may not plan this. Future meaning can be expressed by the simple present, provided that an adverbial of future time is attached (p. 180). This is also the meaning of (5b) — the second English version of both (5) and (5'):

(5b) She *comes* tomorrow morning.

2.1.3. future without intention

Thomson and Martinet (1986) argue that if we merely state that the action in question will happen, or if this action is only one step in *a normal course of events*, then the continuous future is used, resulting in (5c) — the third English version of both (5) and (5'). This future meaning is "less definite and more casual than" (p. 191) when it is conveyed by the present continuous:

(5c) She *'ll be* com*ing* tomorrow morning.

Phan (1990) asserts the same via his own examples, i.e., this author agrees that the continuous future can be used to express an action that will happen without any intention:

(6) Xe lửa số 7 *đến* lúc mấy giờ?

What time *will* the train number 7 *be arriving*?

(7) Xe lửa số 7 *đến* lúc 9 giờ 20 sáng.

     The train number 7 <u>*will be arriving*</u> at 9.20 am. (p. 41)

2.1.4. Assumptions, speculations or predictions about the future

Thomson and Martinet (1986) confirm that the simple future is used to guess, speculate, or predict about the future, (i) with or without an adverbial of time and (ii) with or without either an introducing clause like *I'm sure*, *I suppose*, etc., or an adverb like *perhaps*, *probably*, etc.:

     (*I'm sure*) he<u>***'ll***</u> come back.

     They<u>***'ll***</u> (*probably*) wait for us. (p.189)

To predict the return of the lady called *she* here, we then have (5d) and (5e) — the fourth and fifth English versions of both (5) and (5'), which express how one makes a guess about the future.

- ✓ ***Sẽ*** vs. 'English lexical verb in the simple future optionally accompanied by *an introducing clause*':

     (5d) (*I'm sure*) she<u>***'ll***</u> come tomorrow morning.

- ✓ ***Sẽ*** vs. 'English lexical verb in the simple future optionally accompanied by *an adverb*':

     (5e) She<u>***'ll***</u> (*surely*) come tomorrow morning.

It should be noted at this point that as soon as *tomorrow morning* is removed from both (5d) and (5e), they turn to be the English versions of the Vietnamese declarative numbered (1).

Predictions, especially those *based on present causes*, can also be expressed by *be going to*. On page 128, Lesson 3, Chapter 18 of Book 2 in the *New English 900* textbook series published by Macmillan Publishing Co., Inc., its authors recommend using *be going to*, not the continuous present, to predict. Below is a typical example:

     (8) It's 7:00. The class starts at 7:15. We <u>*are going to*</u> be late.

     Bây giờ là 7 giờ. Lớp học bắt đầu lúc 7 giờ 15. Chúng ta <u>*sẽ*</u> trễ mất thôi.

Accordingly, (5) and (5') have their sixth English version, which is numbered (5f):

     (5f) She<u>***'s going to***</u> come tomorrow morning.

2.1.5. Promise: Sẽ vs. 'will + infinitive'

Changing *chị ấy* in (5) to the Vietnamese personal pronoun *tôi* results in (9). It is (9a) — the first English version of (9), that carries the meaning of *a promise* without the appearance of the lexical verb *promise* in the sentence:

     (9) Sáng mai tôi <u>***sẽ***</u> đến.

     (9a) I<u>***'ll***</u> come tomorrow morning.

Of course, one can make a promise in English in various ways:

(9b) I ***promise*** <u>to come</u> tomorrow morning.

(9c) I ***'ll*** <u>come</u> tomorrow morning; I ***promise***.

But there is no sentence that is as natural and intimate as (9a). The following (9') can also describe a promise without the modal verb *sẽ* on the condition that there exists the adverbial of future time *sáng mai* in this sentence:

(9') Sáng mai tôi đến.

2.1.6. Near future:

➕ ***Sắp*** vs. '***be about to*** + infinitive'

The Vietnamese modal verb *sắp*, meaning 'sẽ sớm xảy ra' or 'sẽ xảy ra ngay bây giờ,' is equivalent to *about* + infinitive with *to* (Swan, 2016), which means 'going to very soon' or 'just going to':

(10) Chị ấy ***sắp*** đến.

(10a) She ***is about to*** come.

➕ ***Sắp*** vs. 'English lexical verb in the continuous present obligatorily accompanied by *soon*, *instantly* or *just now*'

Hayden et al. (1956) assert that "the present progressive expresses activities that will take place in future time. Adverbs indicating future time (*tomorrow*, *next June*, etc.) often modify the verb" (p. 76). The lexical verb conjugated in the continuous present and modified by *soon*, *instantly* or *just now* is definitely another equivalent of the Vietnamese modal verb *sắp*.

(10b) She ***is*** com***ing*** soon/instantly/just now.

2.1.7. future with intention

2.1.7.1. Định vs. 'will or be going to + infinitive'

Thomson and Martinet (1986) also confirm that the meaning of *future with intention*, also known as *intended future* in English, is conveyed by *will* or *be going to* + infinitive (p. 181), which refers to an act that one will do in his or her own desire. The same meaning is demonstrated by *định* in the Vietnamese declarative numbered (11):

(11) Chị ấy ***định*** đến.

with its two English versions:

(11a) She ***will*** come.

(11b) She ***is going to*** come.

Depending in my instinct as a native speaker of Vietnamese who has been learning and teaching English as a foreign language for my whole life, I feel no difference between *định*, *tính* or *sẽ* and their translated versions in English: like *định*, *sẽ* does convey *future with intention*; *tính* does convey *future with intention*, too, resulting in (11'):

(11') Chị ấy ***tính*** đến.

However, *tính* sounds more spoken and thus less formal than *định*; the modal verb *tính* is from a certain dialect in the South of Viet Nam, which is not considered "standard" to be included in common textbooks throughout the country. Among the three, *sẽ* is neutral and the most common. These modal verbs differ from each other in style or formality, but they share the same cognitive or conceptual meaning. They are synonyms as far as *future with intention* is concerned.

It should be noted up to this point that the two pairs marked (1a-b) and (11a-b) are exactly alike, in spite of the fact that their Vietnamese source sentences are different: (1) includes *sẽ* while (11) includes *định* (, and (11') includes *tính*). For easier comparison and contrast, the first trios are repeated right here:

(1) Chị ấy ***sẽ*** đến.

(1a) She ***will*** come.

(1b) She ***is going to*** come.

2.1.7.2. Định vs. 'plan to or intend to + infinitive'

Considering that "the verbal *định* + action verbal expression = *plan to* ___," Jorden et al. (1967, p. 125) translate the Vietnamese *định* into the English *plan to*, as in (12), which is their own example:

(12) Tôi *định* đi Sài Gòn.

　　I *plan to* go to Saigon.

At this point, we have the third English version of the Vietnamese declarative (11):

(11c) She ***plans to*** come.

In addition, Vuong and Moore (1994) provide the fourth English version of (11):

(11d) She ***intends to*** come.

The two authors claim *định* to be synonymous with *intend to* ___, in their own example:

(13) Chúng tôi *định* thuê một chiếc ô tô để đi Đà Lạt.

　　We *intend to* hire a car to go to Dalat. (pp. 62-63)

It should be noted up to this point that in order to be considered synonyms of the Vietnamese *định*, the English lexical verb *intend* or *plan* must be conjugated in the simple present.

2.1.7.3. Định vs. 'English lexical verb in the continuous present'

"*Định* is an auxiliary verb that precedes the main verb and is used to indicate a planned action" (Vu et al., 1996, p. 119):

 (14) Tối nay tôi *định* đi xem phim.

I*'m going* to the movies tonight.

The above example given by Vu et al. (1996) shows their belief that the Vietnamese *định* is equivalent to an English lexical verb conjugated in the continuous present, with the support of an adverbial of future time in the sentence in question. Thus, these authors offer the fifth English version of (11):

(11e) She *is* com*ing*.

2.2. Future meaning expressed by two or more modal verbs

In this case, the future meaning of the verb phrase playing the role of the predicate of the sentence is expressed by two or more Vietnamese modal verbs.

2.2.1. Định, tính, or dự tính + sẽ

The combination of *định*, *tính*, or *dự tính + sẽ* clearly expresses the meaning of *future with intention*:

(15) Chị ấy *định sẽ / tính sẽ / dự tính sẽ* đến.

(15a) She *will* come.

(15b) She *is going to* come.

(15c) She *plans to* come.

(15d) She *intends to* come.

(15e) She *is* com*ing*.

The English declaratives numbered (11a), (11b), (11c), (11d) and (11e), which are listed again right below for convenient consideration, are identical to the above-mentioned (15a), (15b), (15c), (15d) and (15e). This indicates that the two declaratives numbered (11) and (15) can be used interchangeably to express the meaning of *future with intention* in the Vietnamese language, not to mention the Vietnamese declarative numbered (1) about which we have just talked in section **2.**1.7.1.

(11) Chị ấy *định* đến.

(11**'**) Chị ấy *tính* đến.

(11a) She *will* come.

(11b) She *is going to* come.

(11c) She *plans to* come.

(11d) She *intends to* come.

(11e) She *is* com*ing*.

2.2.2. Có thể sẽ, sẽ có thể or sẽ ... được

Consider the Vietnamese declarative numbered (16):

(16) Chị ấy ***có thể sẽ*** đến / ***sẽ có thể*** đến / ***sẽ*** đến ***được***.

It is noted that *có thể sẽ*, *sẽ có thể* and *sẽ … được* can be used interchangeably in Vietnamese. Below are the three English versions of (16), which all express *future possibiliti*es:

(16a) She ***can*** come.

(16b) She ***will be able to*** come.

(16c) She ***is going to be able to*** come.

These translations are based on the observations done by Hayden et al. (1956, p. 110): it is quite possible to replace *can* by either *will be able to* or *am/is/are going to be able to* without any change found in the basic meaning of the sentences (16a-c). In the same vein, Hofmann (1993) considers *can*, *can't* and *cannot* as "*the plain forms*" which describe "events at any time except in the past, i.e. present, future or always" (p. 99).

Disagreeing with the above-mentioned observations done by Hayden, et al. (1956), Eastwood (1994) argues that the two sentences (16a) and (16b) are not identical: (16a) shows "a possible future action" while (16b) shows "future ability or opportunity" (pp. 124-125). Like Eastwood (1994), Alexander (1990) emphasizes that only *will be able to*, not *can*, and even less *could*, can express "future ability" in his own example numbered (17) here:

(17) Baby *will be able to* stand up in two weeks.

Hai tuần nữa bé *sẽ* đứng chựng *được*. (p. 161)

Findings and Discussion

Table 1. Similarities and differences between Vietnamese and English expressions of future meaning

Vietnamese expressions of future mean	English expressions of future meaning
2.1. Future meaning expressed by ***only one modal verb***	
2.1.1. *Plain future*: ***sẽ*** vs. '***will*** or ***be going to*** + infinitive'	
(1) Chị ấy ***sẽ*** đến.	(1a) She ***will*** come.
	(1b) She ***is going to*** come.
2.1.2. *Definite future arrangement*	
(5) Sáng mai chị ấy ***sẽ*** đến.	**2**.1.2.1. ***sẽ*** vs. 'English lexical verb in the continuous present:
(5') Sáng mai chị ấy đến.	(5a) She ***is*** com***ing*** tomorrow morning.
	2.1.2.2. ***sẽ*** vs. 'English lexical verb in the simple present:

	(5b) She *comes* tomorrow morning.
2.1.3. *future without intention*: *sẽ* vs. 'English lexical verb in the continuous future'	
(5) Sáng mai chị ấy **_sẽ_** đến. (5') Sáng mai chị ấy đến.	(5c) She**_'ll be_** com**_ing_** tomorrow morning.
2.1.4. *Assumptions*, *speculations* or *predictions about the future*	
(5) Sáng mai chị ấy **_sẽ_** đến. (5') Sáng mai chị ấy đến.	*sẽ* vs. 'English lexical verb in *the future simple optionally accompanied by an introducing clause*': (5d) (*I'm sure*) she**_'ll_** come tomorrow morning.
	sẽ vs. 'English lexical verb in *the future simple optionally accompanied by an adverb*': (5e) She**_'ll_** (*probably*) come tomorrow morning.
	sẽ vs. '*be going to* + infinitive' (for *predictions* only): (5f) She**_'s going to_** come tomorrow morning.
2.1.5. *Promise*: *sẽ* vs. '*will* + infinitive'	
(9) Sáng mai tôi **_sẽ_** đến. (9') Sáng mai tôi đến.	(9a) I**_'ll_** come tomorrow morning. (9b) I **_promise_** to come tomorrow morning. (9c) I**_'ll_** come tomorrow morning; I **_promise_**.
2.1.6. *Near future*	
(10) Chị ấy **_sắp_** đến.	*sắp* vs. '*be about to* + infinitive': (10a) She **_is about to_** come.
	sắp vs. 'English lexical verb in the continuous present obligatorily accompanied by *soon, instantly, just now*': (10b) She **_is_** com**_ing_** *soon/instantly/just now*.
2.1.7. *Future with intention*	
(11) Chị ấy **_định_** đến. (1) Chị ấy **_sẽ_** đến. (11') Chị ấy **_tính_** đến.	**2**.1.7.1. *định* vs. '*will* or *be going to* + infinitive': (11a) She **_will_** come. (11b) She **_is going to_** come.
	2.1.7.2. *định* vs. '*plan to* or *intend to* + infinitive': (11c) She **_plans to_** come. (11d) She **_intends to_** come.
	2.1.7.3. *định* vs. 'English lexical verb in the continuous present: (11e) She **_is_** com**_ing_**.
2.2. Future meaning expressed by **_two or more modal verbs_**	

2.2.1. *Future with intention*: **_định sẽ_**, **_tính sẽ_**, or **_dự tính sẽ_**	
(15) Chị ấy **_định sẽ_** / **_tính sẽ_** / **_dự tính sẽ_** đến.	(15a) She **_will_** come. (15b) She **_is going to_** come. (15c) She **_plans to_** come. (15d) She **_intends to_** come. (15e) She **_is_** com**_ing_**.
2.2.2. *future possibility*: **_có thể sẽ_**, **_sẽ có thể_** or **_sẽ … được_**	
(16) Chị ấy **_có thể sẽ_** đến/ **_sẽ có thể_** đến/ **_sẽ_** đến **_được_**.	(16a) She **_can_** come. (16b) She **_will be able to_** come. (16c) She **_is going to be able to_** come.

3.1. Means to express future meaning

The Vietnamese language generally expresses future meaning by *a lexical means*: (i) either a single modal verb like *sẽ*, *định*, *tính*, or *sắp*; (ii) or a combination of two or more modal verbs like *định sẽ*, *tính sẽ*, *dự tính sẽ*, *có thể sẽ*, *sẽ có thể*, or *sẽ … được*.

Vietnamese generally conveys its modality via lexical means, mostly by modal verbs (Cao, 1998, p. 261). Vietnamese does not convey its modality via grammatical means because, as an isolating and non-infected language, it has no verb conjugation: a verb has only one and the same form. Jorden et al. (1967, p. 3), Vuong and Moore (1994, p. 23), and Cao (1998, p. 262) all approve of this remark.

The English language expresses future meaning by:

- ✓ A lexical means:

- A single modal verb used in the simple future: '*will*';

- A lexical verb which is conjugated in the simple present to be used temporarily as a modal verb: '*plan*' or '*intend*';

- A fixed expression which is used as an idiom: '*be going to__*' or '*be about to__*'.

- ✓ A grammatical means: The inflectional morpheme {–(*e*)*s*} in the third person singular verb form of the simple present: 'come**_s_**;

- ✓ A combination of the available means, either lexical or grammatical:

- A combination of the lexical verb '*plan*' or '*intend*' and the inflectional morpheme {–(*e*)*s*} in the third person singular verb form of the simple present: '*plan**s***' or '*intend**s***';

- A combination of an auxiliary verb that has almost no lexical meaning like '*am*', '*is*' or '*are*' and the inflectional morpheme {–*ing*}, resulting in the verb form of the continuous present: **_is_** com**_ing_**;

- A combination of the modal verb '*will*', the auxiliary verb '*be*' and the inflectional morpheme {–*ing*}, resulting in the verb form of the continuous future: **_'ll be_** com**_ing_**;

- A combination of the modal verb '*will*' and the idiom '*be able to__*': **_'ll be able to_** come;

- A combination of the two idioms '*am/is/are going to*' and '*be able to __*': ***is going to be able to*** come;

- An English lexical verb conjugated in the simple future optionally accompanied by *an introducing clause*: (*I'm sure*) she***'ll*** come;

- An English lexical verb conjugated in the simple future optionally accompanied by *an adverb*, either of time, or of manner, or even both: She***'ll*** (*probably*) come *tomorrow morning*;

- An English lexical verb conjugated in the continuous present obligatorily accompanied by *soon*, *instantly* or *just now*: She ***is*** com***ing*** *soon/instantly/just now*.

The above-mentioned illustrates the "intra-lingual difficulties" (To, 2018, p. 67) that any learners of English, especially the ones whose mother tongue is Vietnamese, are supposed to overcome as quickly as possible to be fluent in English.

3.2. grammatical means vs. lexical means

In this paper, the term "grammatical means" refers to *the verb conjugation* in an inflected language like English, which involves:

- Inflectional morphemes like {–(*e*)*s*} or {–*ing*};

- Auxiliary verbs like '*be*' and its variants like '*am*', '*is*' or '*are*'.

Generally speaking, Vietnamese does not employ grammatical means to convey modality. As an isolating and non-infected language, Vietnamese has its own ways of repressing future meaning, which is a kind of modal meaning. The Vietnamese grammar system uses lexical items, which are called either "formal words" or "modal verbs" or whatever. In this paper, the term "lexical means" refers to such lexical items, whatever name they are called by.

Differences in the ways the two languages express future meaning lie basically in the fact that they belong to two different types of languages: either with or without the inflection, or the change, of their verb forms. The "without" any change of its verb forms expresses such a particular function named "future meaning" by lexical means, whereas the "with" employs both lexical and grammatical means, tending to appreciate grammatical means a bit more.

3.3. Present and non-past

As far as the two notions of *past* and *non-past* are concerned, the simple present is closely related to *non-past*, not to *present*, because the very tense can express future meaning, as illustrated by the above-mentioned (5b). Interestingly, the continuous present also belongs to *non-past*, not to *present*, despite the fact that it is a typical tense to express "activities that are in actual progress at the moment of speaking" (Hayden et al., 1956, p. 75).

3.4. Needs to distinguish various shades of future meaning

The Vietnamese language does not distinguish as many subtly different future meanings as the English language does; therefore, it is not necessary to employ any grammatical means for this

purpose. The coding by a lexical means like *sẽ*, *định*, *tính*, etc. indicates *the markedness* of the declaratives expressing future meaning, which, from the view of native speakers of Vietnamese, does not always need to make explicit, especially with the appearance of an adverbial of future time like *sáng mai* in (5') and (9'). The two Vietnamese declaratives, which recur right below for immediate consideration, clearly reflect this view:

(5') Sáng mai chị ấy đến.

(9') Sáng mai tôi đến.

It is the lack of exquisite delineation of different future meanings in their mother tongue that makes it really difficult for native speakers of Vietnamese to deal with these meanings expressed by grammatical and/or modal indicators in the English language. Vietnamese learners of English face difficulty at **Level 5** — **Split** in *the hierarchy of difficulty* initiated by Stockwell et al. (1965) and adopted by Brown (1994, p. 196). This is the highest difficulty level where one expression in their mother tongue separates into two or more in English, which are regarded as unnecessary to distinguish from the learners' viewpoint. This leads to many mistakes generally found in the learners' oral or written pieces of work (To, 2018).

At first glance, native speakers of English are quite pleased to find out that two or more expressions in their mother tongue merge into one in Vietnamese. This is **Level 1** — **Coalescence** in the same hierarchy of difficulty. For example, they just need to learn such lexical items as *sẽ*, *định*, *tính*, etc., then they can express future meaning in the Vietnamese language. However, the foreigners will encounter difficulty in perceiving Vietnamese modal meanings in different situations. When they deal with Vietnamese sentences, they have to depend more on contextual cues than when they process English sentences in which modality is revealed by signs — explicit indicators easily found in the structure of the nuclear predication of the English declarative in this paper.

3.5. 'Will' as an auxiliary verb or a modal verb

It is hard to deny *will* as an auxiliary verb easily found with the simple future. However, should we consider *will* and other meaningful expressions of future meaning in English as modal verbs — means of expressing modality (Palmer, 1979)? This perspective more or less draws the attention of Vietnamese learners of English to *the colored future*, which is much more difficult to identify than *the plain future*, which usually leads to a wrong assumption that the English grammar is quite easy!

3.6. Agreement in the interpretation of modal meanings, including a future meaning

There exists disagreement in the interpretation of future meaning in particular and the meaning conveyed by modal verbs in general, even by famous linguists as well as textbook writers, both native Vietnamese and English. Modal meanings in the English language are deeply influenced by its dialects, especially American English and British English. This phenomenon has not yet been highlighted in the Vietnamese language, but that does not mean it does not matter at all. That is why further research on modality and modal verbs is still a must, in the comparative and

contrasting approach, of course, for the sake of fast and accurate translation and interpreting nowadays.

Conclusion

To sum up, the researcher would like to give a personal feeling about the subject matter being studied and reported in this paper. Learning more about the relationship between *the signifier* and *the signified*, especially in the field of describing various future meanings of the nuclear predication in Vietnamese and English declaratives, the researcher is amazed by the two natural languages in question: not only do they successfully play the role of an effective means of communication but they also show how beautiful and complicated they are when dealing with their users' feelings and attitudes. Hopefully, this paper contributes something to teaching English to native speakers of Vietnamese and teaching Vietnamese to foreigners, especially those whose mother tongue is English, as far as ways to express future meaning are concerned.

For further research, the exquisite relationship between auxiliary verbs and modal verbs should be the focus, comparing and contrasting Vietnamese and English, of course. Various means of expressing other aspects of modality in the two natural languages should be the next concern, certainly in the comparative and contrasting approach as well. Qualitative and quantitative methods are expected to be used, resulting in a number of statistically meaningful numbers for both learners and teachers and for translators and interpreters. All efforts aim to bridge the gaps that may exist between a source text and its translated versions, especially from Vietnamese to English, which is usually considered as much more challenging than the opposite direction, i.e., from English to Vietnamese, by Vietnamese learners of English including the author of this paper.

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Biodata

To Minh Thanh received a Master's degree in Bilingual Education from the University of Massachusetts, the USA, in 1998 and a Ph. D's degree in Linguistics & Literature from the University of Social Sciences and Humanities, Ho Chi Minh City, Viet Nam in 2006. She was promoted to Associate Professor in Linguistics in 2012 and was awarded with the title of Meritorious Teacher by the President of Viet Nam in 2014 for her outstanding scientific research achievements and significant contribution to the educational development of the country. She is currently a lecturer of Department of English/American Language and Culture,

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A Study on Code-Switching in Oral and Texting Interaction and Communication of University Lecturer and Students

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ABSTRACT

Keywords: code-switching, code-switching in oral communication, code-switching in texting communication, code-switching of university teacher and students

Code-switching is a linguist phenomenon that has drawn the attention and several debates on its reasons and attitudes towards it. Sometimes, young adults make use of code-switching to show off, while some use it as a method of practicing English. However, university students use code-switching by accident or even as a habit when communicating with their lecturers. There is little research on code-switching in oral communication between university students and teachers in Vietnam, but code-switching in written communication is rare. This qualitative research mainly uses observation communication between an English teacher and non-English major students of three different levels, from beginner to pre-intermediate. Through analyzing observation and intimately interviewing teachers, the results show that both students at lower and higher-level code switch and the frequency they code-switch with Vietnamese teacher is more often than with foreign teacher, and code-switching in written communication is more than in oral communication. The main reasons for this phenomenon include the cultural influence, intimacy between teacher and students, and the limited English vocabulary. Teacher and students switch between English and Vietnamese in the classroom and between Vietnamese and English in texting communication so that the communications happen smoothly and effectively.

Introduction

Code-switching, code-mixing and code crossing are interesting phenomena that can easily be found in communication between multilingual speakers. There are positive and negative attitudes toward code-switching in the daily life of young adults. However, in a pedagogic context, code-switching should be carefully examined to know whether it can be an effective tool of communication between lecturers and students or not.

At Ho Chi Minh City University of Food Industry, Vietnam, all students have to learn English, regardless of their major. As required, non-English major students are put in English classes with levels from beginner to intermediate, namely Anh van so cap (elementary), Anh van 1 (elementary), Anh van 2 (Pre-intermediate), and Anh van 3 (intermediate). They can take a placement test to go to a higher-level class. Otherwise, they must learn all classes. In each class, students learn with a Vietnamese teacher and a foreign teacher who is mainly in charge of speaking parts of each unit. The majority of non-English major students in universities, in general, consider English as one of the compulsory subjects in their curriculum more than a linguistic tool that may help them in their future job. In a study, Le and Le (2022) mention internal and external factors that affect the student's attitude toward learning English. Among external factors, they also mention teacher communication as a factor. Nowadays, teachers can use technology to improve communication inside and outside the classroom to engage students in classroom activities and improve the effectiveness of teaching and learning language.

Communication in the classroom is influenced by many factors like the relationship among students, between teachers and students, their English ability, and the purpose of the communication. The target of interaction and communication in the classroom is to make sure that students understand the content of the lessons through activities designed in the book as well as the student can use English to communicate with their partners and foreign teacher through speaking activities while the online chat communication via Zalo is a place to transfer necessary information about the course, the lesson, and other questions during the course between teacher and students. Especially during the Covid-19 pandemic, both teachers and students have to get familiar with e-learning, and most communication is conducted via Zoom, Google Meet, Zalo, or other video conferencing, which brings benefits to higher education subjects; teachers, however, are required to work harder to encourage negative attitudes of students towards online learning as Nguyen (2022) mentions in his research. Teachers need to carefully consider language use to create a good learning environment and maintain and improve the effectiveness of teaching and learning English. Therefore, accepting or improving code-switching in interaction and communication needs to be carefully considered to bring the most benefits for learning and teaching English to students who are not majoring in English.

There are many research studies on code-switching all over the world, but in the Vietnamese tertiary context, there is relatively limited research and mostly focused on the code-switching of a teacher like a code-switching in giving instruction (Grant & Hang, 2017), the reasons and makes suggestions to improve code-switching in communication in classroom (Nhan, 2016), or the popularity of code-switching (Canh, 2014). However, it is likely not to have any research mention the code-switching in both oral communication in class and written communication.

Literature review

Code-switching (CS) is a phenomenon in which people switch between at least two languages. Linguists have a different definition of code-switching such as a shift or a switch from one language to another when speakers communicate with each other (Moghadam et al., 2012), "the alternation of two languages within a single discourse, sentence, or constituent" (Jamshidi & Navehebraim, 2013), or "the juxtaposition within the same speech exchange of passages of speech belonging to two different grammatical systems or subsystems" (Gumperz, 1982, p. 59). Code can be understood as elements of language such as letters, words, or groups of words.

Along with different types of code, there are different types of code-switching. Poplack (1980) divided CS into inter-sentential, intra-sentential, and extra-sentential. Extra-sentential CS refers to the insert of a tag or a common phrase of one language into a line in another language. There are some common tags that are often used in this type of CS, such as "You know", "Right?" and so on. Intra-sentential refers to switching inside a sentence like a vocabulary, while inter-sentential happens between sentences like, during five lines of communication in English, there are one or two lines in Vietnamese. Moreover, CS can be classified into situational CS and metaphorical CS (Blom & Gumperz (1972). Situational CS happens when speakers make a change in language according to setting, while metaphorical CS refers to code-switching because of the social status, power gap, or emotional expression.

Normally, code-switching happens between speakers who share the same languages and cultures, like two Vietnamese students may code-switch between English and their mother tongue. This phenomenon is very popular in many bilingual countries like Singapore, the Philippines, India, and Hong Kong because they use English as their second language in mostly all aspects of life and work. However, in EFL contexts like in Vietnam, the use of English is limited at schools, so communicating in English totally requires students to be influent by English and have a large source of vocabulary rather. Therefore, the switch between English and Vietnamese is very popular.

Reasons for code-switching

Although exposure to the target language can bring success in language acquisition, the results may not always be positive in different classroom situations (Ellis, 1994; Cook,2001; Widdowson, 2003). That is because sometimes, only targeting in the classroom can lead to fear, confusion, and even frustration when the learners cannot comprehend the input (Brice & Roseberry-McKibbin, 2001; Widdowson, 2003). Thanks to CS, speakers can find alternative linguistic means in their sharing language to continue their communication (Chung, 2006; Hamers & Blanc (2000); and Skiba (1997). In the classroom, the first language can be employed to increase comprehension (Cook, 2001). However, the target language should be used as much as possible in second language acquisition (Cook, 2001; Polio & Duff, 1994; Willis, 1996). Cook (2008) and Brice & Roseberry-McKibbin (2001) also agree that teachers can use the first language in foreign language classes for efficiency and naturalness, such as for explaining words, grammar points, class regulations, clarity, friendliness, or testing.

In a pedagogic setting, communication aims to make sure that the students understand the instruction and acquire English as much as possible. Code-switching can come for many different reasons. Bilgin (2016) states that Turkish students and teachers' CS are partly due to their beliefs, identity, and professionalism.

CS can bring benefits to language learners when they use it as a tool of learning (Lai, 1996; Cole, 1998; Critchley, 1999; Schweers, 1999; Burden, 2001; Tang, 2002; Greggio & Gil, 2007; Luo, 2019), when they quickly transfer information between languages to maximize their understanding of instruction (Skiba, 1997) or a good tool which helps lower language capacity increase their comprehension (Tien & Liu, 2006). Moreover, Gulzar (2010) claims that speakers code-switch to clarify, translate, explain the meaning of vocabulary, change the topic, and repeat the information. Blom and Gumperz (1972) also claim the function of changing the topic of CS in a pedagogical setting.

Some researchers argue the drawbacks of CS such as decreasing the effectiveness and practicality of learning the language (Bahous et al., 2014; Bensen & Çavuşoğlu, 2013; Zhao & Macaro, 2016; Zhu & Vanek, 2017) or influence on cognitive and metacognitive chances when the first language is exclusive in the language classroom (Macaro, 2009). However, they pointed out the potential consequences, but there was no clear evidence to prove it. Alrabah et al. (2016) claim that CS is used in both teaching English and even class management in Arab school although the teachers do not support the use of CS.

Attitude toward Code Switching

There are positive and negative attitudes toward CS. In second language acquisition, the more learners expose to target languages, the more benefits they can get. In addition, based on the standards of language purism and "standard language ideology" (Milroy, 2001), the evaluation of CS is negative because it shows a deficiency in using the target language (Anderson & Toribio, 2007; Pena, 2004) or code switchers can be considered as using broken language (Chana & Romaine, 1984). In many articles, authors express an unfavorable attitude toward CS when it is a sign of show-off of young adults (Gibbons, 1987).

However, many authors positively accept CS with several explanations. Bouy & Nicoladis (2018) states that CS in communication is positive because it is polite and boosts communication. In a pedagogic setting, as mentioned in reasons for CS in communication, CS is accepted for educational reasons. Both students and teachers support CS for pedagogical and social communication purposes (Adriosh &Razi, 2019; Zainil & Arsyad, 2021; Kasperczyk, 2005). Qing (2010) also agrees that CS is useful in the language learning context.

Code-Switching in written communication

Besides direct meetings in the classroom, teachers and students can keep in touch through the help of technology which is called computer-mediated communication. There are various types of computer-mediated communication, such as Facebook, Line, WhatsApp, Viber, or Zalo. CS can be found in oral communication and in texting SMS. Halim & Maros (2014) states that the

functions of CS in Facebook SMS are to "serve quotation, addressee specification, reiteration, message qualification, clarification, emphasis, checking, indicating emotions, availability, the principle of economy and free switching functions" (p.1). Montes-Alcalá (2007) states that people use CS to better emotional effect, create style, or indicate that speakers can use two languages when he mentions the idea of free switching for a social function. However, research on CS in texting messages in the pedagogical area is very rare, especially in the Vietnamese context.

In general, CS has been discussed and studied by many linguists. Although CS in a foreign language class is still a controversial issue, CS shows primary assistance in communication between teachers and students. Most researchers explore the CS in oral communication, but this research wants to find the existence and the reasons for switching between Vietnamese (L1) and English (L2) between teacher and students both in the classroom and in written communication.

Research Questions

This research wants to find the answer to the following questions:

1. Which type of code-switching do teacher and non-English major undergraduates switch more?
2. Where do students switch languages more often, oral communication in the classroom, or texting communication?
3. Why do teachers and students switch the languages in interaction and communication between students and teachers?

Methods

Pedagogical Setting & Participants

In this research, there are one Vietnamese teacher and one foreign teacher who are in charge of teaching three different classes during a month. Students come from classes of different English levels, beginners and pre-intermediate. There are about 50 students in each class. Their levels are divided based on their placement test and the final results of each term. Each week, they have one to three periods of learning English with Vietnamese teachers and two periods of learning with foreign teachers every two weeks.

Besides classroom communication, each class has a Zalo group, in which a Vietnamese teacher and students can keep in touch and make sure that the lesson requirement and course information are clearly transferred to all students. Zalo is increasingly popular these days because of its convenience, easy interaction, and useful functions. At the beginning of the course, the teacher creates a group to keep important information related to the courses, assignments, and class regulations. Teacher creates a friendly environment both in the

classroom and online to lessen the stress of learning the language of most university students. The communication in class and in the Zalo group is still maintained in the acceptable range of using appropriate languages and purposes of a language community.

Design of the Study

To get the most natural results of CS in communication between teachers and students, qualitative research was conducted with the help of observation, classroom recording, and SMS collection. Recording online classes includes the attendance of both Vietnamese and foreign teachers and students of these classes, while data on texting communication is only between Vietnamese teachers and the students.

Data collection & analysis

In this study, the analysis of data collection involves three phrases, including analyzing data of classroom recordings to find the CS in oral communication, analyzing data of texting conversations to find CS in written communication, and analyzing the interview with the teacher to find the reasons why she often switches languages in communication.

The data is collected within four weeks in the middle of the course. The reason for choosing this time is because the teacher and students get familiar with each other and know how the teacher will deliver each lesson. In addition, there are different stages during this time, such as learning as schedule and preparation for the midterm speaking test with a foreign teacher.

The recordings are then written in script, especially where the CS appears. The times of CS are counted, and the types of CS are also noted.

Data on texting communication in the Zalo group are carefully examined. The times of CS are listed and counted, and then the types of CS were also noted.

The short interviews with a Vietnamese teacher and two students who use code-switching in oral communication and in texting communication are recorded and analyzed to find the main reasons for switching the codes. The question "Why do you use code-switching in communication with students?" is used to interview Vietnamese teachers, while the question "Why do you sometimes use Vietnamese in English communication or use English in Vietnamese communication with teacher?" is used to interview students.

Results/Findings and discussion

CS in oral communication between teacher and students

According to the recordings, the teacher mainly uses CS for explaining and clarifying the meaning of vocabulary. However, in most cases, the teacher tries to get her students familiar with the target language's meaning by using both English meaning and Vietnamese meaning afterward. For example, she tried to explain the meaning as well as the differences of "summit" and "ridge". To make sure that students understand the meaning of "summit", she used the Vietnamese example "hội nghị thượng đỉnh" <Summit Meeting> as a useful tool.

Like vocabulary teaching, to save time and make sure students understand grammar points, the teacher switches code often or uses both languages. For example:

"Type 2 of conditional sentence is used to……Type 2 dùng khi mình muốn nói điều không thể xảy ra ở hiện tại. Ví dụ như If I were you, If I were a bird,…"<Type 2 is used when you want to talk about something that cannot happen in the present such as If I were you, If I were a bird.>

Students switch language unconsciously. Interestingly, most CS cases belong to cultural aspects. In Vietnamese tradition, when students talk to their teachers or seniors or someone older than them, they naturally add "Dạ" and "thưa". These words are used to show polite manner or respect to the teacher; they do not contain meaning in the conversation. It is hard to translate it into English because there is no need to use these words in English. For example,

"Dạ, he said that he would be there the following week."

"Dạ, three thousand miles."

"Thưa cô, five questions" < teacher, five questions.>

Furthermore, students switch languages when they want to confirm information or ask for important information. For example,

"Cô ơi, con dùng stunning cho món ăn được không ạ?" <Teacher, can I use "stunning" to describe food?>

Students switch the language when they cannot express their ideas in the target language or because they lack the necessary vocabularies to successfully state their ideas. Another example of this is:

Foreign teacher: Is there any historic building near your house?

Student: histor….histo….Uhm….Can you say again?

Foreign teacher: Is there any historic building or historic sites near your house, like museum, battlefield, or market. Got it?

Student: ah, there is Luy Ban Bich near my house.

Foreign teacher: What is Luy Ban Bich?

Student turns to Vietnamese teacher: Cô nói dùm con đi. Lũy Bán Bích là chỗ hồi xưa người ta dùng để chia biên giới của hai bên mình với địch đó. <Teacher, can you help me explain? Luy Ban Bich is the fort that people built to protect themselves from the attack of enemy.>

Lacking vocabulary along with fear can lead to the code-switching of some students, especially those at a lower level of English proficiency. One of the students was scared that she might lose a point if she could not answer the question of the foreign teacher, which led to the confusion

of the foreign teacher when she said

"Teacher….wait…teacher đợi con xíu…. điện thoại con mở không lên…dạ cải lương is traditional music of Vietnamese in the past…" <Teacher…wait…please wait for me…I cannot open my phone probably…cai luong is the traditional music of Vietnamese in the past.>

Students also choose CS as a tool to master vocabulary and grammar points.

Example 1: "Cô ơi, sao câu đó có Now mà mình lại không chia dạng mix vậy ạ?" < teacher, there is "now" in this sentence, so why don't we use mix type of conditional sentence?>

Example 2: "Cô ơi, vậy là spectacular và stunning có nghĩa tương tự nhau khi tả về cảnh đẹp, nhưng mà stunning thì nhiều khi có cảm giác hơi tiêu cực hả cô?" < teacher, the word "spectacular" and "stunning" have similar meanings when we talk about the beauty of a scene, but "stunning" implies a little bit of negative meaning, isn't it?>

The ideal purpose of teaching and learning English is that students can use English in oral and written communication. However, at the end of the course, students must take multiple-choice tests which mainly focus on vocabulary and reading skills. Therefore, in class, the teacher accepts L1 to give the meaning of new words, new or complicated grammar points, and clarify the instruction, especially instruction for important assignments. When a teacher needs to deliver information from school and faculty of Foreign Languages to students, the teacher often uses Vietnamese to guarantee that all of them understand and strictly follow the announcements although they are in an English classroom.

Code-Switching in texting messages

In classroom interaction and communication, teachers and students maximize the chances of using English. However, in texting, they use mainly Vietnamese because the teacher does not expect any misunderstanding about crucial information of the course. Through taking a look at the messages from groups, CS is very common, and most cases are intra-sentential CS. The frequency of code-switching in messages is more often than in oral communication.

Here are examples of teacher's code-switching:

"Thank con nhé" <Thank you>

"Unit 1 là health, tới unit 6 là stages in life" <Unit 1 to unit 6, unit 1 title is Health and Unit 6 title is Stages in Life>

"Có 12 units" <There are 12 units>

"Phần self-study không tính điểm MYELT nhé" <The result of the Self-study part is not included in MYELT points.>

"Cô có gửi đường link trong group Zalo lớp đó" <I sent the link in Zalo group.>

"Tụi con cố gắng ôn tập bằng các đường link cô soạn trong file word đó nha" <Don't forget to practice by the links that I wrote in document file.>

"Mấy link sau là từng quiz cô lọc ra" <the following links are sorted from quizzes.>

Here is an example of students' code-switching:

"Cô ơi, reaction là j vậy cô?" <What does reaction mean, miss?>

"Like và share giúp con với cô" <Help me like and share the post>

"Tên file lưu như thế nào vậy cô?" <How to save the file in the correct name?>

"Cô share đi cô" <Share it, teacher.>

"Thầy đọc điểm sao con nghe nhiều zero quá vậy cô" <When the teacher read the points out loud, I heard so many zero. Is it right?>

Sometimes, both teacher and students naturally switch between lines of conversation. For example:

Conversation 1:

Student: Là if + S + be, S + be hả cô? <Is the structure if + S + be, S + be, teacher?>

Teacher: ko con. Đó là câu điều kiện loại 0. Tức là diễn đạt sự thật ví dụ như nước đun tới 100 độ thì sôi vậy đó. Cả 2 vế đều là Simple present hết nha. <No, this is type 0 of a conditional sentence, which talks about the fact like when the water is heated to 100 degrees, it boils. We use a simple present for both clauses.>

Student: Dạ lâu rồi con nhớ If 123, quên luôn cái if 0 <Oh I see. I learned it a long time ago, so I just remember type 1,2,3 of conditional sentences, and I forgot type 0>

Conversation 2: (student shows a photo of a passive sentence)

Student: Cái này sao tobe đi với V2 vậy cô? <In this sentence, why does "to be" go with the past form of a verb, teacher?>

Teacher: Bị động ở hiện tại am/is/are + V3/ed mà con? Đâu phải V2 đâu? <In passive in present simple tense, we have the structure am/is/are + V3/ed. We don't use V2 in this case. Got it?>

The results of analyzing class observation (both in class and in-text communication) and interviews lead to some remarkable findings:

Type of code-switching in oral and written communication

There are more varieties of CS in oral communication than in writing. According to the records, tag, intra-sentential, and inter-sentential CS are very common in oral communication, while intra-sentential CS is the most popular in written communication. In the classroom, the teacher tries to use as much English as possible, but sometimes, Vietnamese is employed to make sure students understand the lesson better. The teacher explains in English first, and then she asks students to make examples. If most students show confused faces, the teacher often explains in Vietnamese and gives English examples as illustrations. Therefore, the teacher switches

between English and Vietnamese in the whole sentence, especially in the lower level of English class. The teacher uses code-switching more often in lower classes than in higher class. In addition, tag CS is used with high frequency like "okay", "yes", yup", "I see", "you know", "good", "okay" or "that's right," and the teacher uses this type in most cases while students use "Dạ" or "thưa" (Yes or just a word to show respect without proper meaning in English). However, after about three weeks of working with both Vietnamese teachers and foreign teachers, students' tag CS reduces because they get familiar with communication in English.

In written communication, most cases are intra-sentential because they want to clarify information they do not know or are not sure about in English. Tag CS is hardly ever used in this setting because they communicate in Vietnamese so that they can show respect to the teacher through Vietnamese words.

The frequency of teacher and students code-switch in oral and written communication

Compared to CS in oral communication, teacher and students switch between Vietnamese and English more when they interact via Zalo. Most CS cases are switching vocabularies which are either new words or too common terms like "link", "okay", "quiz", or "ASAP". Moreover, code-switching can be found at all class levels. The teacher uses more code-switching in lower levels than in higher levels to explain vocabulary, grammar points, and reading strategies.

In written communication, students are more confident in asking for information than in the classroom. Therefore, CS is written are more frequent as a result. Communication in Vietnamese helps them catch up with updated information and requirement of the course. However, sometimes they use CS spontaneously, making the conversation happen smoothly. For example, when the teacher mentions that next week, they have a small quiz in class and reminds them to revise some parts in previous lessons, there is the appearance of common English words in their Vietnamese conversation like "quiz", "unit", or name of grammar point "conditional sentence". In addition, most of the questions about English subjects so that the appearance of English words or phrases is understandable. In the classroom, students have textbooks and lesson slides provided by teachers so that they can easily catch up with new lessons, and they can use a dictionary to look up the meaning of new vocabulary. Most of them can do exercises in a book very well while they have trouble with expressing their understanding in English, especially with difficult themes like historic areas, space technology, or health. Vocabulary discovery and grammar points are two sections in which both students and the teacher need the help of their mother tongue. Among skills, students seem to use more Vietnamese in EFL class for writing skills because of their limited vocabulary source. The teacher also gives more suggested ideas in Vietnamese so they can think of ideas for their writing tasks.

The reasons for code-switching

In these cases, the main functions of CS are to save time and clarify the information. Most cases are to make communication spontaneous and smooth, which is why interlocutors sometimes do not recognize this phenomenon.

In EFL classes, students are non-English majors, so they do not know much about linguistic phenomena. Majority use code-switching because it makes the conversation more effective. It is sometimes nonsense if they translate the word into Vietnam before writing the text. Particularly, when they are confused about the meaning of the words, it is hard for them to translate them; otherwise, if they can translate it, they have no need to ask. For example:

"Cô ơi, reaction là j vậy cô?" <What does reaction mean, miss?>

In this example, if the student used completely Vietnamese, he would ask, "Cô ơi, phản ứng là gì vậy cô?" <What does reaction mean, miss?>. On Facebook, there are reactions like "like", "dislike", and "cared", but the boy did not know when he read it in an announcement. Interestingly, that announcement also used CS when they wrote, "Mỗi reaction sẽ nhận được 1 điểm." <Each reaction will be equal to 1 point.>

Students use CS when they ask about the grammar points because it is hard to translate grammar structure into Vietnamese, and if they ask an English question, they are afraid that the teacher will answer in English, which makes them more confused, and they may not get the answer they want. For instance,

"Là if + S + be, S + be hả cô?" <Is the structure if + S + be, S + be, teacher?>

In this case, if she translates into Vietnamese, it would be "Là nếu +chủ từ+ động từ thì là ở, chủ từ + động từ thì là ở hả cô?" <Is the structure if + S + be, S + be, teacher?>. Consequently, it would drive the teacher crazy to understand his question. Otherwise, if she asks in English, it would be, "So the structure is if + S + be, S + be, isn't it, teacher?" In response, the teacher would use English to show him his mistake and then explain the correct structure, like what she often does in the classroom. This action is time-wasting and not effective. Therefore, CS is a good choice.

It is rather unnatural when they use Vietnamese words in some cases like "link", "quiz", or "file". Although there are equivalent words for them like "đường truyền"- "link", "bài tập kiểm tra nhỏ" – "quiz", "tập tin" – "file", most people prefer using English words to Vietnamese ones as a habit. The fact that sometimes, teachers and students find it easy to catch up with these common English words than when someone uses the Vietnamese version.

In the interview, the teacher confirmed that, at first, she tried to use total English in her classes, but the results were not good. Therefore, in the recorded classes, she is more flexible and sometimes uses code-switching on purpose to save time and make it easy for students to follow the lesson. According to the interview, both students do not recognize that they switch the codes in communication because they do not know about this linguistic phenomenon, and they just communicate in their natural way of speaking and express their polite towards their teacher.

In general, the reasons for CS are to make the conversation smooth and natural, and there is no case that they use CS as a way to show off. In a classroom setting, the teacher and students switch codes when they want to clarify, explain and express their ideas, but they lack the necessary vocabulary. Students switch codes partly because of cultural influence when

communicating with Vietnamese teachers.

Discussion

The results enhance other studies on code-switching in Vietnamese university settings when they show that students in different English capacities use code-switching in their classroom interaction and communication with teachers. Moreover, the study adds proof of code-switching when the teacher and students communicate in their mother tongue through Zalo messages. Interestingly, they even use code-switching more often in Zalo than in-class communication. Another surprise is that students even switch the code when interacting with a foreign teacher, although it is rare.

In terms of types of code-switching, intra-sentential CS is the most common in both oral and texting communication. The teacher tries to make students understand and use English more often so that the frequency of inter-sentential CS is limited. However, the teacher is rather flexible and understands her students when she switches the code in lower English classes more than in higher English classes. Most students who are not major in English have to study this subject as a compulsory subject of their main course, so it is not easy to motivate them in classroom activities. Creating a comfortable environment and flexibly switching the languages in interactions seem to effectively transfer knowledge and motivate students.

In a pedagogical setting, there is no reason for students to show off when they use code-switching with their teacher. The main reasons for this linguistic phenomenon are improving the effectiveness of their communication, saving time, and clarifying information of new vocabulary or grammar points. In oral communication, the results also confirm that the cultural influence is one of the reasons why students often add "dạ", "vâng", "thưa" into their English communication with Vietnamese teachers.

These findings enhance the reason why teachers and students support CS for pedagogical and social communication purposes of Adriosh &Razi (2019), Zainil & Arsyad (2021), Kasperczyk (2005), and Qing (2010). However, the findings also object to unfavorable attitudes toward CS when young adults use CS for their show-off purpose, as Gibbons (1987) mentioned. Therefore, the result shows that CS in communication between the teacher and students and vice versa is used to improve communication and express respectfulness, which strongly supports the research of Bouy & Nicoladis (2018). Montes-Alcalá (2007) claims that using CS in written communication shows that the speakers can free switch between languages due to their language capacity, while most of the cases of code-switching in this study prove that students need the help of their mother tongue to clarify or to understand the language knowledge.

Code-switching is an effective tool in teaching EFL classes when teachers understand its role and use it to create a flexible and friendly environment that reduces the learners' anxiety and pressure. However, in real conversation, there is hardly any mixture between languages, so whether teachers forget to create life-like situations for students is a question. When looking at

the issues in the practical purpose of teaching and learning English, it would be more effective if the teacher and students could use only one language, English, because, for a long time, it will create a good habit of using the language in communication. However, teachers should carefully consider the balance between improving speaking and listening skills and reading skills while providing enough language knowledge for all students to take the final written exam. That is the main reason why she flexibly switches the code to save time and increase the effectiveness of transferring necessary knowledge. Using as much L1 in classes as possible is good. However, code-switching at the right time is also a good solution to improve the quality and effectiveness of oral and texting communication and interaction between the teacher and students. In general, it is hard to estimate how much code-switching in EFL class communication is acceptable and how much is not good so that based on the real situations, the teacher considers the need of learners and the requirement of the course to make better use of code-switching.

Conclusion

Code-switching has been mentioned in much research, in which there is both positive and negative attitude towards it. In pedagogical settings, switching between languages can bring benefits for both lecturers and students because CS helps communication happen more naturally and effectively in the classroom and even in texting communication. Although some blame CS as evidence of a lack of professionalism, many researchers support CS because of the effectiveness it brings to communication. This study enhances the positive aspects of using CS not only in oral interaction and communication in the classroom but also in computer-mediated communication. CS can happen in the lower level and pre-intermediate level of English proficiency. Teachers employ CS as an effective tool for clarifying, explaining new vocabulary and complicated grammar points, and saving time for other activities in the classroom, while students mainly use CS because of the influence of their culture or habit of using respectful words when talking with older or senior in Vietnamese. In texting communication, there are switches naturally between Vietnamese and English, and even interlocutors do not recognize it. The reasons for these CS are because they find it easy to write, and others can easily understand their question more than when they do not switch the languages. In the future, the researcher will conduct more studies on the CS among major in English undergraduates and even CS in formal and informal conversations between students in Vietnamese classes to measure the influence of learning a language on their communication. The results of the recording are analyzed based on what happened during the class and the researcher's general knowledge so that the attitude and the most profound reason for code-switching of students may not be the best found. In future research, it requires more surveys and interviews to look at the linguistic phenomenon from different views, or the attendants can be from different universities to make the results more reliable, and it would be another chance for university teachers to come up with solutions to reduce or encourage CS in tertiary education.

In conclusion, the study enhances previous research on code-switching at the tertiary level or

in educational settings, including the type of code-switching and the main reasons for using code-switching in communication. The study also enriches this field by its findings on using code-switching in texting communication. In general, many different types of code-switching are found in communication, among which intra-sentential CS is more popular than inter-sentential CS. The main reasons for switching codes are positive, which helps to bring benefits to communication. Thanks to the research, EFL teachers and lecturers may better consider using code-switching and how much they should use in their own classes to improve the effectiveness of the teaching and learning English at the university level.

Acknowledgments

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Biodata

Ms. Le Thi Ngoc Hien, an English lecturer at the Faculty of Foreign Languages of Ho Chi Minh University of Food Industry, has many experiences working with EFL students from secondary to tertiary level. Besides studies on language teaching and learning, she is interested in linguistic aspects to improve the quality of teaching English for EFL students.

E-learning Satisfaction during the Covid -19 Epidemic: Evidence from a Vietnam-based Law School

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ABSTRACT

Keywords:	The purpose of this research is to investigate the association between system, information, service quality, perceived ease of use, perceived usefulness, and learner satisfaction with e-learning in Vietnam during the Covid-19 era. The research collected 612 answers from current law students at Ho Chi Minh University of Law using a questionnaire-based survey and sampling by convenience. To validate the hypotheses, structural equation modeling was used. Except for the association between system quality and learner satisfaction, all quality factors were shown to positively impact learner satisfaction. In addition, the present research demonstrated that perceived usability and value moderate the link between quality and students' partial and complete satisfaction. This is the first research to examine the relationship between perceived ease of use, perceived usefulness, and student happiness in a platform-based setting. In addition, this research has major implications for education administrators who want to successfully retain students by bolstering the elements that contribute to student satisfaction with online learning.
E-learning Satisfaction, Integrated model, Learner Satisfaction	

Introduction

The term "e-learning" refers to online instruction delivered via a customizable platform. Students' knowledge, abilities, and other outcomes must be enhanced on a continuous basis. E-learning helps students make big progress at their own speed as well as helps to lower the educational costs (Zhang & Zhu, 2008). E-learning is a combination of distant and remote education in which the teacher and student are geographically or temporally separated (Liaw, 2008). Students participating in distance education programs enjoy watching professor-recorded lectures on video-streaming sites such as YouTube and Vimeo (Burke, Snyder, & Rager, 2009). Students can now watch videotaped lectures from their lecturers in a variety of universities and training organizations. Instead of simply viewing or listening to lectures on the

system, students must now participate in the software and course by completing assignments, taking quizzes, and participating in discussion forums (Dixson, 2010). Given the increased interest in lifelong learning, online education programs have the potential to significantly extend the breadth of available on-demand learning options (Akyol & Garrison, 2011). Students and instructors alike have been impacted by the Covid-19 pandemic, from preschool to university. As it turns out, 191 countries have closed their schools, affecting 90.2 percent of the global student population and 1.57 billion children and adolescents. New educational policies and interventions have been implemented to mitigate the pandemic's harmful effects and to ensure that students continue to receive an education during these trying times. It took only a few minutes for the world's educational systems to react. The bulk of online courses in higher education is offered digitally. As a result of COVID-19, students have been compelled to enroll in online continuing education courses (Baber, 2020).

Numerous forms of online learning are being introduced by universities and other higher educational institutions throughout the world, and for the most part, these institutions are pioneering this field (Nguyen & Nguyen, 2021). In the middle of these unplanned changes, administrators, teachers, and students at educational institutions are confronted with a slew of unexpected and unanticipated issues associated with online learning that they had not anticipated (Moorhouse, 2020; M. T. Pham, Luu, Mai, Thai, & Ngo, 2022). This transition comes rapidly and unexpectedly throughout COVID-19; hence, the quality of learning and learner satisfaction becomes the most important study topics to investigate (Lewnard & Lo, 2020; N. T. Pham & Van Nghiem, 2022; Tran & Nguyen, 2022). Vietnam was one of the most impacted countries by the Covid-19 outbreak, and the country's educational system is still reeling from the pandemic's consequences. The success of Covid-19 has prompted the Vietnamese government and school system to take proactive measures to address contemporary issues. There has been sufficient study conducted on e-learning, particularly in developed countries, to date to assess the overall quality of the courseware. However, few studies have been done to assess the validity of developed-world research findings for Vietnamese students, particularly in the aftermath of the Covid-19 outbreak. As a consequence, the primary purpose of this research is to evaluate how different e-learning elements influence the system, information, and service quality, as well as the ease of use and usefulness in relation to student satisfaction at Ho Chi Minh University of Law. The findings may assist institutions and governments in better understanding the challenges confronting the Vietnamese higher education sector in the aftermath of the Covid 19 outbreak.

Literature review

This study generated a unique model that integrates the Technology Acceptance Model (TAM) (Davis, 1989) and Information System Success (ISS) (DeLone & McLean, 2003) constructs. The quality, ease of use, and usefulness of an e-learning platform may affect student satisfaction. The following sections discuss the numerous components that comprise the model described in this study.

System Quality (SYS) is a statistic that is used to quantify the level of service that users should anticipate from an information system (DeLone & McLean, 1992). When Rai, Lang, and Welker (2002) consider IS models, they consider their ease of use as a component of system quality (Rai, Lang, & Welker, 2002). Gable et al. and Seddon all evaluate the effectiveness of D&M models by examining system quality (DeLone & McLean, 2003, 2004). This is one of the most critical notions in theoretical models of the success of information systems (Gable, Sedera, & Chan, 2008; Seddon, 1997). According to this study, the more advanced the new technology, the more likely students will be satisfied with its ease of use and usefulness. This suggests that the system quality has a direct effect on students' satisfaction. As a result, it generates the following hypothesis:

H1a: SYS has a favorable effect on EU.

H1b: SYS has a favorable effect on PUS.

H1c: SYS has a favorable effect on LES.

Information Quality (INQ) evaluates a system's precision, comprehensiveness, relevance, and coherence (DeLone & McLean, 1992). It is important to note that the definition of information quality varies among systems (Sedera, Gable, & Chan, 2004). The DeLone and McLean conceptual frameworks for IS success include information quality as well as system quality (DeLone & McLean, 1992). The study claims that better information quality new technologies will increase student satisfaction. As so, the following theory is advanced:

H2a: INQ has a favorable effect on EU.

H2b: INQ has a favorable effect on PUS.

H2c: INQ has a favorable effect on LES.

Service Quality (SEQ): the system user receives information technology and information technology assistance (DeLone & McLean, 2003, 2004). According to DeLone and McLean, it is a notion in the D&M model (DeLone & McLean, 2003). Thus, service quality can be added as a new concept to the paradigm of information system success (DeLone & McLean, 2016). As so, the following theory is advanced:

H3a: SEQ has a favorable effect on PEU.

H3b: SEQ has a favorable effect on PUS.

H3c: SEQ has a favorable effect on LES.

Perceived ease of use (PEU) is a critical factor in determining whether new technology-based applications are immediately accepted (Davis, 1989; Venkatesh, Morris, Davis, & Davis, 2003). Numerous past researches have demonstrated the effect of perceived ease of use on the intention to engage in e-learning (Chen & Tseng, 2012; M. Chow, Herold, Choo, & Chan, 2012; Islam, 2013; Šumak, Heričko, & Pušnik, 2011). Thus, the easier it is for learners to utilize an e-learning system, the more satisfied they are, and thus the more likely it will be used. PUS may also affect intent to use in an e-learning environment through PEU (Chen & Tseng, 2012). The user-

friendliness of the system may have an effect on the satisfaction of learners.

H4. PEU has a favorable effect on PUS.

H5. PEU has a favorable effect on LES.

Perceived usefulness (PUS) is a critical aspect of intention when it comes to encouraging customers to adopt more advanced and user-friendly technology that gives people greater influence over their lives (Pikkarainen, Pikkarainen, Karjaluoto, & Pahnila, 2004). Indeed, a person's willingness to use a particular information system is contingent upon their assessment of its utility (Mohammadi, 2015). It has been demonstrated that perceived utility contributes to learner satisfaction with e-learning services (Chen & Tseng, 2012; M. Chow et al., 2012; Islam, 2013; Šumak et al., 2011). Therefore, the greater a learner's preference for an e-learning system, the greater the likelihood that it will be implemented.

H6. PUS has a favorable effect on LES.

The model's hypothesized variables and their correlations were obtained from the previously discussed models and ideas. Figure 1 illustrates the merged model. PEU and PUS are both predictors and determinants of learner satisfaction, according to the suggested model. Using PEU and PUS as antecedent factors to user satisfaction, the proposed integrated model evaluates the direct and indirect link between quality and learner pleasure during the Covid-19 outbreak. The model puts out six hypotheses.
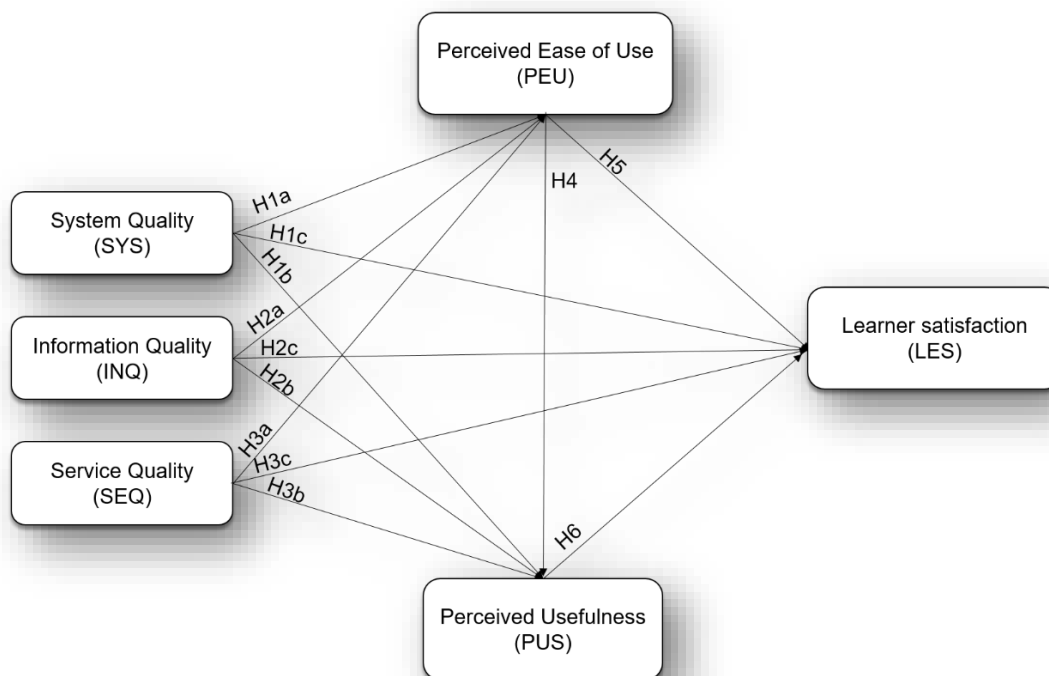
Figure 1 Model for research

Methods

Research Method

The study is divided into two stages: a preliminary qualitative stage and a formal quantitative stage. Students who used the e-learning system at Ho Chi Minh City University of Law during the COVID-19 epidemic supplied a preliminary experimental scale for investigation. This study used a 26-item questionnaire to administer a multi-item Likert scale. As a method for assessing agreement and disagreement, a Likert Scale was used, with 5 being the highest agreement and 1 representing the weakest. We required a precise English to Vietnamese translation due to the nature of our responses. We surveyed students who used or were utilizing e-learning systems at Ho Chi Minh City University of Law from April to December 2021 using Google Forms. 612 (out of 630) of the 26 variables gathered were usable.

Descriptive analysis

These descriptive statistics enable the identification of students who used e-learning. Around 81.9 percent of the population is female, whereas only 19.1 percent is male. 42.5 percent of respondents claimed less than five years of ICT experience, 35.3% reported less than 10 years, and the remaining respondents indicated more than ten years of ICT experience.

Results and discussion

Partial Least Squares-Variance-Based Modeling for Structural Equations Using the SmartPLS 3.0 program for Structural Equation Modeling, we assessed our study model's performance (SEM-VB). Following the descriptive analysis, the analytical methodologies given by Anderson & Gerbing (1988), which included model validation (validity and reliability), and Hair et al. (2017), which included model structure validation, were applied (testing the hypothesized relationships) (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988; Hair Jr, Sarstedt, Ringle, & Gudergan, 2017). Measurements and structural models are combined in a two-step assessment technique discovered to be superior to the one-step evaluation procedure by Schumacker and Lomax (2004) and Hair et al. (2010) (Hair, Black, Babin, & Tatham, 2010; Schumacker & Lomax, 2004). Hair and co-authors define measurement models as defining how each construct is measured, whereas structural models define the relationships between these variables. In comparison to other statistical techniques, PLS gives more exact estimates by assessing both the observed data and the structural model concurrently (Barclay, Higgins, & Thompson, 1995).

Measurement model assessment

We tested the reliability and validity of the measuring approach's constructs (including convergent and discriminant validity). Using Cronbach's alpha coefficients, construct reliability was determined for each of the primary variables of the measurement model. There was a wide range in Cronbach's alpha coefficients for individual participants, with values between 0.85 and 0.94. (Kannan & Tan, 2005). This shows that there is a high level of build dependability, with composite reliability (CR) values that range from 0.901 to 0.960 (Kline, 2015). As a result of

this analysis, the Cronbach's Alpha and CR values obtained for all constructs were judged error-free. The indicator's dependability was determined using factor loading. Due to the fact that the build involves several loadings, the associated indications appear to have a great deal in common, as the construct records (Hair Jr et al., 2017). Statistical significance was attributed to factor loadings in excess of 0.50 percent (Hair et al., 2010). In each case, the loadings exceeded the required value of 0.5, and the goods complied with all applicable standards. All AVE values were more than 0.50, with values ranging from 0.694 to 0.856. Using the average variance of the data, convergence validity, or the degree to which one measure coincides well with another assessing the same concept, was examined (Hair et al., 2010). Convergent validity was successfully fulfilled across the board, as evidenced by the appropriate convergent validity in Table 1 of the results.

Table 1.

Outer loading, Cronbach alpha, Convergent validity and Average variance extracted

Item	Question	Outer loading (>0.7)	α (>0.7)	CR (>0.7)	AVE (>0.5)
SYQ1	E-learning is simple to utilize.	0.846	0.853	0.901	0.694
SYQ2	E-learning facilitates response time optimization.	0.870			
SYQ3	E-learning is a convenient method of instruction.	0.798			
SYQ4	E-learning provides a number of appealing features.	0.817			
INQ1	E-learning makes knowledge and information available on a continuous basis.	0.862	0.873	0.913	0.725
INQ2	E-learning supplies me with information that is pertinent to my situation.	0.835			
INQ3	E-learning enables me to access structured knowledge and information.	0.879			
INQ4	E-learning makes it possible to access a wealth of information.	0.829			
SEQ1	E-learning enables me to interact with the lecturer.	0.784	0.907	0.931	0.730
SEQ2	The personnel of the e-learning department responds cooperatively.	0.879			
SEQ3	E-learning enables the provision of appropriate online support and clarification.	0.883			
SEQ4	E-learning is constantly updated and upgraded.	0.856			
SEQ5	Excellent and precise support from the support department.	0.867			
PEU1	E-learning is a straightforward process.	0.878	0.877	0.916	0.731
PEU2	E-learning is a simple process to master.	0.889			
PEU3	E-learning is simple to utilize.	0.810			
PEU4	It's simple to comprehend e-learning.	0.840			
PUS1	I am more self-reliant as a result of e-learning.	0.901	0.944	0.960	0.856
PUS2	Cost-cutting through e-learning.	0.936			
PUS3	My performance is improved as a result of e-learning.	0.937			
PUS4	The effectiveness of e-learning.	0.927			
LES1	E-learning meets my educational requirements.	0.893	0.891	0.920	0.696
LES2	I am happy with the e-learning platform in general.	0.831			
LES3	E-learning has boosted my confidence.	0.852			
LES4	I believe that online education is vital both today and in the future.	0.806			
LES5	I am pleased with the quality of my instruction in an online context.	0.786			

Note: α= Cronbach's alpha; CR = Composite Reliability, AVE = Average Variance Extracted.

The discriminant validity of the model was determined using the Fornell-Larcker and heterotrait-monotrait ratios (the degree to which items differentiate across conceptions or assess independent concepts) (HTMT). Cross-loading analyses are frequently used to determine an

indicator's discriminant validity (Hair Jr et al., 2017). Results show that AVE square roots on diagonals are larger than correlations between constructs based on the Fornell-Larcke criterion, as shown in Table 2. (corresponding row and column values). To summarize, this demonstrates that constructions have a higher degree of discriminant validity than other components in the model since they are more closely related to their respective indicators (Fornell & Larcker, 1981; Hair Jr et al., 2017). Correlation coefficients for external constructions are less than 0.85. Thus, all of the constructions demonstrate discriminant value.

Table 2.

Discriminant validity results using the Fornell-Larcker criterion

Factors	INQ	LES	PEU	PUS	SEQ	SYQ
INQ	**0.852**					
LES	0.691	**0.834**				
PEU	0.702	0.658	**0.855**			
PUS	0.560	0.828	0.576	**0.925**		
SEQ	0.685	0.664	0.644	0.597	**0.855**	
SYQ	0.746	0.618	0.764	0.501	0.668	**0.833**

Henseler et al. (2015) assert that the Fornell-Larcker criterion fails to adequately represent the absence of discriminant validity in typical research contexts because, in their opinion, it does not adequately signal the absence of discriminant validity. Using the multitrait-multimethod matrix, they devised a new approach to correlations known as the heterotrait-monotrait ratio (HTMT). An evaluation of HTMT's discriminant validity is carried out in this study since HTMT values more than or equal to 0.90 are considered to be unfavorable for discrimination (Gold, Malhotra, & Segars, 2001), it may be concluded that discriminant validity was maintained in the data shown in Table 3 (Henseler, Ringle, & Sarstedt, 2015).

Table 3.

Results of HTMT's discriminant validity

Factor	INQ	LES	PEU	PUS	SEQ	SYQ
INQ						
LES	0.785					
PEU	0.797	0.737				
PUS	0.617	0.898	0.619			
SEQ	0.767	0.735	0.713	0.645		
SYQ	0.861	0.710	0.885	0.557	0.755	

Evaluation of structural models

In order to evaluate the structural model, Hair and colleagues (2017) suggested investigating the beta (β), R^2, and associated t-values using a 5,000-resample bootstrapping approach. Additionally, they suggest reporting impact sizes (f^2) as well as predicting importance (Q^2). According to Sullivan & Feinn (2012), the p-value just reveals whether or not an influence happens, but not its magnitude (Sullivan & Feinn, 2012).

Hypotheses tests

The assessment of the structural model, as depicted in Fig. 2 and Table 4, indicates the hypothesis testing. System quality (SYQ) has a strong correlation with perceived ease of use (PEU). Thus, with (β = 0.484, t = 9.939, p < 0.001), H1a is accepted. SYQ, on the other hand, has no significant effect on perceived usefulness (PUS) or learner satisfaction (LES). As a result, H1b and H1c are denied. PEU, PUS, and LES are significantly predicted by information quality (INQ). Thus, H2a, H2b, and H2c are all accepted with (β = 0.228, t = 4.432, p < 0.001); (β = 0.189, t = 2.711, p < 0.05) and (β = 0.211, t = 5.32, p < 0.001), respectively. Similarly, service quality (SEQ) has a strong predictive value for PEU, PUS, and LES. As a result, H3a, H3b, and H3c are supported (β = 0.165, t = 4.49, p < 0.001); (β = 0.339, t = 6.12, p < 0.01) and (β = 0.083, t = 2.582, p < 0.05), respectively. PEU is a major predictor of PUS. As a result, H4 is justified (β = 0.295, t = 6.12, p < 0.001). These are comparable to PEU and PUS, which were discovered to have a major effect on LES. As a result, H5 and H6 are both approved with (β = 0.079, t = 2.184, p < 0.05) and (β = 0.590, t = 18.734, p < 0.001), respectively.
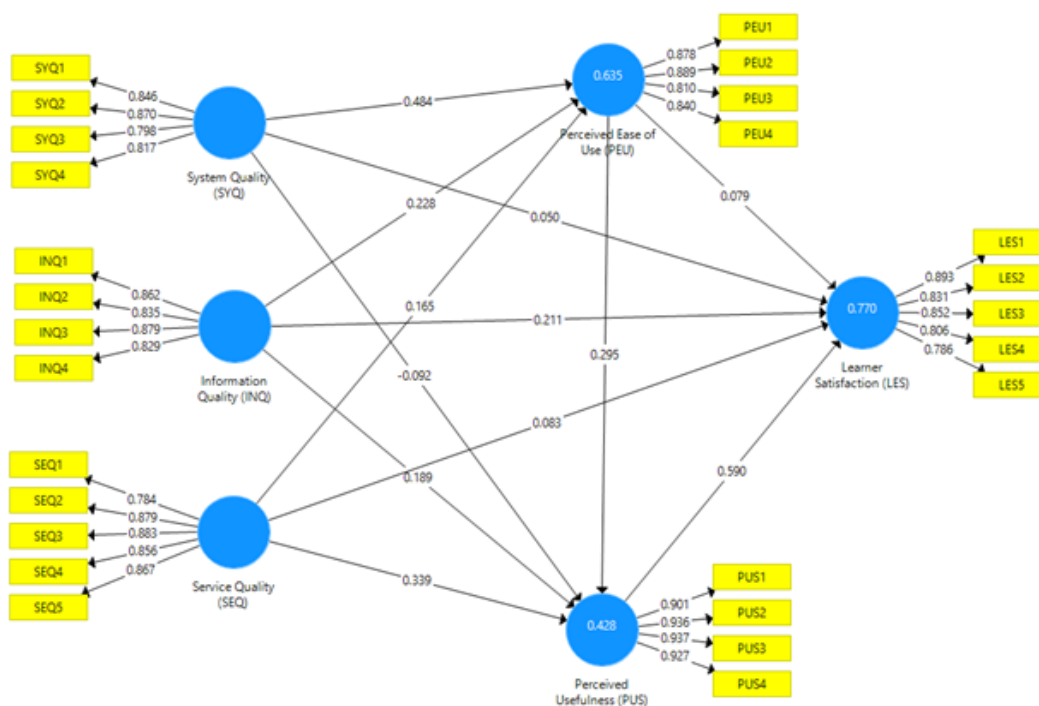
Figure 2 Result of PLS algorithm

Table 4.

Analysis of the structural path.

Hypothesis	Path	Original Sample (O)	STDEV	T Statistics	P Values	Supported or not
H1a	SYQ →PEU	0.484	0.049	9.939	0	**Yes**
H1b	SYQ → PUS	-0.092	0.066	1.403	0.161	No
H1c	SYQ → LES	0.05	0.041	1.215	0.224	No
H2a	INQ → PEU	0.228	0.052	4.432	0	**Yes**
H2b	INQ → PUS	0.189	0.07	2.711	0.007	**Yes**
H2c	INQ → LES	0.211	0.04	5.32	0	**Yes**
H3a	SEQ → PEU	0.165	0.037	4.49	0	**Yes**
H3b	SEQ → PUS	0.339	0.055	6.12	0	**Yes**
H3c	SEQ → LES	0.083	0.032	2.582	0.01	**Yes**
H4	PEU → PUS	0.295	0.055	5.399	0	**Yes**
H5	PEU → LES	0.079	0.036	2.184	0.029	**Yes**
H6	PUS → LES	0.59	0.031	18.734	0	**Yes**

Mediation assessment

To examine the relationship between SYQ, INQ, SEQ, PEU, PUS, and LES, a mediation study using the bootstrapping method was conducted and the findings were reported (Preacher & Hayes, 2008). The research developed a bias-corrected confidence interval with a 95% level of confidence and comprised 5,000 bootstrap samples. According to my results, SYS has no impact on PUS, despite the fact that PUS has a major effect on the LES; INQ has no effect on PEU, despite the fact that PEU has a significant effect on the LES; and SEQ has no effect on PEU, despite the fact that PEU has a big effect on the LES. Additionally, my study demonstrated that PEU was a partial mediator in the favorable relationships between INQ and PUS, INQ and LES, SEQ and LES, and PEU and LES. Additionally, PEU had a role in the favorable connections between INQ and LES, SEQ and LES, and PEU and LES. Furthermore, PEU and PUS operate as serial mediators in the interaction of SYQ, INQ, SEQ, and LES, as well as a connection between SYQ and INQ. (See details result from the Table 5)

Table 5

Analysis of Mediation Products

Path	Original Sample (O)	(STDEV)	T Statistics	P Values	Result
SYQ → PEU → LES	0.038	0.018	2.162	0.031	Full mediation
SYQ → PEU → PUS	0.143	0.03	4.764	0	Full mediation
SYQ → PEU → PUS → LES	0.084	0.018	4.626	0	Full mediation
SYQ → PUS → LES	-0.055	0.039	1.383	**0.167**	No mediation
INQ → PEU → PUS	0.067	0.02	3.398	0.001	Partial mediation
INQ → PEU → PUS → LES	0.04	0.012	3.406	0.001	Partial mediation
INQ → PUS → LES	0.112	0.042	2.651	0.008	Partial mediation
INQ → PEU → LES	0.018	0.01	1.863	**0.062**	No mediation
SEQ → PEU → PUS	0.049	0.014	3.439	0.001	Complementary Partial mediation
SEQ → PEU → PUS → LES	0.029	0.009	3.369	0.001	Partial mediation
SEQ → PUS → LES	0.2	0.034	5.853	0	Partial mediation
SEQ → PEU → LES	0.013	0.007	1.917	**0.055**	No mediation
PEU → PUS → LES	0.174	0.033	5.226	0	Partial mediation

Discussion

According to the findings of this research, there are several ways in which an e-learning system might affect the happiness of its users. The study model displays strong direct, indirect, and combined impacts of the primary variables, as shown in Tables 4 and 5. The results indicated that PUS was strongly affected by SYQ, INQ, and SEQ via the PEU component. Moreover, these data indicate that PEU mediates the connection between each of these three features (SYQ, INQ, SEQ) and PUS, which is similar to findings from other studies (W. S. Chow & Shi, 2014; Estriegana, Medina-Merodio, & Barchino, 2019; Sun, Tsai, Finger, Chen, & Yeh, 2008). Likewise, PEU and PUS operate as mediators between the three variables (SYQ, INQ, and SEQ) and LES. The INQ, SEQ, PEU, and PUS all had an influence on LES. This finding is consistent with prior research (W. S. Chow & Shi, 2014; Cidral, Oliveira, Di Felice, & Aparicio, 2018; Ozkan & Koseler, 2009; Sun et al., 2008).

In addition, this research has important implications for more precisely measuring students' pleasure in an online learning environment during the COVID-19 pandemic. This is one of the first empirical research to illustrate the sequential mediating roles of perceived ease of use and

usefulness in the link between SYQ, INQ, and SEQ and online learning satisfaction. In this way, the results of the research contribute to our knowledge of the connection between online learning quality and student satisfaction. As with any new technology, managers and policymakers are worried about the time and effort necessary to learn and administer an e-learning system. Benefits will be limited if e-learning is difficult to use, sluggish to react, and difficult to grasp and learn from. During the early phases of adoption, when process concerns provide challenges that must be addressed, the significance of the ease-of-use construct becomes more apparent, according to the results of this research. As with previous research on technology adoption, perceived usefulness is the most significant factor to consider when selecting whether or not to use an e-learning service. Throughout the Covid-19 epidemic, learners are likely to be confident in the advantages and ease of e-learning and to utilize it to meet their educational needs. Consequently, students who already value the service are more likely to use it.

Conclusion

This research provides a better knowledge of the factors that influence the satisfaction of students with e-learning platforms in Vietnam during the Covid-19 epidemic. I suggested a causal model based on a number of theories that have been demonstrated to be beneficial in the field of e-learning. Moreover, this research has been experimented in a Vietnamese law school. Using a structural equation model, the hypotheses indicated before in the research model were evaluated.

According to the statistics, perceived usefulness, information quality, service quality, and perceived ease of use significantly influenced learner satisfaction. Institutions of higher learning should place a higher premium on the quality of their learning platforms. While my study gives an overview of the components that contribute to learner satisfaction, it does have limitations. To begin, the data in this study were gathered from a random sample of students using an online form and should not be construed as typical of the population. Second, this study did not investigate the effects of demographic variables, which is something that future research should address.

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Biodata

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An Investigation into the Causes of Students' Anxiety in Learning English Speaking Skills

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ABSTRACT

Keywords: speaking skills, affective factor, oral performance, inhibition, anxiety

The origins and effects of anxiety in learning English speaking skills are explored in this research report. Because the study's focus was on the affective aspect of young learners experiencing mental and physical changes, 150 students and four speaking teachers at the College of Electro-Mechanics, Construction and Agro-Forestry of Central Vietnam (CECAC) were chosen as participants in this research. This study was conducted using quantitative and qualitative data collection approaches, which were complimentary. The data collected from the two methods reveals that the reasons for posing inhibition among the students come from themselves, their teachers, and other sources as well. Anxiety, an affective factor, was noticed to interfere significantly with the outcome of students' performance in speaking classes. To help the students become less inhibited, suggestions for employing strategies were also put forward for students and local teachers to help reduce speaking anxiety.

Introduction

Research has long noticed foreign language anxiety as one of the important barriers which may cause various difficulties for language learners. As shown in previous studies, language anxiety ranks high among the factors that prevent language learners from speaking the target language fluently and accurately. In recent decades, many studies on language anxiety in a foreign language and second language learning have been undertaken (Scovel, Horwitz, Horwitz, & 163 Cope, 1986; MacIntyre & Gardner, 1991a, 1991b, 1991c, etc.) and in foreign language speaking skills in particular (Woodrow, 2006; Liu, 2006; Lu & Liu, 2011; Ozturk & Gurbuz, 2014; Salem & Dyiar, 2014). Nevertheless, contrary to what has been happening abroad, less research has been conducted and acknowledged factors causing anxiety in foreign language learning in Vietnam. Only a few empirical studies have touched on the aspects of anxiety (Nguyen, 2014). The reality shows that when learners are in speaking English courses, they

only get support and guidance to develop their English language orally, but very little formal guidance is put forward to reduce their anxiety. Subsequently, learners who experience English speaking anxiety face difficulties as they are asked to present their ideas, even after learning the language for a long time. Therefore, the present research aims at investigating speaking-in-class anxiety with a main focus on the non-English-majored freshmen at CECAC.

Literature review

The importance of learning speaking and problems with its practice

Speaking is often considered the most prominent aspect of the usage of a foreign language. Because people who know a language are frequently referred to as speakers of that language, Ur (2000) claimed that speaking might be considered the most crucial and extremely required for efficient communication of the four language skills (Brown & Yule, 1983; Ur, 1996). Despite that argument, Horwitz et al. (1986) once claimed that when people speak in a second language (L2), they tend to become more apprehensive and tense and thus more unwilling to participate in a conversation.

In the process of learning a second or foreign language, Krashen (1981) described the Affective Filter as a mental block created by affective elements such as excessive anxiety, strong inhibition, low self-esteem, and low motivation. Accordingly, students who have the Affective Filter frequently have difficulty learning to speak the language as they do not want to engage in oral performance willingly. Moreover, they tend to experience language learning disabilities (Banks, 2008). Therefore, it is obvious that to maximize individual language use. We need to minimize the factors that decrease the outcome of speaking skills, Dörnyei (2005).

Foreign language learning anxiety

Generally, research defines language anxiety as "the feeling of apprehension, nervousness, tension, and worry linked with a stimulation of the autonomous nervous system" (Horwitz, Horwitz & Cope, 1986, p.125). Different aspects of anxiety were noticed in a definition in MacIntyre and Gardner (1991a). According to the two researchers, anxiety manifests as a basic personality feature, an emotional state, and anxiety about a specific event. Anxiety as a general personality trait means anxiety is a constant feature of someone's personality. People who experience generalized anxiety often feel anxious in various situations. Meanwhile, situational anxiety tends to happen in certain circumstances where people are involved. Hashimoto (2002) argued that L2 anxiety significantly negatively influences perceived competence. Therefore, anxiety has been noticed as a major factor that causes learners to avoid or reduce communication, which in turn hinders their learning outcomes (MacIntyre et al., 2002).

Speaking Anxiety

It has been noticed that, unlike in writing, where each learner can get on by themselves, without disturbing their classmates, at their speed, speaking skills, however, require the learners to engage in conversations in which they become members. Also, a certain amount of research has

acknowledged that compared to other language skills such as listening, writing, and reading, speaking or communicating in the foreign language classroom has been the most crucial source of anxiety (Horwitz, Horwitz, & Cope, 1986; Liu, 2006; Young, 1990; Phillips, 1992; Cheng, Horwitz, & Schallert, 1999). Speaking, in its most basic form, can be defined as a productive and engaging ability that involves four distinct cognitive stages: conceptualization, formulation, articulation, and self-monitoring (Levelt, cited in Pawlak, 2015). As this technique is accomplished in such a short amount of time, it appears that controlling all of the phases will be difficult for the speakers. Furthermore, successful completion of the stages is contingent on the learner's automaticity, which may provide some significant challenges, making them feel apprehensive when speaking spontaneously in the classroom. (Huang, 1998). To this argument, Yashima (2002) revealed in his study that a higher level of oral participation results from a combination of a low level of anxiety and a high level of perceived L2 communicative competence. Students who are anxious and consequently self-evaluated as less competent tend to speak less (Islam, Ahmad & Islam, *2022*; Vo, 2021, Dörnyei, 2005). Moreover, Pabro-Maquidato (2021) and MacItyre et al. (2002) stated that if students assume their level of linguistic proficiency is low, it makes individuals hesitant to communicate in the L2 and, as a result, discourages them from doing so. Hence, to help students become less inhibited, it is crucial to understand what causes speaking anxiety in foreign language-speaking classrooms and thus overcome those barriers of language anxiety.

Research Questions

This paper seeks to address the following research questions in order to address the issues:

1. What variables contribute to the students' fear of learning to speak in class?
2. What strategies should be used to help students overcome their fear of learning to speak?

Methods

Pedagogical Setting & Participants

The participants of this study are two distinct groups of respondents. The first group involved in this study were 150 non-English major freshmen from College Electro-mechanics, Construction, and Agro-forestry of Central Vietnam (CECAC). These students studied different fields, including engineering, financing and banking, business administration, and accounting. Six of the 150 students taking part in the questionnaire survey were randomly selected to answer the questions in the interview section. The second cohort of participants comprised four teachers who were invited to participate in the interview. At this college, the teachers have a variety of experience teaching English speaking skills. Their ages range from 26 to 50, and they have 3 to 15 years of teaching experience.

Design of the Study

Both quantitative and qualitative methods were used to obtain relevant and reliable data for the study. These two approaches are believed to bring the greatest value when they are combined (Johnson & Christensen, 2008).

Data collection and analysis

In terms of data collection for the current study, questionnaires and interviews were employed. The data collected from these instruments was cross-validated to improve their quality and validity. (Johnson & Christensen, 2008). For the quantitative method, the author used questionnaire systems, which were adapted from Abedini and Chalak (2017). This helps the researcher gain a high level of reliability through the data collected from the questionnaire (Johnson & Christensen, 2008). To maximize students' beliefs about the causes of anxiety in learning English speaking skills at the college, the questionnaire includes both closed and open-ended questions. Besides, the use of the qualitative method allows the researcher to collect data flexibly through semi-structured interviews. This helps understand the students' and teachers' concepts of the major causes of speaking anxiety among the students deeply.

To serve the data analysis, Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) software version 22 was used to examine data from the survey through the calculation of mean scores (M)" and standard deviation (St. D). In the interview section, the most crucial questions listed in the questionnaires were picked out, modified, and transformed into open-ended questions to make the research data more cross-validated. Based on the results of the questionnaires and analyzed data acquired during the interviews, major causes of speaking anxiety were identified. Then, ultimately, solutions would be put forward to help students overcome anxiety.

Findings and discussion

Factors Causing Students' Speaking Anxiety in the Classroom

Research Question 1 is aimed at exploring possible causes of anxiety for freshmen when they learn speaking skills in classrooms. The research results gained through combining the two approaches are believed to bring about the greatest research value, which is presented below.

Linguistic Factors

Table 1. Linguistic Factors causing anxiety in learning English speaking skills

No	Language knowledge-related factors	N	M	St. D
1	I don't have good knowledge of vocabulary to express myself.	150	3.90	1.239
2	I am not knowledgeable enough so I could talk freely.	150	3.57	1.297
3	English grammar rules make me overwhelmed.	150	3.52	1.274
4	I am so embarrassed about my pronunciation and accent.	150	3.50	1.284
5	I don't believe I have the ability or the desire to learn a new language.	150	3.43	1.253
6	I get more anxious when teachers are saying in English but I cannot understand.	150	3.35	1.200
7	When I am required to speak in English class without prior preparation, I become anxious.	150	3.47	1.256
8	The complexity of the assignment provided determines whether or not I will be worried in English class.	150	3.25	1.221

As displayed in table 1, the result demonstrates numerous factors associated with the assumption of a low level of language capability among the students. The research results show that linguistic factors are linked to the occurrence of speaking anxiety.

Initially, a low self-perception of English competence causes anxiety when speaking in class. Items 1, 2, 3, and 4 show students' assumptions about their English ability. "I don't have a broad vocabulary with which to express myself." and "English grammar rules make me overwhelmed" or "I am so embarrassed about my pronunciation and accent" received M = 3.90, 3.57, 3.32, and 3.50, respectively. Furthermore, the belief of not having the ability or gift of being able to learn a new language, M = 3.43 and feeling anxious when they cannot catch up with what their teacher is saying also resulted in passiveness among students, M = 3.35. Similarly, there was a great agreement among students saying that the assignments' degree of difficulty and not having preparation before lessons somehow made them inhibited in engaging in oral performance with M = 3.47 and M = 3.325, respectively.

Along with these statistics, the responses gained in the interviews with the students and teachers also reflect their similar attitudes toward causes of speaking anxiety. It is indicated that 4 out of the six respondents made the same answer when saying that in most cases, they felt anxious to speak in the classroom because their language knowledge was not good enough to communicate. For instance, (S3) assumed that her level of language competence was low by saying:

[…] "I think that my English ability is still weak; I need more vocabulary to speak or respond to the teacher's queries... so I am fairly quiet in the classroom, particularly during speaking periods."

Or another student reasoned:

[…] "I assume I am not gifted at studying English because I spent so much time acquiring it, but it turned out that the learning outcome is not as good as what I have expected in this subject." This interview response is the same as the results of the questionnaire (item 5, table 1).

Teacher and classroom environment-related factors

Table 2: Teacher and classroom environment-related factors causing anxiety in English speaking skills

No	Teacher and classroom environment-related factors	M	N	St. D
1	I don't like to be negatively evaluated by the teacher and that is why I try to avoid speaking.	150	3.32	1.105
2	When I hear others talking English well, I lose my confidence.	150	3. 27	1.189
3	When I talk incorrectly in English, I'm concerned that other classmates will laugh at me.	150	3.00	1.143
4	I feel demotivated when my classmates are far better than me while learning English in class.	150	2.91	1.161
5	My teachers normally strictly correct my mistakes, so I do not feel safe talking.	150	2.69	0.789
6	I do not like to work in pairs and groups assigned by teachers.	150	2.48	0.932
7	Teachers usually assign unfamiliar topics in class.	150	2.44	0.951
8	Teachers usually organize difficult speaking tasks	150	2.36	0.887

Regarding the results shown in table 2, teacher and classroom environment-related factors are closely associated with the occurrence of students' anxiety and speaking inhibition. Interestingly, the items displayed in this section fell into two separate groups. The first group included items from 1 to 5, which were considered to have a strong impact on a large number of the students' speaking anxiety. These factors can be named as being afraid of the teacher correcting mistakes, being negatively evaluated, afraid of being laughed at, feeling concerned that the other classmates will laugh when speaking incorrectly in English, feeling demotivated when seeing other classmates performing better. The "mean" of these items range from 3.32 to 2.69. The second group of items consists of the remaining statements in the table, from items 6 to 8. Notably, these items were not regarded as indicators of causing students in a classroom to become passive. In other words, students did not assume the teaching method, speaking topics as well as speaking activities arranged by the teacher... as inhibitors preventing them from speaking effectively in the English classroom. These items received a mean of 2.48, 2.44, and 2.36, respectively.

Regarding qualitative data gained in the interviews, when it comes to speaking practice, although some of the students claimed that correcting mistakes helps them improve their English, many of them stated that they felt anxious about it. For instance, one student expressed his thoughts as follows:

[…] "When I respond to the teacher's question, I often feel worried about making mistakes, especially being corrected and evaluated negatively. Sometimes corrections make me lose face and feel embarrassed. "

Besides, in the follow-up personal interview, one student described his situation:

[…] " I'm not nervous, hesitant, or anything like that when it comes to other lessons. When it comes to speaking sections, on the other hand, I'm usually nervous and inhibited. It gradually becomes a habit for me, and I find myself reluctant to speak in front of a large group. "

Speaking about this issue, the teacher in the interviews also reflected on the situation of students' passiveness. Below are noteworthy ideas from teachers' reasoning about the problem:

"I think they need to be more relaxed and build up the confidence to talk…T3" or "they should be more active to present their ideas...T1"

Strategies to reduce students' anxiety in English speaking performance

By applying interview methodologies, research question 2 attempted to determine the roles of students and teachers, which can assist in reducing students' nervousness and improving their oral communication abilities in English-speaking classes. The interviews were performed to thoroughly understand the teachers' and students' perspectives on the matter.

Teachers' strategies for reducing students' speaking inhibition

According to the interview, teachers appeared to have developed essential skills for getting students to speak up. Teachers' teaching strategies and methods of inspiring students, making error corrections, and creating a friendly environment, as evidenced in the responses, become markers that can assist in lessening students' speaking anxiety. Firstly, to the students' expectations, four out of six students agreed that teachers could use a range of teaching approaches to remove barriers that restrict students from participating in classroom activities. For example, the expressions listed below depict the students' mindset when asked how teachers can help them reduce their inhibitions in the classroom. "As I have seen, there are moments when we cannot understand the teacher's concepts or directions, and I get nervous if the teacher calls my name to speak. Therefore, I believe that teachers can manage these situations by describing and conveying their thoughts to students through synonyms and gestures." Besides, in a different response, S3 stated: "As I am a college student now, I wish I could communicate in English confidently when the time of graduation comes. To get that, I think I need to change my way of learning. I hope my English teachers can renew my learning methods and give me more energy. Together with the students' comment, here is a worthy response coming from teachers: "I believe that the types of tasks that a teacher organizes in the classroom can do a lot to eliminate students' inhibitions and boost their motivation... T2" and "...students are eager to talk when they recognize that the issue is fascinating and that they have something to say, or when there is a clear goal to achieve. Once again, great care should be taken to ensure that the task is appropriate for the student's abilities... T4."

Second, 100% of the teachers polled said that correction is a crucial factor in encouraging

students to speak up. One teacher said that "one of the key challenges for us as English teachers is error correction." I admit that I get irritated with them from time to time because of their "fossilized" errors. In most circumstances, though, I strive to remain calm and address my students' mistakes in a pleasant and encouraging manner. " Also, when it came to error fixing, one teacher provided the following method: "I don't correct every mistake because I want students to feel comfortable speaking and should always try." When they complete or pause for assistance, I address typical errors. "

Another point being noticed in the interview findings is that the majority of respondents said their favorite trait in a teacher is "friendly and loving." A teacher must exhibit motherly affection for their students, according to them. In the interview, students expressed their thoughts on the subject as follows: […] "I hope that my teacher will be friendly and have a sense of humor. Also, I believe that a teacher should love their students as a mother would, so that she cares about our studies unconditionally… S3." Also, according to S6, "Because of being inhibited and anxious, we hope a teacher should be concerned about the feelings of a student."

Students' strategies for eliminating anxiety in speaking performance

As shown in the interview response, both teachers and students agreed that to eliminate speaking anxiety, and the students should apply some vital techniques. Two of the most suggestible ones are named as keeping practice and improving listening ability.

According to interviewees, both teachers and students, having more oral practice and spending more time preparing for the speaking tasks will make students more confident when speaking English in the classroom. Talking about this technique, T3 claimed: "As an experienced English-speaking teacher, it comes to my mind that students who spend more time practicing and engaging more with speaking tasks have far more confidence to talk compared to those who feel shy to do so." In the same line, most of the interviewed students also expressed the same comments. For instance, S6 said: "My experience in learning to speak is that if I practice talking more, I feel as if it becomes easier..." and "When I have time to prepare for a speaking lesson, I can communicate more confidently, S5". These interview responses align with the questionnaire survey result when most students agree that they feel anxious when being asked to talk without preparation for an English-speaking class (item 7, table 1).

Another noticeable learning strategy that both teachers and students proposed was practicing listening. The two groups believed research participants that listening is a vital tool that can help them improve their speaking capability. Following that, the students should maximize their time listening to English when and where they can. Besides the content of lessons in the textbooks, they should also listen to other sources of English via media channels and real-life conversations. S5 talked about this issue: "I have been trying to listen to my favorite programs, and it works as I find it is easier for me to cope with my speaking lessons in the classroom." And here is another claim shared by another interviewee: "Watching videos and movies that I like is the best way for me because I can entertain myself and improve my English at the same time." Following that, I can get more confidence in expressing myself in English better. S2".

Discussion

The results of two research questions were revealed through the questionnaire and interview as two research instruments. The findings of the first question indicated that the reasons posing speaking anxiety among the students come from themselves, their teachers, and other sources as well. Among those factors, the students' self-perceived language competence is considered the first barrier that strongly impacts the students and makes them anxious to perform willingly in a speaking classroom. More specifically, the students in the study believe that their sources of vocabulary are not broad enough (M = 3.90), their grammar knowledge is poor (M = 3.52), and their pronunciation sounds embarrassing (M = 3.50). As the participants assumed their level of linguistic proficiency was low, it led to the state of being reluctant as well as reduced their confidence in the language. Consequently, this makes them avoid communicating in the second language.

The findings above are consistent with the discussion in the literature review (see section 2.3). For example, MacIntyre et al. (2002) believe that a person's level of L2 proficiency has a profound influence on his/her willingness to talk. The result is also in the same line of research conducted previously by Pabro-Maquidato (2021) and Liu & Jackson (2008), concluding that students with low self-perceived verbal skills may be hesitant to try new experiences to speak the L2 in class as they are afraid of losing face when saying something wrong. In reality, if students have negative self-evaluation about their ability or the assumption of not being gifted at speaking English, they might become reluctant and inhibited to speak. To argue that no one is gifted at learning a foreign language, Lockley (2013) stated that learning is a matter of attitude rather than ability. His point was that in order to have successful learning, especially while learning a language, each student must approach all activities with determination, tenacity, and, above all, enthusiasm. They should not have the notion that they are incapable of doing anything. They should, however, maintain an "I can do it" attitude at all times, as this will boost their study's outcome.

Besides, the finding also reveals some negative variables coming from the teacher and the classroom-related environment. It is noticeable that a large number of the students admitted that their anxiety about speaking in speaking sections was because they would not like to be corrected or evaluated by their English teachers. Some arising variables could be a negative manner and or a negative technique when giving error correction, providing feedback, and so forth. They all had a great impact on creating students' anxiety in the classroom. However, when compared to the individual set of factors, this one seems to have less impact on the students' oral performance. The result goes in line with previous studies (Islam, Ahmad & Islam, 2022; Le & Le, 2022 & Zarrinabadi, 2014), which also found that teachers could help eliminate students' anxiety and encourage them to start a conversation by creating an encouraging and supportive atmosphere.

From what has been discussed, to help students get rid of being anxious and inhibited, the study demonstrates the role of both teachers and students themselves in the campaign to upgrade their communication abilities and manners. Firstly, talking about teachers' valuable mission, it was

revealed that teachers should have and show their ability to apply a variety of teaching techniques to motivate their students. The interview with students demonstrates that many admitted to failing to achieve the expected oral performance. For instance, a student claimed in the interview: "I long for English teachers who can renew my learning methods and give me more energy." It is clear from the findings that students are stuck in their "traditional ways" of learning, making it impossible for them to improve their communication skills and that they must change. Therefore, some of the activities of interest to boost students' speaking competence are expected to be carried out. This finding is similar to previous research by Liao (2000), who said that various classroom activities assist language learners in developing their ability to communicate in the target language.

More importantly, to reduce anxiety in learning to speak, students need to try their best to overcome it. Firstly, keeping reinforced practice is considered vital in the journey of mastering oral performance. In another way, to be able to speak English confidently, students must spend more time working on it. Most students in the study agreed as they stated that they should practice more and be more prepared for the speaking tasks to become confident when speaking English. In this way, students should be aware of their roles in learning English speaking, so they can consciously become more engaged and less apprehensive about using the target language to achieve the learning objective, as suggested by Cheng (2000). Another suggestible technique is practicing listening, as this is widely believed to help foster oral performance. Undoubtedly, listening skills have an enormous impact on the ability to speak a language. Poor listening skills were viewed as a major impediment to effective speaking abilities. According to the current study's findings, many students did not get their teachers' ideas or instruction because of poor listening skills. Thus, they were unsure about the answer and opted to keep silent. To tackle this problem, students should adopt techniques shared by many students in the interview, that is, to try to improve their listening skills through various interesting programs they chose, and it helped. This supports the language research field when (Doff, 1988) claims listening skills must be acquired before speaking abilities can be improved. Accordingly, if students want to increase their English communication skills, they have to improve their listening skills first.

Conclusion

Examining factors that cause anxiety when speaking in the classroom and suggesting some vital strategies to overcome them are the primary purposes of the present study. Overall, it reveals that more personal factors cause students' anxiety than teacher and classroom factors (CECAC). Regarding strategic methods, most of the students and teachers giving opinions in the interview strongly agree that both teachers and students can play their part to help motivate students' oral performance in the classroom. On the teacher side, they are expected to apply a variety of teaching techniques, create a friendly environment, and pay more attention to the ways of giving corrective feedback and language correction. Those techniques should be done with care and understanding for students. Meanwhile, both teachers and students propose vital strategies for

language practice learning for students to help them promote their ability to talk. As previous research claimed, a high level of anxiety can eventually lead individuals to have poor oral proficiency (see 2.3). Within a class context, anxiety has been believed to hurt the frequency of L2 use (Hashimoto, 2002). The more students engage in class discussions, the more chance they have to improve their speaking ability.

This study is believed to shed more light on the characteristics of anxiety in oral performance by employing a combination of mixed methods (questionnaire survey and interviews) to identify the causes of anxiety within the classroom setting. Captured by the two data sources, this study is expected to be significant and applicable for both EFL teachers and students at (CECAC) and contribute significant empirical evidence to language theory. That is, eliminating speaking anxiety is an important component of SLA in the process of mastering English performance.

Acknowledgments

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A study on Non-English Major Students' Learner Autonomy: Difficulties and Solutions

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ABSTRACT

Keywords: learner autonomy, non-English major students, difficulties, promoting learner autonomy, solutions.	Learning is no longer confined to the four walls of the classroom but can happen at any time and place as learners wish. Thus, promoting learner autonomy – the ability of learners to navigate their own learning - has been regarded as the focus of education because it promises successful lifelong learning. However, students' level of learner autonomy, their difficulties when regulating their own learning, and solutions for those problems are the factors that educators usually believe are out of their control. In order to promote non-English major students' learner autonomy, the current research explores those often neglected concerns. The collected quantitative data from the survey answers of 279 non-English majors at a public university in Ho Chi Minh City was analyzed using descriptive statistics and content analysis. The findings showed that the students are not very confident with their learner autonomy, and they have a lot of difficulties when conducting their learning on their own outside the classroom. The solutions to promote learner autonomy from their perspectives are improving their self-regulating skills, strengthening their interactions with teachers and friends, and receiving more support from society. These findings present some pedagogical implications to help students study more effectively outside the classroom.

Introduction

English is not only a major obligatory subject but also a tool for career opportunities and the advancement of students in non-English speaking countries. In Vietnam, children start to learn English earlier, and good English has been considered a lifelong target for many people. Even though students have studied English for many years and technology has provided more resources for them to practice, Vietnamese tertiary students still have a lot of difficulties in improving their English, which may directly delay their graduation and dismiss their career opportunities. Therefore, the topic of how tertiary students can have good English competence has always been of great concern.

There have been different solutions suggested to improve students' language competence, but promoting learner autonomy - 'the ability to take charge of one's learning (Holec, 1981) - has more and more been considered one of the main ones because it lets 'individual flourish and enroots lifelong learning' (Winch, 2002). Scaffolding students in order to help them have better learner autonomy has received more and more concerns in the Vietnam education system in recent years. From the policy level, national regulations on tertiary-level education reform stated that autonomy was needed to be encouraged for learners of all ages (Prime Minister, 2007). However, this requirement is very general and easier said than done. From a practical view, there is no formal training about learner autonomy in institutes. Teachers themselves can be confused in defining the notion of learner autonomy (Nguyen et al., 2014); students have been reported to have low and reactive language learner autonomy (Dang, 2012; Le, 2018), so how learner autonomy is promoted is really challenging. The situation is even harder for non-English major students, whose English training is considered peripheral in comparison to their main major. They seem to find learning at the tertiary institutions not effective. They have to find places to learn in order to obtain the required international certificate of English at level B1 to graduate, which costs a lot of their effort, time, and money. It can help if they have better learner autonomy. However, they were reported as unfamiliar with learner autonomy and believed that the lecturers determined their English learning process (Nguyen & Nguyen, 2020). As a result, research about this group of students' level of learner autonomy, the difficulties they are facing, and how they think the problems can be solved is needed so that pedagogical implications for promoting learner autonomy for this particular group of students can be made.

Literature Review

Definition of Learner autonomy

From the earliest definitions of autonomy by Henri Holec, who was considered the 'father' of learner autonomy, self-management skills are crucial for an autonomous learner. Learner autonomy was defined as 'the ability to take charge of one's learning, including the ability to 'determine the learning objectives, define the contents and progressions, select appropriate methods and techniques to be used, monitor the procedure of learning and finally evaluate what has been acquired' (Holec, 1981: 3). In more recent research, self-management skills are defined as 1) understanding teaching objectives; 2) setting goals and making a plan for one's studies; 3) employing learning strategies effectively; 4) monitoring the effect of one's learning strategies; 5) monitoring and evaluating the English language's learning process and 6) transcending to new learning (Xu & Zhan, 2004).

Learner autonomy does not imply the notion that learners are learning in isolation, but it takes place within a sociocultural framework. Learner autonomy entails a capacity and willingness to act independently and incorporate with others as a socially responsible person (Oxford, 2003). Therefore, the ability to maintain social interactions to seek help and maintain the interactions in the learning process, especially with teachers and peers, is also considered another important factor of learner autonomy.

'Control' and 'Responsibilities' are other important aspects of learner autonomy. Autonomous learners need to have the rights and responsibilities to make decisions on their learning. The notion of 'ownership' or 'control' has been introduced, and learners move from one end of the scale with 'teacher ownership' to the halfway point, 'shared ownership', and then to 'student ownership' at the

other end (Kohonen, 2001 cited in Everhard, 2018). It does not mean that learners are to be in control of all aspects of the learning process, but they need to be able to understand that teachers, parents, and society only have the supporting roles, and they themselves have to navigate their own learning.

In this research, learner autonomy is defined as the combination of (1) the learner's capacity to regulate the learning process from making learning goals to transcending to the next learning activity, (2) their ability to seek help from teachers and friends, and (3) their confidence in controlling their learning and expectations for the roles of teachers, parents, and society in their self-learning.

Measuring learner autonomy

Many scales have been developed and validated to measure students 'learner autonomy. Learners are asked to evaluate their own learning performance during the learning process, and the items are usually on a Likert scale from levels 1 to 5. MILLA (Measuring Instrument for Language Learner Autonomy) is a scale with 87 items to measure learner autonomy from 4 dimensions: Technical, Psychological, Political-Philosophical, and Sociocultural, and two different sets of response choices: Do and Think items (Murase, 2015). The Self-Efficacy Questionnaire of Language Learning Strategies (SEQueLLS) blends the constructs of self-efficacy and learner autonomy with 37 closed items, divided into seven categories: identifying learning needs and goal-setting, selecting an appropriate approach, seeking social support, organizing the learning environment, monitoring the learning, evaluating the learning process and outcome; transferring acquired skills or information to other contexts correspondent with the processes of the self-regulated learning (Ruelens, 2019). Most recently, the questionnaire LAPQ - Learner Autonomy Perception Questionnaire, which consists of 87 self-reported items, was designed and validated to measure university students 'learner autonomy (Nguyen & Habók, 2021). The questionnaire was based on the conceptualization of learner autonomy involving five factors - beliefs about teachers ' roles, desire, motivation, freedom, and metacognition in language learning.

The current research modifies the above scales to measure students' abilities to regulate their own learning, their interactions with teachers and friends, their confidence, and expectations about others 'roles in their own learning.

Promoting learner autonomy

There are six broad headings to classify practices associated with the development of autonomy: resource-based approaches, technology-based approaches, learner-based approaches, classroom-based approaches, and curriculum-based approaches (Benson, 2011). The rise of resource centers or self-access centers from the beginning of the 1970s marked the time when learner autonomy first became the utmost goal of education. The centers aim to provide learners with the resources needed to learn a foreign language by themselves. The problem of not having enough learning materials has been solved partly by the advancement in technology which has made learning accessible to learners anytime and anywhere they need it. Autonomous strategy training has been emphasized to help less autonomous learners, and educators choose to intervene in the student's learning process to scaffold them. Educators also focus on raising learners' awareness about their learning process so that they gradually 'accept responsibilities for their learning and learn on their own effectively' (Little, 2007).

Autonomy is sometimes regarded as a Western concept, and the imposition of this value on Asian learners contradicts their learning styles (Adamson & Sert, 2012). However, it does not mean that Asian students cannot be autonomous or can meet more difficulties in the process of becoming autonomous, but learner autonomy has to be understood differently in this particular context (Sinclair, 2000). As a country in Southeast Asia, learner autonomy is also considered a difficult notion for Vietnamese students and requires the cooperation of all involved in the teaching and learning process to promote.

Research Questions

To seek the solutions to promote non-English major students' learner autonomy, the current research investigates their level of learner autonomy, their difficulties in autonomous learning, and their suggested solutions. The research has three research questions:

1. What are non-English major students' levels of learner autonomy?

2. What are their difficulties with learner autonomy?
3. What are the possible solutions to promote learner autonomy from their perspectives?

Methods

Pedagogical Setting & Participants

The study was conducted at a public university in Ho Chi Minh city with about 21.000 non-English major students. To graduate, students need to have international certification at level B1 of CEFR of English. The non-English major students participate in English I, II, and III, which last 45 periods each as the required English training program, depending on the score they get when taking the placement test at the beginning of the first year. Lecturers of Foreign Languages Departments conduct the training for non-English major students. The students are from different parts of the country, and they are well-behaved. The school's infrastructure is still limited; the classrooms are equipped with a blackboard, fixed rows of chairs and tables, a projector, and a microphone with no air-conditioner. Internet coverage is not good, and teachers have to prepare their own laptops. The number of students in each class is from 35 to 50 students.

To get a sample of at least 10% of the total number of students, the researchers randomly chose eight classes from the list of classes opened this school year. Two hundred ninety-five students in different years of different departments participated in the study.

Design of the Study

The research seeks to describe the current status of non-English major students' learner autonomy as well as their difficulties and suggested solutions. Therefore, the quantitative research design is selected.

The questionnaire employed in this research was modified from SEQueLLS (Ruelens, 2019), MILLA (Murase, 2015), and LAPQ - Learner Autonomy Perception Questionnaire (Nguyen & Habók, 2021). It includes four sections: Section 1 collected demographic information of participants, including gender, which year they are in, their department, and the time length of studying English; Section 2, with three questions, was used to measure students' autonomous learning capacity in terms of self-regulating skills (7 items), social interactions (4 items), belief about their learning (4 items). In this section, the participants were asked to choose one out of five closed-ended items on a 5-point Likert scale (1 = strongly agree, 2= agree, 3= neutral, 4= disagree,

5= strongly disagree). Section 3 was designed to find difficulties students have to face when they regulate their own learning. Three checkbox questions in this part included different choices about the obstacles that students have with each aspect of learner autonomy. Open-ended questions were added after each to collect further information about their difficulties. Section 4 had one checkbox question, which let survey takers select multiple solutions from the list given for the difficulties they may have in the process of regulating their learning. An open-ended question was also added to get the other solutions from the participants. To guarantee the validity of the research, the researchers asked one expert in the field of learner autonomy for a discussion about the items. After having his comments, the items were translated into Vietnamese. The researchers gave the questionnaire to a group of 3 students to do and worked together with them going through each item to see if they had any difficulties in understanding the items. Some items were reworded to make them easier to understand. After that, the questionnaire was given to 100 students in two classes of a researcher to do in the pilot phase, and it met the requirements for reliability.

Data collection procedures analysis

The researchers contacted the teachers in charge of 8 chosen classes for assistance, and they agreed willingly to help. The researchers came to the class to inform the students about the research and ask them for help, stating clearly that their participation in the research does not affect their learning in any way. After the consent of the students, the researchers explained the study and how they could answer the questions and gave the students the link to the survey on Google Form. The researchers ensured the students had an Internet connection to access the form. It took 20 minutes for the students to complete the questionnaire.

The data was screened first to find out the outliers that can influence the research result. Sixteen outliners were identified, so the final number of participants was 279. The data is then coded in SPSS. Descriptive statistics, including frequencies (F) and percentages (%), for the collected data on the students' learner autonomy, difficulties and solutions were subsequently calculated using SPSS after checking for reliability values. Next, the answers for opened answers were read through and then grouped into specific categories.

Findings

Demographic information

Out of 279 student participants, 78.6% were female, 20.4% were male, and three students did not want to mention their gender. They come from 15 different departments, and the majority are from Office-Library, Finance, and Accounting Departments. Most of them were second-year students (71.4%), 12.5% were first-year students, 13.5% were third-year students, and eight students were in their last year. 43,8% of them have studied English for 6-8 years, 40,8% of them spent 9-12 years learning English and the rest group (15,5%) had over 12 years of English learning.

Students' level of learner autonomy

Cronbach's Alpha values for three constructs of the learner autonomy scale were .91 (self-regulating skills), .84 (interactions with teachers and friends), and .69 (beliefs about their responsibilities in learning). The value of corrected Item-Total correlation was all > .3, so they meet the requirement for reliability.

The results show that students are not very confident with their self-regulating skills, with means from 2.9 to 3.2 and Std. from .8 to .9. They were more confident with selecting learner activities and evaluating their learning outcomes, and as a result, they also found transcending to new learning. They did averagely on selecting materials and initiating self-learning. Making learning plans and especially learning goals was the hardest for them.

Table 1. Descriptive statistics about students' self-regulating skills

Self-regulating skills	Min	Max	Mean	SD
Making learning goals	1	5	2.9	.8
Making learning plans	1	5	3.0	.8
Initiating self-learning	1	5	3.1	.8
Selecting materials	1	5	3.1	.9
Selecting learning activities	1	5	3.2	.8
Evaluating learning outcomes	1	5	3.2	.9
Transcending to new learning	1	5	3.2	.8

Students thought that they were averagely confident when interacting with friends (Means= 3.5 and 3.6), and they were more confident with friends than with teachers (Means=2.9 and 3.0). They tended to ask teachers and friends for help with the problems encountered when learning rather than asking for suggestions about what to learn.

Table 2. Descriptive statistics about students' interactions with friends and teachers

Interactions with friends and teachers	Min	Max	Mean	SD
Asking friends for help	1	5	3.6	.9
Asking friends for suggestions	1	5	3.5	.9
Asking teachers for suggestions	1	5	2.9	.9
Asking teachers for help	1	5	3.0	.9

Finally, the students were also not very confident about their ability to make decisions on their learning (Mean=3.4). They believe that society and schools have more influence on their self-regulating learning than parents.

Table 3. Descriptive statistics about students' confidence in making decisions & belief about others' roles

Confidence in making decisions and belief about others' roles	Min	Max	Mean	SD
Making decisions on my learning	1	5	3.4	.9
The roles of parents	1	5	2.8	1.2
The roles of schools	1	5	3.6	1.0
The roles of society	1	5	3.9	.9

Difficulties in learner autonomy

In terms of self-regulating skills, 68,1% reported that they did not have a chance to practice self-regulating skills in the right way, while 29% of them have not had an opportunity to learn these skills. These are the main reasons why the students were not very confident about their self-regulating skills when conducting self-learning. 3.0% of the students listed the reasons for students' laziness and lack of concentration as hindrances to their self-regulated learning. For example,

I am too lazy to study myself.

I cannot highly concentrate on their autonomous learning.

I cannot set my learning discipline.

The concerns that *"I'm afraid of asking my teachers"* and "*I don't have a chance to talk about my autonomous learning with my teachers*" mainly resulted in challenges in interactions with teachers. The rates were 39.8% for these reasons. Regarding student-student interactions,15.8% identified that their friends could not support them because they were also not good at English. 4.6% of them listed the reasons students cannot take advantage of the support from friends and did not know how to work more effectively with friends. For instance,

I could not find someone who had the same interest in learning English.

I do not have a chance to use and practice English.

I am afraid that my friends gave me the wrong correction.

Finally, 64.5% of the students did not have confidence that they should be the person who needs to make their own decision about their learning outside of the classroom. 27.3% of survey takers had a very common problem of just waiting for their teachers' dictation even when self-studying, so they found it very hard to initiate their learning. 4.6% of them also experienced problems that they could not get the support from their family to manage the time to self-study effectively. 3.6% of the sample thought that they did not have the competence to learn English by themselves. They stated,

English is too hard to learn because of their linguistic and nonlinguistic knowledge.

I cannot study English by myself.

In short, the facts that students do not have effective self-regulating skills, are afraid of asking teachers and are not able to take advantage of peer support or to make decisions about their learning are the main difficulties that non-English major students are facing during their learner autonomy process.

Solutions to promote learner autonomy

To promote self-regulating skills to learn more effectively, 76.6% of students believed that they should receive some autonomous learning skills, and another 55.3% wanted to participate in seminars or talk shows about self-regulating skills. 68.8% of them stated they needed to be able to find interests in one specific learning area. Then they could dedicate more time to studying. 68.4% stressed the importance of raising awareness about the necessity of having learner autonomy, the root of life-long learning.

To take advantage of teachers and peer support in self-study, 54.3% of them thought that students needed to know how to learn with their friends effectively. 49.3% believed teachers should accompany students in their autonomous learning activities. Furthermore, 35.9% of them shared the idea that teachers should give students more chances to discuss their autonomous learning in class with friends and teachers. 39.5% of them also expected to be involved in teachers' decision-making on classroom management in the classroom.

Regarding the important roles of society and schools in promoting one's learner autonomy, 70% hoped that the encouragement from the society for students to study by themselves could be higher. 64.5% of students expected the training program for students at the tertiary level to give more opportunities for students to be supported with autonomous learning. 57.5% of students voted for project-based learning. 54.5% suggested schools create more school activities that scaffold

autonomous English learning. 54.3% pointed out that the learning materials at the self-study centers needed to be upgraded as well as 35.9% wanted to renovate the self-study area of the institution.

Discussion

The results indicated that the non-English majoring students who participated in the study were not very confident with learner autonomy. They have difficulties in self-regulating skills, particularly in making learning goals. Moreover, the support from teachers and peers was not effective. Compared to teachers' guidance, peers were chosen for more support. They also find themselves not very confident when making decisions on their learning. They think the expectations from society influence their self-studies rather than the training institutions and their parents.

The solutions suggested involved self-regulating skills training, raising the awareness of learner autonomy, and the support of teachers, peers, and school. These results are in line with previous research, which stated that tertiary students' learner autonomy is low and reactive and requires the trigger of other factors (Le, 2018; Tran, 2020).

In order to promote students' autonomous learning in English, some possible solutions are recommended for their challenges.

Firstly, in regard to solutions for self-regulating skills problems in learning English, there should be more emphasis on seeking autonomous learning skills, or students can actively take control of their learning (Benson, 2011). That explains why they themselves have to take responsibility for their English learning in and outside of the classroom. It is suggested to find their own interest in any specific areas such as vocabulary, grammar, every single skill, or even topics that they feel enjoyable in the belief that when they are motivated, they can build up their learning strategies easily. Furthermore, to enhance their self-study, strategy training courses should be conducted separately or integrated into the learning program (Zhang & He, 2015). Students should find opportunities to take part in seminars or talk shows related to learner autonomy. Thanks to experts' advice on how to learn English autonomously, they might recognize their weaknesses or strengths that they have not thought of before. As a result, they will be better prepared for their future self-regulating learning.

Secondly, with reference to interactions, the student participants predominantly encountered difficulties in seeking support from the institution and teachers with their learning outside the classroom. They also did not have opportunities to discuss their autonomous language learning with their teachers. To get started, teachers in non-English major classes are encouraged to give more chances to the students to discuss their self-regulated learning. Teachers can ask students to work in groups and discuss how the students regulate their learning. This can form an enduring learning inspiration, which is fundamental for fostering learner autonomy (Muktawat, 2016). Moreover, teachers should accompany students when students enact their self-regulating skills, especially to set their learning goals. According to Le & Le (2022), for the factor of the teacher-student relationship, the teacher's small talk was an effective way to encourage the students to learn. Once the students have had achievable learning goals, they can be more confident to initiate their learning. Then, teachers can assign students learning activities with only the needed instructions and a range of choices so that students are step-by-step scaffolded to learn by

themselves. Teachers can also create social networking groups such as Facebook or Zalo to support students instantly if they need support. It is good to get feedback from students through teachers' activities, which can help the teachers design and modify the learning activities suitably. Teachers can also apply IT tools to promote the teacher-student interactions both physically and virtually, which in the long term promotes learner autonomy (Pham, 2022).

The third possible solution to improve learning English can lie with their peers. Learning from peers might be a possible solution to promoting their autonomy. Compared to interaction with teachers, friends can be easier to ask and support each other. They can work together at all stages of self-learning, such as setting mutual learning goals, initiating learning, practicing and supporting together, and giving feedback (Thornton, 2015).

Finally, as for promoting the confidence of students to make decisions about their own learning, opportunities should be given for students to raise their voices. The educators or university leaders need to be aware of the importance of learner autonomy and encourage students to make their own choice in different aspects of the learning process. The training policymakers should encourage students' involvement in the process of choosing the materials, the learning activities, and the ways of assessments. Additionally, upgrading autonomous learning zones for students is strongly recommended because the space for self-study is still very limited. Other expectation is the materials and references at the library and self-study area should be upgraded so that students can access the latest ideas in the field. A virtual learning space such as a school meta Learning Management System with well-designed activities can be a hub for nurturing learner autonomy (Le & Dang, 2021).

Conclusion

The research has described the level of non-English major students' learner autonomy as well as their difficulties and suggested solutions to have more effective self-learning. In spite of the possible contributions of the study to the field, some limitations can be found. Firstly, most students were second-year non-English major students of a public university in Ho Chi Minh City, Vietnam, instead of the equal numbers of students from four years of studies and from various universities. Second, the findings would be more useful if more research instruments such as interviews with students and teachers or classrooms observation with opportunities for insightful accounts of levels of autonomous learning, difficulties, and solutions. Finally, other items in SEQueLLS (Ruelens, 2019), MILLA (Murase, 2015), and LAPQ (Nguyen & Habók, 2021) scales have not been addressed in this study. Therefore, it is strongly recommended that these aspects be explored in future research.

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Biodata

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An Investigation of Vietnamese Classifiers in English – Vietnamese Translation

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ABSTRACT

Keywords: numeral classifiers, stative verbs, animate, inanimate.

The research was conducted to investigate the use of the three most common classifiers *cái*, *con*, *người,* and figure out the patterns of how to use them when English noun phrases are translated into Vietnamese. To do this, a corpus has been built from the two bestselling literary works *The Great Gatsby* and *Tuesday with Morrie* in the English version accompanied by the Vietnamese translated version. The data collected were analyzed in terms of counting numbers of occurrences, calculating percentages and frequency to conclude what classifier among the three is the most frequently used. The findings of this research can be summarized as follow: first, *cái* is a classifier for inanimate objects, whereas *con* and *người* are used with animate ones; however, there is one exception that emerges during the research, which is the classifier *con* followed by inanimate nouns. Second, from a typical structure of CL + N, formulae are given for the translation of each classifier in specific cases. Finally, double and triple classifiers are chronologically formed by these three classifiers with suggested formulae for Vietnamese translation. The findings aim to support Vietnamese learners using classifiers correctly when translating English noun phrases into Vietnamese noun phrases.

Introduction

Classifiers (CL) have become a barrier for English native speakers studying Vietnamese as they do not know which classifiers can be used appropriately. This problem results from English being considered a non-classifier language, whereas classifiers appear dominantly in most Vietnamese noun phrases (NP). In addition, Vietnamese has a wide range of classifiers, so it is not easy to learn which nouns are used with which type of classifier. Moreover, there are cases where a noun (N) can be used with different types of classifiers, but the combination denotes different meanings. The choice of classifiers has become complicated as it requires not only the cognition of categories but also the cultural knowledge of language learners. Each language has

its own culture, which also leads to distinct ways of using a language. Indeed, Vietnamese people consider chairs as inanimate objects as it has no emotions and abilities to carry on actions; however, Thai people mention chairs as having four legs like human beings, so they use chairs with an animate classifier.

In addition, there was a set of error patterns shared across English - Vietnamese relating to classifier errors (Dam & Pham, 2020). From other perspectives, in the era of communication and connection, translation has become high in demand, but it is not easy to be satisfied (Tran, 2021), and sometimes the translation process deals with various problems related to the differences among languages. Taking the words *được/bị* in Vietnamese, which are normally used in the passive form in English, it was stated that *the structural differences between English passive sentences and the corresponding structures in Vietnamese are assumed to pose various problems for English -Vietnamese learners* (Nguyen, 2021). Understanding such situations and the similarities and differences in linguistic features as well as different points of linguistic view, this paper attempts to untangle the knot and support Vietnamese learners to solve the aforementioned issue in translation with a corpus-based approach. Specifically, the author filtered all the noun phrases in English that were translated into Vietnamese with the appearance of the three most common classifiers *cái*, *con*, *người,* from the two best-seller literary works *The Great Gatsby* and *Tuesday with Morrie*. Then, formulae will be suggested for different cases of translation that aim to support Vietnamese learners in their learning process.

Literature review

Classifiers system

Classifiers have become a debate among linguists in terms of defining and structural building with different typological perspectives. According to Allan (1977), classifiers have been defined with two criteria: (a) they occur as morphemes in surface structures under specific conditions; and (b) they have meaning, in the sense that a classifier denotes some salient perceived or imputed characteristic of the entity to which an associated noun refers (or may refer). Allan also considered four types of languages classified in classifiers: numeral classifier languages, concordial classifier languages, predicate classifier languages, and intra-locative classifier languages. Among the four language types, Vietnamese has been mentioned as a numeral classifier language, which means classifiers, in most cases, appear as a part of the structure of the Vietnamese noun phrase. Contributing to the diversity of the classifier system from a distinct perspective, Grinevald (2015) has proposed four different types of classifiers which are numeral classifier (numeral + CL), noun classifier (CL + noun), the genitive classifier (possessive + CL) and verbal classifier (verb + CL).

Numeral classifiers

According to Kuipers (1967), numeral classifiers can vary morphologically from a free morpheme to an affix to a fused morpheme, which is also stated by Grinevald (2000) that

numeral classifiers are the most commonly recognized type, and they appear in the context of quantification. Grinevald (2000) also mentioned the two subtypes of numeral classifiers, sortal or true classifiers, and mensural or quantitative classifiers, which are akin to measure terms. According to Greenberg (1972), numeral (NUM) classifiers had four basic structures as below:

− [NUM – CL] – N

− N – [NUM – CL]

− [CL – NUM] – N

− N – [CL – NUM]

English classifiers

Celce-Murica and Larsen-Freeman (1998) stated that English does not have a wide range of classifiers compared to other classifier languages, but "English does have some general measure words (or unit words)," and they also suggest one more classifier category, which is parallel with measure words is collective phrases. However, the researcher focuses on the numeral classifier only, but not collective phrases or measure phrases.

Vietnamese classifiers

As mentioned above, Vietnamese is claimed to follow the numeral classifier system (Allan, 1977) as Vietnamese nouns need classifiers to denote that they can be counted or individuals. Specifically, it is claimed by Aikhenvald (2000) that the constituent order of numeral classifiers and Vietnamese nouns followed the structure of Numeral – Classifier – Noun.

As being a classifier language, it is claimed by Emeneau (1951) that Vietnamese has about

One hundred twenty-one classifiers, while Adams (1989) estimates that Vietnamese has about 140 classifiers. The

diversity of classifiers has caused a lot of confusion for learners who are attempting to learn

Vietnamese. Understanding this hardship, Nguyen, H. T. (2004) categorized Vietnamese

classifiers into four groups depending on the denotation of the nouns as below:

• Humans

• Animals

• Plants

• Objects, things, natural phenomena, and abstract notions.

From another perspective, Croft (1994) defines the noun system following the semantics

the distinction in which animate/inanimate and human/non-human distinctions are used for numeral classifiers.

Vietnamese noun phrases

A noun phrase is a group of words in which a noun or pronoun is a compulsory part and acts as the head of the phrase. The other two constituents accompanied by the head noun are pre-modifiers and post-modifiers, which are optional in the phrase. According to Nguyen (1996), the noun phrase structure consists of a head and two other optional parts: the initial and final elements. He also stated that the noun is preceded by a classifier, and both the classifier (T1) and the noun (T2) form the head of the phrase.

Table 1. Structure of the Vietnamese noun phrase

No.	Initial elements	Head noun		Final elements
		T1 classifier	T2 noun	
(1)	*một*	*con*	*gà*	*trống*
(2)	*hai*	*người*	*đàn ông*	*ở trong nhà*

English translation for (1): a rooster

(2): two men in the house

English noun phrases

Howard (1980) introduced the structure of the English noun phrase, which consists of three constituents: pre-modification, head noun, and post-modification, in which the pre-modification and post-modification are optional, and the head noun is compulsory. The head noun of the phase can be a noun or a pronoun. Pre-modification can be a demonstrative pronoun, possessive pronoun, numeral/quantifier, or adjectives. Postmodification can be a relative clause, non-finite clause, adjective phrase, preposition phrase, or adverb phrase.

Table 2. Structure of the English noun phrase

No.	Pre-modification	Head noun	Post-modification
(3)	*a beautiful*	*girl*	*in red dress*
(4)	*the*	*cat*	*which is at the window*

Vietnamese translation for (3): một người con gái đẹp trong chiếc váy màu đỏ

(4): cái con mèo mà ở chỗ cửa sổ

Research Questions

This research aims to answer the two questions below:

1. Are there any differences in the use of numeral classifiers *cái*, *con*, and *người* in Vietnamese noun phrases?

2. Is there any structure for Vietnamese learners to translate English noun phrases to Vietnamese noun phrases with the presence of numeral classifiers *cái*, *con*, and *người*?

Methods

The two corpora – Data collection procedure

The corpora are built from the two well-known literature books, *Tuesday with Morrie* and *The Great Gatsby*. *Tuesday with Morrie* by Mitch Alborn was on the New York Times Non-Fiction Best-seller list in 2000, and *The Great Gatsby* by F. Scott Fitzgerald is a popular title on the USA Today's Best-Selling Books list. The two Vietnamese-translated versions have attracted the attention of many readers and are suggested as must-have literature novels in Vietnam.

Within the two writings, I extracted all the English phrases that contain numeral classifiers *cái*, *con,* and *người* in the Vietnamese translation and typed them in an Excel spreadsheet. Afterward, I sorted the data for each type of classifier, calculated the frequency in each text, and constructed tables with each type of noun denotation corresponding to each classier *cái*, *con,* and *người*. With the tables, I can conclude with patterns needed to translate English noun phrases to Vietnamese with the use of classifiers.

Table 3. Occurrences of classifier *cái*, *con*, and *người* in each text.

Texts / Classifiers	*Tuesday with Morrie* Mitch Alborn	*The Great Gatsby* F. Scott Fitzgerald
Cái	61	60
Con	52	181
Người	62	201

Analysis classifiers cái, con, and người

As mentioned above, English is not a numeral classifier language, but in Vietnamese translation, Vietnamese learners need to know which classifiers they need to use for certain types of nouns. Taking *a table – một cái bàn* as an example, the tree diagram below shows a basic difference between the two languages in terms of classifiers.
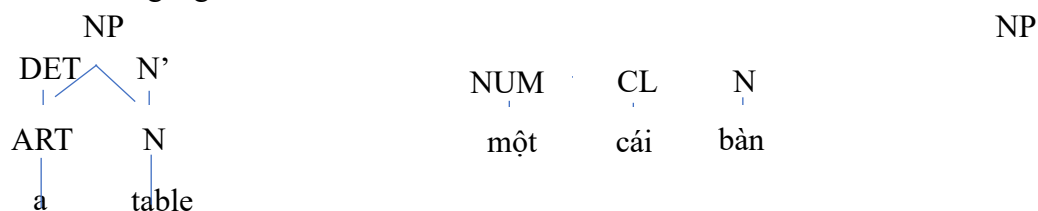
In the English tree diagram, the noun phrase includes two elements which are a determiner (DET) and a smaller noun phrase (N'). The DET, in this case, is an article (ART) that is translated as numeral *một.* The Vietnamese syntactic structure*,* in this case, consists of three elements with a classifier in the middle of numeral and noun.

Below are some findings of English noun phrases when translated into Vietnamese noun phrases with the presence of the three most common Vietnamese classifiers *cái*, *con,* and *người*. A total of 565 English noun phrases are translated into Vietnamese from the two chosen novels.

Table 4. Occurrences of classifier *cái*, *con*, and *người* in both texts.

Classifiers	Occurrences	Percentage
Cái	121	21%
Con	181	32%
Người	263	47%

In the two texts, classifier *cái* is used the least, with 121 occurrences, which accounts for 21%, whereas classifier *người* dominates nearly half of the findings with 263 occurrences. As the two research texts are literature novels, basically, they mention the characters more than the objects or things. Each classifier has distinct ways of use, which depend on the denotation of the nouns.

Results/Findings and Discussion

Classifier cái

Within the range of the two corpora, the researcher recognizes that there are three different types of noun denotation that use classifier *cái* as below:

Table 5. Occurrences of classifier *cái*

No.	Typical example	Noun class	Occurrences
1	a bed – một cái (CL) giường a bell - một cái (CL) chuông	Things (inanimate)	53%
2	death – cái (CL) chết the sensation – cái (CL) cảm giác	Abstract noun	38%
3	a nose - một cái (CL) mũi a head - một cái (CL) đầu	Body parts	9%

The three usages of classifiers *cái* in the two corpora are abstract nouns, nouns of objects or things (inanimate), and body parts in which we can see that the inanimate objects in English that are translated into Vietnamese have the highest percentage of use of *cái* whereas classifier *cái* is used with body parts with a much smaller proportion.

According to Verspoor & Sauter (2000), abstract nouns refer to things that are not tangible, like *death*, *heat,* and *idea*. Abstract nouns can form a noun phrase by themselves without the presence of any pre-modifier or post-modifier, and when translated into Vietnamese, they sometimes need classifiers to modify the noun. However, *cái* is not a unique classifier for abstract nouns, so in order to have an appropriate translation; we need to pay attention to these points:

❖ When the English noun phrase is formed by article *the* with an adjective such as *the ugly, the good* with the meaning of a state of being of nouns (not denote for any group of people), then the suggested translation would be *cái + stative verb[1]*. For example: *the ugly – cái xấu, the good – cái tốt.*

❖ With other abstract nouns denoting a state of being, such as *death, sensation, or heat* (not following the structure of *The + adjective)*, action verbs or stative verbs will be used in the Vietnamese translation to nominalize the verbs into the noun. The classifier *cái* is placed in front of these verbs.

For example: *dead – cái chết, heat – cái nóng.*

The syntactic translation would also be *cái + stative verb for this type of abstract noun.* For these two patterns, classifier *cái* is used with inanimate objects and body parts, and it follows the structure of Numeral/Quantifier – Classifier – Noun. It can be seen easily that when a numeral is used, classifier *cái* is compulsory in the structure of noun phrases, and its removal makes the phrase become incorrect in use. In other words, classifier *cái* makes the head noun countable. In Vietnamese translation, the position of numerals or quantifiers is unchanged, which is still in front of the head noun. However, to show the plurality, the head nouns are added by morpheme *–s* or *–es*. In contrast, the Vietnamese noun phrases do not need to have morphemes because numbers or quantifiers themselves denote plurality in front of classifier *cái*. The syntactic structure of the English noun phrase is NUM/Q + N [+body part] and it is translated into Vietnamese followed the pattern NUM/Q + *cái* (CL) + N [+body part].

However, there are some conversations in the text in which the classifier *cái* can be omitted, and the omission does not affect the meaning of the phrase.

<u>In text</u>: A bed - một cái (CL) giường/ *một giường

Two beds – hai cái (CL) giường/ *hai giường

A nose - một cái (CL) mũi/ *một mũi

<u>In conversation</u>: How many boxes do you need? – Two boxes.

Bạn cần bao nhiêu (cái) hộp? Hai (cái) hộp.

Classifier *cái* is used with body parts, but it does not mean that all of the body parts can be used with this type of classifier. Some body parts can go with classifier *con* which will be discussed later in this study.

When the head noun in English is a pronoun, there are some suggested patterns recognized below:

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[1] *According to Cao, X. H. (2004), all the words which describe the qualities or states of being of the nouns are stative verbs, and they are categorized as adjectives in English.*

❖ Indefinite pronoun: *something – cái gì, what – cái gì, whatever – bất cứ cái gì*

We ought to plan something. – Ta phải bàn với nhau làm cái gì đi.

I think he could make something of it – Tôi chắc anh ấy sẽ sáng tác được một cái gì ra trò.

To mention indefinite objects or things, native speakers use indefinite pronouns *something, what,* or *whatever,* which is the same in Vietnamese, *gì* is an indefinite pronoun for objects, according to Cao (2004), and to denote the countability of pronoun, classifier *cái* is placed in front of the pronoun.

❖ Demonstrative pronouns: *these – những cái này, those – những cái đó/ những cái đấy, this – cái này, that – cái đó/cái đấy.*

Take a look at this – Ông coi thử cái này.

When a demonstrative pronoun is a head noun of the noun phrase, the speakers would like to mention the anaphoric or cataphoric information, and all speakers already know exactly the objects which are being mentioned. In other words, *cái* can be used to denote definite objects, and the suggested translation is *(những) cái + này/ kia/ nọ/ đấy/đó,* in which *những* is used to denote plurality.

Classifier con

Table 6. Occurrences of classifier *con*

No.	Typical example	Noun class	Occurrences
1	human – con (CL) người my son – con (CL) trai[2] tôi	Humans/ Gender	52 %
2	a chicken – một con (CL) gà a bird - một con (CL) chim	Animals	19 %
3	a street - một con (CL) đường a train - một con (CL) tàu	Things	11 %
4	an eye – một con (CL) mắt a pupil – một con (CL) ngươi	Body parts	18 %

Classifier *con* is used for animate nouns, and most classifier *con* in the two corpora denote humans or the gender of human beings, which accounts for more than half of the occurrences. For the gender of human beings, the phrase *con trai* is used to mention masculine gender, and *con gái* is used to denote feminine gender. There are some cases in the corpus where the whole structure *con + head noun* is used with generic meaning, which denotes a specific group of people (*children – con cái, offspring - con cháu*) or a group of people with specific characteristics (*baby – con nít, gambler – con bạc*). The suggested Vietnamese translation for this pattern is *con (CL) + N [+human]*.

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[2] son - con (CL) trai *denotes the masculine gender of the human being as in the analysis; however, the same phrase is also used to denote a kind of animal, which is* the clam – con (CL) trai.

I told Morrie about my generation's dilemma with having children.

Tôi nói với Thầy Morrie về vấn đề khó xử của thế hệ chúng tôi trong việc có con cái.

I sat down and cried like a baby.

Tôi đã ngồi sụp xuống khóc như con nít.

The structure *con + noun [+animate]* is used for animals, so if the English noun denotes animals, then the translation is *con* (CL) + *N* [+*animal*].

a bird – một con [+animate] chim

a tiger – một con [+animate] hổ

a chicken - một con [+animate] gà

As mentioned above, classifier *cái* is used with inanimate objects, and classifier *con* is considered as an animate classifier; however, in certain cases, classifier *con* can be used with inanimate nouns, such as in the third row of table 6. The examples below show that the change of classifier *con* to classifier *cái* in the use of inanimate nouns will cause ambiguity.

a street - một con [+animate] đường/ *³một cái [-inanimate] đường

a train – con [+animate] tàu/ *một cái [-inanimate] tàu

However, in some cases, classifier, *cái,* and classifier *con* can be used interchangeably, and either way, it is both accepted and used by Vietnamese but not frequent.

a knife – một con [+animate] dao/ một cái [-inanimate] dao?⁴

Classifier *con* is often associated with moving, turning objects like people and animals. As for the street, boat, or train, they are moving or spreading from this location to the other locations, so in the Vietnamese translation, they are personalized to be living things and used with animate classifier *con.* Goddard (2011) stated that "classifiers … do not classify nouns but the referents of nouns - the actual things in the world which the speaker 'picks out' to say something about on a particular occasion." which means that the use of *con* or *cái* depends on not only the denotation of nouns but also the referents of the noun. That is the reason why there are some exceptions in the use of classifier *con* but cannot be replaced by classifier *cái* as it becomes a habit when using a language.

Besides, some nouns are used with classifier *con,* and if we change those nouns with classifier *cái,* then the phrase is still meaningful but not commonly used by Vietnamese native speakers. To support Vietnamese learners, especially the English native speakers, the researcher has a table in the appendix to show the interchangeable use of the two classifiers *con* and *cái* for such cases. Classifiers *con* is used with some of the body parts as below:

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³ **: incorrect use*

⁴ *? is not used frequently*

heart – con tim

eye – con mắt

pupil – con ngươi

These are only three nouns denoting body parts that need classifier *con* in which *heart – con tim* is normally used in literature or music works, and the phrase *pupil – con ngươi* is a fixed term, and there is no other choice of the classifier with this noun. On the contrary, the phrase *eye - con mắt* is quite special. In the translation of *eyes – con mắt,* we can see that although the English noun has plural morphemes added at the end of the noun, in the Vietnamese translation, we do not see any quantifiers that denote plurality for the noun. This is because the Vietnamese noun phrase *con mắt* already implies the plural meaning, as in these examples:

I couldn't keep my eyes off him. – Tôi bứt nổi con mắt khỏi anh ấy.

It increases her value in his eyes. – Nó càng làm tăng giá trị của nàng trước con mắt anh.

Classifier người

Table 7. Occurrences of classifier *người*

No.	Typical example	Noun class	Occurrences
1	a brother – một người (CL) em trai a teacher – một người (CL) thầy a friend – người (CL) bạn	Kinship/ Relationship/ Occupations	69%
2	a man- một người (CL) đàn ông a woman- một người (CL) đàn bà	Humans - Gender	28%
3	the poor – người (CL) nghèo the white – người (CL) da trắng	Humans – Age, status, physical features.	3%

Classifier *người* is used with nouns denoting human beings only. The researcher categorizes the use of the classifier *người* into three categories depending on the meaning that the nouns denote.

Among the three categories, the nouns denoting kinship system, social relationship, and occupation account for the largest proportion with 69%, followed by the use of classifier *người* with the nouns denoting masculine and feminine gender of human beings with 28%.

two friends – hai người bạn

a teacher – một người thầy

this man – người đàn ông này

his woman – người tình của anh ấy

The syntactic structure of the English noun phrase is (*demonstrative pronoun*) +

numeral/quantifier + noun whereas the structure for translation is *numeral/quantifier + classifier + noun + (demonstrative pronoun)*.

As mentioned above, classifier *con* and *người* are both used with nouns that denote gender;

however, there is a minor difference between the two ways of using it.

> *(1) boy – con trai/*người trai/người con trai*
>
> *(2) girl – con gái/ *người gái/ người con gái*
>
> *(3) man/male - người đàn ông/ *con đàn ông*
>
> *(4) woman/female – con đàn bà/người đàn bà*
>
> *(5) woman/female – người phụ nữ/*con phụ nữ*

In examples (1) and (2), classifier *người* cannot replace *con*, but they can be used together as double classifiers, which will be discussed later in this study. In examples (3), (4), and (5), if the noun denotes masculine gender, then classifier con is not proper for use, whereas if the noun denotes feminine gender, then whichever classifier *con* or *người* are both commonly used by Vietnamese native speakers. The notable point is that the phrase *con đàn bà* is normally used in informal speaking with no respect; however, if the phrase *phụ nữ* is used to mention feminine gender, then just only classifier *người* is in place as *phụ nữ* is Sino-Vietnamese which tends to be more formal in use. Classifier *người* is also used for denoting a group of people with similar status, physical or characteristics features.

> *The poor – người nghèo*
>
> *The white – người da trắng*
>
> *Careless people – người bất cẩn*
>
> *Honest people – người trung thực*

There are two patterns in the English sentences for this type of use: *the + adjective* and *adjective + people*, but in the translation, they all have the same structure as *người* + stative verb. Once again, we can see that the classifier and the stative verb are attached to form a noun phrase, so the absence of either will make the phrase meaningless.

> *The poor – người nghèo/*người/ *nghèo*

From the finding of classifier con and *người*, the researcher finds out the notable point is that the word *người* can be a classifier attached to a noun but also a noun itself when it is used with another classifier(s). In other words, when *người* is a noun, it is uncountable, and the classifier in front of it, such as *con*, makes it countable, whereas when *người* is a classifier, then it supports the countability of the noun behind it.

> *people – con (CL) người (N)*

> *man - người (CL) đàn ông (N)*

Double classifiers and triple classifiers

Some of the English noun phrase translations show the combination of more than one classifier. Although not present much in the two texts, double classifiers and triple classifiers also appear with 11 phrases which are counted separately from the single classifiers.

As mentioned above, the classifier *người* is used with nouns denoting human beings only, so whichever classifier is used with *người* does not make any change to this rule. The order of classifiers is also concrete in the structure, and any change in position will make the sentence incorrect and meaningless.

> *this cat - cái con mèo này/ con mèo cái này[5]*
>
> *men - con người ta/ *người con ta*
>
> *that man - cái người đàn ông ấy/ *người cái đàn ông ấy*
>
> *this person - cái con người này/*con cái người này/ *con người cái này*
>
> *myself – cái con người tôi*

The order of the three classifiers in translation is *cái + con + người + Noun[+human]*. The double or triple classifiers are to emphasize the noun that the speakers or writers are mentioning and require the readers or the communicators to pay attention to it.

> *this cat – con mèo này/ cái con mèo này*

Additionally, it was noted by Tran (2021) that the use of classifier *cái* for inanimate objects as an emphatic appears more frequent in spoken Vietnamese but not in written language.

The double classifiers *con – người* and *người – con* is quite special when they mention the gender of human beings. Then the order has to be *người + con + N [+gender]*. The change in the order of these two classifiers, in this case, will make the phrase incorrect.

> *this girl – người con gái này/ *con người gái này*

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[5] *Classifier* cái *changes the position which makes the change in meaning. In order words, the syntactic change leads to the semantic change. The phrase '*con mèo cái này*' means '*this female cat*' and the word* cái *here plays the role of an attribute which denotes feminine gender of animals.*

Discussion

This study has addressed the three classifiers *cái*, *con,* and *người* in the Vietnamese noun phrases when they are translated from the English noun phrase. Each type of classifier will accompany certain types of nouns depending on the "referents" and the semantic function of the nouns. Besides, the researcher also shortens the concepts into the syntactic structure for each type of classifier in the noun phrase, including some minor exceptions resulting from the habitual use of Vietnamese speakers.

❖ *Cái* is an inanimate classifier and is used with inanimate objects with the translated structure as *Num/Q + cái (CL) + N [+animate],* and it is also used with body parts with the translation as *Num/Q + cái (CL) + N [+body part]*. The special use of classifier *cái* is the translation of an abstract noun in which the English noun phrase is translated as a stative verb, and the classifier *cái* with the function of nominalizing the verb into the noun as in *cái + stative verb.*

❖ *Con* is an animate classifier and is used with the nouns denoting human beings or the gender of human beings with the pattern of *con + N [+human/+gender].* Specifically, although *con* is considered an animate classifier but, in some cases, it is accompanied by inanimate objects, which are listed in the appendix. Moreover, classifier *con* is used with three body parts which are *heart – con tim*, *pupil – con người,* and *eye(s) – con mắt*.

❖ Besides classifier *con*, *người* is an animate classifier as well, but a notable difference between the two is that *người* is just only used with nouns denoting human beings. The nouns with classifier *người* denote kinship system, social relationship, occupation, or gender and the translation of this pattern is *người +N [+kinship/ job/ gender/ relationship]*. For the English noun phrase with the pattern of *the + adjective,* which represents a certain group of people who are of the same age, and have the same physical feature or status, then the Vietnamese translation is *người + stative verb.* These three classifiers above can be combined to form double classifiers or triple classifiers with the order of *cái + con + người + noun [+human]*. If the nouns denote the gender of human beings, then the order of double classifiers is *người + con + N [+gender]*.

Classifiers have become a topic of debate for years as it is considered a hindrance for language learners when they learn a classified language whereas their mother tongue does not have that kind of system or vice versa. This leads to the appearance of various research related to Vietnamese classifiers, but they consider diverse aspects of the classifiers.

Tran (2021) from the University of Manitoba conducted a study named *A Corpus-based Study of Inanimate Classifiers in Vietnamese,* in which she figured out that the classifier *cái is* used very frequently in spoken Vietnamese may be because of the discourse style to emphasize something in the communicative interactions. Compared to the two research, both agree that the classifier *cái* is used for emphasizing purposes and appears in most Vietnamese utterances. However, Tran (2021) tried to investigate the use of all inanimate classifiers while this study only chose three classifiers *cái*, *con,* and *người,* as the central points of the research.

From other perspectives, a study named *An Investigation of Vietnamese Classifier Constructions* was conducted by Lau (2015), in which the author had collected data from teachers and students in Thu Dau Mot university related to the constructions of Vietnamese classifiers as well as found the semantics function of them. This investigation with the main focus on classifier construction but not in the translation contexts, so it basically considers Vietnamese. Meanwhile, this current research has expanded to Vietnamese – English translation.

Compared to these previous studies, firstly, this research has chosen a different path by finding general structures, narrowing down the scope of the study, and merely focusing on three basic classifiers *cái*, *con,* and *người*. Secondly, the two previous studies from different aspects of classifiers have supported this research's findings as no conflict appeared.

Conclusion

Cái, con, and *người* are the three most common classifiers used differently in various scenarios. Because of this complexity, many Vietnamese learners find it difficult to learn Vietnamese, although they have lived in this country for such a long time. With those findings from the two chosen texts, the researcher hopes that native English speakers may find them beneficial on the way learning Vietnamese as a second language and they can overcome difficulties caused by the differences among languages when it comes to the topic of classifiers. The outcomes of this study come out with another topic for future research, which is an investigation of other Vietnamese classifiers in English-Vietnamese translation. This further research may help Vietnamese learners have a general view of all Vietnamese classifiers and the necessary structures to translate them into certain contexts.

Acknowledgments

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Biodata

Dang Thi Kim Phuong *is currently a Master's degree student at Hoa Sen University in the major of English Language. She is working at the International Schools of North America as a learning support teacher and she has been teaching in the private education sector for about 7 years. At the workplace, she has been facing situations in which Vietnamese students studying in an international environment have struggled to speak and write their mother tongue. This overshadows the beauty of Vietnamese. Understanding this, her research mainly focuses on contrastive English and Vietnamese to find out the easiest way for people to learn Vietnamese effectively.*

Appendix

*Special cases in the use of classifiers **con** and **cái** in Vietnamese translation*

No.	English nouns	Vietnamese translation	
		con (CL) + N	**cái (CL) + N**
1	street/ road	con đường	x
2	ship	con tàu	x
3	stamp	con tem	cái tem
4	boat	con thuyền	cái thuyền
5	kite	con diều	cái diều?
6	chess piece	con cờ	x
7	knife	con dao	cái dao?
8	river	con sông	x
9	small street/ road	con phố	x
10	stamp	con dấu	x
11	shuttle	con thoi	x
12	chips (computer)	con chíp	x
13	motorcycle/car	con xe	cái xe?
14	number	con số	x
15	stream	con suối	x
16	boat	con đò	x
17	alley	con hẻm	cái hẻm?
18	top spinner	con quay	cái quay
19	dike	con đê	x
20	dam	con đập	cái đập

Hufi Non-Englished Majored Students' Fears of Public Speaking: Causes and Solutions

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ABSTRACT

	The purpose of this study is to find out the reasons for HUFI students' fear of public English speaking. In spite of their competence in the field of work, global professionals experience difficulties as a result of a shortage of proper public speaking abilities. Their professional competitiveness is not depicted by the evaluations and appraisals received. Before the switch from an educational to a professional career, it is, therefore, essential for students to conquer public speaking anxiety. The purpose of this research is to examine the root causes of the level of anxiety among non-English-majored students at HUFI enrolled in a general English class and suggest some ways to defeat the panic. This research involved a numeric survey strategy applied to a sample of 200 students from four non-English major students at HUFI, utilizing a convenience sampling approach. The study found that deeply worried students can act well if they can use specific tactics to help them solve their concerns. Eighty percent of those polled said they were afraid of public speaking, and 97.5 percent accepted that adequate treatment, training, and guidance could lessen this anxiety. According to research, access to a virtual environment could indeed enhance students ' confidence and allow them to confront audiences of any dimension.
Keywords: Fear, non-English-majored, public speaking, Speech.	

Introduction

The majority of people are not born public speakers; they must have been taught ways to do that. They experience fear and anxiety when put in settings where they are the focus of attention and therefore must identify an audience, which can result in nausea and heavy sweating. The majority of them try to avoid having to speak or present before an audience, but when forced to do so, they are depressed. As Lucas (2011) wrote, "Many people who converse easily in all kinds of everyday situations become frightened at the idea of standing up before a group to make a speech."(page 9). Such individuals should recognize that they are never the only ones who experience these emotions; indeed, every speaker feels this feeling. It is important for

people to realize that there are many more anxious speakers in the world than non-anxious ones.

It is expected that specialists will regularly continue to improve their communication abilities. According to Verderber, Sellnow, and Verderber (2011), it is stated that a public speech, a lengthy official speaker's address to the audience, is simply a form of communication with people. Thus, "learning to be an effective public speaker will help you to be more effective in other communication settings as well" (page.2). A change in their confidence, speaking ways, intonation pattern, and other attributes can result in significant progress in their competence and character. In the opinion of medical specialists, Tacheva (2013) claims, "The verbal register, intonation, articulation, pronunciation, tone, rhythm, dialect define the character of the communicative impact as positive or negative depending on whether they facilitate or hinder the achievement of communicative purposes." (page 605). Everyone can get around the obstacle by practicing with small peer groups before expanding to wider crowds. Numerous people are afraid to speak in front of their classmates or other persons they know, but this could be overcome by practicing in front of unfamiliar people. This will build up their confidence and assist them in feeling less anxious.

Anxiety is described as a feeling of unease and anxiety caused by the prospect of something unsafe. Due to Kirkwood and Melton's opinion (2002), depression and anxiety are common mental issues encountered by public speakers. The ones who experience concern about public speaking seek to prevent circumstances in which they must perform, but when they do, they experience severe distress and worry. People in general, according to Kant (2000), judge and criticize those who show fear of speaking in public and the failure to make a powerful impression via assertive signs. Those issues might perform as roadblocks to reaching personal and professional objectives; as a result, speakers must have good public speaking abilities.

Literature review

In today's world, good communication skills are critical at all levels. "Communication has become one of the markers of social solidarity, social ranking and professional capabilities," Raja (2013) writes, "and most of the components of the language are learnt through this medium" (p. 154). Specialists are supposed to give a number of lectures to small as well as big groups of an audience at multiple moments across the whole of their chosen profession. As Pertaub, Slater, and Baker (2001) said, if they develop nervousness, they will experience criticism, and this fear will have a major effect on their profession. Their results suggest that the number of social depression experienced by individuals is closely connected to the variety of audience comments. Those claim that this anxiety substantially affects everyone's confidence, which is reflected in their public declarations. According to Spijck (2011), about eighty per one hundred individuals have suffered anxiety in public speaking on a big or small size of the audience. Four out of ten people consider speaking in public to be their top phobia, often more terrifying than being dead. Almost experts define it as an irrational fear that is easily overcomeable.

As a direct consequence, as people progress, they are more likely to deliver and speak at meetings, workshops, and seminars, offering their perspectives on the issues involved. However, a few people get restless and have trouble falling asleep when they have to talk in front of an audience due to public speaking anxiety. Numerous researchers have studied the possible reasons for nervousness and developed a list of suggestions and strategies for trying to deal with these kinds of contexts and resolving the above fear. Whatever method has been used to overcome anxiety when dealing with public speaking should be part of the education from primary school to college.

In their study, Akin and Kunzman (1974) developed a way to compress signs of nervousness in students socially. The combined psychosocial style emphasizes areas of practice that produced outcomes comparable to the dissociation technique, which instructs attendees on how to manage their nervousness by gradually exposing the students to the stressful circumstance over repeated exposure. As a result, persons who practice extensively before giving a public speech seem to be more likely to be self-assured and deliver effective speeches. Likewise, according to Riegel (2013), fear is not relative to the size of the audience in one cheval. A tiny audience can terrify you just as much as a large one. She says that when speakers are overcome by dread, they should use tactics to help them confidently take the stage as well as zeal. The delivery process must be interactive, with the presenter and audience exchanging the floor frequently. To engage the audience more actively, the presenters must ask questions at intervals, which necessitates further conversation than a speech. Simple methods like those could make a noticeable diversity in helping people overcome their fear of public speaking and gain confidence in public speaking.

Morgan (2008) makes a list of some key factors to consider before giving a talk or demonstration: (a) Be transparent with the viewers, (b) associate with the viewers, (c) Be amorous about the issue, as well as (d) Listen to the viewers. Those are some pointers to assist presenters in associating with the viewers and getting more devotional. The viewers will be interested in the speech and will assist the speakers in feeling at ease while speaking. Weissman (2012) discusses why certain presenters speak more quickly in front of an audience. He asserts that standing before an audience causes a rush of adrenaline that also induces a spacial twisting, having caused the speaker to talk rapidly. He goes on to add that by using stops and greases, this can be avoided. These gestures offer the viewers much time to assimilate the knowledge while simultaneously allowing the presenter to formulate another sentence.

Kushner (2010) explains fundamental yet effective tactics for tackling anxiety and delivering great performances. He starts by explaining and describing successful speech beginning and finishing patterns. Prompts are used to involve and obtain the audience's attention, a quotation to begin or close can be employed. He continues by saying that the presenter must think about the topic's necessities and their purpose for the listener's motivation to hear. Kusher emphasizes achievement and proposes towards the conclusion of the talk. The presenter must define a few precise targets which should be fulfilled. If the presenter is uncertain of the position, this will not leave a good impression on the viewers, who could

become demotivated.

Many authors and scholars emphasize the importance of the virtual environment. They claim that exposing people to virtual worlds and simulations can help them overcome their phobia of public speaking. Sandra, Robert, and Max (2002) conducted research to see if Virtual Reality Therapy (VRT) may help university students overcome their fear of public speaking. A total of fourteen pupils were separated into two parties. Ones in the first party received personalized Virtual Reality Therapy therapy and post-testing, while students in group two had just completed the follow-up exam. The outcomes showed that the Virtual Reality Therapy discussion effectively reduced students' public speaking fear.

Research Questions

The goal of the research is to identify and explore the sources of participants' fear of public speaking in university courses and to offer additional strategies to solve those fears. This study examines the causes of students' fear of public speaking as well as the outcomes of that fear. It gives an overview of the study's findings and results. As a consequence, the research questions listed will indeed be investigated.

1. To what extent do undergraduate students at HUFI have a phobia of public speaking?

2. What factors contribute to undergraduate students at HUFI dread of public speaking?

Methods

Pedagogical Setting & Participants

This really was a tiny experimental study for assessing the demands of undergraduate learners taking general English courses in order to develop techniques to help them overcome their fear of public speaking. The quantitative descriptive research approach was used to conduct the investigation. Quantitative research, according to Creswell (1994), is gathering data sets and assessing them to explain occurrences using quantitative analysis techniques Questionnaires were employed as the major data-gathering instrument during the research.

The study included 200 undergraduate non-English major students from HUFI in HoChiMinh city, Vietnam. The approach sampling method was in use because "convenience sampling restricts the sample to a portion of the population that is easily accessible" according to Singh 7 Mangat on page 7.

Design of the Study

The information was gathered, which was used self-administered questionnaires given to 200 undergraduate students at HUFI. The questionnaire was created utilizing pertinent literature reviews and the researcher's observations gathered over the course of one semester while she taught the course general English. As a result, the author linked her investigations, which enabled her to create a fairly concise survey with five polar questions. The primary address was with respect to the fear of open talking; the second address investigated the effect in terms of

the total quantity of group of onlookers on learners' open talking execution; address three asked almost how taking part in open talking exercises offers assistance understudies convey way better introductions; the moment address asked in the event that needs of certainty was the reason of fear, and the last address asked if they thought their anxiety of open talking could be resolved by using only a few procedures and seeking professional help.

Data analysis

Using the MS Excel statistical tool pack, the data was sample tested for average, variance, and discrepancy.

Results/Findings and discussion

The instructor bracketed his observations, which aided her in analyzing the literature to fully comprehend the current research. Some of the observations are as follows:

Table 1. Undergraduate students' percentage replies to the five questions in the survey

Inquiries	No. of students	'yes' replies (%)	'no' replies (%)
1. Is public speaking a concern for you?	200	80% (180)	20% (20)
2. Is the size of viewers the main factor which affects how well you deliver your speech?	200	86.5% (173)	13.5% (27)
3. Do you agree that the more you participate in speaking in public events , the better you will give speeches?	200	89% (178)	11% (22)
4. Do you feel that this anxiety is because of your lack of confidence?	200	65% (120)	35% (80)
5. Do you believe that your address concerns are frequently resolved by employing some strategies and getting professional assistance?	200	97.5% (195)	2.5% (5)

Since a lot of learners are shy and feel awkward speaking in front of each other, lack of self-esteem was the most frequent source of public speaking anxiety. According to Burgess (2013, October 30), anxiety was identified to become a more pressing matter than execution in research of popular fears. Another study finding was that students who succeeded at arguments and presentations did better in discussions. Even when a student is terrified of public speaking, he can excel by diligently learning and preparing. When considered a competence, public speaking could also be greatly enhanced. The teacher is responsible for providing students with

encouragement and confidence, as well as assisting them in overcoming their fear of public speaking.

The results and analysis of the data obtained are presented in this portion of the study. These questionnaires' responses were analyzed, and conclusions were reached. The proportion of replies submitted by the learners is shown in Table 1. As can be seen from the table, 80 percent of the students surveyed said they were afraid of speaking in front of an audience in response to the first question. As a result, the vast majority of the above students were found to be terrified of speaking in public, and this is similar to McCain's (2012) findings which "almost 90% of participants reported feeling timid or uncomfortable speaking in front of others at some point in their life" on page 1. This investigation, however, differs from individual to individual because different individuals hold various views and levels of courage in front of the ones they know well or do not know well.

Inquiry two investigated if the diameter of the viewers had an effect on the presentation academic performance of students.. 86.5 % of survey participants said the diameter of the viewers had a considerable impact on the productivity as well as uneasiness. Gamston and Wellman (1992) illustrate why and how this still has an impact, coming to a conclusion that "large audiences often appear more daunting than smaller audiences" (p. 35). Moreover, due to Ivy Marie Pabro-Maquidato's results (2021), it is possible to conclude that the respondents can resolve their fear by implementing proper approaches. Their fear, expressed as constant stress, physiological functions, and mental problems while speaking English, was caused by their fear of being judged negatively. However, they can cope with their English-speaking fear by exercising their initiative through essential tools, drafting down their ideas, tackling their anxiety, and asking for valuable criticism.

The third question asked if increased engagement in public speaking activities improves students' presentation skills. Eighty-nine percent of respondents said that participating in public speaking events helps them improve their presentation skills. Those presenters who appear confident and exhibit no signs of nerves have just learned to hide their discomfort or know how to use the stress response technique (Akin & Kunzman,1974); as a result, regular display to diverse viewers will change the students into a very self-assured public speaker. Question four was done to discover if the students believed the students' anxiety stemmed from a lack of courage. Due to Sjoberg (2006), students who are not confident require encouragement in the early learning process to be encouraged to participate in school. Watson and Kelly (1986) claim that the most important factor in the development of abilities to communicate is confidence. Preceding research provides a rationale that accounted for 65% of learners. Those stated their shortage of confidence was considered the cause of their anxiety during public speaking. According to Mr. Pham (2022) and his colleagues, students got constrained comments and suggestions from teachers regarding their mistakes. As a consequence, they were unable to resolve their errors. The students had yet to grasp their public speaking abilities, which resulted in poor speaking ability.

The final inquiry inquired if the learners felt they might overcome their apprehension about

speaking in public by employing a few tactics as well as getting expert assistance. 97.5 percent of students said that employing alternative tactics or obtaining expert assistance could assist them in overcoming their public speaking anxiety. Due to Songsiri (2007), students who are motivated and supported in attaining their objectives at their own pace grow, regain and trust, and become fully independent and lifelong students. Many people who interact comfortably in almost all kinds of regular circumstances might also get nervous at the prospect of taking the stage before a team to make a presentation, said Lucas (2011) on page 9. Consequently, it is crucial that activities be devised to assist them in gaining confidence. Because a greater audience is possible to have a detrimental impact on confidence, they should indeed be revealed to a smaller number of people at first. The dimensions of the audience could be raised when the level of confidence develops.

Conclusion

The purpose of this study was to evaluate the level of anxiety among non-English-majored students at HUFI and to provide proof that this anxiety is ubiquitous among individuals, especially among undergraduate students. The literature review was conducted to shed some light on past studies in the same zone, invalidate the study and build on what was already done. In short, the study indicates that public speaking nervousness is a matter of training that can be resolved by exercising and preparing before meetings or presentations and that people who experience fears of public speaking can perform just as well as those who have a powerful knowledge of the topic. The approaches listed below can assist students in overcoming their fear of public speaking.

1. There's nothing to worry at a period of quietness. If presenters miss focusses on the things they are presenting or become frightened, the audience is unlikely to mind a little pause to digest what they have just said.

2. During practice, the speakers should anticipate audience replies and questions so that they can provide confident responses. Humans are mainly aware of the information being provided, so it is important to concentrate on the information rather than the viewers.

3. Rehearsing the entire speech multiple times will undoubtedly offer presenters some advantage. They are unable to do practice with a small group that makes them feel comfortable.

4. Better preparation also aids speakers in rapidly regaining control if they become disoriented.

5. The speakers should be proud of their accomplishments. Although it may not have been flawless, the speakers are likely to be much more self-critical than the viewers

6. A better comprehension of the topic and preparation reduces the likelihood during a public speaking interaction, making a fault or getting off track

7. Students would benefit from participating in an active public speaking forum. When people develop the habit of recognizing themselves to be at ease in an unfamiliar situation when they

speak in front of the public, their nervousness levels drop, and they become more relaxed.

8. Speakers should solicit audience feedback during practice sessions or have the talk recorded. It also assists the learning and improvement process if you repeatedly watch it for self-criticism.

9. The lecturer should assist students in understanding that being stressed is normal.

Acknowledgments

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Biodata

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Appendix

Name:…………………………………………………...

Age:…………………………………………………..

Major:………………………………………………….

Please answer the following questions:

Questions	YES	NO
1. Is public speaking a concern for you?		
2. Is the size of viewers the main factor which affects how well you deliver your speech?		
3. Do you agree that the more you participate in speaking in public events , the better you will give speeches?		
4. Do you feel that this anxiety is because of your lack of confidence?		
5. Do you believe that your address concerns are frequently resolved by employing some strategies and getting professional assistance?		

A study of non-English majoring students' proactivity toward English language acquisition at Ho Chi Minh City University of Food Industry

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ABSTRACT

Keywords: English, students, teachers, attitude, proactivity	Learners' ability and attitude are usually the most important determinants of language acquisition success. If students have passive initiatives in thinking and acting, it might have negative consequences. The study's goals are to investigate students' proactivity in learning English, discover the disparities in factors faced by three specializations, and draw some teaching implications at Ho Chi Minh City University of Food Industry (HUFI). This study used qualitative descriptive research of 108 non-English-majored students from Business Administration, Food Technology, and Mechanical Engineering who attended a fifteen-week English 1 course. The survey of three questions with twelve items covers behavioral, cognitive, and emotional aspects of language attitudes. The findings reveal that students generally have an average proactive attitude toward English. On the other hand, the three majors are very different in terms of gender and attitudes toward English. Mechanical students had a little less proactive attitude than students in the other two specializations.

Introduction

English is usually recognized as a valuable language that should be taught and can help people live better lives. There are several factors to consider in the teaching and learning process, one of which is proactivity. Teachers must be aware of their students' proactivity to give successful teaching and learning. The study of proactive attitude aspects is crucial because proactive attitude variables have been recognized as a key component in predicting second or foreign language performance and achievement. They serve as a motivator to study in the first place and then as a source of encouragement throughout the difficult process of learning a second or foreign language. Baumeister RF& Bushman BJ (2007) assume that "Self-initiated behavior that seeks to address a problem before it occurs," Instead of responding to a circumstance, proactive behavior involves taking action ahead of it. Rather than adjusting to a situation or waiting for anything to happen, it refers to taking control of the situation and initiating early

changes. " In actuality, a student's attitude toward language learning might affect their capacity to learn a language. According to Lightbown & Spada (2006), students will want to interact more with language speakers if they have positive feelings about them (P.63). It means that if students are interested in learning the target language, they will be more motivated to do so. Students will be motivated to learn the target language joyously as a result of their good attitude towards it. In reality, all non-English majoring students are required to take English as a basic official subject. Students' success in learning is dependent on proactive actions and attitudes. The current research is a moderate attempt to address the most important issue for HUFI students: how proactive they are.

Literature review

Garrett, Coupland & Williams (2003) point out that a linguistic attitude is an attitude toward a language and its speakers. Language attitude includes cognitive, emotional, and behavioral components. Prejudices shape the cognitive aspect regarding a language and its speakers, which are established through cognition—both individual and communal efforts. The affective aspect is concerned with how individuals feel about a language, whereas the behavioral aspect is concerned with how people act toward a language, whether consciously or unconsciously. Those three characteristics are not haphazardly developed. A variety of circumstances shapes language attitudes. According to Ciscel et al. (2000), "language attitude" is the socio-personal and social-economic value given to a particular language that is developed through interactions within a speech community. The socio-personal context refers to how a language is linked to sentimental attachment, which means it is linked to personal attachments like personal or group identification and a cultural legacy. The socio-economic context, on the other hand, is connected to instrumental attachment, which indicates that the language is used as a tool to gain easier access to better living conditions, such as being able to secure a better job because of the ability to speak a certain language, stated by Eastman (1983). Like many other behavioral elements, "attitude" is one of the most important features of one's personality. It includes psychological, emotional, and behavioral aspects. It leads to the interpretation of a person's words and actions.

Al-Sobhi et al. (2018) published an article titled "*Arab ESL Secondary School Students' Attitude Toward English Spelling and Writing,"* which said that students with a positive attitude are more enthusiastic about learning the language, whereas students with a defeatist attitude are more apathetic about learning the language. Attitude, like many other behavioral factors, is one of the most important aspects of one's personality. It takes psychological, emotional, and behavioral elements into account. It results in a particular level of engagement in certain expected human activities. A person's attitude refers to how he/she sees objects or actions. It examines a person's words and behavior and expresses his/her moods. The learner's attitude is one of the most crucial aspects of learning a foreign language. It is critical to capture children's attention and motivate them to learn, even though numerous investigators exerted efforts to examine challenges related to an EFL setting. Gardner, R.C.(1985) assumes that enthusiasm is

seen as a critical component of language learning success and significantly impacts the efficiency and productivity of English language learning. As a component of motivation, the researcher analyzes attitudes in language acquisition. His concept of motivation includes positive attitudes toward learning the language. He goes on to say that whether or not a student acquires a foreign language is determined by their attitude toward foreign people in general, as well as the target group and language in particular. Furthermore, "a proper and cheerful attitude is vital for language acquisition success," stated Lifrieri (2005). As a result, a thorough understanding of the student's motivation and attitude is essential (p.14).

Research questions

The following questions were formulated:

1. How often do students present their opinions and questions in the classroom?

2. What drives students to study English?

3. What emotional obstacles do students encounter in their English learning?

We think that by addressing these concerns in this study, we will be able to better understand EFL learners' proactiveness, particularly by encouraging them to converse in the second language.

Participants

This sample included one hundred eight students from the Business Administration, Food Technology, and Mechanical departments. Thirty-six students are in each department. All Mechanical participants were boys. 53 out of 108 are males. The majority of them had started learning English in sixth grade. Additionally, they also followed the book 'Life' by John Hughes, Helen Stephenson, and Paul Dummett (2nd edition) for the first semester before the study. In other words, they had nearly four months to study English by the teaching methods of HUFI teachers. Therefore, they had enough experience learning English to express their proactivity clearly. The students were informed that they could still take the course even if they did not want to participate in the research. Students did not receive any compensation for their involvement in the experiment. No one, including university administrators, would have access to the data. They also realized that the data collected would only be used for the study. The survey participants were not subjected to the writer's viewpoint. The interviewees generously shared some useful suggestions for a better solution. The answers to the questions were fully up to the participants. During recess, the researcher interviewed some students in a few classrooms, and the outcomes were meticulously recorded. Some students do an online Google Form survey questionnaire. The result is expressed in figures.

Design of the Study

The researcher uses the research method to get information. Four items were included in each question. There were three questions in the survey. Student's behaviors in learning English were covered in Question 1. Students' Cognition in Learning English was covered in Question 2. Emotion is the final one with the questions. The study expects students to give the author

reliable information to get reliable information affecting the proactive attitudes of HUFI students.

Results/Findings and discussion

Findings for the RQ 1: How often do students present their opinions and questions in the classroom?

Vietnam's Ministry of Education, like that of any other Asian country, has devoted particular attention to this language. Despite major efforts to improve students' English skills through revised school curricula, teacher training courses, and the use of modern technologies, learners' attitudes about learning the language demand more attention. Researchers from throughout the world have discovered that identifying students' attitudes toward learning English is critical in guiding their efforts to improve their language learning prospects (Al Nooursi, 2013; Abidin, Mohammadi & Alzwari, 2012; Tahaineh & Daana, 2013). HUFI has lately expanded to cover over ten majors with over 20,000 students. They are primarily from various parts of the country. They continue their research once the outbreak has passed. English is part of the basic system. Even if students must achieve a TOEIC score of 450 or 500 before graduating, they must all pass three English levels. As a result, learning English during school hours is needed. There are three parts to the focus group items for students. Each portion of the questionnaire was item-by-item evaluated to focus on three factors: attitude, cognition, and emotion.

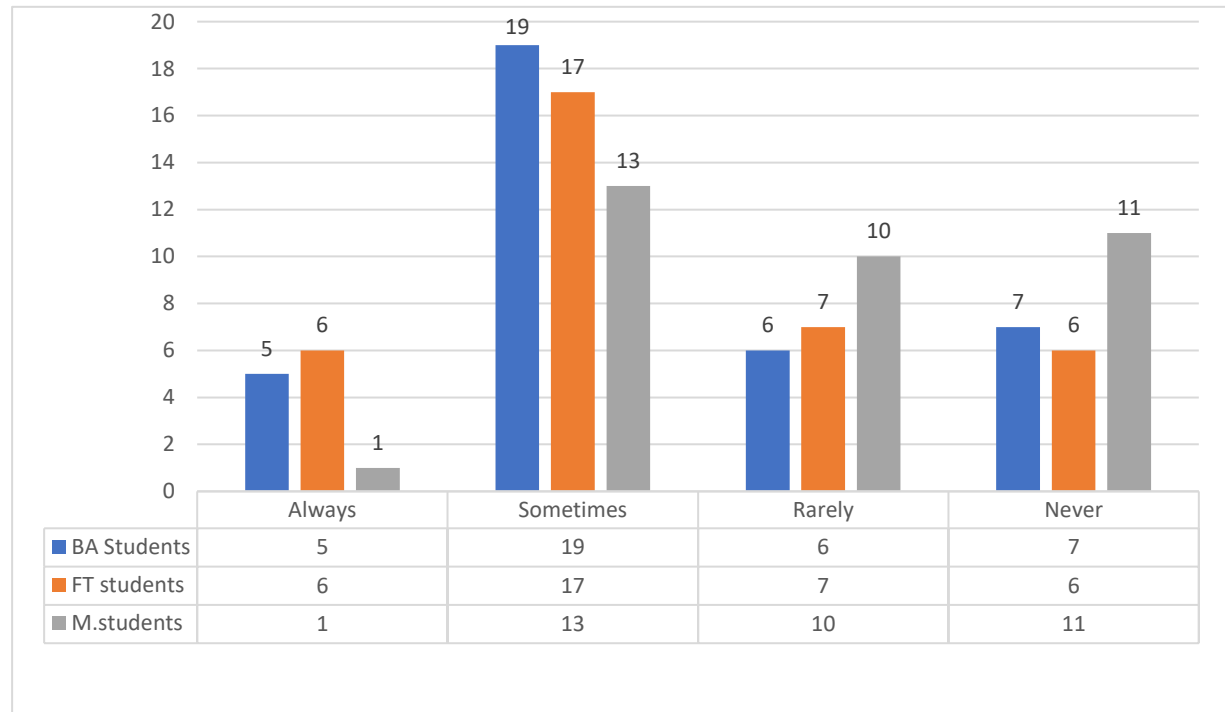|	Always	Sometimes	Rarely	Never
■ BA Students	5	19	6	7
■ FT students	6	17	7	6
■ M.students	1	13	10	11

Figure 1. Analysis of the behavioral factors influencing English learning by majors

Question 1 is about behavior towards English learning.

According to the responses of the students. The findings appear to be significantly different from those of 108 research participants from three majors who were under four degrees of frequency. Based on the learners' responses, it was discovered that:

1- Only 12 out of 108 students have an active interest in studying English, with Mechanical students having the least.

2- While 49 students stated that they occasionally raise their hands in class, mechanical students are less likely to do so.

3- There are 23 students who say they rarely participate in English classroom activities, while Mechanical students make up about half of the total.

4- 11 Mechanical students believe that they never offer their thoughts in English classes, although they only do it in the left ones.

	Always	Sometimes	Rarely	Never
Male	1	10	22	20
Female	9	26	11	9
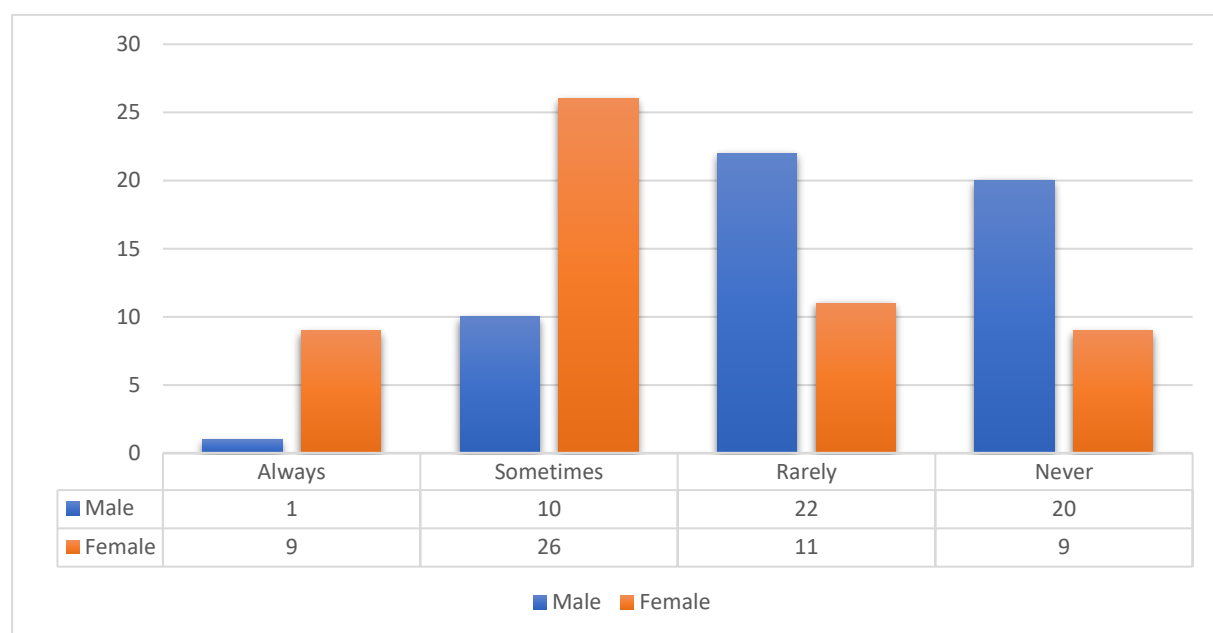
Figure 2. Analysis of the behavioral factors influencing English learning by gender.

Such effects are less common as a function of gender and major, particularly in mechanics. Gender also has an impact on learning; women are more likely to have a positive attitude and be driven to learn a language. Proactivity was judged in the study not only by active attitudes but also by an oral presentation in a second language. Presentations or demonstrating enthusiasm in class are optional activities for participating students, but they demonstrate that understudies who rarely ask questions or give their ideas in class are less proactive. In summary, HUFI students have a moderately engaged approach to English study. Even if they dislike participating in any educational process, the majority of pupils possess a passive attitude.

Findings for the RQ 2: What drives students to study English?
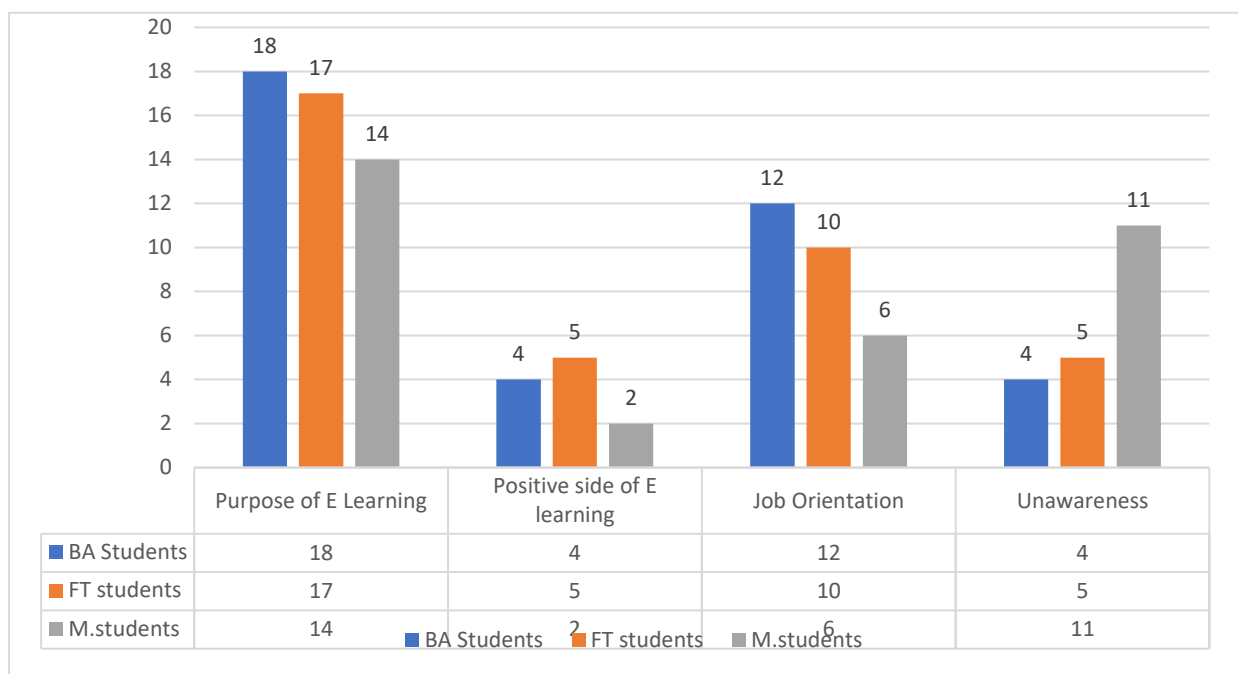
Figure 3. Analysis of the cognitive factors influencing English learning by majors

Question 2 is about the cognition factor towards English learning. Based on the responses of the learners, it reveals that:

1- 49 of 108 learners are sure of the purpose of English learning.

2- Only 11 students realize the positive side of learning English.

3- Only 28 are aware of the relevance of English learning in jobs.

4- Unawareness thought of English language learners are a group of 20 students.

The results suggest that nearly half of students (45,5%) said learning English is important for passing school final examinations. They study English for practical purposes. They cannot foretell the future, and it is difficult to know whether their activities will have positive or negative implications. Many HUFI students are not proactive in their English learning for this reason. This is one of utilitarianism's limits. Similarly, the findings reveal that nearly 20% (20) of learners who study English in an unconscious condition do so for the sole purpose of being forced to do this because they have no other option. In other words, unfocused English learners have not received defined their goals and are not sure what they really want. Some students simply lack the ability to learn languages. They perform poorly in English, and as a result, their total grades suffer.

The results reveal that the other goals of HUFI students are to focus on the positive aspects of English study. They said they learn English because it is a universal language and that they use it for things like traveling, watching a movie, listening to music, and so on. Unfortunately, only 11 students (approximately 10%) of the students responded. At the same time, 28 students (approximately 25,9 %) of HUFI acknowledged that learning English will enable them to get a career in the future. Students in Business Administration have the best learning approach, but Mechanical students have the least. Economic students, on average, are more proactive about English acquisition than technology students. However, the author wishes that the cognition component's HUFI students will be improved in the future. As a result, learners with a clear aim perform at an average level; they lack a long-term strategy and hence lack a vigorous youth with such a passion for language learning.

	Purpose of E Learning	Positive side of E learning	Job Orientation	Unawareness
Male	19	9	18	7
Female	18	11	24	5
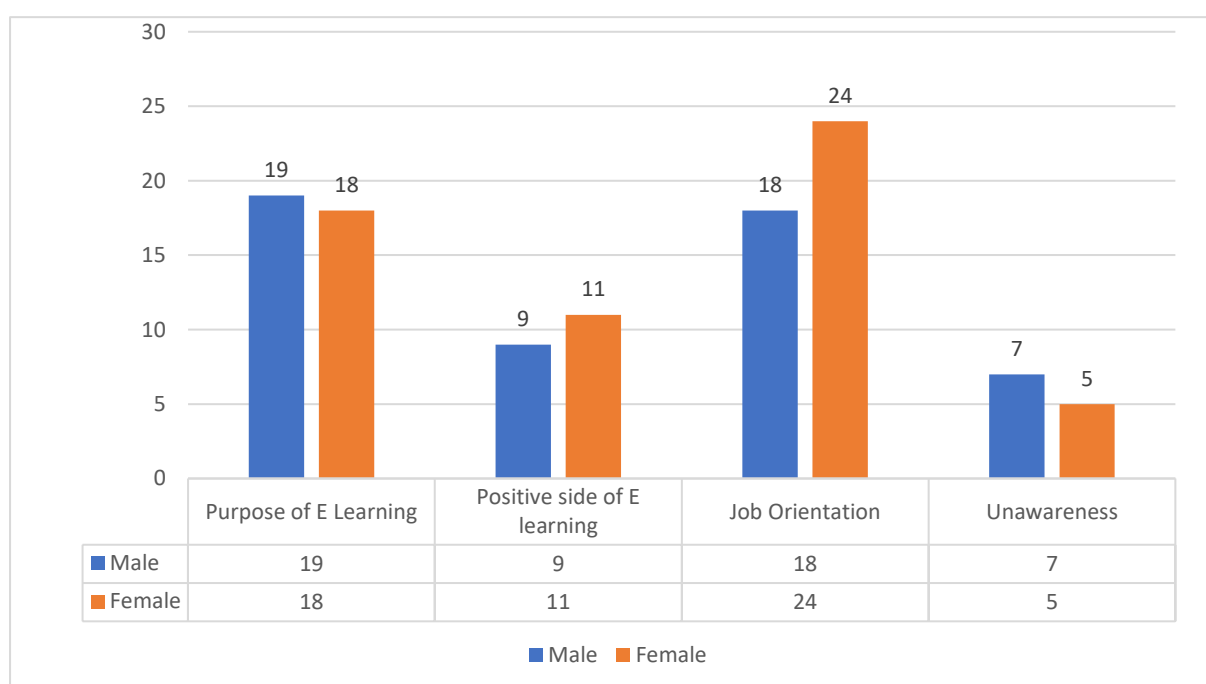
Figure 4. Analysis of the cognition factors influencing English learning by gender

The data gathered from the teachers' questionnaires revealed that the majority of students are uninterested in English study in general. No significant component compelled learners to think positively about their educational achievements. It was determined that the learners' backgrounds played a role in their negative attitudes about education in general and English in particular. Furthermore, it was discovered that only a few students had a vision for their future careers that was not related to entertainment. They are unaccustomed to trials or hard labor. There are no behavioral responses at all. That, too, appears to be a compulsion. In terms of gender, finding cognition lowers. Gender also reflects learning as well; females often have parent strategies in English learning than males.

What emotional obstacles do students get in their English learning?

The impact of emotional experiences on motivation and conduct in academic environments varies, according to Pekrun and Perry (2014). Negative activating emotions (e.g., despair and boredom) are frequently (but not always) related to avoidance. They hence might weaken achievement motivation due to low-control evaluations (hopelessness) or perceived lack of incentives to engage in academic tasks. Depending on the study assessments, negative activation emotions might lead to approach or avoidance behaviors. Fear and anxiety, for example, are both negative activating emotions, but fear is approach-related—often prompted by assessments of obstruction and unfairness—while anxiety is linked to avoidance of risky situations.

	Shyness	Fear	Unconfidence	Anxiety/heartbeat
BA Students	9	14	8	5
FT students	10	14	10	2
M.students	7	16	12	1
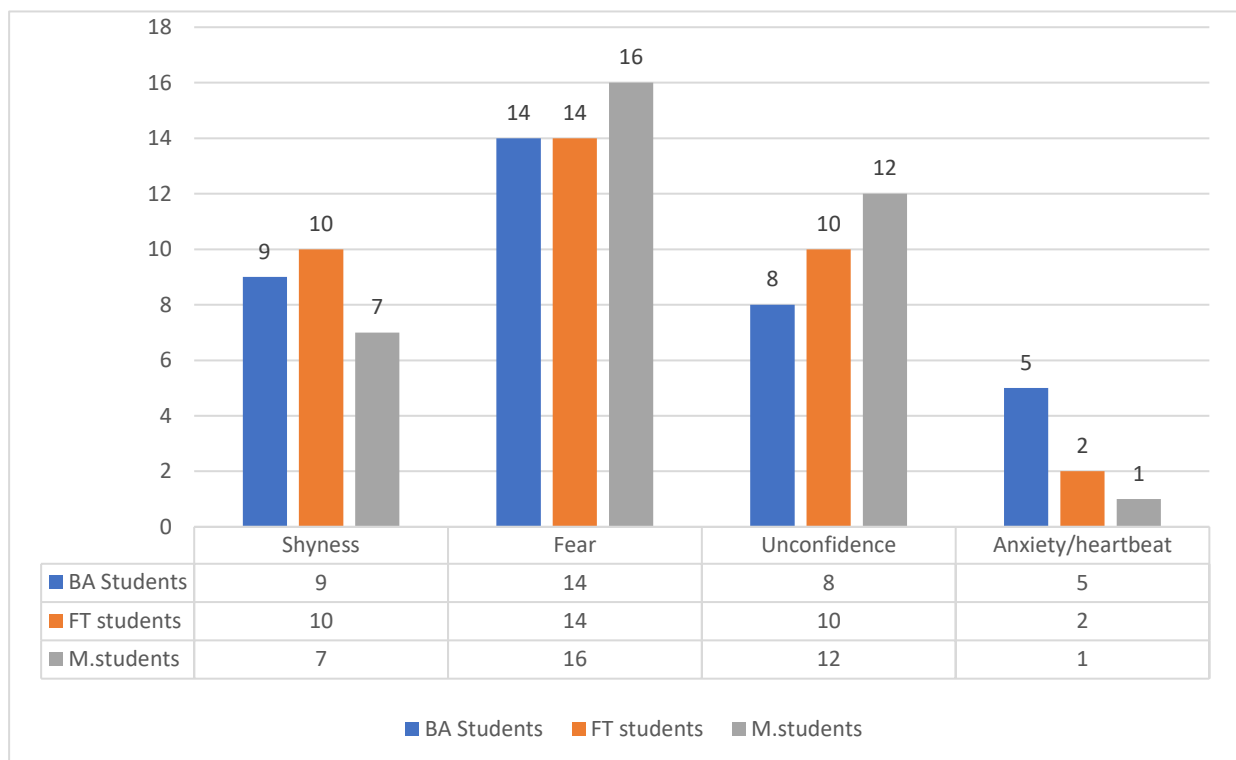
Figure 5. Analysis of the emotional factors influencing English learning by major

Table 5 reveals the negative emotions of three majors, with 44 replies (40,8%) stating that they are terrified of making mistakes in the classroom. Because they lack confidence, the majority of 30 respondents (27.8%) avoid interacting with their peers and professors. Similarly, 26 (24%) of respondents said they are afraid of standing out in class by expressing their thoughts or asking questions. Furthermore, 8 (7.4%) respondents acknowledged their anxiety and higher heartbeats when conversing in a foreign language with other students or professors. In overall, the findings revealed that the level of emotional variables changes based on the learner's psychology. In particular, mechanical students deal with the fear of making mistakes and lack of confidence more than business administration students and food technology students, but they endure feelings of shyness and anxiety less than the other ones. The issue is that some negative emotions act as a barrier to students' classroom engagement and test performance. An

interesting similarity was found in the findings of the paper's Islam, Ahmad, and Islam (2022). The results show that about 40% of both public and private schools face anxiety in speaking English. The writers also suggested that the EFL learners should be more self-motivated. At the same time, the teachers should motivate them in the class so that they take the initiative and willingly start trying to overcome their speaking problems. In addition, another finding from Le, X. M., & Le, T. T. (2022) revealed nearly 20% of participants responded that their anxiety made it extremely difficult to participate in-class activities. As a result, individuals may be scared to study English, particularly when it comes to presentation skills.

Patterns were observed in the data in relation to the factors of behavior, cognition, and emotion, which are components of proactivity. In terms of behavior, HUFI students have average active behaviors, and most learners are unwilling to participate in study activities. Business Administration students and Food Technology students are more motivated than mechanical students. Furthermore, they show a better awareness of English learning than mechanical students. Females disclose active attitudes toward studying. Another factor revealed in the article is that nearly half of the respondents' emotions relate to the state of fear of making mistakes. Some emotional obstacles lead to a limitation of language acquisition.

Conclusion and Recommendations

It was concluded that the students don't possess proactivity towards education in general. The issue of behavior becomes more crucial in the case of learning English due to many levels. There are multiple reasons why students are generally disinterested in learning as a whole. Items identified several mediating factors as affecting the direction of impact on learning and achievement following the experience of negative emotions. These were mostly mentioned in relation to fear, and a few were mentioned in other feelings.

Three implications could be considered based on the research findings. To begin, non-English major students should be excited about learning practice; repetition of particular acts makes their language acquisition easier, allowing them to overcome some psychological barriers. Second, HUFI students should identify particular English learning objectives. Consider some of the beneficial aspects of English that will benefit them in the future. Finally, the encouragement they receive from their teachers, parents, and friends is crucial to our emotional development. If a student adopts the mindset of "always giving it their all and learning from their mistakes," they will have a more optimistic outlook on their capacity to learn. They have long-term techniques for learning the language as a result of this. All of the above, the article realizes that with active behaviors, thorough cognition, and positive emotions, HUFI students can get proactivity in English learning.

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Biodata

Ngo Thi Ngoc Hanh was born in Ben Tre, Vietnam, in 1977. From 1999 to 2004, she was a high school English teacher in Ben Tre. Then, from 2004 to 2022 she worked as a teacher of English at the Department of Foreign Languages, HUFI, as a Lecturer. She received her Master of BA from Apollos University in 2007. She is now in charge of topics such as speaking, English for Basic Marketing, and commercials. Her current research interests include non-English majoring students' proactivity toward English language acquisition.

Comparing Existential Sentences in Chinese, English and Vietnamese from the Perspective of Linguistic Typology

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ABSTRACT

Keywords: existential sentence, type of linguistics, syntax, order, asymmetric	Chinese existential sentences denote "somewhere appears, exists or disappears something or someone" (someone or something exists, appears or disappears somewhere). This paper comes from the perspective of semantics and syntax to analyze and find out more about the existential sentences of Vietnamese with English and Chinese, and compares the similarities and differences of the three components "component of place"; "verb indicating the existence"; the "existence subject" of the three languages. The paper has applied the cognitive theory of spatial relationships to explain the different orders of existential sentences in these three languages. The paper goes one step further with the preliminary study of existential sentences in Japanese, Korean, and Thai, and finds that Eastern languages can use the form of existential sentences to express two meanings: one is "in somewhere exists something"; and two is "in somewhere is lost something", but Indo-European English cannot use the form of the existential sentence to express the idea "in somewhere is lost something".

Introduction

The existential sentence is a rather special type of sentence in the language. It denotes the meaning "something appears, exists or disappears in somewhere". In many languages, the existential sentence is a sentence pattern with a high frequency of occurrence. It appears a lot in daily communication and in writing, making many researchers interested in the study. Most research papers usually come from the perspective of syntax, semantics, pragmatics, and perception of existing sentences and have a certain research output, according to the extension of existential sentence research. Some researchers have begun to search for new ways to explain the syntax of existential sentences and have begun to appear comparative studies of existential sentences between different languages. Chinese existential sentences have the form "word of place + existential verb + existential subject", in Vietnamese, it has the form: "Có + existential

subject + existential verb + word of place", and in English has the form: "There+ VP+ NP + LP", comparing existential sentences of these three languages is a very useful topic for study, teaching, and learning languages.

Literature review

At present, there have been many researchers who have written and compared existential sentences between languages from different points of view. For example, Chen (2010) analyzed the similarities and differences between existential sentences in English and Chinese and applied the findings in translation from the perspective of sentence order. Fu (2009) studied existential sentences in English from a syntactical perspective; the paper described the basic characteristics, manner, and nature of existential sentences in English. He analyzed specifically the internal structure of this type of existential sentence from this angle. Gu and Li (2010) studied the information structure in existential sentences of English and Chinese from the cognitive perspective. The article discussed the similarities and differences of existential sentences in the syntactic structure and pointed out that the similarities and differences between the two languages are due to different thinking models. Jia (2006) compared existential sentences of Korean and Chinese from the perspective of semantics and pragmatics, analyzed and pointed out the difference between the two languages, and applied the results in teaching and learning. The comparison study of existential sentences in Chinese, English, and Vietnamese languages, however, from the perspective of linguistics, has not yet found any researchers studying this issue.

Methods

The study objects are existential sentences in Chinese, Vietnamese, and English on two aspects of form and meaning. First, the existential sentences of the three languages are described and analyzed thoroughly in these aspects, find out the similarities and differences, and concurrently explain some phenomena of asymmetry in existential Sino-Vietnamese-English sentences. The main method uses the methods of analytic comparison and marking theory, asymmetry theory, combining form and meaning, combining description and explanation from then the existential Sino-Vietnamese-English sentence orders are compared and explained at the same time, from the perspective of spatial perception. Overall research idea: linguistic phenomena description — comparisons — differences — explanations by reasoning.

Results and discussion

Existential sentences express the meaning "in somewhere appears, exists or lose someone, something." From a syntactical perspective, this type of sentence can be divided into three components: the first part is the "place of existence" taken up by the noun of place, which is the place where a person or thing appears, exists, or disappears; the second part is the "existential verb" which is assumed by a verb, indicating the appearance, existence, disappearance of people or things; The third component is the "existential subject" which is taken up by a noun, indicating that "subject" appears, exists or disappears.

Ex (1):

Chinese: 窗外晃过一个黑影 儿。

Window outside appeared one shadow

English: There appeared a shadow outside the window.

Vietnamese: Ngoài cửa sổ có một bóng đen xuất hiện.

Outside window have one shadow appeared

Ex (2):

Chinese: 村里住着一名音乐家。

V*illage in live one composer*

English: There lived a composer in a village.

Vietnamese: Có một nhạc sĩ sống trong làng.

In village have one composer live

Language	Place of existence	Existential verb	Existential subject
Chinese	窗外	晃过	一个人影 儿
	村里	住着	一名音乐家
English	outside the window	appeared	a shadow
	in a village	lived	a composer
Vietnamese	Ngoài cửa sổ	xuất hiện	Có một bóng đen
	Trong làng	sống	có một nhạc sĩ

Existential sentence form in Chinese

Let's see some examples of existential sentences in Chinese:

Ex (3): 楼上跑来一个小男孩。

Upstair run down one child boy

There ran down a boy from upstairs.

Ex (4): 天上掉下来一只鸟。

Sky on fell one bird

There fell a bird in the sky.

Ex (5): 墙上挂着一张画儿。

The wall on hang one painting

There was a painting on the wall.

In terms of form, Chinese existential sentences are expressed as: "LP + VP + NP", in which the place at the beginning of the sentence is the subject, and the existential subject at the end of the sentence is the object. In terms of meaning, it denotes "somewhere appears or loses someone or something". The NP in the sentence pattern is an existential subject that is mostly used by an indefinite article, such as "一个小男孩" (a child), "一只鸟" (a bird), "一张画儿" (a picture).

The existential verbs are mainly non-objective verbs such as: "跑来" (run to), "走来" (go to)，

"掉下" (fall down), "挂" (hang)，"死了" (die). The above sentences can also be expressed according to the sentence pattern "NP+ LP+ VP" :

Ex（6）：一个小男孩从楼上跑下来。

A child boy + from   upstair + run down

Ex（7）：一只鸟从天上掉下来。

One bird + from sky on + fell down

Ex（8）：一张画儿在墙上挂着呢。

One painting + the wall on + hang

but Chinese researchers argue that it is not an existential sentence, although both the sentence patterns "LP+ VP+ NP" and "NP+ LP+ VP" denote the meaning "in somewhere appears, exists or disappears something or someone". Chinese researchers recognize that "LP + VP + NP" is the typical existential sentence pattern, while the pattern "NP + LP + VP" is assumed that the subject sentence has a common meaning.

Existential sentence form in English

Let's see some examples of existential sentences in English:

Ex (9): There lived a great composer in a village.

Ex (10): There remain survivors at the Azovstal steel plant.

Ex (11): There occurred an accident at that intersection.

Ex (12): There arose a terrible commotion at his house.

Scholars consider the above sentences to be existential sentences in English, and all are expressed according to the sentence pattern "There + VP + NP + LP". In terms of meaning, it denotes "in somewhere appears someone, or something", but there is a difference from Chinese to English. The English existential sentence does not denote the meaning "in somewhere disappears someone or something", which only denotes the meaning of existence or appearance. In this sentence pattern, NP is the existential subject, most of which are also indefinite nouns, such as "a great composer", "survivors", "an accident", "a commotion," etc. The verbs that exist are mainly non-objective verbs such as: "live", "remains", "occurred," etc. But the above sentences can also be expressed according to the sentence pattern "LP+ VP+ NP" :

Ex (13) : In a village, there lived a great composer.

Ex (14): At Azovstal steel plant, there remains survivors.

Ex (15): At his house, there arose a terrible commotion.

Ex (16): At that intersection, there occurred an accident.

To analyze the above examples, it can be seen that the adverb of place in the sentence is moved to the front of the sentence. The syntactic form of these sentences seems to be similar to the syntactic form of the Chinese existential sentences, but the difference is that: the word of place at the beginning of the Chinese sentence is the subject, but the words of place in four examples (13)(14)(15)(16) of English are adverbs of place, that because this is not a typical form of the English existential sentences, but a "transformed form" of the English sentence only. Typical existential sentences in English are example sentences (9),(10),(11),(12), "There" at the beginning of a sentence is considered a null subject, and words of place are considered adverbs of place in a sentence.

Existential sentence form in Vietnamese

Let's see some examples of existing sentences in Vietnamese:

Ex (17) :Có một chú chim bay ra từ trong cây.

There is a bird flying out from the tree.

Ex (18) : Có một con cá chết trong hồ.

There is a dead fish in a tank.

Ex (19) : Có hai bức tranh treo ở trên tường.

There are two pictures hanging on the wall.

Ex (20) : Có một vụ tai nạn xảy trên đường cao tốc.

There was an accident on the highway.

Vietnamese researchers believe that a typical Vietnamese existential sentence has the form: "Có + NP + VP + LP". Words of place in existential sentences are considered adverbs of place, which can also be at the beginning of sentences, and the above existential sentences can also be expressed according to the following sentence pattern: "LP+ Có + NP + VP":

Ex (21) : Từ trong cây, có một chú chim bay ra.

From the tree, there is a bird flying out.

Ex (22) : Trong hồ nước, có một con cá chết.

In a tank, there is a dead fish.

Ex (23) : Ở trên tường , có hai bức tranh treo ở đó.

On the wall, There are two pictures hanging (on it).

Ex (24) : Trên đường cao tốc, một vụ tai nạn xảy ra.

On the highway, there was an accident.

In which the sentence pattern "Có + NP + VP + LP" indicates the meaning "something appears, exists or disappears in somewhere", while the sentence pattern "LP + NP + VP" indicates the meaning "in somewhere something appears, exists or disappears", between "LP" and "NP + VP" always exists separated by a comma "," and this sentence pattern is often used in colloquial speech. But Vietnamese researchers believe that the sentence pattern "Có + NP + VP + LP" is a typical sentence in Vietnamese, in which NP is the subject of existence taken up by an indefinite noun phrase, such as "a bird", "a fish", "two pictures", "an accident". Existential verbs are mainly non-objective verbs such as: "flying out", "die away", "run to", "fall down", "hang", "happen".

Differences in existential sentences of Chinese – English – Vietnamese

From the above content, we can see that: the form of the Chinese existential sentence is "LP+ VP+ NP" ; The form of the English existential sentence is "There + VP + NP + LP"; The form of the Vietnamese existential sentence is "Có + NP + VP + LP". From the perspective of analytic linguistics, the existential sentences of all three languages not only have differences but also have internal uniformity. The three languages Sino-English-Vietnamese are similar in that they all belong to the SVO language type. If the existential sentences of Chinese and Vietnamese both denote the meaning "in somewhere appears, exists or disappears something or someone", then the existential sentence in English only denotes the meaning "in somewhere appears someone or something", it does not denote the disappearance of the thing or person. The

position of existential verbs also has a difference, the existential verb in Chinese and English existential sentences always precedes the subject of existence, but in Vietnamese, the existential verb stands behind the subject of existence. This shows that although the type of language is similar, the order in the existential sentences of the three languages is still different. In addition, words of place go first in the sentence and take the position of the subject in Chinese, but in Vietnamese and English, words of place take the position of the adverb of place.

Table 1. The *basic similarities in Chinese - English - Vietnamese existential sentences*

	The Chinese existential sentence	The English existential sentence	The Vietnamese existential sentence
Form	LP+ VP+ NP	There + VP + NP + LP	Có + NP + VP + LP
Meaning	Somewhere appears, exists, or disappears something, or someone.	Somewhere appears someone or something.	Somewhere appears, exists, or disappears something, or someone.
Similar points	In terms of form: - VP (existential verb) in Chinese and English both come before NP (existential subject); NPs are mostly unspecified subjects; VP is also a non-objective verb. - LP in English and Vietnamese both act as adverbs of place in sentences.		

Table 2. *The basic differences in Chinese - English - Vietnamese existential sentences*

	The Chinese existential sentence	The English existential sentence	The Vietnamese existential sentence
Form	LP+ VP+ NP	There + VP + NP + LP	Có + NP + VP + LP
Meaning	Somewhere appears, exists, or disappears something, or someone.	Somewhere appears someone or something.	Somewhere appears, exists, or disappears something, or someone.
Different points	In terms of form: - In Chinese existential sentences, LP is always at the beginning of the sentence as the subject; and the LP in English and Vietnamese is at the end of the sentence as an adverb of place. - The position of VP (existential verb) in Chinese and English existential sentences always precedes NP (existential subject), but in Vietnamese, the existential verb is behind the subject of existence.		

From the perspective of spatial perception, explaining the asymmetry in Chinese, English, and Vietnamese existential sentences

From the above analysis, we can see that in the existential sentences of these three languages, apart from the similarity and difference in the local syntactic form, the overall order also exists the asymmetry, the commonality of the three languages. English and Chinese show that the existential verb precedes the existential subject, but the verb stands after the existential subject in Vietnamese, and the difference is shown in the Chinese "reference object" (for example, upstairs. , in the sky, on the wall) standing in front of a "target object" (e.g., a child, a bird, a picture). But suppose an existential sentence in English, "the reference object" (e.g., a small village, Azovstal plant, that intersection, his house) comes after the "target object" (e.g., a great composer, survivors, an accident, commotion), in this respect. In that case, Vietnamese is completely similar to English. The "reference object" in Vietnamese existential sentences (e.g., in a tree, in a tank, on a wall, on a highway) is behind. The "target object" (e.g., a bird, a fish, two pictures, an accident). This shows the asymmetry of the spatial relationship between Chinese, English, and Vietnamese.

According to actual observations, the spatial relationship is formed by a verb adding two components of the noun. These two noun components represent "reference objects" and "target objects," respectively. From a syntactical perspective, existential sentences are made up of one verb element and two noun elements, meaning where someone or something appears or disappears so that we can induct the spatial relationship. In this spatial relationship, two noun components will be considered "reference objects" or "target objects", but judging which noun component is considered as a "reference object", which noun component will be considered as a "target object". Different ethnic groups will have different standards. This is a subjective behavior, not an objective one. This has explained why words of place in Chinese always come first, but words of place in English come after.

According to the habits of the Han people, it is often expressed in terms of large area or volume, fixed space, long time, and complex structure, always at the top of the sentence. If the spatial components are arranged linearly, the space in Chinese always tends to be the whole space or the covering space that will come before the covered part or object. As for the order of existential sentences in Chinese, the spatial perception of the Han people will be as follows: compared to the subject of existence (NP), the larger, longer, more fixed, and more complicated the structure of the word of place (LP) is, the more people know it, so it is considered a "reference object" placed at the beginning of the sentence, the subject of existence (NP) is the "objective object" placed at the end of the sentence.

  Ex (25): 天上掉下来一只鸟。

   Sky on fell one bird

   There fell a bird in the sky.

The place of existence (LP) in the sentence (25) is "天上" (heaven) compared to the subject of

existence (NP) "一只鸟" (a bird). It is bigger, more fixed, and much better known by humans,

so "天上" (in the sky) is considered a "reference object", according to the spatial perception of

the Han people, it must be at the beginning of the sentence, and "一只鸟" (a bird) is considered

"target object" must come at the end of the sentence.

So how do we arrange the spatial relationship in the syntax of English and Vietnamese? The British, American, and Vietnamese focus on the principle of analysis, and the principle of "local first, the whole later", so English and Vietnamese arrange spatial positions in complete contrast to Chinese. They are usually arranged according to the principle "from small to large, from near to far". Therefore, this spatial thinking has had a certain influence on the order in the existential sentences of the two languages: "target object" stands in front of "reference object". Small existing subjects are mentioned first. Then large existing space is later.

Ex (26) :

Chinese: 地平线上升起了一颗启明星。

Horizon in rise one star morning

English: There arose a bright morning star above the horizon.

Vietnamese: Có một ngôi sao mai mọc lên ở đường chân trời.

Have one star morning rise in horizon

In example (26) , there are two noun components, respectively "morning star"-" 启明星"-" ngôi

sao mai" and "the horizon"-" 地平线上"-" đường chân trời" , there is also a verbal part "arose"-

" 升起了"- "mọc lên". According to our visual perception, we will certainly pay attention to

the "morning star", since it is the focal point of perception, which is again the thing that stands

out clearly, but its position in the Chinese, English, and Vietnamese existential sentences are

not the same, this is due to the spatial cognitive influence of the Han people, the British,

American and Vietnamese are not the same. We said above that the Han people tend to put big,

fixed, long-term things at the beginning of sentences, and here "地平线上" (the horizon) fits

this point of view, being placed at the beginning of sentences, and "启明星" (morning star) is

a small, new, unknown thing, so it should be put at the end of the sentence. This is contrary to

the interpretation of space of the British, American, and Vietnamese peoples, who follow the tendency of "small first, big later, local before the whole", so this has affected the position of words of place in existential sentences. From this point of view, "the horizon" comes after "morning star" – "ngôi sao mai". Not only in existential sentences but also in other types of sentences, English and Vietnamese also follow this principle.

Ex (27):

English: Sleeping on the sofa

Chinese: 在沙发睡觉

On sofa sleep

Vietnamese: Ngủ ở trên sofa

Sleep on sofa

Ex (28):

English: Learn in the class

Chinese: 在教室上课

In class learn

Vietnamese: Học ở trong lớp

Learn in the class

Ex (29)：

English: Go shopping in the supermarket

Chinese: 在超市购物

In supermarket go shopping

Vietnamese: Mua sắm ở siêu thị

Go shopping in supermarket

Hereafter, we briefly learn the order and meaning of existential sentences of some Eastern languages such as Korean, Japanese and Thai, all of which can use the form of existential sentences to express the meaning "somewhere exists, appears, disappears someone or something". In Korean, the order of existential sentences follows the syntax "LP+ NP+ VP". In order to make it easier to recognize the syntax of existential sentences in these languages, the writer has intentionally taken the same examples.

Existential sentences express the existential meaning in Korean:

Ex (30):

Korean	탁자 위에	사과가	있다
Phonetic transcription	tagja wie	sagwaga	issda
Direct translation	On the table	one apple	put
Meaning	On the table put an apple		

Existential sentences represent the disappearing meaning in Korean:

Ex (31):

Korean	정원에서	닭 한 마리가	죽었다.
Phonetic transcription	Jeong-won-eseo	dalg than maliga	jug-eossda
Direct translation	In the garden	one chicken	died
Meaning	In the garden died a chicken		

Korean and Japanese have the same linguistic type as SOV, and existential sentences in Japanese have the same order as Korean existential sentences, also following the syntax "LP+ NP+ VP".

Existential sentences express the existing meaning in Japanese:

Ex (32) :

Japanese	机の上に	りんごがひとつ	あります
Phonetic transcription	Tsukue no ue ni	ringoga hitotsu	arimasu
Direct translation	On the table	one apple	put
Meaning	On the table is an apple		

Existential sentences represent the disappearing meaning in Japanese:

Ex (33):

Japanese	庭に一	匹の鳥が	死んだ。
Phonetic transcription	Niwa ni	biki no tori ga	shinda
Direct translation	in the garden	one chicken	died
Meaning	In the garden died a chicken		

Thai has a language type of SVO like Chinese, English and Vietnamese, the order of existential sentences in Thai follows the syntax "NP + VP + LP".

Existential sentences express the existing meaning in Thai:

Ex (34):

Thai	แอปเปิ้ล	ลอยู่	บนโต๊ะ
Phonetic transcription	Xæ ppeî	lxyǚ	bn tó
Direct translation	One apple	put	table
Meaning	An apple is on the table.		

Existential sentences represent the disappearing meaning in Thai:

Ex (35):

Thai	ไก่	ตาย	ในสวน
Phonetic transcription	Kị̀	tāy	nı s̄wn
Direct translation	one chicken	died	in garden
Meaning	A chicken died in the garden		

From the above examples, it is shown that semantically in Eastern languages such as Chinese, Korean, Vietnamese, Japanese, and Thai, existential sentences can be used to express two meanings: one is "in somewhere exists something"; and two is "in somewhere is lost something", but Indo-European English cannot use the form of the existential sentence to express the idea "in somewhere is lost something". That shows that using the existential sentence to express the idea of "in somewhere is lost something" is a unique feature in Eastern languages.

Conclusion

From a syntactic perspective, we can see: that existential sentences in Chinese have the form "word of place + existential verb + existential subject"; Existential sentences in English have the form: "There+VP+NP+LP"; Existential sentences in Vietnamese have the form: "Có + existential subject + existential verb + word of place".

The three linguistic types of Vietnamese, English, and Chinese all belong to the SVO type, but the position of the existential verb is different. The existential verb in Chinese and English is in front of the existential subject, but in Vietnamese, the existential verb stands behind the subject of existence. This shows that although the linguistic type is the same, the order in the existential sentences is still different. In addition, in Chinese, the word place goes first in the existential sentence and takes the position of the subject, but the word place in Vietnamese and English existential sentences takes the position of the adverb.

Although Chinese, English, and Vietnamese are all SVO linguistic types, there are differences in spatial perception in existential sentences of the Han people, Americans, British and Vietnamese. The British, American, and Vietnamese focus on the principle of analysis, and the principle of "local first, the whole later", but the Chinese "the whole first, the local later". Therefore, this spatial thinking has definitely influenced the order in the existential sentences of the three languages.

Using the existential sentence form to express the idea of "in somewhere lost something" is a unique feature of Eastern language.

Nguyen (2012) says that explicit grammar instruction remains an indispensable element in foreign language teaching and learning and needs to be paid more attention to. Tran (2021) has also identified the grammatical understanding was also identified as a barrier in the study. So comparing grammar between languages is very important in language teaching and learning. Hope the paper will help a small part of teachers and learners to understand more about existential sentences in languages.

Limitations and directions for further research of the article

The paper only compares the syntactic order of existential sentences in Chinese, English, and Vietnamese, points out the similarities and differences and uses cognitive reasoning to explain those differences. But about the semantic comparison of the three components "place of existence", "verb of existence", and "the subject of existence" in existential sentences of these languages, the paper has not been researched yet. The paper can take a step further into this issue. Moreover, in order to have a more comprehensive view of existential sentences in languages, it is necessary to study more existential sentences in some Indo-European languages so that there can be an accurate comparison of existential sentences in Indo-European and Eastern languages.

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An Exploration of Listening Teaching, Learning Problems and Their Causes at Ho Chi Minh City University of Food Industry during Covid-19

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ABSTRACT

Keywords: English teaching, teaching quality, quality of teaching English listening skill, online teaching	Teachers, students, and academics working with English as a second language (L2 English) have long considered listening the hardest skill to master. It has also gotten the least attention in second language acquisition and has been the least studied of the four language abilities. Using several viewpoints, during the Covid 19 era at Ho Chi Minh City University of Food Industry, this research evaluated the causes of hearing problems faced by HUFI learners at the pre-intermediate level. The study's ultimate purpose was to develop a research-based methodology to assist these students in improving their listening comprehension abilities by contributing to the knowledge of the nature of listening comprehension and the causes of issues they confront. The study looked into terms of lexical processing and spoken word recognition, learners' views, performance in phonological vocabulary exams, and recognition of words by dictation transcription, as well as learners' self-reflection after one semester of learning and instruction. Lecturers, Training Programs, Facilities, Application of Information Technology, and Support Services all have good effects on the quality of teaching English listening competence at the institution, according to the findings. The qualitative method was used to find reliable data for this research.

Introduction

Starting from April 2021, coronavirus disease 2019 (COVID-19) has posed one of the greatest challenges to humankind. Many companies, as well as schools, have been locked down in Vietnam. They have faced a really difficult time. To help students keep updated in their studies, the government has suggested a way to study for all schools by using long-distance learning. This way has shown effectiveness in stopping the community transmission of COVID-19. HUFI has chosen Zoom and Microform platforms to guide students. However, they also produced adverse impacts on the students studying. Listening skill is one of the specific examples. So, teaching and learning listening skills at HUFI during the period of Covid 19 is a

matter of concern for teachers of English. Many teachers and students have met some difficulties in teaching and learning through online classes. Based on these problems, the researcher thinks that the disparity between the importance of English listening and the difficulties in current English teaching and learning methods is a practical reason (listening comprehension) LC. The value of this skill, listening, has a long history of being overlooked compared to the other three skills, maybe because of the problems it offers to students and teachers. Thus, listening skill needs to be taught communicatively more pleasantly and interestingly to encourage students to study more effectively and successfully. That is the researcher's target of this innovation.

The research began with cultural contexts, then the literature review, followed by the description of the innovation implementation engaging students in studying English. Near the end of the paper, the findings and analyses were presented in order to get the best possible results in the invention.

Literature review

Listening has been guided in language classrooms for nearly 50 years and is considered one of the four fundamental abilities, namely listening, speaking, reading, and writing (Vandergrift & Goh, 2012). It is, however, "typically the weakest competence for many language learners, and it has received the least help in the L2 classroom" (Vandergrift & Goh, 2012, p13). Changes in the pedagogy of teaching listening comprehension have recently occurred. Text-oriented instruction, communication-oriented instruction, learner-oriented training, and metacognitive instruction are some of the methods used. (Vandergrift & Goh, 2012).

Hinkel (2006) summarizes the general tendency in present English education and learning as a second language (L2). Four factors, she claims:

> combine to affect current perspectives on the teaching of English around the world: (a) the decline of methods, (b) a growing emphasis on both bottom-up and top-down skills, (c) the creation of new knowledge about English, and (d) integrated and contextualized teaching of multiple language skills (p.109)

Listening is a skill that people use their receiving skills to learn about the world (Wilt, 1950; Gilman & Moody, 1984). Furthermore, listening comprehension has been considered a crucial component in the research of second language acquisition (SLA) since the late 1800s (Field, 1998, 2008; Rost, 2001, 2011). Rost (2002) thinks that listening to English provides a route for teachers "for drawing learners' attention to new forms (vocabulary, grammar, interaction patterns) in the language" (p141). It is therefore critical to investigate how to improve the beneficial effect of listening skills instruction in English acquisition. In summary, hearing is "a skill that appears to develop effortlessly when listening in one's native tongue, but demands substantial work when listening in a foreign language" (Underwood, 1989, p1). As a result of the problems that the skill poses, there is some insufficient listening instruction to English learners, as well as in its evaluation and study. Because students' listening is not always

correctly measured, their flaws are not always visible; as a result, the methodology of the classroom is vital, and the listening lesson has been little explored, examined, or challenged. According to Field (2008), 'in many schools, listening receives insufficient attention, and learners frequently lack ongoing support to lead them through the process of becoming better listeners". Goh and Vandergrift (2021) say that teachers might be "unsure how to teach listening in a principled manner." Alkire, Scott. (2002) also states:

> dictation has been used in language learning for several hundred years, and methodologies have often made pedagogical claims for its value ."Mozhgan Alsadat Ghaffarzadeh Hassankiadeh says that "through the use of dictation as a learning tool by guiding teachers in conducting acceptable approaches in foreign/second language classrooms may benefit both instructors and learners in enhancing language abilities. (p 129, 133)

Compared to the other language abilities, listening has its own characteristics and expectations. Listening skill is the most challenging skill among other skills, says Field (2007), because there are no regular pauses between words like there are when reading. Listening is a transitory and fleeting activity. As a result, according to Field, this is impossible in such a short time for listeners to divide related speech into different terms. 'The transient character of listeners tends to be more concerned with the quality of their hearing. Pham Manh Tri et al. (2022) also say that many students struggle to study online courses because of their internet and get ineffective and annoying. (p18)

Research questions

The researcher conducted this study hoping to discover the most effective method for making long-distance listening courses more meaningful and engaging. This study addresses the following research questions:

1. What are the main challenges in LC that HUFI learners at the pre-intermediate level face through long-distance learning?

2. What content and function words do learners recognize through long-distance learning?

Methods

Pedagogical setting & participants

Personal motivation:

The researcher's students always met a lot of difficulties in studying this skill, especially during the period of Covid-19, which directly motivated her to choose this one to study. She began her fieldwork in April 2021. Her students were supposed to learn how to listen on their own because listening is a skill that can only be learned rather than taught and when students practice, they will develop this one. She saw that many English teachers were bewildered when they couldn't come up with appropriate teaching approaches and ideas to help their pupils improve their listening abilities. She also discovered that even when students could recognize all of the words by sight, they were

impossible to properly comprehend the significance of messages delivered by video or audio speakers in class. In the first semester, the researcher taught two pre-intermediate classes. For the sake of validity, she used a mixed methods classroom approach in her study.

Using a variety of teaching models and approaches, with a focus on listening, encouraging the use of computer and web-based information technology to meet social needs, international exchanges as well as promoting learners' general cultural awareness should be addressed in particular, according to the HUFI trend. Listening appears to have been emphasized to an unprecedented high degree in HUFI's English education as a result of this policy shift. The value of educating and learning the listening skill has long been recognized. This study's research participants were chosen randomly from first-year students based on a large-scale placement test held in September 2021, taking online classes. The choice is made at random. She chose them as participants because seventy-five percent of the freshman were at the pre-intermediate level based on their placement exam results; this represents the majority of first-year students. It reflects the current state of HUFI in the English language classroom. After the pupils had studied English for one term over the internet, data was collected from them. Two whole classrooms with a total of 84 students were chosen at random from a pool of pre-intermediate classes. They agreed to take part in her research.

To begin with her positionality, there could be a problem in this study was that the participants may have felt obligated to cooperate: they may have been concerned that the researcher would evaluate them based on whether or not they participated in her research; and that if they chose not to participate, they would receive a low grade in their English class. The researcher was unaware of the issue until she started the pilot study. She removed the area of the questionnaire survey that asked for students' personal information, such as their name and student code, to calm their nerves. As a result, in the primary study, the questionnaires were kept anonymous to guarantee that participants may share their opinions without fear of being recognized or penalized. Second, as an insider researcher with dual responsibilities in the data collection process, the researcher experienced the research issue of role bias. It was difficult for her to distinguish between her roles between an English teacher and a researcher. She then went on to work as an insider researcher.

Because she would have gradually created rapport with her students, her views and practice as an English teacher would necessarily or unconsciously influence their perspective of their English learning and assessment of her involvement. Later, in her fieldwork, she was confronted with an ethical problem when students asked her the way to follow up listening to foreigners' voices after they had learned so much. The researcher had an obligation as a teacher to respond to them. However, as a researcher, she was hesitant to tell them her answers because it was what she was investigating with their help. She resolved not to push her viewpoints on them but to keep such matters open to debate and to assist them in synthesizing some helpful ideas. As a result, she limited her impact on the teaching and data collection processes.

Lastly, she was very familiar with her research setting as she has worked here for over 20 years and is well-versed in the scientific field, which may result in diverse research outcomes. According to Kleinman and Copp (1993), researchers saved time and energy by becoming familiar with both the research sites and the backgrounds of the research participants. However, familiarity can lead

researchers to draw conclusions without giving enough thought. When outlining the researcher's functions, she began by describing her dual job as a researcher, and a teacher explained what she would do. It appeared that research bias was unavoidable, and she needed to be aware of this and take steps to mitigate it.

To make triangulation of data and results easier, this study used data from the following two sources: (1) A questionnaire survey of university students about causes of listening difficulties; (2) dictation assessments at the beginning and end of the term. She will explain and understand the data gathering, reduction, and selection processes in these three phases in the next subsection.

Dictation transcriptions were undertaken in the classroom to evaluate students' listening problems using spoken word recognition in the text. Dictations are referred to as pragmatic tests because they "demand time-constrained processing of the meanings contained in discourse" (Oller, 1979, p263). Buck (2001) demonstrates that the listening skills required for dictation are "probably just word recognition" (p77). As a result, dictation and transcription tests are useful for determining the extent to which students can recognize spoken words.

Because of the fundamental nature of dictation, these tests were used in all three ways. In LC, transcription (Angelis 1974; Kelley 1991) and dictation can be used to assess students' ability to recognize spoken words in class (Bonk 2000). Pemberton (1995) also recommends transcription and dictation as useful research tools since they may be used to "find out the specific roots of listening problems (LPs), which message-oriented tasks like note-taking cannot" (p179).

The dictation test was used extensively in the study because it "represents the entire range of skills needed in successful listening" and "engages the learner in the real-time sequential processing of speech, as in everyday listening" (Pemberton, 2004, p 18) Although it has previously been criticized for being too simple an exam (Lado, 1961). Other research, on the other hand, has very different results. Pemberton (2004), for example, praises the many benefits of dictation, noting that it is critical in revealing students' true listening abilities. As a result, dictation was fully realized in this research.

Transcription was another important tool that demonstrated its value and use in her research. In this way, it differs from the inherent characteristics of the spoken class. 'However, transcribing can enable researchers to observe how the student has 122 interpreted the entire passage in a manner that other assessments cannot' (Pemberton, 2004). Based on the learners' cognitive processes will provide natural evidence that can be used to investigate their own ideas to process spoken word recognition (SWR) in more detail.

The students' dictation and transcribing performance are significant in demonstrating their true skills. When they got bad marks, it implied not only a difficulty in following common English terms but also a lack of understanding, according to previous studies (Pemberton, 2004; Gao, 2008). Writing dictation is a useful technique to keep up with specific information of the message or conversation, while message-oriented tasks like note-taking cannot achieve (Pemberton, 1995, p179). Following each chunk of dictation, a questionnaire was used to ensure that dictation was effective. The goal was to determine the students' online LPs as well as the perceived sources of

these issues. Each dictation text has 18 parts at the basic and pre-intermediate levels. This skill is a good technique for students and teachers to figure out what's causing their actual LPs in the dictation texts.

Design of the study

The researcher decided to provide two ways in the study with the following revised data: (1) the questionnaire survey, which was revised to include participants' listening difficulties as well as the reasons for those difficulties; and (2) two dictation texts adapted from progressive skill textbooks at the foundation and pre-intermediate levels. To get data for the research, the qualitative method was used to complete this one.

Data collection and analysis

Based on the results of the questionnaire, new reasons for hearing issues have been added.

Group 1: Finding it difficult to differentiate words from a continuous stream of speech

- Difficult to pay attention when listening to the English passage because it is too quickly.

- How do I know to pronounce the words correctly?

- I don't keep up with the words I just heard

 Group 2: I'm having trouble determining the words and phrases the speaker emphasizes

- The speed of speaking is too quick to catch

Group 3: Have trouble picking up the ends of words

- can't recognize the word endings

- can't recognize the ends of words

Group 4: Having trouble recognizing words even when I know them in writing

- Finding it difficult to focus when listening to English

Group 5: Have trouble correctly distinguishing each word.

- Not be sure how to pronounce the words correctly.

- Practice little Group

Group 6: Have trouble grasping the passage's vocabulary.

- Have no idea the meanings of the words.

- I am not conversant in English.

Group 7: Having trouble understanding the grammar

- The speaker speaks too quickly for dictation texts and self-reflection reports to be heard.

Students mentioned issues with listening throughout their dictations. The 84 students took these dictations and provided feedback on their listening challenges. The students were initially given

some questions on awareness of hearing issues and their reasons in the English class during the second week of the new semester. Before the survey began, the researcher explained the survey's goals and significance to the students, assuring them that it was not an exam and that they may complete it anonymously and without regard for their grades. She stated that they were not concerned about the survey and they should only express their true thoughts and opinions without reservation. The majority of the students completed the questions in less than thirty minutes.

In the morning of the second week, the researcher gave two classes of participants a dictation test of the core text. The pre-intermediate dictation was then completed the next morning on the same individuals in the same language course. The dictation tests were conducted using the following methods:

Participants were given a practice passage to acquaint themselves with the technique before the actual test. This one was audio with a short description of some pictures read by the same speaker. The participants were then given three chances to listen to the official dictation passages. They listened and wrote down without pausing, but during the pause between every two chunks, they were instructed to write down quickly, as well as their instant replies to their listening difficulties for each chunk. It takes roughly 30 minutes to complete the operation for each dictation manuscript. After one semester, for the purpose of the post-dictation test of training, she did not show any transcripts to the participants after the dictation exam.

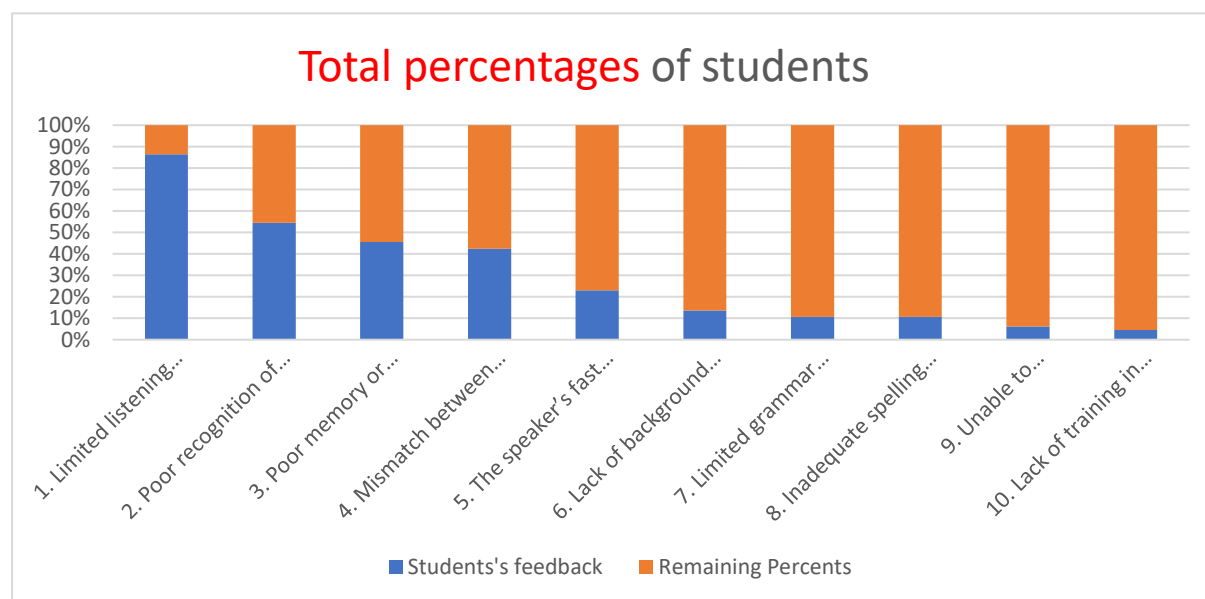## Findings and discussion

Chart 1: Students' dictations revealed that they had difficulty listening.

As can be seen from the chart above, many students identified low listening vocabulary as one of their challenges, and the internet transmission affected the process of listening to the lesson, with 71 out of 84 reporting it. That is, the majority of students (85%) cited this as the reason for their

difficulties, followed by poor recognition of linking forms of weak forms in the unbroken flow of speech, which was cited by 54.5 percent of students. This indicates that the kids still require fundamental language skills training, such as expanding their vocabulary and improving their pronunciation. This first issue drew the attention of both researchers and students. However, the researcher intended to place a greater focus on reading individual words rather than poor form pronunciation in chunks of the English language. So, how can the researcher provide students with greater practice with word pronunciation in a real-world setting?

The third reason mentioned in their reports was a bit more convoluted because it encompassed several factors, but it was mostly related to the students' short recall of a huge block of words when processing a message. Many people claimed that when they started listening for the following portion, they forgot about the first part or that they could not afford to listen to the next section because they could not stop focusing on the first one. The stasis of message absorption was caused by the delayed response to the continual stream of speech. There were 38 students (45.5%) in this category who raised this concern. It is important to point out that this could be a major issue for L2 learners, even bigger than what has been revealed so far. This is due to the fact that the pupils studied in this project were at a lower level of English learning and had a limited vocabulary. They might have found it necessary to know how to integrate individual words into cohesive meaning and how to use their memory if they had a larger vocabulary. To become fluent listeners, pupils needed more intensive chunk training practice. With 42.4 percent and 23 percent, respectively, the fourth and fifth challenges suggested in this study are barriers between the native speaker's speech and the listeners' poor capacity to follow the words. The former represented the listeners' pronunciation, while the latter demonstrated their inability to keep up with native speakers' natural pace.

Based on the foregoing, the researcher hypothesized that a training program would be beneficial because it would support learners to be proficient in spoken word recognition (SWR) through phonological training. As some previous researchers said about the importance of listening skills in literature review as well as methodology. Alkire, Scott. (2002) also states: "dictation has been used in language learning for several hundred years, and methodologies have often made pedagogical claims for its value. According to Pham Manh Tri et al. (2022), many students have difficulties in studying online courses because of the internet, and they get ineffective and annoying. (p18). Because of the online class, she started to use a variety of ways to help students by creating a Zalo group. She sent one or two audios to this group first, and then she asked them to practice listening more at home to be familiar with the speakers' voices. Each audio will be chosen carefully from the materials like IELTS, TOEIC, or TOEFL. When the class started to study, she called some random students to submit the homework through the Zalo group. Using this method helps students to be active in listening and makes it easy to listen to the audio without internet transmission. If they did well, they could get good points. The students were eager to cooperate with the researcher. Another way is that after finishing the listening skill of that day, the researcher designed all the parts studied in the class by using gap-filling, true, false questions, or answering the questions, listening, and describing the pictures. This way helped them recall all the knowledge

that they might forget or could not hear in the class due to the internet. She also observed her students by asking them to reply directly to see what they understood. After three months, the students improved significantly.

The researcher later developed a curriculum for a one-semester intervention program based on the results of these surveys, which were administered to address the identified hearing impairments. At the end of the course, there were two different tests at different skill levels were conducted 84 after the intervention program to see the influence of one-semester education on SWR. She delivered the participants a transcript of the text after each dictation and asked them to underline any words they did not understand and double-check the items of explanations in the questionnaire for each chunk to determine the causes of these LPs. Pemberton (2004), for example, praises the many benefits of dictation, noting that it is critical in revealing students' true listening abilities. From the previous points, the researcher chooses dictation in teaching listening skills and applies some applications to guide students. Following the dictation and identification of chunk listening issues, participants were given a post-dictation questionnaire survey on one-semester instruction to complete right away. The entire process took less than an hour, from dictation to evaluation of the creation program.
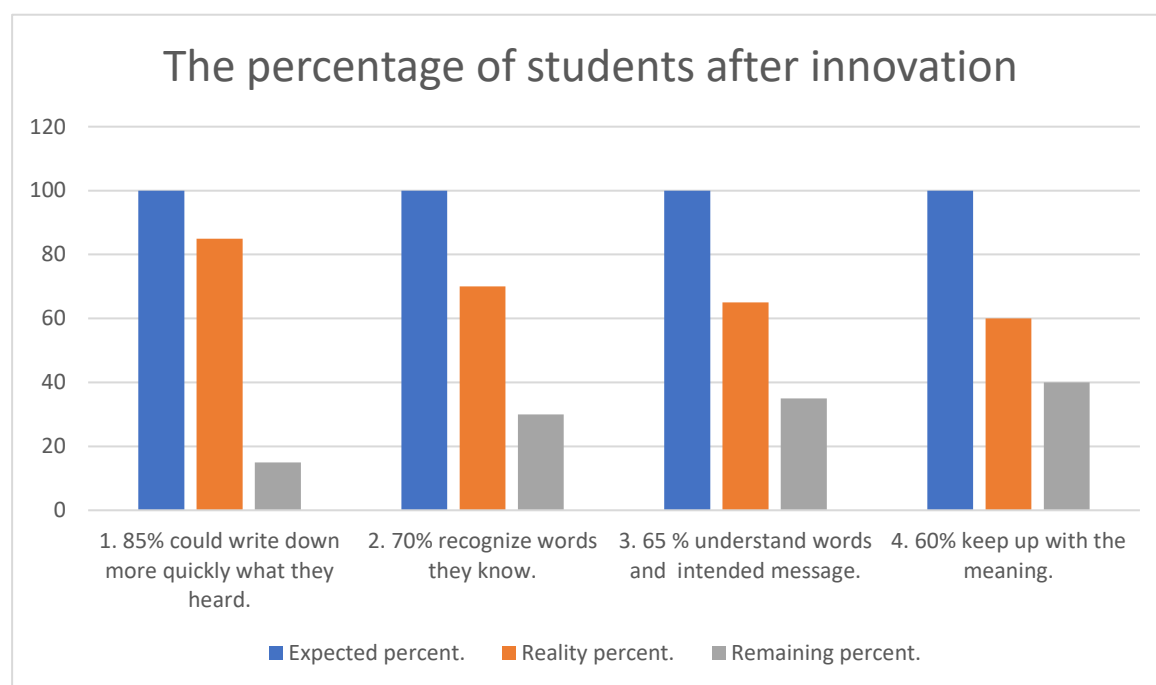
Chart 2: Students' dictations shown after innovation

From the above chart, after innovation, the percentage of students has been improved in studying listening skills, and they could write down more quickly. This has been shown with the percentage of 85. This number can be valuable evidence. The lowest percentage was 60, but this percentage also provides that the students can keep up with the meaning well. So, the researcher thinks that it is necessary to change the ways to adapt students' needs in studying listening skills. Students will study the other skills better if they study listening skills well. It leads to studying English effectively.

Conclusion

Study Limitations

This study was carried out on a small scale by interviewing and doing the dictation test for 84 students at HUFI as an experimental unit, and the results showed students could not prove the difficulties and challenges that all students have been coped with the listening skill. Though this study has limitations and difficulties, the researcher did her best to overcome and adapt students' expectations to improve teaching listening skills. She learned a lot from this study - good and bad points. Teachers also use a variety of platforms and are good at technology to adapt the study online effectively, Pham and Nghiem (2022, p 321- 322). That is true "one must learn by doing the thing, for though you think you know it – you have no certainty; until you try" (Sophocles, 400 B.C.E, cited in Roger 1983:163).

Recommendations

The author proposes a number of recommendations on the impact of factors on the quality of teaching listening at the period of Covid 19 at HUFI as follows.

Teachers need to have small test techniques in the teaching process, then feedback those results to students. The selection of highly qualified teachers and good lesson preparation are important factors in creating a professional image in the minds of English learners at HUFI. Teachers need to pay attention and grasp the learning status of each student in order to make additional adjustments to the lesson to suit the needs of students. Teachers need to create close, friendly relationships and discuss lessons in order to prove the quality and effectiveness of learning.

Applying teaching methods to promote students' positivity, initiative, and creativity, developing students' self-study and teaching thinking ability.

The university needs to ask lecturers to combine information technology and a variety of methods to improve teaching quality with the needs of learners and applicants: The university needs to use the program in a practical direction, design more program content specializing in details, and prepare good platforms as standard zooms, Microsoft team .. to support online teaching and learning effectively.

Acknowledgments

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Biodata

My full name is Tong Thi Hue, I have been a lecturer for 22 years. I am in charge of guiding listening skills, and British Culture. I have been working for Ho Chi Minh City University of Food Industry for 22 years. My field of interest covers a large variety of innovations related to teaching English.

Non-English Majored Students' Preferences of Online Learning during the Covid 19 Pandemic: A Case Study in Ho Chi Minh University of Food Industry (HUFI)

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ABSTRACT

The Covid 19 outbreak has had a significant impact on all aspects of life, including the economy, society, and security. This transformation cannot be avoided, especially in education. It made it difficult for employees and students to go to work and school. Many schools attempted to discover strategies to enable continuity of teaching and learning in such a case to secure the safety of students and instructors during the lockdown period. During the Covid 19 outbreak, practically every school in Vietnam and the Ho Chi Minh University of Food Industry changed their learning and teaching methods from the traditional face-to-face manner that learners were used to to a new knowledge approach - online learning or E-learning. From this perspective, technology can be viewed as the primary and most effective means of assisting teachers and learners. However, not all students will feel comfortable with this learning technique because it is new to them, and not all students will have good facilities and good wifi, to begin with. In such as situation, this study was conducted to determine how satisfied non-English-majored Hufi students are with online learning. Participants were HUFI students taking part in online courses during the Covid 19, and a link to an online google form questionnaire was sent to them. Results indicated that there were more disadvantages than advantages to online classes. The survey data can support filling a funding gap in designing a quality online lesson that will improve students' performance and happiness.

Introduction

Although online or e-learning was not popular until now, it has been applied in some universities in the world to teach learners who want to pursue a degree while they have to work. Buzzetto-More (2007) stated that:

> "E-Learning is important for economic development, both of individuals and of society. Today's global economy requires a labor force that is educated, highly skilled, and

> *technologically literate. Moreover, as jobs evolve in response to the changing economy, workers need to learn new skills throughout their lives.”* (p.1)

This kind of teaching and learning has become special and vital during the Covid-19 pandemic. Since this epidemic broke out in Vietnam, social isolation and lockdowns have altered how people work and study. Students and faculty members are stressed, as evidenced by a significant drop in learning satisfaction. Students study at home while learning activities in class are broadcast live on the Internet. The educational system evolved from face-to-face instruction to online instruction. From early childhood education to higher education and other institutions, distant learning is enforced throughout Vietnam. This also means that online has become the sole way to help teachers lecture and students perceive knowledge during the pandemic.

Because many schools had to implement online learning owing to the present epidemic quickly, it was vital to investigate how pupils viewed and reacted to e-learning, which had never been done previously. In such an emergent situation, HUFI is not an exception for conducting online classes. The infrastructure that is used most by HUFI is Zoom which contains features such as whiteboards, chat rooms, polls, and breaking forums that allow instructors and students to communicate online and share course content side by side.

As a result, this research was carried out to answer the question: "How did students feel about e-learning and what obstacles might they face?". There have been a lot of similar surveys in this field, yet no one has been implemented in HUFI. The findings of the study can be useful to help HUFI develop more successful and relevant e-learning programs in the future.

Literature review

Definition of Online Learning

There have been a lot of definitions of online learning. According to Aboagye et al. (2020), online or elearning is the way of learning which can take place everywhere with the support of electronic resources where information technology and the Internet is the main elements. In a similar way, Amiti (2020) defined online learning as a process in a virtual classroom setting in which teachers as instructors try to use various ways to present material and students as participants try to absorb as much information as possible before participating in daily sessions. Carliner (2004) characterized online learning as a new learning delivery format that bridges the transfer of learning materials by using technical means such as computers and the Internet. According to Hermanto & Srimulyani (2021), online learning is any learning process that uses learning apps or social networks. An online classroom's teaching and learning environment differ dramatically from a traditional classroom (Pinar, 2021). The researchers may conclude that online learning employs contemporary technologies in the learning process. Information Technology and Communications (IT&C), the teacher's expertise with IT&C, and the student's experience with IT&C all influence the online learning process's effectiveness, as Volery (2000). Although the instructor plays a crucial role in online education, the quantity of needed

study time and student discipline both impact the educational process.

In another definition, Haruna & Grema (2022) showed that e-learning is implemented with electronic applications to transfer skills and knowledge, including web-based learning, virtual classrooms, and digital collaboration.

Advantages and Disadvantages

E-learning has created more and more opportunities as well as challenges for learners and educational managers. The challenge educators face is finding ways to teach skills and transfer knowledge to learners effectively in an environment where they are not physically present with their students.

Nowadays, more and more learners who have to work are seeking a certificate or degree. In such a situation, they cannot participate in real classes, and online classes become their best choice. According to Chitra and Raj (2018), online learning has various benefits and drawbacks for students. The online learning system is like a coin with pros and cons. Its core benefit is that education is non-stop, even when face-to-face classes are impossible. No matter geography's distance, students can be gathered together in one learning environment. They can start the lesson everywhere provided it is supplied with the Internet or wifi. In fact, this is a flexible and favorite learning method for students who have problems going to university.

One more advantage, as definitions above, is that e-learning is conducted with the facilitation of electronic applications, then lectures can be saved, and students have a chance to review them. As Perveen (2016) said, "Lessons can be recorded and added to an e-library. Using the archived e-library, students can access and replay teacher's lectures as many times as necessary to master the material."(p.23). The advantages of online learning are that it caters to everyone's needs and that lessons can be repeated.

Moreover, online learning provides access to updated knowledge and lessons quickly. It becomes consistent, less expensive, and has a lower environmental impact. According to Maatuk et al. (2022), e-learning significantly reduces administrative labor, organizing, and recording lectures, attendance, and quitting courses. Teachers and students agree that online learning techniques enable them to take lessons from anywhere, even if they are unable to go to colleges or institutions. The student becomes a self-directed learner who can learn at any moment, both simultaneously and asynchronously.

A study by Muthuprasad et al. (2021) indicated the most important advantages of online learning are flexibility and ease. Online education allows students to study at their own speed, which is convenient for them at times. As a result, convenience and flexibility are important factors behind the surge in online learning. Another advantage that Gupta (2005) found was digital course materials, and interactive tutorials to online lectures can be updated at any time and are almost available. Therefore, it's easy for learners to access and learn themselves as needed.

Another benefit that can not be denied is the savings in terms of travel costs. In a study by

Pozgaj & Knezevic (2007), the statistics showed that students choose e-learning because it cuts down transportation costs and avoids traffic jams. It is really pleased for learners who have mobility restrictions or whose houses are so far away from the university.

Last but not least, under the view of teaching and learning quality, Pham's research (2022, p.8) showed that there was not much difference in teaching and learning quality between online and offline classes.

> *"The quality of teaching and learning online and offline is not so much different, which is proved by the high percentage of students who can successfully pass the Mid-term test. Furthermore, both lecturers and students have more freedom in selecting an appropriate location for their teaching and learning. The convenience that online teaching and learning offers can be a factor in making the teaching and learning environment more relaxing and enjoyable, leading to the effectiveness in the process of transferring and getting knowledge. Additionally, online courses may help both lecturers and students save related costs, reducing the burden of finance."*

The lack of physical interaction and tiredness, on the other hand, are disadvantages that can be easily recognized via the online educational system. In a traditional learning environment of face-to-face classes, students can move to the front and participate in short practice conversations or interviews. Many other activities, like role-play, pair work, group work, or presentations, make students wake up, absorb knowledge easier, and feel learning becomes more effective. However, this capability in an e-learning class is impossible because instructors can not see "*student's non-verbal behaviors and empathy development throughout the course*" Murdock et al. (2012). These authors' research showed that although videotapes were utilized to help learners imitate and to limit the disadvantages, the results could not be better. That meant the teachers still could not find the student's peer interactions and interpersonal relationships within the online classes. Lack of interaction between students and lecturers is also one of the inconveniences in an online class (Mahdy, 2020). This disadvantage might cause another drawback that was also shown through the outcomes of students who enrolled in online classes: their grades were lower, and they were likely to fail more on the exams than in on-campus learning (Harris and Parrish, 2006).

In addition, the constraints of technological gadgets and users' technology literacy, according to various research, are the barriers to online learning deployment. As a result, these restrictions limit communication and learning opportunities or lower students' satisfaction with their ongoing education. These studies showed that the most significant barrier to online learning is a lack of connectivity and internet infrastructure limitations. The situation is significantly worse for people who live in rural areas. Besides technological constraints, distractions, instructor's incompetency, learner's inefficacy, and health issues were considered disadvantages in online classes. Thamrin (2020) defined that the issue of students' distraction which is an external reason, is especially important when learning online, especially in families where students have to help their parents with selling things or taking care of family members.

Many studies have supplied the foundation for understanding students' preferences for online education from varying perspectives. Researchers have also identified possible obstacles to the effectiveness of online learning. However, few studies have tried to comprehend Vietnamese learners' preferences for online learning. Hence, we attempt to address this void with our research by framing the issue using insights from the literature and concentrating primarily on online learning in undergraduate education.

Research question

This paper aims to answer the question, "How did Ho Chi Minh City University of Food Industry students feel about e-learning, and what obstacles might they face?". After having the answer, some solutions to the problem will be suggested.

Methods

This article's aim is to examine students' choices for online learning. Therefore, the descriptive research approach of quantitative was used by answering an online questionnaire. This section details the research technique, including the study subjects, instrument, and data collecting procedure. It also highlights the study's flaws.

Subjects of the study

Participants are 200 non-English-majored students aged 18 to 21 of the Ho Chi Minh University of Food Industry, including 160 female and 40 male students. They are from the first to the third year and in different backgrounds, from relatively fair, average to excellent students.

Data Collection Instrument

The survey tool was developed based on the Course Experience Questionnaire (CEQ) and some other similar questionnaires used in other studies (Smart & Cappel, 2006; Wang & Liu, 2019; Gurpinar et al., 2010). The design employed four-point rating scale questions, from 4=strongly agree to 1=strongly disagree. These are the questionnaires:

1.   I can understand the content better in online learning.

2.   Online learning stimulates my interest more.

3.   I need less time and effort to learn the same amount of material in online learning.

4.   Student discussion is better in online learning.

5.   Student presentation as part of learning is better than online learning.

6.   Teacher-student interaction is better in online learning.

7.   Online classes help me to prepare for my exam better.

8.   Online classes improve my communication skills.

9.   I receive sufficient feedback from the instructor in online courses.

10.   I can easily ask questions when I don't understand.

11.   I retain information better from taking the online course.

12.   Online courses help me to maintain my discipline in studying.

Data collection procedure

Students who participated in the study were told about the goal and methodology of the research. After they all agreed, they were given a link with a questionnaire that required them to check the agreed-upon rate. After about ten minutes, all documents were gathered.

Results/Findings and discussion

Table 1.

The results on online versus offline learning experiences

Items	Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
1. I can understand the content better in online learning.	2 1%	90 45%	106 53%	2 1%
2. Online learning stimulates my interest more.	4 2%	60 30%	120 60%	16 8%
3. I need less time and effort to learn the same amount of material in online learning.	2 1%	88 44%	108 54%	2 1%
4. Student discussion is better in online learning.	2 1%	40 20%	150 75%	8 4%
5. Student presentation as part of learning is better in online learning.	8 4%	50 25%	140 70%	2 1%
6. Teacher-student interaction is better in online learning.	4 2%	40 20%	152 76%	4 2%
7. Online classes help me to prepare for my exam better.	0 0%	56 28%	140 70%	4 2%
8. Online classes improve my communication skills.	2 1%	84 42%	112 56%	2 1%
9. I receive sufficient and quick feedback from the instructor in online courses.	0 0%	90 45%	100 50%	10 5%
10. I can easily ask questions when I don't understand.	0 0%	94 47%	106 53%	0 0%
11. IT support and wifi are good enough to access the online classes and to update information.	6 3%	40 20%	140 70%	14 7%
12. Online courses help me to maintain my discipline in studying.	8 4%	60 30%	120 60%	12 6%

The statistics shown in Table 1 are derived as percentages based on the number of participants. With a quick look, we could recognize that students in HUFI had a lot of problems with online classes since the percentages in the « disagree » and « strongly disagree » columns are greater than those in the « strongly agree » and « agree » columns.

In table 1, in terms of "I can understand the content better in online learning", "I need less time and effort to learn the same amount of material in online learning", and "Online classes improve my communication skills," the results of the study indicated there was no significant difference. The percentage for "Strongly agree" is very low, just 1%, while the percentage for "Disagree" is much higher, including 53%, 54%, and 56%.

To understand how non-English major students react to online classes, term 2 of "online learning stimulates my interest more" was asked. There was a total of 8% of respondents strongly disagreed, and 60% of them disagreed. This number is much higher than the number of agreements. This meant that there was a great number of learners who didn't like online classes during the Covid 19 pandemic.

Regarding terms including student discussion, presentation, teacher-student interactions, exam preparation, quick feedback, question making, wifi stability, and maintaining their discipline in studying, the results of study inclined toward "disagree". Among them, the dominant percentage of 76% is the failure of teacher and student interaction in an online setting. The next drawback is also a high percentage of 75% that referred to student discussion. The other high percentages whose disagreement accounted for 70% were better presentation, examination preparation, and wifi support.

Finally, there was a little asymmetry in terms of " I receive sufficient and quick feedback from the instructor in online courses", "I can easily ask questions when I don't understand", and "Online courses help me to maintain my discipline in studying". The number of students who had the "Agree" votes was less than the "Disagree". Under this view, it could be easily found that students had a variety of difficulties in online courses.

Discussions

From the findings above, the answers to the research questions were exposed. First, The results showed that online learning for non-English majors at HUFI is not really effective and may not be their choice in the next semester. They feel like to face many obstacles in the e-learning environment. There is a similarity between the author's viewpoint and Pozgaj & Knezevic's (2007) that "For students, the biggest disadvantage of e-learning would be lack of communication and interaction with their fellow students. All in all, lack of direct communication is seen as the biggest problem with e-learning" (p.385). This disadvantage leads to corollaries like a distraction from concentration, uncared or getting bored with learning, which are the main reasons why students get failed on exams. In fact, some studies have shown that students rarely used online forums like discussion boards to interact with other students or

the lecturer (Van Doorn & Van Doorn, 2014), which posed certain challenges to some learning activities. In order to limit this drawback, Nguyen (2022) suggested using mobile apps such as Kahoot, Quizlet, or Quizizz. She said, "mobile apps like Quizlet have the potential to foster language learners' motivation" (p. 39). Moreover, the teacher should apply more games or create competitions to make students get involved in online lessons. Several studies have shown that a lot of practice can reduce distractions, including using shorter videos to avoid overload, organizing words and pictures, and combining narration with animation simultaneously as visual cues to highlight essential information (Goffard et al., 2019; Mayer & Fiorella, 2014). Similarly, students tend to react more positively to some video styles. Students better-acquired lecture slides with illustrations and animations that visualized content compared to those with many texts and no illustrations (Choe et al., 2019; Kirkwood & Price, 2014; Morton et al., 2016).

Second, both lecturers' and learners' Internet stability and good skills in using online infrastructure are important factors contributing to the effectiveness of online education. In fact, online teaching and learning were rather new and urgent to instructors and students in HUFI; hence, both of them were not well-prepared and well-trained. Luu (2022) said that one of the barriers to virtual learning is the Internet access quality. The fact that the students who are usually in the disconnected situation feel confused, tired, and demotivated in learning. Research by Abdelsalam et al. (2022, p.34) concluded that "the introduction of e-learning is difficult and that the low-quality of internet services is the biggest obstacle to its application." As a result, in order to continue e-learning in the future, university management should invest more in an enough strong and stable IT infrastructure to support teachers and learners. Building an e-library with flexibility and a variety of types of equipment to access the vitual environment is also vital. Besides, frequent training or seminar on online education for teachers to update applications is an indispensable mission of any university.

Overall, the findings showed that most non-English-majored students at HUFI preferred in-person over online classes during the Covid-19 epidemic.

Conclusion

This study aims to find out the satisfaction among HUFI students with online learning by conducting an online questionnaire. Data gathered from the survey may assist in designing effective online classes to facilitate students' performance and satisfaction. Nonetheless, there are still limits to the study. Because this is small-scale research, the author did not achieve the desired outcomes. In addition, these are just a few surveys that may not cover all elements. Therefore, future research should include additional questions and a variety of questionnaire formats.

Despite these shortages, the study also suggests that HUFI should spend more time training teachers with apps or information techniques to design more interactive online handouts, which would help maximize the online learning benefits. In addition, online teaching is still being

conducted in HUFI and will be utilized in the future. Therefore, HUFI should invest in providing students and teachers with stable and high-speed internet access and provide more professional training for lecturers to catch up with new education trends.

Acknowledgments

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Biodata

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Translating Vietnamese Sentences Containing the Word *Rồi* into English Related to English Tenses

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ABSTRACT

Keywords: tense, semantically equivalent translation, the simple present tense, the simple past tense, the present perfect tense, the past perfect tense, the simple future tense, the near future tense	In Vietnamese[1], *rồi* can help translators choose appropriate English tenses to translate Vietnamese sentences into English. With this study, the researcher wants to indicate the influence of *rồi* in four Vietnamese works'[2] sentences on their translators' selection for appropriate English tenses to have semantically equivalent translations. The study refers to six tenses of simple present (a), simple past (b), present perfect (c), past perfect (d), simple future (e), and near future (f). These sentences were translated into English with (a) if *rồi* denotes the emphasis on the reality of the event. (b), (c), and (d) are preferred when *rồi* implies the event that happened in the past. However, using (e) and (f) is not dependent upon the occurrence of *rồi* because this word does need combination with other words or phrases to denote the meaning of the future. Therefore, understanding the influence of *rồi* in Vietnamese in different contexts helps Vietnamese people learning English know how to choose the appropriate English tenses when translating Vietnamese sentences containing it into English.

Introduction

According to Phan, Nguyen & Nguyen (2022: 118), "most Vietnamese students who learn English often make mistakes when learning Vietnamese-English translation because there are many differences between Vietnamese and English". One of them is about tenses because "English has a very clear distinction between tenses while the tense distinction in Vietnamese is not clear" Huynh (2012: 30). This results in the fact that translating Vietnamese sentences

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[1] Up to now, many linguists across the world have held different views about whether or not Vietnamese has a system of tenses akin to the one in English. However, the study does not get into this endless argument.

[2] The researcher used the corpora of four Vietnamese literature works, including *Diary of a cricket (A), Paris through closed eyes (B), Beloved Oxford (C), I see yellow flowers in the green grass (D)*, for his paper.

with modal verbs, including *rồi,* into English has posed a big challenge to Vietnamese people learning this language. In fact, the occurrence of the word *rồi* in Vietnamese sentences might make translators produce translations with different English tenses. Some suppose that this word denotes an event that happened in the past, thereby choosing the past simple tense for their English translation. For example, *'Em đã hỏi chú Đàn rồi'* (in *I see yellow flowers in the green grass*) was translated as *'I asked him already'* (in the English version). Some reckon that the word *rồi* simply puts the emphasis on the reality of utterances. The simple present tense was used in this case. Take *'Anh đói bụng lắm rồi'* (in *Beloved Oxford*) and its English translation as *'I am very hungry already'* as a good example. On the other hand, others choose the near future tense in English to translate Vietnamese sentences with the word *rồi*. *'Thôi sắp phải lên máy bay rồi, em stop nhe'*; (in *Paris through closed eyes*), and its English translation as *'Well, we are going to board the plane shortly, so I'll stop here'* are an example. We can see that the occurrence of the word *rồi* in the above examples helps translators produce corresponding English translations with different tenses in this language. A question that needs raising here is how we can select appropriate English tenses to translate Vietnamese sentences with the word *rồi*. Trinh (2014: 29) emphasized the importance of the word *rồi* in applying translations with Conventional conserved Implicature from English into Vietnamese. This was because the word *rồi* "shows very clearly the orderly nature of action" (Trinh, 2014: 26). Also, Truong (2015: 1) clarified the role of *rồi* in conveying the perfect meaning in English into Vietnamese through a combination of Vietnamese grammar with the occurrence frequency of these words along with other words, like *'đã'* and *'chưa'* in the literary work named "The Old Man and the Sea". These are the motivation and inspiration for the researcher to conduct this study, which aims to clarify the influences of the word *rồi* on translators' selection of English tenses, not just perfect tenses when translating Vietnamese sentences containing it into English. Understanding the influence of the word *rồi* in Vietnamese with different contexts helps Vietnamese people learning English know how to decide on English tenses to have the semantically equivalent translation of Vietnamese sentences containing the word *rồi* into English.

Scope of the research and research progress/method

The scope of this study

This study does not enter into the endless argument over whether the Vietnamese has a system of tenses like the one in English. In addition, the study clarifies the meanings of the word rồi without analyzing its syntactic function and its equivalent words, phrases, or structures in English. Accordingly, the research delves into clarifying the influence of the word rồi in the original Vietnamese sentences on translators' selection for the appropriate English tense to have semantically equivalent translations of them into English. There are 06 English tenses that the study refers to, including

- *The simple present tense*
- *The simple past tense*
- *The present perfect tense*

- *The past perfect tense*
- *The simple future tense*
- *The near future tense*

The progress/method of conducting this study

First, the researcher collects some Vietnamese sentences containing the word *rồi* and the corresponding English translations from the software *CLC Parallel Corpus Tool*[3] mentioned in Section 1 as the data to present the meanings of the word *rồi*. Introducing the English translations only aims to give readers a brief overview of the two matters. Firstly, the meanings of the word *rồi* and other words are involved (if any) in expressing their meanings in the Vietnamese sentences. Secondly, the possibility of applying English tenses when translating the original Vietnamese sentences contain the word *rồi* into English.

Next, the researcher has statistics on the frequency of occurrence of (i) Vietnamese and English words related to translating Vietnamese sentences containing the word *rồi* into English, including the word *rồi*, (ii) the English tenses used due to the influence of the word *rồi* and other words involved, in the literary works used as the researcher's research materials. This statistic helps the study draw objective conclusions about translators' selection for the appropriate English tenses to have semantically equivalent translations of Vietnamese sentences containing the word *rồi* into English.

Finally, the work summarizes the meanings of the word *rồi* in Vietnamese and its influence on the translators' decision to choose the English tense for semantically equivalent translation. On the other hand, the conclusion also helps Vietnamese people who learn English apply suitable translations in respect of tenses in English from Vietnamese sentences containing the word *rồi*.

Literature review

In general, the study of translating a particular word in Vietnamese as a source language into English as a target language has not been unfamiliar to researchers in linguistics. Although the word *rồi* has appeared in studies in Vietnam, as far as the researcher is concerned, no researchers have focused on clarifying the meanings of the word *rồi* when translating the Vietnamese sentences containing it semantically equivalently into English in respect of English tenses. Specifically, he selects the following three studies, which mentioned the word *rồi* and its influences on translating utterances with conventional implicature and conveying the meaning of perfect. Thereby drawing some relevant comments.

***Rồi** and translation with conversed conventional implicature*

According to Trinh (2014: 26), the word *rồi* "shows very clearly the orderly nature of action", so it is necessary to apply the translations with Conventional conserved Implicature from English into Vietnamese. Through analyzing utterances occurring in some short stories written by the writer Ernest Hemingway, the author emphasized the influence of the word *rồi* when translating the original English sentences into Vietnamese. In this way, translators can have a

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[3] The researcher decided to use this software because of the variety and reliability of linguistic corpus collected by Assoc. Prof. Dinh Dien, a well-known computing linguist and programmer in Vietnam.

semantically equivalent translation from English into Vietnamese.

Rồi with the meaning of perfect

The meaning of perfect expressed by modal verbs in Vietnamese like *đã, rồi, chưa* has been an appealing topic in English teaching and learning in Vietnam. The idea here is that the words in question, when occurring alone or having combination with other words, can denote the meaning of perfect, thereby choosing appropriate perfect tenses in English for translation. Truong (2016: 1) showed that it is worth researching this matter "in order to help students accurately translate the meaning of perfect form - a meaning expressed by modal verbs like *đã, rồi, chưa* from Vietnamese into English" (Truong, 2016: 1). Previously, this author had clarified the role of the word *rồi* in conveying the perfect meaning in English into Vietnamese through a combination of Vietnamese grammar based on the English short story *The Old Man and the Sea* by the writer Ernest Hemingway and the modern romantic novel *Southern Lights*. According to Truong (2015: 20), the perfect English form is marked mainly in Vietnamese by the combination of "*đã + telic verb phrase, đã/(đã)+ telic verb phrase + rồi or chưa + telic verb phrase*". For this reason, when translating Vietnamese sentences containing the word *rồi* into English, translators need to pay attention to other words like *đã* and *chưa* to denote the meaning of perfect in English.

The researcher agrees with the statement of Truong (2015: 1) that the combination of the group of words, including *đã, rồi*, and *chưa*, helps translate the meaning of perfect form from Vietnamese into English which many people know in the name of perfect tenses. As a result, with this paper, the researcher continues to clarify the influence of the word *rồi* on the translators' decision to choose the English tenses, including perfect tenses, for semantically equivalent translation in the four contemporary Vietnamese literary works mentioned at the beginning of the paper. To do this, the researcher uses the Vietnamese Dictionary concerning the meanings of the word *rồi* by Hoang et al. (2003: 832) as the main research basis.

The meanings of the word rồi in Vietnamese

According to Hoang et al. (2003: 832), the word *rồi* in Vietnamese has the following meanings.

1. Indicate that the aforesaid thing which has been done belongs to the past time.

Example 1:

1a. Khi tôi mới mua cái điện thoại này thì nó *(đã)* bị hư mất *rồi*.

Suggested translation: 1a'. When I bought this cellular phone, it came damaged.

In the sentence called 1a, the word *rồi* shows that the broken phone is the problem that happened before the time of speaking. Specifically, that phone was out of order *khi tôi mới mua*. In addition, according to Diep (1996: 84-85), the adjuncts *đã* and *rồi* do not need to occur together in the sentence called 1a; just one of them is sufficient to express the meaning of the sentence because both of them belong to *"the group of words implying the end''*. If there is an

occurrence of the word *đã* preceding the word *rồi*, *"the word **rồi** has the same meaning as the word xong"*.

In the suggested English translation called 1a', the past tense is used to translate the words *đã, rồi* semantically equivalently from the Vietnamese sentence called 1a into English. In particular, the matter of the broken phone *"happened in the past, ended, and the time is known"* (Mai & Nguyen, 2011: 8) – *khi tôi mới mua.*

1b. Này! Ba nhẩm nãy giờ thì con *(đã)* ăn năm cái bánh *rồi* đấy!

Suggested translation: 1b'. Hey! By my count, that's five cakes you've had already.

                 1b''. Hey! By my count, that's five cakes you already had.

In the sentence called 1b, again, the event mentioned in the sentence had happened before the time the father spoke. Specifically, the child ate five cakes. Similar to the sentence 1a, the occurrence of the word *đã* is optional if the sentence has the word *rồi* to indicate that the event has been done.

In the English-translated sentences called 1b' and 1b'', the present perfect or the simple past tense can be used for the fact that the child has already eaten five cakes. For British English speakers, in such a case, the present perfect tense is often used. That the child ate five cakes happened, but the specific time is unknown (unlike the time determined in the original sentence called 1a). Besides, it is possible that when the father speaks, the child is eating the fifth cake. *"Usage of the present perfect creates a whole other slew of complications as its use may coincide with the simple past or refer to incomplete states or actions"* (Gavell, 2018: 4). Meanwhile, *"we may hear American English speakers using already with the past simple."*[4].

2. Indicate that the aforesaid thing is going to be done, finished in a short time.

Example 2:

2. Anh đến đây đúng lúc thật đấy, tàu *sắp* chạy *rồi*.

Suggested translation: 2'. You got here in the nick of time, the train's just leaving.

                 2''. You got here in the nick of time, the train's going to leave.

In the sentence called 2, the presence of the modal verb[5] *sắp* is required; otherwise, this sentence will show an event that happened in the past *(the train ran)*. In Vietnamese, the combination of the word *sắp* preceding *"the verb phrase of completion ("aspect")"*[6] *rồi* denotes the event that will be finished soon in the future.

For this reason, in the English-translated sentences called 2' and 2'', the near future tense will be preferred instead of the simple future tense. Moreover, there are many ways to denote the near-future tense in English. We can use the present continuous tense because according to

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[4] According to the Cambridge dictionary at *https://dictionary.cambridge.org/vi/grammar/british-grammar/already*
[5] This term was used by Cao (2005: 43).

Thomson & Martinet (1975: 53), *"planned future actions can be expressed by the present continuous tense with a time expression"* and *"the present continuous is mainly used for very definite arrangements in the near future*" (the sentence 2') or *be + going to* (the sentence 2'').

3. Indicate that what is about to be said will happen in the near future.

Example 3:

3a. Tốt hơn anh kể cho cô ta nghe vì *sớm muộn (gì) rồi* cô ta cũng biết mà.

Suggested translation: 3a'. You had better tell her because she'll find out sooner or later.

In the sentence called 3a, the word *rồi* accompanies the phrase *sớm muộn (gì)* to show that the event is likely to happen in the near future without a specific time like that in the sentences called 2a, 2b. Sometimes in Vietnamese, we can see the sentence called 3a in the case such as *".... vì rồi sớm muộn (gì) cô ta cũng biết mà"*. Although the position of the word *rồi* can change, its meaning concerning indicating a high probability of the event does not change.

In the suggested English translation called 3a', the simple future tense used in the sentence is more suitable than the near future tense. As mentioned above, the event in this sentence only has a high probability of happening without absolute certainty, so it is impossible to use the near future tense to indicate that the event is about to happen at an almost determined time. However, to keep the meaning of the phrase *sớm muộn (gì)*, we need to use the idiom *sooner or later* in English.

3b. Nhìn thoáng qua thì tôi thấy thuế *rồi sẽ* tăng lên thôi.

Suggested translation: 3b'. I suppose at a glance, and taxes are going to go up.

In sentence 3b, the combination of the word *rồi* and the modal verb *sẽ* indicates the event is more likely to happen and complete soon without speaking. If the speaker is sure, they only need to use the word *sẽ* in the sentence called 3b. The occurrence of the word *rồi* is a way to confirm that the tax increase will happen soon, but the speaker does not know the time exactly. It also helps the speaker emphasize that the event is highly likely to happen after the glance. This conclusion can be made because of the speaker's experience and knowledge.

On the contrary to the sentence called 3a', in the suggested English translation called 3b', the near future tense in English needs to be used to translate the meaning from the original sentence called 3b. This is because, with the occurrence of the phrase *rồi sẽ* in the sentence called 3b, the speaker cannot determine the exact time, so we can use *"the going to form with or without a time expression"* (Thomson & Martinet, 1975: 53). Also, the phrase *rồi sẽ* still indicates a high probability that the event will happen soon as an inevitable consequence.

4. Indicate the passed time, *rồi* is often used as a word of conversational language after some words or phrases of time.

Example 4:

4. Họ báo chúng tôi biết là hàng *(đã)* được gửi đi *tuần rồi* thì phải.

Suggested translation:

4'. They informed us that the goods had been dispatched last week/a week ago.

4''. They inform us that the goods were dispatched last week/a week ago.

In the sentence called 4, the occurrence of the word *rồi* is required. Otherwise, the word *tuần* becomes indeterminate. However, the word *tuần* can be omitted if the speaker does not intend to emphasize the time when *hàng (đã) được gửi đi*. Besides, in the sentence called 4, the word *đã* is optional because the event in question happened in the past. In the suggested English translations called 4 and 4'', we can use the simple past or past perfect tense for the fact that *hàng đã được gửi đi*. However, which tense is used depends on the preceding part of the sentence *(họ thông báo chúng tôi)*. If the simple past tense is used for this part, the past perfect needs to be used for the later one to show that the event in question happened before another event in the past (Mai & Nguyen, 2011: 9) *(hàng (đã) được gửi đi trước khi họ (đã) thông báo chúng tôi).* If the present simple tense is used for the former part, the past simple tense the latter only needs using for the latter one *(họ thông báo chúng tôi là rằng hàng (đã) được gửi đi).* Besides, the phrase *tuần rồi* in the sentence called 4 is equivalent to English as *last week* or *a week ago*.

5. Indicate an emphasis on what is considered definitely affirmable.

Example 5:

5a. Nhanh lên đi, tụi mình muộn *rồi* đấy!

Suggested translation: 5a'. Come on, shake a leg; we're late already!

5b. *Phải rồi*, chỉ có điều là ông đang đi ngược hướng.

Suggested translation: 5b'. Alright, / Yes, it is, only you're going in the opposite direction.

5c. Đèn *(đã)* sáng *rồi*.

Suggested translation: 5c'. The light is on.

In the sentences called 5a, 5b, and 5c, the word *rồi* is placed at the end of a clause or sentence is used to emphasize the reality of the given event.

In the sentence called 5a, the word *rồi* is used in Vietnamese to urge the listener to hurry up. In the English suggested translation called 5a', the simple present tense is used in this context with the occurrence of the word *already "at the end of the sentence for more emphasis or to show greater surprise. This is especially common in informal speech."* [6]. The speaker puts an emphasis on the fact that the hearer should have been punctual.

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[6] According to Cambridge dictionary at *https://dictionary.cambridge.org/vi/grammar/british-grammar/already*

In the sentence called 5b, in addition to the word *phải*, the word *rồi* can also follow some words like *được, đúng, ừ* to indicate agreement with the event in question. With the suggested translation called 5b', English often uses some words like *all right, okay, yes* to give equivalent meaning to phrases like *phải rồi, đúng rồi, được rồi, ừ rồi*.

In the sentence called 5c, the word *rồi* helps express the state of things or phenomena which is changing to reach a new state, *"end the beginning phase"* (Diep, 1996: 84).

5d. Theo hồ sơ ghi lai thì anh *(đã)* vào tù sáu lần *rồi*.

Suggested translation: 5d'. You've been in prison six times, according to our records.

The word *rồi,* in combination with the word *đã* (not required), helps both denote the past event and emphasize the event mentioned. Specifically, that *anh (đã) vào tù sáu lần* becomes more persuasive by the word *rồi* shortly after.

In the English suggested translation called 7d', with the repetition of the fact that *anh (đã) vào tù sáu lần*, so the present perfect tense is used which "while referring to past, includes a connection to the present" (Kolln & Funk, 2012: 74). Specifically, the man has been in prison in the past, and up to the present, this has happened six times.

6. Indicate a sequence of time at which what is about to be raised occurs shortly after what has just been mentioned. *"With the word rồi, people are about to hear the next event."* (Cao, 2003: 67).

Example 6:

6a. Chúng tôi mạnh ai nấy xem vở kịch *rồi sau đó* trao đổi ý kiến với nhau.

Tam dịch: 6a'. We had seen the play separately and then we compared notes afterwards.

       6a''. We had seen the play separately before we compared notes afterwards.

       6a'''. We see the play separately and then we'll compare notes afterwards.

       6a''''. We will see the play separately before we compare notes afterwards.

6b. Anh lái trước đi *rồi* tụi mình *(sẽ)* đổi tài cho nhau.

6c. Anh đi qua hai dãy nhà *rồi* queo phải là *(sẽ)* đến.

Tạm dịch: 6b'. You drive first and then we'll switch around.

       6c'. You go two blocks, then turn right and you'll reach it.

In the above examples, the researcher sees that choosing which English tense to translate Vietnamese sentences does not depend on the word *rồi*. In these sentences, the word *rồi* only helps the events in the sentence follow a sequential order. Grammatically, the word *rồi* in these sentences resembles conjunction, which is out of the scope of the study.

7. Indicate a kind of sequential relationship wherein what has just been mentioned is likely to lead to what is about to be said.

Example 7:

7a. Anh phải xin phép cô ta *rồi* mới được làm.

Tam dịch: 7a'. You'll have to get her permission before you do that.

7b. Gắng học đi *rồi* anh sẽ đỗ.

Tam dịch: 7b'. Study hard and you will pass your examinations.

Similar to the meaning mentioned in section 3.2.6, the study does not analyze this meaning of the word *rồi,* because in this case, it acts as a conjunction in the sentence.

Table 1. Summarizing the meanings of the word "rồi" in Vietnamese.

Meanings *(+ symbols marked in the study)*	Words / phrases in Vietnamese can accompany the word *rồi* to help us know when an event happens	Notice
1. Indicate that the aforesaid thing which has been done belongs to the past time. **(M1)**	a. **đã** … rồi b. **đã từng** … rồi c. **từng** … rồi d. **vừa** … rồi	Used for the study of using English tenses for translating Vietnamese sentences containing the word *rồi* into English.
2. Indicate that the aforesaid thing is going to be done, finished in a short time. **(M2)**	a. **sắp** … rồi b. **gần (đến)** … rồi	
3. Indicate that what is about to be said will happen in the near future. **(M3)**	a. **sớm muộn (gì)** … rồi b. rồi **sẽ** …. c. rồi … **sẽ** … d. rồi **đây** … e. **mấy/vài/một/hai/…** + **ngày/tuần/tháng/năm/…** + **nữa** … rồi f. **mấy/vài/một/hai/…** + **ngày/tuần/tháng/năm/…** **vừa** rồi	
4. Indicate the passed time, the word *rồi* is often used as a word of conversational language after some words or phrases of time. **(M4)**	**[(mấy/bao/…)** + **lâu/ tuần/tháng/năm/mùa/ ngày]** … rồi	
5. Indicate an emphasis on what is considered definitely affirmable. **(M5)**	a. **lại ….** **(nữa)** rồi b. **chắc (hẳn)** … rồi	
6. Indicate a sequence of time at which what is about to be raised occurs shortly after what has just been mentioned.		NOT used for the study of English tenses for translating Vietnamese sentences containing the word *rồi* into English.
7. Indicate a kind of sequential relationship wherein what has just been mentioned is likely to lead to what is about to be said.		

Research Questions

This study aims to answer the two questions below:

1. How are the influences that the word *rồi* puts on translators' selection for appropriate English tenses when translating the Vietnamese sentences containing it into English?

2. Is there notice that Vietnamese people learning English need to take when choosing English tenses when translating the Vietnamese sentences containing the word *rồi* into English?

Results/Findings and discussion

Table 2. The number of the word *rồi* found in the corpus of the study.

Works	The number of the word *rồi*	The number of the word *rồi* used for the study[7]	Proportion
A	172	23	13.4%
B	257	124	48.2%
C	464	170	36.6%
D	235	91	38.7%

The simple present tense

Table 3. Some typical examples of the simple present tense used to translate the Vietnamese sentences containing the word *rồi* into English in the corpus.

Works	Vietnamese sentences	English translation
A	- Chỗ này đích **rồi**! *(M5)*	- Here it is!
	Tôi ngắt lời: - Thôi anh hiểu bụng chú **rồi**. *(M5)*	"Stop it!" I interrupted him. "I understand what you mean."
	Mới có cậu ễnh ương căng mép, phình bụng chỉ nói một câu bình thường cũng vang tai cả xung quanh **rồi**. *(M5)*	Just one bullfrog trying to put across his opinion is enough to make your ears ring.
B	- Cô cứ như thế **đã** đẹp **rồi**! *(M5)*	"You look gorgeous already!"
	Chín giờ sáng **rồi**! *(M5)*	"It's nine o'clock in the morning already!"
	– Cô gái đỏ mặt kêu lên – Em biết mình nhà quê **rồi**! *(M5)*	She cried out as her face turned red. "I already know I'm a hick!".
C	Chỉ mới mùa thu thôi đó mà **đã** mặc cả chục lớp áo **rồi**! *(M5)*	"It is only autumn now, but you are already wearing ten layers of clothes!"
	Em biết phương pháp học **rồi**, vậy em phải tự bơi một mình chứ! *(M5)*	"You know the method of studying already, so you must swim by yourself!"
	- Fernando phì cười- Em bệnh nặng quá **rồi**! *(M5)*	Fernando burst out laughing. "You are seriously sick already!"
D	"Thế là công chúa chọn mày **rồi**." *(M5)*	"So the Princess chooses you then."
	"Tao định làm gì thì mày cũng biết **rồi** đó. *(M5)*	"What I'm gonna do, you know already."

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[7] The study only used the Vietnamese sentences containing the word *rồi* in the corpus with the meanings called *M1, M2, M3, M4, and M5* in Table 1. These meanings have an influence on choosing the appropriate tenses in English for translating semantically equivalent Vietnamese sentences into English.

The researcher realizes that the simple present tense was used to translate the Vietnamese sentences containing the word *rồi* mainly with the meaning of the word *rồi* called M5 in Table 1. Of the 174 occurrences of the word *rồi* that are suitable for the objectives of the study and statistically collected from the corpus, most of them appear at the end of the original Vietnamese sentences *(…rồi.)* to indicate the emphasis on the fact considered affirmable. When translated into English, the word *already* is preferred to be used in an English sentence *(…already…)* or at the end of it *(…already.)* with 62 occurrences. It is appropriate to choose the simple present tense to produce a translation in these cases. Since the simple present tense in English is used to *"expresses a general truth"* (Seaton & Mew, 2007: 80), the fact that the speaker considers definitively affirmable. Therefore, the combination of *đã* and *rồi (…đã … rồi.)* in the original Vietnamese sentences does not affect the use of the simple present tense when producing translation.

Table 4. The use frequency of the simple present tense & words/phrases accompanying the word *rồi* to help us know when events happen.

Works	The use frequency of the simple present tense in English		Words / phrases in Vietnamese can accompany the word *rồi* to help us know when an event happens – the frequency of use *(number of uses / proportion)*	
	Number of uses	Proportion	Vietnamese	English
A	8	34.7%	…rồi. / …rồi… – (8 / 100%)	
B	44	35.5%	…rồi. / …rồi… – (44 / 100%)	…already. / …already … – (26 / 37.8%)
C	82	48.3%	…rồi. / …rồi… – (82 / 100%)	…already. / …already … – (31 / 59.1%)
D	40	44%	…rồi. / …rồi… – (40 / 100%)	…already./ …already … / …then. – (5 / 12.5%)

The simple past tense

Table 5. Some typical examples of the simple past tense used to translate the Vietnamese sentences containing the word *rồi* into English in the corpus.

Works	Vietnamese sentences	English translation
A	Ròng rã **mấy mùa rồi**, không nhớ mà cũng không nghe được một tin tức gì về Trũi. *(M4)*	Many months passed. I was still without news of Mole-cricket.
	Anh ơi Từ khi anh em ta xa nhau. Chắc anh tưởng em chết **rồi** chứ còn đâu ngày nay. *(M1)*	"Brother, we have been separated for a long time. Perhaps you thought I was dead."
	- Chúng tôi gặp nhau tháng trước ở Hong Kong **rồi** – Mai vẫn còn kinh ngạc – Xin phép tôi phải đi! *(M1)*	"We already met each other last month in Hongkong."
	Đáng giận nhất là em đang định của một thằng Tây trẻ, nhưng không ngờ thằng nay	Worse, I am so angry, mostly because she was paying attention to a young Western

B	lại quen con Mai trước đó **rồi**. *(M1)*	guy that I wanted to flirt with and to control later on, but I doubt that this guy already knew Mai before then.
	Các bậc phụ huynh bắt đầu hối "bé Mai" vào check – in vì sát giờ lắm **rồi**, hành lý lại nhiều. *(M5)*	All of her relatives started to hasten their "baby Mai" into the check-in area – for it was very nearly time already, and there was a lot of baggage.
C	Lúc anh đến khu học xá thì **đã** mười giờ tối **rồi**. *(M1)*	"When I went to your dormitory it was already ten o'clock at night."
	- Nhưng anh **đã** biết trước **rồi** phải không? *(M1)*	"However, you knew before already right?"
	Tốt hơn hết là tắt phứt cho **rồi**, khỏi phải dài dòng giải thích lung tung. *(M5)*	"It was much better to definitely turn it off then, and escape having to lengthily explain in confusion."
D	"Em **đã** hỏi chú Đàn **rồi**." *(M1)*	"I asked him already."
	"Mình chép xong **rồi**." *(M1)*	"I already copied."

The simple past tense is preferred to translate the Vietnamese sentences containing the word *rồi* with its meaning called M1 in Table 1. Specifically, there are 76 times the translators used this tense to translate into English for the 76 corresponding Vietnamese sentences. In the Vietnamese sentences in these cases, the combination of the word *đã* with the word *rồi (…đã…rồi.)* is counted up to 18/76 occurrences. According to Le (2020: 152), the structure of "*(đã)* + noun phrase of time + *rồi* is an adverb in Vietnamese sentences to denote a period passing before the time of speech". Evidence suggests that to denote a past event, the word *rồi* can only appear alone *(…rồi.)* or the time when the event happened is shown by the words or phrases of time *(e.g. mấy mùa rồi, trước đó rồi, tháng trước…rồi)* without the occurrence of the word *đã*. The occurrence of *đã* only helps to emphasize *"the relation of time to the process"* and *"the realism or unreality of actions, states, and properties in relation to time"* (Diep & Hoang, 1996: 125). Hence, in English, the translators use the simple past tense to translate the sentences containing the word *rồi* in these cases. The word *already* is still used, albeit insignificantly, with 22/76 occurrences in English sentences *(…already…)* or at the end of them *(…already.)*. In addition, the researcher also counts the insignificant number of occurrences of the word *rồi* with its meanings called M4 and M5 in Table 1. With the meaning called M4, the word *rồi* accompanied the words or phrases of the past time mentioned above. With the meaning called M5, the word *rồi* is to emphasize the event in question. This fact is akin to the use of the present perfect tense in English analyzed below.

Table 6. The use frequency of the simple past tense & words/phrases accompanying the word *rồi* to help us know when events happen.

Works	The use frequency of the simple past tense in English		Words / phrases in Vietnamese can accompany the word *rồi* to help us know when an event happens – the frequency of use *(number of uses / proportion)*	
	Number of uses	**Proportion**	**Tiếng Việt**	**Number of uses**
A	5	21.7%	*mấy mùa rồi* – (1 / 20%)	*many months passed* – (1 / 20%)
			...đã...rồi... – (1 / 20%)	
			...rồi. – (3 / 60%)	
B	17	13.71%	*...rồi. / ...rồi...* – (17 / 100%)	*...already. / ...already ...* (6 / 35.3%)
C	26	15.3%	*...đã...rồi.* – (5 / 19.2%)	*...already. / ...already ...* (9 / 34.6%)
			...rồi. / ...rồi... – (21% / 80.8%)	
D	28	30.7%	*...đã...rồi.* – (12 / 42.9%) *...rồi.* – (16 / 57.1%)	*...already. / ...already ...* - (7 / 25%)

The present perfect tense

Similar to the simple past tense, the present perfect tense is used to translate into English for the 90 Vietnamese sentences containing the word *rồi*. In these cases, the word *rồi* denotes the meaning called M1 in Table 1. Of these, although there are 25 times the words *đã* and *rồi* or *từng* and *rồi* combined *(…đã/từng…rồi.)*, the researcher again realizes that the word *rồi* can appear alone. The question is why the translators chose the present perfect tense instead of the simple past one to translate these 90 Vietnamese sentences into English. According to Truong (2014: 127), *"The perfect[8] can be used to describe an event that started in the past and continues up to the period of utterance, or an event that has already happened in the past but its result relates to the present. In addition, it can also be used to describe events that have just happened shortly before the period of utterance.* These meanings are categorized into four different types of the English perfect *"perfect of result, perfect of experience, perfect of persistent situation, and perfect of recent past"* (Comrie, 1976: 56-61).

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[8] The term *perfect* is reused by the author from *The English-Vietnamese/Vietnamese-English Dictionary of Terms of Contrastive Linguistics (2005)* by Cao Xuan Hao and Hoang Dung.

Table 7. Some typical examples of the present perfect tense used to translate the Vietnamese sentences containing the word *rồi* into English in the corpus.

Works	Vietnamese sentences	English translation
A	Trũi tiếp: - Anh mắng thì em cũng nói. Em tuyệt vọng **rồi**,… *(M5)*	"I'm going to say it anymore," he said. "I haven't a bit of hope left…"
B	Mùa đông khủng khiếp **đã** đến **rồi**. *(M5)*	"The cold has set in."
	- Tôi đến **rồi**, đi họp – Mai thở dài – Giá lúc đó tôi quen anh! *(M1)*	"I have been there already. I went to a meeting," Mai said with a sigh. "I wish I could have known you already at that time!"
	"Các đồng nghiệp Marketing trong vùng châu Á đều sướng hơn mình, em dò hỏi **rồi**." *(M1)*	"All the marketing co-workers in the Asian district are more satisfied than me, for I have already made inquiries about that."
	Daniel tươi cười dù có phần bối rối – "**Gần ba năm rồi** từ ngày anh gặp em lần đầu ... *(M4)*"	Daniel said, having a dazzling smile, though he was somewhat confused. "It's been almost three years since I met you for the first time."
C	"Anh bôi kem lên bàn chải cho em **rồi** đó!" *(M1)*	"I have already put toothpaste on your brush for you!"
	- Hai – Kim lạnh lùng trả lời – **Đã** nộp bài một môn **rồi**, còn môn "Nhân sự" đang làm, đầu tuần sau hết hạn. *(M1)*	"Two," Kim answered coldly. "I have already delivered one subject. I am currently doing the 'Human Affairs' subject. I will be finished by the first of next week."
	David bắt chuyện: - Em **từng** thăm bao nhiêu thành phố ở Anh **rồi**? *(M1)*	David seized the opportunity to say, "How many English cities have you visited already?"
	"Hắn Fernando tưởng tôi vẫn còn mê anh ta lắm - Vi Vi nhún vai cười - Cho tôi nhắn lại, hết từ **lâu rồi**! *(M4)*	"Certainly Fernando thought I was still madly in love with him," Vi Vi said, shrugging her shoulders and smiling, "Send him my message. It has been over already for a long time!"
D	Tôi đá vào chân nó, giọng hiểu biết: - Tao nghĩ thầy biết **lâu rồi**. *(M4)*	I kick my leg into his leg, as if knowing, "I think that he has known for a long time already."
	Trái với mẹ tôi, ba tôi đứng ở đầu giường, quắc mắt nhìn thằng Tường, giận dữ: - Mày mà không nằm bẹp thế này, tao **đã** đập thêm cho mày mấy gậy **rồi**! *(M5)*	Opposite my mom, my dad stands at the foot of the bed, an angry scowl on his face when seeing Tường. - "You can't be immobilized just from this, how many times have I beaten you with the cane already!".

We see this clearly in the following sentences.

- *"Gần ba năm rồi từ ngày anh gặp em lần đầu ..."* - *perfect of persistent situation:* from the past to the time of utterance is nearly three years, the word *rồi* helps to show that the meeting was in the past and helps to emphasize the reality of the three-year period;

- *"Em từng thăm bao nhiêu thành phố ở Anh rồi?"* - *perfect of experience*: the word *rồi* implies that the matter that David is asking, empirically, to know how many places

where Kim has visited in England since she started his studies at Oxford University happened before David asked;

- *"Anh mắng thì em cũng nói. Em tuyệt vọng rồi."* - *perfect of result*: De True expressed his desperation as a negative outcome of his and De Men's dire situation before the time of this statement. The word *rồi* is used to emphasize this fact which has just happened.

Therefore, choosing the present perfect tense to translate the Vietnamese sentences in these cases into English is correct. There are 49 occurrences of the word *already* in these English sentences.

Table 8. The use frequency of the present perfect tense & words/phrases accompanying the word *rồi* to help us know when events happen.

Works	The use frequency of the present perfect tense in English		Words / phrases in Vietnamese can accompany the word *rồi* to help us know when an event happens – the frequency of use *(number of uses / proportion)*	
	Number of uses	Proportion	Tiếng Việt	Number of uses
A	2	8.7%	*...đã...rồi.* – (1 / 50%)	
			...rồi. – (1 / 50%)	
B	36	29.03%	*...đã...rồi.* – (11 / 30.5%)	*...already.* / *...already ...* (22 / 61.1%)
			...rồi. / *...rồi...* – (25 / 69.5%)	
C	38	22.4%	*...đã...rồi /...từng...rồi* – (8 / 21.1%)	*...already.* / *...already ...* (27 / 71.1%)
			...rồi. / *...lâu rồi.* – (30 / 78.9%)	
D	14	15.4%	*...đã...rồi* – (5 / 35.7%)	
			...rồi./...lâu rồi.–(9/ 64.3%)	

The past perfect tense

Table 9. Some typical examples of the past perfect tense used to translate the Vietnamese sentences containing the word *rồi* into English in the corpus.

Works	Vietnamese sentences	English translation
A	Một bên thì bảo mày vu oan cho ông. (Vì anh tôi **đã** giũ sạch ngay bãi phân chim trên lưng **rồi**). *(M1)*	...while Tailorbird was mad at what he thought was a false accusation. (As a matter of fact, my brother had already cleaned the droppings off himself.)
	Nhưng có điều đau đớn hơn cho tôi là Trũi **đã** bị Châu Chấu Voi bắt làm tù binh **rồi**. *(M1)*	..., and for me personally there was a piece of grievous news: Mole-cricket had been taken prisoner.
B	Sophie đứng chờ Mai trước cửa phòng vệ sinh như sợ cô tự tử mất **rồi**. *(M1)*	Sophie was standing in front of the toilet waiting for Mai as though she feared that Mai had already committed suicide and was lost.
	"…Anh bỏ em **rồi**." *(M1)*	"…You had abandoned me already."
C	Kim cười nắc nẻ nhận ra hồi nào đến giờ mình **đã** "trả thù" **rồi** mà không	… Kim said, bursting into laughter and realizing that when the time came, she had already 'paid revenge', but

	biết - Vậy nhé, tối này em chờ anh ở khu học xá. *(M1)*	didn't realize it. "So right, this evening I will wait for you at my dormitory."
	Đã lâu rồi anh không thèm tìm cách liên lạc với Kim qua email hay điện thoại gì nữa. *(M4)*	For a long time already, he hadn't wanted to look for a way to communicate with Kim by email or telephone any longer.
	Thật ra hai người **đã** chờ đợi nhau quá **lâu rồi**, giờ vắng nhau thêm vài tháng nữa cùng không sao nếu điều này thực sự cần thiết. *(M4)*	The two of them had really waited for each other for a long time already, and being away from each other for several more months wouldn't be so bad if it was actually necessary.
D	Trước đó, con Nhi **đã** được ba nó dắt vào rạp **rồi**. *(M1)*	She had already been once to see the show.

The past perfect tense in English is used 29 times in the researcher's research corpus. This tense belongs to the group of the English perfect *"in correlation with the reference time in the past"* (Truong, 2014: 128). In the 29 original Vietnamese sentences, the occurrences of the word *rồi (…rồi./…rồi…)* with 20/29 times or its combination with the word *đã/từng (…đã/từng…rồi.)* with 09/29 times refer to the situation time in the past, corresponding to its meanings called M1 and M4 in Table 1. The difference with the simple past tense and the present perfect tense is that the event in question happened before another event in the past (Mai & Nguyen, 2011: 9). Therefore, depending on the context of the original Vietnamese sentence containing the word *rồi*, the translators choose the past perfect tense for such cases. In English sentences translated from these sentences, the word *already* continues to be used with 10 occurrences.

Table 10. The use frequency of the past perfect tense & words/phrases accompanying the word *rồi* to help us know when events happen.

Works	The use frequency of the past perfect tense in English		Words / phrases in Vietnamese can accompany the word *rồi* to help us know when an event happens – the frequency of use *(number of uses / proportion)*	
	Number of uses	Proportion	Tiếng Việt	Number of uses
A	6	26.1%	*…đã…rồi.* – (2 / 33.3%) *…rồi.* – (4 / 66%)	*…already…* – (1 / 16.7%)
B	6	4.82%	*…đã…rồi.* – (2 / 33.3%)	*…already./…already …* – (3 / 50%)
			…rồi. / …rồi… – (4 / 66.6%)	
C	15	8.9%	*…đã…rồi. / …từng…rồi.* – (5 / 33.3%)	*…already. / …already…* – (6 / 40%)
			… rồi. / …rồi… – (10 / 66.7%)	
D	2	2.2%	*… rồi.* – (2 / 100%)	

The simple future tense

Table 11. Some typical examples of the simple future tense used to translate the Vietnamese sentences containing the word *rồi* into English in the corpus.

Works	Vietnamese sentences	English translation
A	- Nhưng trước khi nhắm mắt, tôi khuyên anh: ở đời mà có thói hung hăng bậy bạ, có óc mà không biết nghĩ, sớm muộn **rồi** cũng mang vạ vào mình đấy. *M3)*	"… But before leaving this world, I would like to give you some advice: Don't be such a foolish braggart. Your aggression and arrogance will bring bad luck to you someday."
B	Cuối cùng khi Mai sắp quăng luôn chiếc laptop, Louis mở cửa thoát thân, trước khi kịp sập cửa lại anh tru tréo: "**Rồi** cô **sẽ** hối hận! *(M3)*	Finally, when Mai started to throw her laptop, Louis opened the door to flee, but before slamming the door shut he yelled, "You will regret this later!..."
	"**Rồi** anh **sẽ** thấy."	"… You will see them later."
	– Bà Christine khuyên chân thành – **Rồi** cháu **sẽ** còn gặp nhiều chuyện không như ý. *(M3)*	Misses Christine sincerely advised. "You will face many experiences later that are not like the way you think."
	Chắc vài tuần nữa cô sang Paris **rồi**. *(M3)*	"…for she will go to Paris in just a couple of weeks."
C	Kim bật cười, làm ra vẻ vô tư: "**Rồi** David **sẽ** cho bác một nàng dâu dễ thương!" *(M3)*	Kim burst out laughing, and appearing unbiased said, "Then David will give you a lovable daughter-in-law!"
D	- Mẹ con **sắp** được thả **rồi**. *(M2)*	"Your mom will soon be released."
	- Con **sắp** ngồi dậy được **rồi**. *(M2)*	"I'll be able to sit up soon."

The simple future tense is used to translate the 31 Vietnamese sentences containing the word *rồi* with its meanings called M2 or M3 in Table 1. The number of sentences containing the word *rồi* with the meaning called M3 is more dominant than the one called M2. Specifically, with the meaning called M3, the word *rồi* usually needs to accompany the word *sẽ (…rồi…sẽ… / …rồi sẽ…)* with 15 occurrences to denote the situation time in the future. With the meaning called M2, the word *rồi* usually needs the presence of the word *sắp (…sắp…rồi…), (…sắp…rồi.)* with 06 occurrences to denote that the event will be finished in the blink of an eye. In the sentences translated into English, these two meanings are expressed more clearly with the occurrence of the words or phrases such as *…later* (09 times), *then will…* (01 time), *…soon… / …soon…* (04 times), *then…* (02 times).

Thus, to use the simple future tense for translating the original Vietnamese sentence containing the word *rồi*, the translators need the presence of other words such as *sẽ, sắp, …* They accompany the word *rồi* to denote its meanings called M2 or M3 in Table 1. However, the occurrence of the word *rồi* in these cases is not required. The translators can still translate the original Vietnamese sentence into English with the simple future tense without taking the word *rồi* into account. This is common when in the Vietnamese sentence there is *"(an) adjunct(s) of time in the future"* (To, 2013: 10) as in the sentence *"Chắc **vài tuần nữa** cô sang Paris rồi"*. Besides, according to To (2022: 143), "the Vietnamese language generally expresses future meaning by a lexical means: (i) either a single modal verb like *sẽ, định, tính, or sắp;* (ii)

or a combination of two or more modal verbs like *định sẽ, tính sẽ, dự tính sẽ, có thể sẽ, sẽ có thể, or sẽ ... được"*. Therefore, the number of English sentences using the future simple tense translated from the original Vietnamese sentences in the researcher's corpus is not significant. However, the occurrence of the word *rồi* helps to emphasize the event in question for its possibility of happening in the future.

Table 12. The use frequency of the simple future tense & words/phrases accompanying the word *rồi* to help us know when events happen.

Works	The use frequency of the simple future tense in English		Words / phrases in Vietnamese can accompany the word *rồi* to help us know when an event happens – the frequency of use *(number of uses / proportion)*	
	Number of uses	**Proportion**	**Tiếng Việt**	**Number of uses**
A	1	4.4%	*sớm muộn rồi* – (1 / 100%)	
B	20	16.13%	*...rồi...sẽ... / ...rồi sẽ...* - (12 / 60%)	*…later.* – (9 / 45%)
			...sắp...rồi... - (2 / 10%)	
C	7	4.2%	*...rồi...sẽ... / ...rồi sẽ...* - (3 / 42.3%)	*...then will...* – (1 / 14.3%)
			...sắp...rồi. – (1 / 14.3%)	*…soon…* – (1 / 14.3%)
			...rồi. / ...rồi... – (3 / 42.3%)	*...then...* – (2 / 28.6%) *...already* – (1 / 14.3%)
D	3	3.3%	*...sắp...rồi.* – (3 / 100%)	*…soon. / …soon…* – (3 / 100%)

The near future tense

Similar to the simple future tense, the near future tense is used in a limited way by the translators when translating the Vietnamese sentences containing the word *rồi* with its meaning called M2 in Table 1. Specifically, there are only 08 times the near future tense was used and 6/8 of those have a combination of the word *sắp* and the word *rồi (…sắp…rồi.)*. The influence of the word *rồi* on the translator's choice of the near future tense to translate the original Vietnamese sentences is almost non-existent. However, as mentioned above, the occurrence of the word *rồi* helps to emphasize the possibility of an event happening in the near future.

Table 13. Some typical examples of the near future tense used to translate the Vietnamese sentences containing the word *rồi* into English in the corpus.

Works	Vietnamese sentences	English translation
A	Tôi nói lớn: - Ấy chớ! cứu anh thì đã đành, nhưng đừng vào bây giờ. Tường nhà tù chắc chắn lắm, mà **sắp** đến buổi lão chim Trả đi kiếm ăn về **rồi**. *(M2)*	"Wait!" I hastily cried out. "Don't enter yet. It's about time for the Kingfisher to return home."
	Lần nào trở về, nghe tôi hỏi, mắt nó cũng lấp lánh hy vọng: - Chắc mẹ mình **sắp** được thả **rồi**. *(M2)*	Each time she comes back, her eyes are twinkling with some hope when I ask her about it. "My mom's gonna be free soon,…"
B	Thôi **sắp** phải lên máy bay **rồi**, em stop nhe. *(M2)*	Well, we are going to board the plane shortly, so I'll stop here.
C	Fernando có vẻ rất mệt mỏi và buồn bã: - Anh đến để tạm biệt em – Fernando gượng cười – **Ngày mai** anh đi **rồi**. *(M2)*	Fernando, appearing very tired and depressed, said, "I came to say so long to you." Fernando forced a smile, "Tomorrow I am going already".
	"Thật ra Việt Nam đang là môi trường đầu tư hấp dẫn- Fernando kéo Kim nằm xuống gối đầu lên đùi mình- Thị trường cổ phiếu **sắp** nóng lên **rồi**, em không chịu đọc báo kinh tế gì hết!" *(M2)*	"Vietnam is really attractive for the investment field." Fernando said, while pulling Kim to lay her head down on the pillow on his lap. "The market shares are going to get hot there soon, so you wouldn't want to read a newspaper about the economics at all!"
D	"Nhà mình **sắp** giàu **rồi**!" *(M2)*	"Mom, we're going to be rich!"

When translating these sentences into English, the translators use a variety of ways below to express this meaning.

- *"be about + infinitive"* to claim that an event is *"going to very soon"* or *"just going to"* (Swan, 1980: 3).
- *"be going to…"* to describe an event *"with or without a time expression"* (Thomson & Martinet, 1975: 53) or even to make predictions about an event in the near future. *"The predictive meaning, especially the prediction based on present causes, can also be expressed by be going to…"* (To, 2013: 10). *"Nhà mình sắp giàu rồi!"* is a point in case.
- *"be V_ing"* is also used to *"talk about things you have planned to do, or things that are going to happen in the future."* (Seaton & Mew, 2007: 91). In such a case, however, *"if we want to use it with a future connotation, it is almost imperative that a sign of future time is present"* (To, 2013: 9) *"**Ngày mai** anh đi rồi."* is a point in case.

Table 14. The use frequency of the near future tense & words/phrases accompanying the word *rồi* to help us know when events happen.

Works	The use frequency of the near future tense in English		Words / phrases in Vietnamese can accompany the word *rồi* to help us know when an event happens – the frequency of use *(number of uses / proportion)*	
	Number of uses	Proportion	Tiếng Việt	Number of uses
A	1	4.4%	*...sắp...rồi. – (1 / 100%)*	*be + about to – (1 / 100%)*
B	1	0.81%	*...sắp...rồi.– (1 / 100%)*	*be + going to – (1 / 100%)*
C	2	1.2%	*...sắp...rồi.– (1 / 50%)*	*be + going to – (1 / 50%)*
			...rồi. – (1 / 50%)	*be + V_ing – (1 / 50%)*
D	4	4.4%	*...sắp...rồi. – (3 / 75%)*	*be + going to / be + about to – (3 / 75%)*
			...đã...rồi. – (1 / 25%)	*be + about to – (1 / 25%)*

Table 15. The summary of the possibility of translating Vietnamese sentences containing the word *rồi* into English with the appropriate English tenses.

Works	The use frequency of English tenses					
	Simple present	Simple past	Present perfect	Past perfect	Simple future	Near future
A	34.7%	21.7%	8.7%	26.1%	4.4%	4.4%
B	35.5%	13.71%	29.03%	4.82%	16.13%	0.81%
C	48.3%	15.3%	22.4%	8.9%	4.2%	1.2%
D	44%	30.7%	15.4%	2.2%	3.3%	4.4%

Discussion

The study addresses the word *rồi* to clarify its influence on translators' selection on choosing the English tenses for translating Vietnamese sentences containing it into English. Based on the meanings of the word *rồi* in Vietnamese and the occurrence of some other words or phrases involved, the translators should take them into account before deciding what English tense is appropriate to translate the Vietnamese sentences containing them into English semantically equivalently. Specifically, the researcher has findings which aim at clarifying this matter and helping Vietnamese learners studying English find it easy to translate in similar cases.

o **The simple present tense** is usually used to translate Vietnamese sentences containing the word *rồi* into English if the word *rồi* occurring in them denotes the meaning of emphasizing the reality of the event mentioned. In this case, the word *rồi* often appears at the end of the original Vietnamese sentences *(…rồi.)* to indicate the emphasis on the fact considered affirmable. When translated into English, the word *already* is preferred to be

used in an English sentence *(…already…)* or at the end of it *(…already.).* The combination of *đã* and *rồi (…đã … rồi.)* in the original Vietnamese sentences does not affect the use of the simple present tense when producing translation.

o **The simple past tense, present perfect, and past perfect tense** are preferred when the word *rồi* implies that the event mentioned in the sentence happened in the past. The combination of the words *đã/từng* with the word *rồi (…đã/từng…rồi.)* is quite popular in the Vietnamese sentences in these cases. The word *rồi* can even appear alone. Consequently, the word *already* is still used, albeit insignificantly to translate them into English. The main difference between the use of **the present perfect** and **the past perfect tense** is that while the former requires the word *rồi* to indicate the connection of the event in question with a result at present, the latter is used when that event happened before another time or action in the past.

o Evidence suggests that the word *rồi* exerts no effects on choosing **the simple future or near future tense** when translators translate Vietnamese sentences containing it into English. This is because in the Vietnamese sentence there is "(an) adjunct(s) of time in the future" (To, 2013: 10). The word *rồi* usually needs to accompany the word *sẽ (…rồi…sẽ… / …rồi sẽ… / …sắp…rồi… / …sắp…rồi.) to denote the situation time in the future. The translators need the presence of the other words in question (sẽ, sắp,…) to use the simple future or near future tense in English.* However, the occurrence of the word *rồi* helps to emphasize the event in question for its possibility of happening in the future.

Researching words/phrases that affect translators' selection on English tenses when translating Vietnamese sentences into English has become a popular and interesting topic for years as it is considered a challenge for language learners when there are differences of grammar between their mother tongue, such as Vietnamese, and foreign language, English as a case in point. "Translators and scholars are on the way to pursue better and more complete methods as well as criteria systems for translation" (Tran, 2022: 1). Thereby resulting in the presence of various research addressing this matter. However, the reality has not applied clearly and completely to the word *rồi* in consideration of its influences on translators' selection on appropriate English tenses to translate the Vietnamese sentences containing it into English.

Truong (2015) used the literary work named 'The Old Man and the Sea' by Ernest Hemingway and its Vietnamese translation by Le Huy Bac to have statistics on the use frequency of the meaning of perfect. The author proved that when translating English sentences with this meaning into Vietnamese, the translator used the combination of words, including *đã, rồi,* and *chưa*. However, Truong (2015) only clarified the influence of the word *rồi* in conveying the meaning of perfect in Vietnamese when Vietnamese translators translate English sentences into Vietnamese. Also, Truong (2015) focused on the word *rồi* in combination with other words/phrases, which put the emphasis on syntactic features in Vietnamese. Trinh (2014) mentioned the role of the word *rồi* in translating utterances with conversed conventional implicature. The reason is that *rồi* "shows very clearly the orderly nature of action" (Trinh, 2014:26), so it is necessary to apply the translations with conserved Conventional Implicature

from English into Vietnamese. Either way, Trinh (2014) did not have further analysis of the word *rồi*. Both Truong (2015) and Trinh (2014) used the different method from that of this study when they considered English as the source language and Vietnamese as the target language for their studies.

Compared to these previous studies, this study has several differences. Initially, the researcher of this study tried to clarify the influences of the word *rồi* on translators' selection on six English tenses when translating Vietnamese sentences into English, not just the perfect tenses. Next, this study used Vietnamese as the source language with the four literary works written by Vietnamese authors and English as the target language with the translations of the works in question. Finally, the two previous studies, to a certain extent, supported this research's findings as no conflict appeared.

Conclusion

In conclusion, the occurrence of the word *rồi* exerts a significant influence on translators' selection on choosing the appropriate English tenses for translating Vietnamese sentences containing it into English. These sentences are usually translated into English with the simple present tense if the word *rồi* occurring in them denotes the meaning of emphasizing the reality of the event mentioned. Meanwhile, the simple past, present perfect, and past perfect tense are preferred when the word *rồi* implies that the event mentioned in the sentence happened in the past. The main difference between the use of the present perfect and the past perfect tense is that while the former requires the word *rồi* to indicate the connection of the event in question with a result at present, the latter is used when that event happened before another time or action in the past. However, that using the simple future and near future tense is not dependent upon the occurrence of the word *rồi* because this word does need the combination with other words or phrases to denote the meaning of future. Therefore, understanding the influence of the word *rồi* in Vietnamese in different contexts helps Vietnamese people learning English know how to choose the appropriate English tenses to have the semantically equivalent translation of Vietnamese sentences containing the word *rồi* into English.

Acknowledgments

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Biodata

Le Huu Hoa Loc is currently a Master's degree student at Hoa Sen University in the major of English Language. He is working at Thien An English center as both an academic manager and teacher. He has experience in teaching English for Vietnamese adults for nearly 8 years, especially those who have difficulties in learning English for international English exams, such as IELTS, TOEIC, and PET Preliminary. During their teaching career, hitherto, he has been aware of his students' problems in terms of absorbing, understanding and applying English into the exams or real communication scenarios. One of the most fundamental causes is the syntactic and semantical difference between English and their mother tongue, Vietnamese. Understanding this, his research mainly focuses on contrastive English and Vietnamese to find out the easiest way for them to learn English effectively.

Learning Strategies of ELT Students for IELTS Test Preparation to Meet English Learning Outcomes

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ABSTRACT

The present research aimed to examine the learning strategies for the IELTS test preparation to meet the English learning outcomes (ELOs) used by students majoring in English Language Teaching (ELT) in Vietnamese universities, especially at the University of Foreign Language Studies – the University of Da Nang (UFLS-UD) and provided solutions to improve their IELTS test preparation efficiency. Data were collected from the questionnaires completed by 120 English language teaching (ELT) students, the in-depth interviews with 10 student informants, 5 experts in English teaching, and 10 students who have taken the IETLS test to meet the ELOs. The findings showed that most student informants chose the IELTS test to meet the ELOs requirements and did some preparation for the test. Regarding the learning strategies, practicing English pronunciation and communication skills were used for speaking, listening to the audio, watching English videos for listening, reading the IELTS writing samples, and learning grammar for writing. To overcome problems faced by informants, some suggested solutions were proposed, such as employing self-study strategies, practicing the IELTS sample test, attending IELTS courses, sitting for the IELTS mocks, and finding support from lecturers.

Introduction

In the present trend of educational quality assurance, the English learning outcome (ELOs) plays a crucial role in assessing the graduate qualification in Vietnamese universities. Nowadays, Vietnamese university students have various choices to meet the ELOs required, among which the International English Language Testing System (IELTS) test is one of the most widely-chosen ones. However, success in this test is a challenge for students, even for those majoring in English Language Teaching (ELT), as they have inappropriate learning strategies in the test preparation. Although there have been many studies investigating the

students' IELTS test preparation and learning process, the research on IELTS learning strategies and difficulties in choosing appropriate learning strategies for ELT students, especially Vietnamese ELT students, remains limited. This has given us an impetus to carry out research in this area. This research is aimed at examining (1) the reality of choosing the IELTS test to meet the ELOs of ELT students in UFLS-UD, one of the three state universities specializing in English Teacher Education in Vietnam, (2) what language strategies ELT students used and the difficulties they faced during the IELTS test preparation. Also, some solutions to enhance the productivity of the IELTS test preparation to satisfy the ELOs required by their ELT training programme were proposed. The study can be applied to develop the language teaching, and learning process, as well as help teachers and students, find solutions to cope with difficulties in the IETLS test preparation. In addition, it adds to the existing theories of IELTS test preparation and learning strategies with evidence taken from Vietnamese ELT learners.

Literature Review and Theoretical Background

Literature Review

There have been many studies on language learning strategies (LLSs) and their application of them to developing language testing skills so far.

Oxford (1990) has provided the definition of an LLS and divided LLSs into two types: direct and indirect. Besides, the author has provided foreign language teachers with practical recommendations for developing their students' learning strategies.

Griffiths and Jordan (2004) have examined the strategies used by international students in the process of developing the language skills needed to be successful in IELTS. The study findings supported the hypothesis that more successful students employed LLSs more frequently than less successful students did. In addition, the researchers investigated the strategies used for four language skills (reading, writing, speaking, and listening) and suggested that those who scored 6.0 or more reported using strategies related to all four skills more frequently

Strategies used by language learners to achieve high scores in TOEFL and IELTS have been discussed by Munzaki (2018). The results showed that IELTS learners mostly used compensation strategy and social strategy, and the problem found was about learners' inconsistency and instability in using the strategies.

Even though a considerable body of literature exists on English learning strategies and the IETLS learning process, the IELTS learning strategies employed by Vietnamese ELT students and their difficulties in the test preparation have been assessed only to a limited extent. In addition, the reality of ELT students choosing the IELTS test to meet the ELOs is rarely demonstrated. Therefore, this study examined the Vietnamese ELT students' use of learning strategies in the IELTS test preparation to meet the ELOs and suggested some solutions to overcome the challenges in the learning process.

The research into choosing the IELTS test to meet the ELOs of English-majored students in Ho Chi Minh Open University of Duyen and Duy (2018) has indicated that 97.6% of participants

took the IELTS test to meet the university ELOs. The authors have also found out about students' IELTS learning process and difficulties in the test preparation.

Regarding strategies used for practicing each language skill, Tan and Dang (2022) suggested that ELTS takers should focus on the types of sentences they employ in their IELTS writing task 2 and attempt to use a variety of them rather than just one as compositions with more single-clause sentences tend to be graded with a lower band score. In terms of speaking skills, a research study by Islam et al. (2022) which explored some experienced English teachers' viewpoints, indicated that students should put effort into building their vocabulary knowledge and reduce their anxiety and phobia about English speaking and using English media on the Internet. Furthermore, a study by Pham (2022) on the effects of reading habits on reading comprehension of EFL students showed that students get good reading comprehension when they maintain reading habits and vice versa. The author also stated that if students wish to perform well in reading, they need have the desire and motivation to improve their reading habits.

Theoretical Background

The IELTS test

Jointly owned by Cambridge ESOL, British Council, and IDP, the International English Language Testing System (IELTS) test is the world's most popular English proficiency test, which is designed for those who want to work, live or study in an English-speaking country. Test takers are assessed on listening, reading, writing, and speaking skills. There are two forms of IELTS tests – IELTS Academic and IELTS General Training. (British Council, 2017, p.7). This research mainly focuses on IELTS Academic test because its results help ELT students meet their ELOs.

English learning outcomes for ELT students at UFLS-UDN

Learning outcomes

Learning outcomes (Circular No.7/2015/TT-BGDĐT, p.2) are "the minimum requirements of knowledge, skills, attitude, professional responsibilities that learners are expected to meet after completing training programmes. Learning outcomes are commitments that educational institutions have made to learners and society and are publicly announced with conditions to ensure the performance."

English learning outcome for ELT students at UFLS-UD

According to the Official Dispatch No. 3990/ĐHĐN-ĐT on November 22nd, 2019, on updating the six-level Foreign Language Proficiency Framework for Vietnam, English-majored graduates have to reach Level 5 in the Framework, which is equivalent to level C1 in CEFR or IELTS test overall score 6.5 - 7.5. (The University of Da Nang, 2019, p.1).

Learning strategies

Oxford (1990, p.8) defined learning strategies as "*specific actions taken by the learner to make learning easier, faster, more enjoyable, more self-directed, more effective, and more transferable to new situation.*"

Methodology

Research questions

To achieve the aims stated, this study tried to find the answer to the following questions:

(1) What is the rate of ELT students choosing the IELTS test to meet the ELOs?

(2) What are the learning strategies used by ELT students for IELTS test preparation to meet the ELOs?

(3) What are the difficulties faced by ELT students in the IELTS test preparation?

Participants

There were 120 ELT students of UFLS-UD participating in the study. They were in 2nd, 3rd and 4th year and randomly chosen. This population accounted for 88.9% of the current ELT students at UFLS-UD because each cohort UFLS-UD enrolls 45 ELT students. Thus, the 3 cohorts consist of 135 students in total. In principle, high school graduates are required to be at level 2 of the Vietnamese six-level Language Proficiency Framework (equivalent to level A2 CEFR and IELTS 3.5) for university entrance, according to Circular No.7/2015/TT-BGDĐT and Announcement No.4513/ĐHĐN-ĐT about the English entrance requirements of the University of Danang. Therefore, all the participants in this study are at least at level 2 of the Vietnamese six-level Language Proficiency Framework.

Research method

In this study, quantitative research and qualitative research were combined.

The quantitative data were collected from 120 ELT students. The qualitative data were collected from 10 randomly chosen students from the study population mentioned and five experts in English teaching at the Faculty of Foreign Language Teacher Education, UFLS-UD. Besides, more qualitative data were gained from in-depth interviews with ten students who had sat for an IELTS test to meet the ELOs.

Data collection procedures

The data for the research was collected as follows.

(1) Questionnaire distribution to all participants: The questionnaire was designed to investigate the reality of the IETLS test choice, the IELTS test preparation, and some difficulties during the learning process to meet the ELOs. Thus, some solutions to effectively prepare for the test could be proposed. The questionnaire consists of two main parts: the first part investigates general background information of the participants, and the second one aims to find out the IELTS

learning strategies ELT students used and difficulties in the IELTS preparation to meet the ELOs. The questions in the second part are designed based on the theory of Second Language Learning Strategies of Oxford (1990). Questions about IELTS learning strategies employed by students are on the 5 Likert Scale, most of which are designed based on the Strategy Inventory for Language Learning version 7.0 introduced by Oxford (1989).

(2) In-depth interview with ten randomly chosen students from 120 participants of the study.: the questions were designed to capture qualitative data about research-related issues which cannot be fully mentioned in the questionnaire, including the purposes for choosing the IETLS test, the IELTS learning strategies, and some suggested solutions.

(3) In-depth interview with experts in English teaching: Because ELT teachers are experts who have experience in teaching English at UFLS-UD, they can provide information about, and advice on how to employ appropriate learning strategies in the IELTS preparation from a professional perspective and which challenges their students to face the most when learning IELTS. In this study, 5 ELT teachers of the Faculty of Foreign Language Teacher Education were randomly chosen.

(4) In-depth interview with students who had sat for an IELTS test: 10 students who had taken the IELTS test were interviewed. The questions aimed to gain an insight into the IELTS test preparation, especially the obstacles in the learning process and solutions students had made to solve the problems that occurred during the test preparation.

Data analysis

Quantitative data analysis: After data were collected from the questionnaire surveys, they were encoded and analyzed with Microsoft Excel and IBM SPSS Statistics 20.0.

Qualitative data analysis: Thematic analysis was implemented to interpret data from interviews, following six steps: transcribing recorded audio, coding the data, combining codes into themes, reviewing themes, and writing up.

Findings and Discussion

The rate of students choosing the IELTS test to meet the ELOs
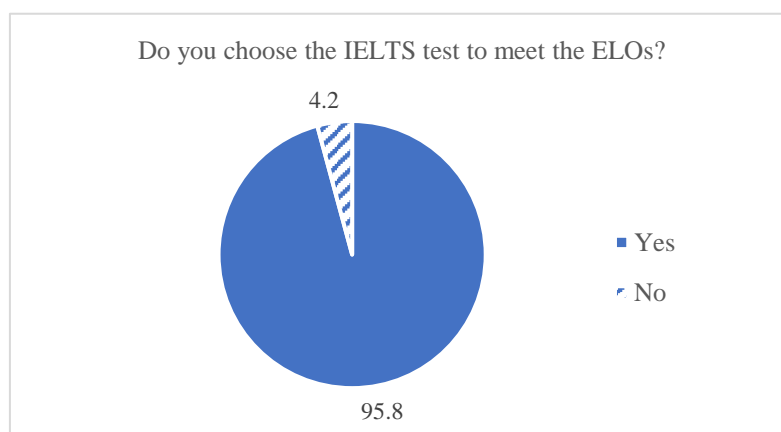
Figure 1. The rate of students choosing the IELTS test to meet the ELOs

Figure 1 showed that 95.8% of student participants chose the IELTS test to meet the ELOs, while 4.2% of them said "No" to the question. Anyway, they have to achieve the ELO before their graduation. Perhaps they opted for other types of English proficiency tests.

Learning strategies for practicing vocabulary

Many students adopted the strategies "*making sentences with new words*" (85.2%) and "*putting new words into conversational contexts*" (77.3%). New vocabulary just taught in the previous lessons is normally applied to the presentation or passage writing. The strategy "*writing or saying the new words many times*" is used by 57.4% of students. The strategy "*using flashcards*", however, proved to be unpopular among ELT students, with 77.3% of them "disagreeing" or "strongly disagreeing" with employing it. "*This strategy is similar to learning by heart which is boring and ineffective*", said one interviewee.

Table 1. Strategies used for learning vocabulary

Strategy	Agree	Neutral	Disagree
I make sentences with new words.	**85.2%**	13.9%	0.9%
I put new words into conversational contexts.	**77.3%**	19.1%	4.0%
I use flashcards to learn vocabulary.	9.6%	13.0%	**77.3%**
I say or write new words many times.	32.1%	**57.4%**	10.4%

Learning strategies for practising reading

The number of informants opting for the strategy of *practicing every question type in the IELTS sample tests* to master reading skills accounted for 89.6%. *Responding well to all questions in the Cambridge IELTS series and similar reference materials* is considered to be the priority

over enjoying English books or novels though informants were usually encouraged by their teachers to do so. Only a small group of informants *learned new words and grammar from the reading, writing, and listening sessions of the IETLS sample tests.* In addition, 70.5% of informants *translated the reading passage word by word*. This habit may slow their reading speed down in the real IELTS test environment, especially when they encounter low-frequency words that have never been seen before.

Table 2. Learning strategies used for practicing reading

Strategy	Agree	Neutral	Disagree
I read English books, articles and stories to learn academic words.	30.5%	9.6%	**60%**
I learn new words and grammar from the IETLS sample tests' reading, writing, and listening sessions.	39.1%	26.1%	34.7%
I try not to translate the reading passage word by word.	12.2%	17.4%	**70.5%**
I practice every question type in the IELTS sample tests.	**89.6%**	2.6%	7.8%

Learning strategies for speaking

As can be seen from Table 3 below, student informants *focused on verbal communication practice* more than on non-verbal one (with 56.5% of students never using body language when they do not know the word). The strategy "*practicing popular topics in the IELTS speaking test"* was employed by 79.1% of ELT students. Whereas the number of students *learning English with other people* comprises a large proportion (73%), the percentage of participants practicing speaking alone by *recording themselves and checking pronunciation mistakes* was extremely low (11.3%). *Youtube channel or English audio for intonation practice* was also popular among ELT students who strive for British-like or American-like pronunciation.

Table 3. Strategies used for practicing speaking

Strategy	Agree	Neutral	Disagree
I practice popular topics in the IELTS speaking test.	**79.1%**	13.0%	7.8%
I practice native pronunciation and intonation.	**66.1%**	28.7%	5.2%
I always try to communicate in English.	**73%**	22.6%	4.3%
I use body language when I don't remember words.	15.7%	27.8%	**56.5%**
I record myself and check pronunciation mistakes	11.3%	17.4%	**71.3%**

Learning strategies for writing

The highest usage can be seen in the strategy *of practicing writing about popular topics in the IELTS writing test* (at 83.5%). Similar to the reading skill, the writing skill was improved through *using the Cambridge IELTS series and similar learning materials*. Furthermore, the strategy *"learning the high-score IELTS writing samples"* was chosen by 70.4% of participants. ELT students *focus on learning grammar for academic writing* because they believe that advanced grammar plays an important role in IELTS writing.

According to the results, only 23.5% of informants *asked other people to proofread or mark their essays*. This may have resulted from the fact that all writing exercises performed at university followed the format of the Cambridge writing test (B1, B2, C1) rather than the IELTS test. Moreover, when doing further practice, informants were *reluctant to ask for the support of other people* for fear of being burdensome.

Table 4. Strategies used for practicing writing

Strategy	Agree	Neutral	Disagree
I practice writing about popular topics in the IELTS writing test.	**83.5%**	14.8%	1.8%
I asked other people to proofread or mark the essays.	23.5%	11.3%	**65.2%**
I learn the high-score IELTS writing samples.	**70.4%**	14.8%	14.0%
I focus on learning grammar for academic writing.	**73%**	25.2%	1.8%

Learning strategies for listening

The rate of informants *using the passive listening* strategy accounts for 72%. Many participants still worked while having the podcast or Youtube channel like BBC or TED Talks on in the background. In addition, some informants believe that *television English-speaking programmes or movies* can help them be accustomed to the native speakers' intonation. The strategy *"practicing popular topics in the IELTS listening test"* was frequently employed by 74.8% of ELT students.

Table 5. Strategies used for practicing listening

Strategy	Agree	Neutral	Disagree
I listen to English audio or video while doing other things.	**72%**	10.4%	10.4%
I usually watch English movies or programs.	39.1%	15.7%	45.2%
I practice popular topics in the IELTS listening test.	**74.8%**	16.5%	8.7%

Difficulties in the IETLS test preparation

The most challenging skill

Figure 1 shows that student informants struggled with their writing skills the most (36.5%), whereas they faced less difficulty in reading skills. When being interviewed, 80% of experts in English teaching of UFLS-UD stated that most of the problems were caused by *inappropriate learning strategies applied to different skills during the preparation.* For example, the experts said that *most students do not have the skill of brainstorming and making an outline before doing the writing task 2*. Furthermore, 60% of ELT teachers in the Faculty of Foreign Language Teacher Education agreed the fact that using the strategies of translating word-for-word when doing the writing test also prevents IELTS learners from mastering the writing skill. *"Word-for-word translation makes their writing work unnatural. Besides, if they cannot think in English when writing essays, they cannot get high scores in the writing tasks,"* – said an ELT expert.

Besides, the results from interviewing the students who have experience in taking the IELTS test showed that students have difficulties in time management. Students stated that they *spent too much time on writing task 1*. In addition, some students agreed that *they failed to meet the word count requirement, resulting in a poor grade for the criterion called task response.*
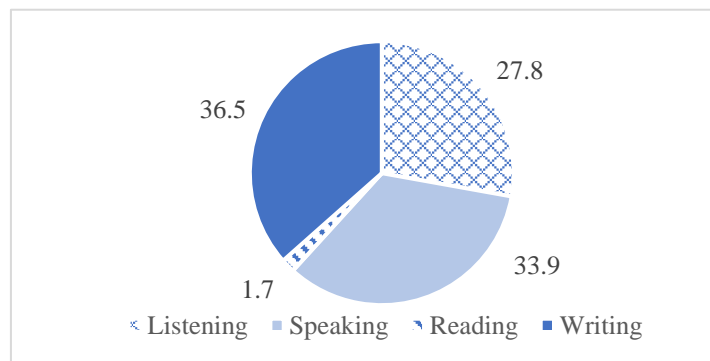
Figure 2. *The most challenging skill*

Difficulties in doing the IELTS listening test

The interview results with students who took the IELTS test indicated that the most common problems ELT students encountered were *failing to follow the speech pace, lacking attention*, and *confusion among different English accents*. Although ELT students have exposure to a variety of accents during their learning process, they found that the strange accents were the barriers to their listening skills.

Student 01	*They spoke too fast. I didn't get what they meant.*
Student 02	*I was distracted while doing the 3rd session. I guess because the test was too long.*
Student 06	*The Indian accent was too difficult to understand.*

Difficulties in doing the IELTS reading test

In the interviews, ELT interviews agreed that *limited vocabulary range* hindered their reading comprehension. Meanwhile, others could not understand the topics of the passage due to their *lack of ability to guess the meanings of new words*.

Student 10	*I encountered many new words in the Reading test. I couldn't do the Heading matching type in the test, too.*
Student 04	*Lots of new vocab. The topic was unfamiliar so I couldn't guess the meaning.*
Student 05	*There were too many questions. I didn't meet the time requirements.*

Difficulties in doing the IELTS speaking test

All interviewed students who took the IELTS test indicated that the very first problem on entering the exam room was *the anxiety of sitting in front of native speaker examiners*. Furthermore, due to their *limited language skills*, especially the listening ones, and *poor vocabulary*, students *could not understand the questions from the examiners*.

Student 01	*I'm afraid of being judged by the native examiners.*
Student 08	*I usually communicate with native friends. But on the test day, I was so scared that I couldn't speak even a word.*
Student 09	*I just feared that foreign examiner, perhaps because she knew very well when I made a mistake.*

Difficulties in doing the IELTS writing test

The data collected from ELT students who took the IELTS test shows that many of them have *poor idea organization and sentence-making skills*, which adversely affects their writing process. *Limited academic vocabulary* is another obstacle.

Student 03	*My sentence structure and idea organization were terrible. What I wrote in the essay wasn't logical at all.*
Student 06	*I had so many ideas, but the problem was that I couldn't put them into words. I found the process description type the most challenging to deal with.*
Student 09	*I often write irrelevant things in essays.*

Other difficulties in the test preparation

Furthermore, what is remarkable about the difficulties in the IELTS test preparation is the *weak will to improve English skills* and *little time spent on learning*, accounting for 93.9% and 84.3%,

respectively. According to many students, they were likely to give up IELTS preparation due to poor performance in the IELTS mocks.

Table 6. Other difficulties in the test preparation

Challenge	Yes	No
Not having appropriate learning strategies	**55.7%**	44.3%
Lack of perseverance in practicing	**93.9%**	6.1%
Lack of time.	**84.3%**	15.7%

Overall, the findings of this study are in accordance with findings reported by Griffiths and Jordan (2004) and Islam et al. (2022). Similar findings are that strategies employed for four language skills play a key role in the IELTS test preparation. In addition, some strategies students and experts suggested, such as improving vocabulary range and learning grammar, in the IETLS learning process are in line with those in previous research by Islam et al. (2022).

Furthermore, this research conducted an interview with both ELT experts and students, which is different from the method proposed in prior studies. Compared with those of previous studies, the results in this study provided more information about the strategies Vietnamese ELT students used in the IELTS test preparation to meet the ELO, rather than strategies for learning IELTS in general.

Conclusion and Suggestions

Conclusion

In brief, the paper has presented the investigation into the learning strategies for IELTS test preparation to meet the English learning outcomes (ELOs) used by Vietnamese students majoring in English Language Teaching (a case study of students of UFLS-UD). The research findings show that most ELT students (95.8%) of the UFLS-UDN chose the IELTS test to meet the ELOs.

As for the learning strategies applied to each language skill, practicing English pronunciation and communication skills strategies were used for speaking practice; listening to audio and watching English videos strategies for listening practice; reading the IELTS writing samples and learning grammar strategies for writing practice were frequently used by ETE students. Besides, students did the exercises and found out topics frequently seen in the IELTS test.

Students face difficulties mainly in *speaking, writing*, and *listening skills*. Furthermore, *poor vocabulary range* is a noticeable problem among ELE students, which leads to many other barriers during the test preparation.

Suggestions

Based on the study results, the following solutions are singled out to enhance the productivity of the IELTS test preparation to satisfy the ELOs required by the ELT training programme.

Firstly, students should spend more time *practicing the sample tests in IELTS materials* available in book stores or on the Internet to get used to the pace of tests and develop four language skills in IELTS test orientation. In addition, *self-study* helps learners to deeply understand the lessons and enhance the ability to analyze, gather materials, as well as apply the knowledge gained in the class to solve learning problems. What is more, it is necessary for students to *have a plan to do one test per day* or *make a detailed study plan and stick to it*.

Secondly, based on the data collected, the researchers realize that a lack of academic vocabulary causes most difficulties students face. Therefore, putting effort into improving the vocabulary range is of vital importance. Students ought to expand their vocabulary knowledge by setting a goal of learning a certain number of intermediate and advanced English words, reading more English books to build vocabulary, and taking vocabulary quizzes to increase their ability to retain new words. Furthermore, some vocabulary learning strategies recommended are using new words to make sentences and putting new words into conversational contexts.

Thirdly, *registering for an IELTS course* and *finding support from lecturers and friends* are advisable. Finally, students' *participation in the IELTS mock*s held by language centers like British Council, or IDP is also a useful strategy for the IELTS test preparation to achieve the ELOs required by their ELT training programme.

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Biodata

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Appendices

Appendix 1:   **QUESTIONNAIRE**

I.   General Information

1. Gender: ☐ Male   ☐ Female
2. Which year are you in?
   ☐ First-year   ☐ Second year   ☐ Third-year   ☐ Fourth year
3. Do you choose the IELTS test to meet the English learning outcomes?
   ☐ Yes   ☐ No
   (If no, which proficiency test do you choose………………….)

II.   Learning Strategies of ELT Students for IELTS Test Preparation to Meet English Learning Outcomes

1. Below are statements about IELTS learning strategies. Please indicate to what extent you agree or disagree with them by ticking the appropriate option next to each statement.

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
Part A: Vocabulary					
I make sentences with new words.					
I put new words into conversational contexts.					
I use flashcards to learn vocabulary.					
I say or write new words many times.					
Part B: Reading skill					
I read English books, articles and stories to learn academic words.					
I learn new words and grammar from the IETLS sample tests' reading, writing, and listening sessions.					
I try not to translate the reading passage word by word.					
I practice every question type in the IELTS sample tests.					
Part C: Speaking skill					
I practice popular topics in the IELTS speaking test.					
I practice native pronunciation and intonation.					
I always try to communicate in English.					
I use body language when I don't remember words.					
I record myself and check pronunciation mistakes					
Part D: Writing skill					
I practice writing about popular topics in the					

IELTS writing test.					
I asked other people to proofread or mark the essays.					
I learn the high-score IELTS writing samples.					
I focus on learning grammar for academic writing.					
Part E: Listening skill					
I listen to English audio or video while doing other things.					
I usually watch English movies or programs.					
I practice popular topics in the IELTS listening test.					

2. Which skill is the most challenging in your IELTS test preparation to meet the English learning outcomes?
   ☐ Listening skill
   ☐ Speaking skill
   ☐ Reading skill
   ☐ Writing skill

3. You often face difficulties in: *(You can choose more than one option)*
   ☐ Vocabulary
   ☐ Grammar
   ☐ Pronunciation

4. What difficulties do you often face in your IELTS learning process? *(You can choose more than one option)*
   ☐ I cannot find the appropriate learning strategies.
   ☐ I am not patient and consistent enough in the learning process.
   ☐ I don't have much time for IELTS learning.
   ☐ I don't have the basic English foundation, so I feel demotivated and give up easily.
   ☐ The reading text is too long with many new words.
   ☐ I have poor vocabulary range.
   ☐ I feel panic when talking with native examiners.
   ☐ I cannot manage the time well in the writing text.
   ☐ The IELTS fee is too expensive

5. Do you suggest any solution to cope with the difficulties?
   ☐ Join the IELTS preparation courses.
   ☐ Focus on the Integrated Language Skills courses at university.
   ☐ Employ more self-study strategies.
   ☐ Participate in the mocks hold by English centers.
   ☐ Others:…………………………………………….

Thank you for your participation!

Appendix 2

INTERVIEW QUESTIONS FOR ELT STUDENTS

1. Which strategies did you use to practice speaking skills?
2. In your opinion, which is the most important skills in doing IELTS reading text? How did you practice those skills?
3. Which strategies did you use to practice writing skills?
4. Which strategies did you use to practice listening skills?
5. Have you ever tried passive listening? If yes, how did you practice passive listening? If no, why didn't you apply that skill?
6. Which strategies did you use to practice speaking skills?
7. Did you face any difficulties in the IELTS test preparation? If yes, how did you solve the problems?

Appendix 3

INTERVIEW QUESTIONS FOR ELT STUDENTS WHO HAVE TAKEN THE IELTS TEST

1. What difficulties did you face while doing the IELTS speaking test?
2. What difficulties did you face while doing the IELTS reading test?
3. What difficulties did you face while doing the IELTS speaking test?
4. What difficulties did you face while doing the IELTS writing test?
5. What other difficulties did you face when taking the IELTS test?
6. How did you solve the problems?
7. From your experience, what IELTS learners can do during the IELTS test preparation to prevent those difficulties?

Appendix 4

INTERVIEW QUESTIONS FOR ELT EXPERTS

1. In your opinion, what mistakes do many ELT students often make while learning for the IELTS test?
2. How can student apply what they learn in the Integrated Language Skill courses at university into their IELTS learning process?
3. What difficulties do students often face in the IELTS test preparation? How do they solve the problems?
4. Do you suggest any solutions to improve the efficiency of the IELTS learning process to meet the English learning outcomes?

A Review of Studies on EFL Teachers' and Students' Perceptions of Tranglanguaging as a Pedagogical Approach

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ABSTRACT

Keywords: translanguaging, bilingualism, English medium instruction	Translanguaging has emerged as an adjustment to English as the medium of instruction programs, which challenges the traditional monolingual approach to language teaching. This paper aims to provide insights into the perceptions of EFL teachers and students toward translanguaging as a pedagogical approach through making a systematic review of the findings of five recent empirical studies. The analysis of those secondary sources shows that the majority of EFL teachers and students hold positive attitudes toward translanguaging activities in EMI classrooms. Additionally, most of the teachers reported a need for training on planning and deploying translanguaging practice in the EMI classroom setting. Future research focusing on strategic uses of translanguaging pedagogy and their explicit instructions for EFL teachers and students is recommended as a result of the findings' interpretation.

Introduction

In the field of language teaching and acquisition over the past two decades, translanguaging practice as a pedagogical strategy has attracted great concerns from researchers (Fenton-Smith, Eds., 2017). Translanguaging has emerged as an adjustment to English as the medium of instruction programs for non-native English learners due to the challenges of those programs, such as being perceived as monolingual bias, the hindrance to low English proficient learners (Cenoz & Gorter 2013; García & Li, 2013; Nguyen et al., 2017). Specifically, May (2014) argues that when learners' native language is excluded, low English proficient learners may become reluctant to speak and then lose their motivation, leading to a decline in learners' participation which is an important aspect of language acquisition. Whether these beliefs of experts and academics about the merits of translanguaging in EMI classrooms can be enhanced or not in part depends on the viewpoints of those directly involved in the setting, that is, teachers and learners. Therefore, this paper aims to provide a brief review of recent empirical studies on EFL teachers' and learners' perceptions of translanguaging practice in EMI classrooms. The findings are then discussed to give insights on the issue from the perspectives of teachers and

learners, which are expected to contribute to the literature on this pedagogical approach as well as to the decision-making of stakeholders on language policy for the EMI classroom setting.

Literature review

The concept of translanguaging

Translanguaging began as a pedagogical practice in Welsh-English secondary educational settings with teachers' planned activities for learners to use two languages simultaneously (Williams, 1994, 1996). Since then, translanguaging has generated a plethora of literature that investigates its theoretical and empirical dimensions as "both the complex practices of plurilingual individuals and communities, as well as the pedagogical approaches that use those complex practices" (García & Wei, 2014, p. 3). Numerous definitions of translanguaging and its potential values for bilingual education have been given, challenging the traditional monolingual approach as well as the socially and politically defined boundary of languages (García, 2009; García & Li, 2014; Lewis et al., 2012). Combining the features of translanguaging from the perspectives of different researchers, Mazak (2017) defined translanguaging as a multi-faceted phenomenon involving

> *(1) a language ideology that sets bilingualism as the norm, (2) a theory of bilingualism that perceives that bilinguals draw from one integrated linguistic repertoire to navigate their bilingual worlds, (3) a pedagogical stance that allows people to learn and teach by drawing from their linguistic and semiotic resources, (4) a set of practices that are drawn from linguistic and semiotic resources of bilinguals, and being (5) transformational as it transforms the traditional notion of languages themselves and their practices along with the lives of bilinguals* (2017, pp. 5-6)

Translanguaging as pedagogy and its benefits

Though translanguaging has been examined in both natural and educational contexts, more attention has been put on the educational setting due to the challenges and merits of this practice (Blackedge & Creese, 2010). In the context of a dual language classroom, there are two types of translanguaging to be considered: teacher-directed translanguaging and learner-directed translanguaging (Lewis et al., 2012). While the former refers to pedagogical translanguaging, which uses planned and structured teaching strategies to build on multilingual learners' diverse linguistic practices, the latter refers to self-directed strategies from the learners "when learners self-regulate their learning by using linguistic practices and meaning-making resources that are not explicitly included in the classroom or lesson" (García & Wei, 2014). Together, these two types of translanguaging can facilitate learners' understanding of complex academic content as well as enhance the target language learning.

Empirical evidence has proved that translanguaging can be used as a deliberate strategy to achieve a variety of pedagogical goals, including explaining subject content, eliciting students' oral output, managing classroom discipline, and building teacher-student rapport (García & Wei, 2014; Zhou & Mann, 2021).

Through a brief review of recent empirical studies in translanguaging, the paper quested the answers to the following research question:

- What are the perceptions of EFL teachers and students towards translanguaging as a pedagogical approach for EMI classes?

Methods

Design of the Study

This study is a systematic review with secondary data from five related empirical studies in translanguaging. Within a corpus of recent studies, the five studies were selected adhering to the following criteria: being the latest research, focusing on EFL teachers and students of EMI programs, and each study representing a geographic region.

A synopsis of the previous studies

The setting

Secondary data for this review paper are from the following empirical studies: Yuvayapan's work "Translanguaging in EFL classrooms: Teachers' perceptions and practices" (2019), Romanowski's study "Perceptions of Translanguaing among the students and teachers of EMI classrooms in Poland" (2020), Zhou et al.'s research "Towards a sustainable classroom ecology: Translanguaging in English as a medium of instruction (EMI) in a Finance course at an international school of Shanghai" (2021), Liu's research entitled "A study of graduate students' perceptions towards pedagogical translanguaging at an international university in Bangkok" (2021) and Ngo's study "Translanguaging practices in EMI settings from the perspective of students agency: An example from Vietnamese higher education" (2021), which were coded respectively as Study 1, Study 2, Study 3, Study 4 and Study 5. The research settings of those studies are summarized in Table 1 below.

Table 1. Research settings of the five studies

Study	Participants	Education Level	Country
Study 1	50 EFL teachers	Various	Turkey
Study 2	27 EFL teachers & 98 students	Secondary	Poland
Study 3	3 EFL teachers & 40 students	Grade 5 to 8	China
Study 4	147 EFL graduate students	Tertiary	Thailand
Study 5	77 EFL students & 2 lecturers	Tertiary	Vietnam

As can be seen in Table 1, the studies were conducted in various EMI education settings in five

different countries, wherein Study 1 got the largest scale of teacher participants, with 50 teachers of different grades from state and private Turkish schools, and Study 4 had the largest number of student participants with 147 graduate students. In general, the sampling of each study was appropriate for the research goal of getting an overall picture of the EFL teachers' and/or students' perceptions of pedagogical translanguaging.

The instruments for collecting data

Table 2. Instruments for collecting data from the five studies

Study	Quantitative	Qualitative
Study 1	Questionnaire	Classroom observation Semi-structured interview
Study 2	Questionnaire	Classroom observation Interview
Study 3		Classroom observation Field notes Semi-structured group interview
Study 4	Questionnaire	Classroom observation Interview
Study 5		Classroom observation Interview Site documents

Table 2 shows the instruments for collecting data from the five studies in question. All of the studies ensure data triangulation by having a combination of different data sources. On top of that, three of the studies, including Study 1, Study 2, and Study 4, deploy the mixed-method approach with both quantitative and qualitative data, which is believed to mutually support and validate the results of each data source (Rea & Parker, 2005; Corbin & Strauss, 2015).

Discussion of the findings of the five studies

The perceptions of EFL teachers and students towards translanguaging as a pedagogical approach for EMI classes

The most prominent finding of Study 1 was that the perceptions of those EFL teachers on translanguaging were not in line with their practices. Despite their favorable attitudes toward translanguaging in some contexts, they did not commonly use this method due to expectations from their institutions, colleagues, and student's parents. Specifically, the majority of EFL teachers encouraged lower English proficiency students' use of Turkish to enhance their participation, while merely a small number of teachers agreed that teachers' use of translanguaging would be helpful for those students. Reasons for the conflict between their perception and practice were institutional and contextual constraints, as clarified in the interviews with ten voluntary teachers. It can be seen from the study that teachers' use of translanguaging was mostly for classroom and student-oriented purposes and rather spontaneously, without a systematic way to increase students' performance. Therefore,

Yuvayapan (2019) called for future research on an evaluation of a professional development program to enhance EFL teachers' knowledge and practices of translanguaging.

In study 2, it is worth noting that the participants are highly competent in English, with a minimum level of B2 and C1 for students and teachers, respectively (according to Common European Reference for Languages). The findings showed that those students held positive views toward classroom translanguaging despite the fact there were not many obstacles for them to comprehend and express their ideas in English. As for the teachers, they also reported an approving attitude to translanguaging's occurrence in their EMI classrooms. However, there were some responses indicating neutral or indifferent viewpoints, which may result from the teachers' insecurity and uncertainty about translanguaging's benefits. Overall, the key achievement of this study was to provide significant insights into the perceptions of translanguaging practice of Polish teachers and students from EMI high school settings.

The findings of Study 3 indicated that the majority of young Chinese students hold positive attitudes toward translanguaging as a pedagogy practice, while a small number of students would rather perceive it as a linguistic practice. The study also revealed the motivation behind students' use of translanguaging as follows: the ease of communication, the facility of contextual resources and the strategic manipulation of linguistic repertoire at their disposal.

Results of quantitative and qualitative data were utilized to address two goals of Study 4; that is, to investigate the perceptions of Thai graduate students regarding different factors impacting the use of translanguaging and to investigate how graduate students perceive translanguaging as a primary method in language practice. The findings of quantitative data confirmed six influential factors to students' use of translanguaging as follow: social and parental support; the proficiency of target language; the difficulty of content; the willingness to use L1; the encouragement of the teacher; and metalinguistic awareness. The qualitative results indicated that translanguaging was helpful for emergent bilingual students in second language learning, and there are requirements for more pedagogical adaptions while adopting translanguaging into the classroom. To sum up, the study indicated that the necessity for learners to translanguage should be considered in the language policy decisions of stakeholders and instructors. The study also emphasized the need for a transformational process from an emergent bilingual to a true bilingual in this context. It was suggested from the study that for the emergent bilingual, the first language was used for comprehension and meaning-making. Meanwhile, for true or high proficiency bilingual, translanguaging aided in the development of critical thinking and critical consciousness in students, as well as in the formation of bicultural identities to counter monolingualism in the traditional classroom.

Regrading Study 5, the data was collected within a semester from two modules of an EMI program in International Studies. These modules were delivered by two separate lecturers holding different beliefs about language policy, with one favoring English only in students' presentations for assessment and the other allowing students to combine both English and Vietnamese, the first language of both lecturers and students. The findings showed that students still employed some kinds of hidden translanguaging practice in the module with English only

for presentations. However, the students' learning space was limited, and their meaning-making was impeded when it came to complicated concepts or topics. Meanwhile, in the module where students were free to shuttle between Vietnamese and English during their presentations or discussion with classmates, the meaning-making process proceeded naturally, and students were more active "to participate", "to elaborate ideas", and "to raise questions", the three important functions of transluaging suggested by García and Li (2014, p. 103). In sum, the study contributes to the advocacy of translanguaging practice in EMI classrooms from the perspective of students. Regarding the limitation of the study, Ngo (2021) acknowledged a lack of focus on teachers' perspectives of classroom translanguaging in EMI classes, as well as a need for analysis of training for teachers in dealing with these bilingual practices.

Conclusion & Recommendations

The paper reviews five recent studies on how EFL teachers and students perceived translanguaging as a pedagogical practice in EMI classroom settings. It can be concluded from the results and findings of those studies that, in general, EFL teachers and students perceive translanguaging as an effective tool for enhancing students' participation and comprehension of the subject contents. However, due to the principle of a monolingual approach in EMI classrooms, EFL teachers and students reported limited utilization of translanguaging. Some participants even showed a conservative view against the inclusion of other languages in the EMI educational setting.

It is also noticeable that in the existing studies, EFL teachers and students tend to use translanguaging in an unplanned, spontaneous way to deal with emerging situations in the classrooms due to their uncertainty of its benefits as well as a lack of conceptual framework on how to plan translanguaging practices in the classroom. Those gaps from previous studies, together with a lack of empirical studies in the Vietnamese context, are the inspirations for future empirical research on instructions for pedagogical translanguaging.

To sum up, although those EFL teachers and students showed positive perceptions toward using translanguaging as a pedagogical approach in EMI classroom settings, they still quite hesitated to employ this practice in class due to the monolingual policy of EMI programs. Consequently, it is recommended that stakeholders and administrators of EMI programs should make an adaptation to the language policy of those programs with a more open attitude to the use of mother tongue languages. Additionally, explicit instructions on how and when to utilize translanguaging in EMI classrooms should be given.

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Biodata

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Corpus-Aided Language Learning for Chinese EFL Learners: An Exploratory Study

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ABSTRACT

Keywords: Corpus-aided language learning, lexicogrammar, EFL learners	Effective language instruction is essential for ESL/EFL students' language development and improvement. Language researchers, educators, and professionals have investigated the preliminary impact of input that has been purposefully maneuvered to implement language instruction. It seems that effective language instruction has been explored from teachers' perspectives. However, learners' perceptions of language learning seem to be under-researched. For this reason, this study aims at exploring EFL learners' perceptions of corpus-aided instruction through qualitative research. Thirty-seven Chinese EFL college students at a Midwestern university in the United States participated in this study. Writing conferences and interviews were collected and analyzed through thematic analysis. Findings showed that the Chinese EFL learners felt corpus-aided instruction was helpful in terms of two things: (1) clarifying logic and (2) organizing the structure in academic writing. However, they also reported some challenges in corpus-aided instruction. This study offers new insight into the usefulness of corpus-aided instruction by drawing much-needed attention to EFL learners' L2 writing development and improvement. Based on the preliminary findings, suggestions and implications are discussed.

Introduction

Acquiring the second language (L2) academic writing skills may be a daunting task for EFL and/or ESL learners, particularly in terms of English as the medium of instruction and practice. Developing rhetorical and grammatical skills are essential for quality writing. For these reasons, researchers in the field of linguistics and education have turned their attention to phrases for effective L2 instruction. Systemic Functional Linguistics (SFL) by Halliday (2004) is the major theoretical framework in this study. SFL is an approach to linguistics that regards language as a system of social functions, representing linguistic resources for interpreting meaning through words and structures (Haliday & Matthiessen, 2004). Adapting to a rhetorical style is important for gaining membership in academia. It is obvious that teaching academic vocabulary will help EFL learners improve their language proficiency in general, ultimately enhancing their academic writing skills and increasing confidence in writing in English. In this regard, corporal

linguistics is an essential field for investigating various linguistic features of vocabulary. Corpus linguistics synthesizes various common word combinations (e.g., lexical clusters and collocations). An early study by Johns (1994) used "data-driven learning" (p. 296) to revolutionize language learning in technical and methodological terms by utilizing machine-readable texts from corpora. In light of beliefs and findings about second language acquisition and learning, this study attempts to extend the scope of L2 writing by exploring EFL learners' perceptions of corpus-aided instruction as the development of flexible meaning-making language skills across contexts. In addition, this study integrates the theoretical and pedagogical fragments of SFL, corpus linguistics, and L2 writing as basic concepts to form an "interdisciplinary framework for SLA" (The Douglas Fir Group, 2016, p. 19). Therefore, the purpose of this study is to explore EFL learners' perceptions of corpus-aided instruction. The overarching research question guided this study: How did Chinese EFL learners perceive corpus-aided instruction?

Research Questions

To fulfill the purpose of the study, The overarching research question guided this study:

How did Chinese EFL learners perceive corpus-aided instruction?

Literature review

Systemic Functional Linguistics (SFL)

Language is a system, and a variety of language combinations are yielded through the representation tool of the "system networks" (Halliday, 2004, xiii). Systemic Functional Linguistics (SFL) is an approach to linguistics that regards language as a social semiotic system; that is, the social action of meaning-making by functions and purposes in context. Halliday (2004) claims that a central theoretical principle is grounded on any act of communication involving choices. From the SFL perspective, language has evolved under the pressure of the particular functions that the language system has to serve. Halliday (2004) explains the basic functions of language by making sense of human experience and acting out social relationships, which is to be achieved via metafunctions. Hence, human experience is transformed into a meaning of language. Specifically, language endows a theory of human experiences, and lexicogrammar, the continuity between grammar and lexis, a unique term to SFL coined by Halliday (1961), of every language is dedicated to that function. Halliday (2004) categorizes metafunctions into three perspectives of ideational, interpersonal, and textual. The ideational function is divided into the experiential and logical. If the ideational function of grammar is performed as an action, it serves as the interpersonal metafunction of either interactive or personal. The last component is textual metafunction, a mode of meaning relating to the construction of the text. Halliday (2004) specifies that the textual metafunction appears as a clearly delineated motif within the grammar because ideal and interpersonal metafunctions rely on the ability to build up sequences of discourse, organize the discursive flow, and create cohesion and continuity (pp. 30-31). Halliday (2004) maintains that all languages involve the three metafunctions: one interprets experience; one enacts social relations, and one intertwines together of these two functions to create text. Since the three metafunctions are considered to

come into being simultaneous, language must also be able to bring these meanings together. This is the role of structural organization with three notions: grammatical, semantic, and contextual. Halliday also argued that the textual metafunction is distinct from both ideational and interpersonal because language creates a semiotic word of its own through the textual metafunction. Halliday's notion of *lexicogrammar* has been rooted in the area of phraseology and functional linguistics. SFL offers the prospect of looking at the essence of second language learning as the development of flexible meaning-making second language capacities across contexts.

Lexicogrammar is the system of wording, representing the linguistic resources for construing meanings through words and structures (Halliday, 2004). The lexicogrammatical approach was adopted by the proponents of systemic functional grammar (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004), encompassing a much broader set of phenomena in mainstream lexicology. Ngo and Luu's (2022) study employed lexicogrammar as one of the theoretical frameworks in their study in order to examine lexicogrammatical realizations in EFL learners' English conversations. Lexicogrammatical analyses vary with two components: paradigmatic and syntagmatic. By crosstabulating these two components, four basic combinations are derived: syntagmatic & lexical, syntagmatic & grammatical, paradigmatic &lexical, and paradigmatic & grammatical. The syntagmatic & lexical feature focuses on the tendency for words to involve others in their immediate vicinities, such as collocations and lexical bundles. With the theoretical perspective of SFL, this study used Halliday's *lexico-grammar*, a combination of vocabulary and grammar, as a major notion.

Corpus linguistics

Corpus linguistics has provided a variety of potential research investigations with regard to linguistic features, such as vocabulary, semantic domains, and grammatical structures. Through corpus-based investigations, many language researchers (e.g., Biber, 2006; Biber et al., 1999; Conrad, 1999; Cortes, 2004, 2006, 2013) rigorously investigated the co-occurrence of seemingly similar structures and patterns (e.g., in the [Noun Phrase] of), serving different functions in different contexts. Corpus data is recognized as valuable for gaining knowledge of language patterning and perspectives on the language system (Biber & Conrad, 2001; Hunston, 2002; Sinclair, 1991; Stubbs, 2001). Corpora are useful to both students and teachers in education. Students can get many benefits from corpus-based instruction because corpora can provide usage-based information in the form of concordances, frequency, distribution, and collocation (Boulton, 2010). A few studies focus on teachers' perspectives with an emphasis on teacher education. Yoon and Hirvela (2004) and Yoon's (2008) corpus-based studies reveal that students gained confidence in writing and lexicogrammatical awareness. Yoon and Jo's (2014) recent case study also showed that the needs-based approach (i.e., the instruction modified based on the students' needs) to corpus use in L2 writing was useful in guiding learners to restructure their errant knowledge in a language. Sinclair (2004) indicates two corpus developments of the language teaching profession for classroom use: the teaching of lexical and phraseological patterns (McCarthy & Carter, 2004; Schmitt, 2004) and secondly language variety, genre, and register (Poole, 2016; Reppen et al., 2002). Hunston (2002) asserts that language classroom teachers should encourage students to explore corpora for themselves by

comparing language features. A few studies focused on teachers' perspectives emphasizing teacher education. O'Keeffee and Farr (2003) claim that teachers play an essential role in re-contextualizing corpora and mediating between corpus-based instruction and the needs of the learners in the classroom. Farr's (2008) study provided pedagogical advice on corpus use in the classroom and showed the student teachers' positive predisposition towards the use of corpora. Poole's (2016) study demonstrates a corpus-aided approach for the teaching and learning of rhetoric in the L2 undergraduate writing course to examine linguistic and rhetorical variation. As shown in the prior literature, corpus-based and corpus-aided writing instruction have the potential to improve L2 learners' academic writing in terms of a variety of components, such as linguistic features, genre, and rhetoric.

Methods

The context & participants

The current study was conducted in the English as a Second Language (ESL) Program housed at a Midwestern university in the United States. The participants were Chinese EFL college students who were required to take appropriate writing courses based on their placement test results. Their age rank is from 18 to 24. We met twice a week, with each class session running 80 minutes. The total number of participants in this study was 37 students. Their participation was voluntary, and students who did not consent were not included. The students participated in various types of qualitative data gathering, such as writing conferences, interviews, and member checking. All the participants joined one-to-one writing conferences with their instructor to discuss their final papers to complete the writing course. Among them, 15 students participated in the interviews to discover how corpus-aided instruction influenced their learning of lexicogrammatical components.

Data collection

One-to-one writing conferences

One-to-one writing conferences were held per participant in a total of 37 writing conferences. Each writing conference lasted 30 minutes on average and was audio-recorded and transcribed verbatim. A common feature of the writing conferences was that the instructor and students held one-to-one conferences about their own drafts. Writing conferences enable the L2 learners to participate in their learning about writing and to view their L2 writing development (Ewert, 2009). On the one hand, the conferences were aimed at helping students improve their writing for the course, and so enhance their development. On the other hand, as Soter and Smith (2016) explain, a dialogue about writing, such as through the writing conference, can encourage the transfer of skills learned in one setting to new academic and professional contexts and further improve students' writing skills. Teachers need to "create learning environments and assignments that explicitly encourage transfer by cultivating skills and habits of mind that best aid their transition" (Soter & Smith, 2016, p. 3). Writing conferences can help students make the transition from basic academic writing to field-specific writing. In the writing conferences, think-back questions were asked to help the participants reflect on their learning experiences with corpus-aided instruction. Such questions are useful in obtaining specific information about

prior experiences. Krueger and Casey (2015) maintain that focusing on the past increases the reliability of participants' responses because think-back questions allow them to concentrate on what they have done as opposed to what can be done in the future.

Semi-structured interviews

Semi-structured interviews were conducted once or twice with the individual participants, depending on their schedules and wiliness to participate. A total of twenty interviews were performed within a range of 20 to 100 minutes (the average was 60 minutes). Each interview was audio-recorded and transcribed verbatim. The semi-structured interviews were essential in understanding how the learners perceive corpus-aided instruction. To ensure both open-ended possibilities and the gathering of information necessary for the study, a semi-structured approach was adopted. A semi-structured interview is considered most valuable when the researcher understands the fundamentals of a research context from the insider's point of view (Fetterman, 2009). The interview contained open-ended questions, thus encouraging the participants to freely discuss personal learning experiences (Corbin & Strauss, 2008). They also contained focused questions tied to the student's experience of corpus-aided instruction. The overall style was conversational so as to help participants relax and thus produce more valuable data. The interviews asked about the effectiveness of the corpus-aided instruction (e.g., "What was the most useful instruction in the corpus-aided instruction?", "What were the most challenging things in academic writing?"). The interviews helped the researcher to understand the participants' perceptions and some challenges they encountered.

Data analysis

All the collected data from the interviews and writing conferences were analyzed to identify recurring patterns or themes through thematic analysis. The thematic analysis enables researchers to identify, analyze, and report patterns or themes within the data (Braun & Clarke, 2006). The data were examined through Braun and Clarke's (2006) six phases of conducting a thematic analysis: (1) becoming familiar with the data, (2) generating initial codes, (3) searching for themes, (4) reviewing themes, (5) defining and naming themes, and (6) producing the report. Constant comparative thematic analysis was especially important during this phase of data analysis. The analysis applies specific techniques, including open coding to break down the data as an initial step, axial coding to define the concepts and categories extracted from the open coding, and selective coding to deliberately select one aspect as a core category (Corbin & Strauss, 2008; Punch, 1998; Strauss & Corbin, 1998). Open coding (a.k.a. "microanalysis", Corbin & Strauss, 2008, p. 58) breaks data apart, generates abstract conceptual categories, and labels them with substantive codes. Axial coding is used to group the discrete codes according to conceptual categories and interconnect these categories and produce a set of propositions with theoretical codes (Corbin & Strauss, 2008). Axial coding consists of the condition that gives rise to the data, the context into which it is embedded, the action strategies in which it is carried out, and the consequences of the strategies. Selective coding is to integrate a developing analysis and has a central focus on core codes (Corbin & Strauss, 2008; Punch, 1998; Strauss & Corbin, 1998).

Findings

EFL learners' overall perceptions of corpus-aided instruction

The main purpose of the thematic analyses was to shed light on students' experience of corpus-aided instruction. The Chinese EFL learners felt corpus-aided instruction was helpful in terms of two things: (1) clarifying logic and (2) organizing the structure in academic writing. What follows are student comments from interviews and writing conferences relative to these areas:

(1) Clarifying logic

The multiword phrases from the instruction are very important because they can connect two sentences, making the paragraph [look] more logical. (Student#2, interview)

My purpose in using the expressions is to make my sentences more congruent. Secondly, I may make my sentences more logical. For example, if I provide a point and want to provide another point, then I'll use 'on the other hand. (Student#4, interview)

I used the expressions in Source Paper 2, such as 'on the other hand.' I tried to find the words and use them in my paper. I think my paper usually doesn't have logic, so it (the practice of using the words) was good. I think I can use the words in the sentences to have logic in the academic paper. (Student#6, interview)

(2) Organizing the structure in academic writing

I found the expressions helpful, such as 'is one of the' and 'are more likely to. I used 'are more likely to in my paper to indicate something is not guaranteed in the structure. They are good for the structure. (Student#13, writing conference)

Multiword phrases are helpful [in organizing and making] a structure in my writing. That's why I used 'as a result because one is the reason, and another is the result. (Student#14, writing conference)

I look at the list of the expressions to match the structure for grammar. (Student#15, interview)

Most participants perceived the importance of receiving corpus-aided instruction and wanted to have more practice and exposure to corpus data. Specific comments on these themes appear below:

I think the corpus-aided instruction was helpful to me, but it would be great if more specific examples could be provided so that I can actually use them in my paper. (Student#27, interview)

I found the corpus-aided instruction is interesting and want to have more lessons with it (corpus-aided instruction. (Student#33, interview)

Corpus-aided instruction was helpful to me. But in my case, I should use and practice more and more so that I become more familiar with the given phrases. (Studentl#22, writing conference)

It would be better if we practiced more… a variety of examples would be better. (Student#28, interview)

I think I could improve more if we practiced more. (Student #29, interview)

I wish you give more examples when you present multiword phrases. I may not fully understand the use of multiword phrases in Google Docs activity. We didn't have enough time to practice. (Student #34, interview)

I want to write down the sentences with sophisticated and rich vocabulary. I hope you can show us more examples of the multiword phrases (Student #37, writing conference)

Several participants addressed the need for more practice. The students held a common belief that practice makes their writing better, so they felt this tenet should also be applied to corpus-aided instruction. Thus, they advocated explicit corpus-aided instruction as they saw value in such input.

In terms of their preferences, the major theme that emerged in several students' interviews and writing conference comments was the importance of providing sufficient usage examples and explanations of lexicogrammatical components in corpus-aided instruction. For example, one participant suggests:

If the instructor prepares sentences with multiword phrases, students match them appropriately. Also, you can briefly introduce multiword phrases with the meaning of each phrase at the beginning (Student#28, interview).

Another participant offered some suggestions emphasizing details of corpus-aided instruction:

Give specific instruction on multiword phrases that we are going to learn before getting to use them. It will be useful if you include the materials for explicit corpus-aided instruction (Student#27, interview).

Student#33 offered several instructional recommendations:

I think it's worthy and important to teach multiword phrases. I think you should include a list of multiword phrases in the lecture and make students familiar with them. Try to test whether they understand the use of multiword phrases. This (test) makes students pay more attention to the multiword phrases. Although I don't like tests, the test can improve the use of multiword phrases because they are important in academic writing. (Student#33, interview)

Collectively, these suggestions once again indicate that the participants saw value in language learning through corpus-aided instruction, and they preferred explicit instruction with plenty of corpus examples.

EFL learners' challenges regarding corpus-aided instruction

While the data revealed various positive responses about corpus-aided instruction, several participants expressed that they experienced some challenges in learning. They noted:

The difficult thing is the variety (of using multiword phrases). I want to use different multiword phrases, but it's difficult to remember them… It's very challenging for me to write with different multiword phrases. Maybe, they have different styles (functions) for me to use. I don't know why, but I easily and quickly forget the information of multiword

phrases… Also, I make the same mistake. (Student#28, interview)

I used "what's more" a lot in my paper because I can't remember the multiword phrases. They don't automatically come to my mind… I am not really sure how to use another multiword phrase [that] can be added to my paper. (Student#33, interview)

It's difficult to remember and find the multiword phrases to rephrase or paraphrase. (Student#20, writing conference)

I'm not sure how to use multiple words. That's why I can't choose the correct words. (Semi-intentional#25, writing conference)

I don't remember the multiword phrases, so I didn't use them. (Student#30, writing conference)

In fact, the participants tried to use a variety of multiword phrases learned in the instruction, produce a logical paper, and articulate ideas fluently. However, the application process was not an easy one. Several students (Student#20, #30, #33) were confused about the meaning of the acquired phrases through corpus-aided instruction, which led them to easily forget them due to a lack of understanding. Cortes (2004) argues that one reason why L2 students may avoid using prefabricated phrases that are quickly and easily ready for use is that "students do not dare to risk the chance of making mistakes by using these expressions, which are unfamiliar or may convey different functions when used in academic prose" (p. 421). This shows that the participants wanted more detailed or concrete instruction and more opportunities to practice what they were being taught. On the whole, it can be said that most challenges they encountered emerged from a lack of understanding of the target phrases in the language instruction.

Some other comments also indicated challenges and difficulties associated with using multiword phrases in their academic writing:

I know the meaning of the words, but I don't know how to make them useful in academic papers. I need more time to understand how to use them. (Student#1, interview)

Multiword phrases I learned connect two sentences and make the paragraph more logical. But, it is not very easy to remember and use them, especially when I need to write something. (Student#2, writing conferences)

My purpose of using the expressions is to make my sentences more congruent and logical. But, my problem is how to use them effectively in my paper. (Student#4, interview)

I don't usually use these expressions because I don't know how to explain my idea using them. So, I usually use simpler words instead of chunks of words. (Student#9, writing conference)

I try to make a logical relationship between the sentences and write a paragraph by using lexical words, but it's difficult to use them effectively. (Student#10, writing conference)

I know the meaning of the words, but it is difficult to apply them to the writing. (Student#12, writing conference)

It is difficult for me to make a clear structure with the words. [If] I make a clear structure,

I can make my article much easier. (Student#18, writing conference)

I'm not good at grammar, and I'm not good at writing. So, it's hard for me to use the words in my paper. I need more lessons about how to use them. (Student#21, interview)

Two patterns emerged from the collection of the students' comments concerning challenges: (1) concerns about the use of acquired multiword phrases and (2) perceived deficiencies in their second language knowledge that prevented applications of multiword phrases. Regarding the first pattern, several students (Student#1, #10, #12, & #18) expressed their concerns about using multiword phrases in an effective way. They recognized their value in academic writing but doubted their ability to employ them successfully. This pattern may overlap with the second one, as some students (Student#4 & #21) attributed not using formulaic expressions in their papers to their deficiency or incompetence as foreign language learners.

While displaying positive results, the qualitative data also showed that student uptake from corpus-aided instruction is a complex matter. The participants' responses suggest that students need time and meaningful practice opportunities in order to process their language learning fully and thus create productivity. Teachers need to give considerable thought to how to offer exposure to such useful expressions in order for students to instantiate that input. Bui (2021) maintains that explicit instruction of multiword phrases (e.g., collocations) is essential for EFL learners. Well-designed activities that allow students to practice language use appear to be especially important for successful language learning and development.

Discussion

Flowerdew (2015) addresses that corpus-based research and pedagogy with respect to both lexis and genre illustrate the tight links between corpus research and pedagogical applications of that research. While analyses of corpora are important, knowing how corpus materials can be used to promote learning is equally important. From the genre perspective, this includes using corpus input to perform various rhetorical moves that organize texts and allow them to reveal meaning clearly and systematically relative to the purpose of the genre involved (e.g., literature review, research report, and abstract). Corpus linguists and researchers (Cortes, 2013; Farr & O'Keeffe, 2019; Flowerdew, 2015; Hyland, 2008; Kanoksilapatham, 2005; Kashiha, 2015; Lin & Kuo, 2014) see lexical phrases as a move-signaling entity. That is, certain combinations of words can be used to help readers see and understand the moves being made by writers, such as with a phrase like "on the other hand" to introduce a paragraph presenting information or a view contrary to what appeared in the previous paragraph. This perspective enables researchers to investigate writing components from the word level (i.e., multiword phrases) to the textual level (i.e., rhetorical moves in a genre).

Corpus-aided instruction has been found to be advantageous for the acquisition of common usage patterns of words and phrases and for the improvement of academic writing skills (Boulton, 2010; Farr & O'Keeffe, 2019; Lin, 2016; Poole, 2020; Yoon & Hirvela, 2004). Farr (2008) indicates that students show a positive disposition towards corpus use, which contributes to the students' language awareness. Lin's (2016) corpus-aided study also shows that corpus instruction enhanced the learning attitudes of EFL learners. In this current study, the participants responded that multiword phrases from corpus-aided instruction are relevant and important

components in academic writing. As L2 learners are more exposed to corpus-aided instruction, they may become aware of essential components of language and be encouraged to learn a foreign language more systematically. Farr and O'Keeffe (2019) also addressed that corpus materials enable us to see the grammar that is learned in class being used in the real context. Therefore, this study supports the claim that corpus-aided instruction fosters learners' language awareness and motivation to learn academic writing within the linguistic domain. To elaborate, the participants in this study indicated that corpus-aided instruction helped clarify logic and organize the structure in their academic research papers for the ESL writing course. The participants' perceptions of logic and structures of using multiword phrases in academic writing make sense with long-term language learning.

On the other hand, it should be noted that several participants expressed uncertain or vague views of their language learning in corpus-aided instruction by saying less impact on their retention of vocabulary knowledge, thus limiting the value of this inexplicit form of instruction. These fewer positive views could be due to the students' perceptions of vocabulary constituents. Researchers generally agree that learning the vocabulary of a foreign language may involve a slow and complicated acquisition process because L2 learners first need to understand the lexis and memorize the new words, and they need repeated exposure to the target words. Learners may learn words incidentally (Nagy et al., 1985) or intentionally (Laufer, 2003). This current study showed that there were perceived challenges regarding the form of corpus-aided instruction. As previously reported, some students indicated that explicit and clear corpus-aided instruction is necessary for effective language learning and use.

Conclusion

In closing, this study has shed new light on the usefulness of corpus-aided instruction by drawing much-needed attention to EFL learners' writing development and improvement. Despite some challenges the participants encountered, they applied the acquired expressions through corpus-aided instruction to their academic writing. This study discovered the potential benefits of using corpus-aided instruction in language learning and teaching.

This study contained several limitations that need to be addressed for future research. The first limitation of this study was generalizability issues (Shadish et al., 2002). The study did not employ random selection when it comes to the sampling issue. Small sample size would also lead to making the findings non-generalizable. However, Clarke (1995) argues that classroom researchers should strive for *particular ability* by supporting teachers through connections between the particular events of participants' lives and the findings of the research.

All in all, it is essential to expand the scope of corpus-aided instruction to develop and enhance EFL learners' academic writing. The essence of corpus-aided instruction is to provide linguistic resources that are beneficial to second language learners' academic writing skills. It is hoped that the findings of this study are of interest and value to scholars and teachers working in areas such as corpus linguistics, EFL learners, and second language writing.

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