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VNU JOURNAL OF FOREIGN STUDIES
Vol. 41, No. 1S, 2025

CONTENTS

RESEARCH

TẠP CHÍ NGHIÊN CỨU NƯỚC NGOÀI
Tập 41, Số 1S, 2025

MỤC LỤC

NGHIÊN CỨU

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THE TEXTURE OF A LITERARY TEXT: AN EXPLORATION OF TEXTUAL COHESION RESOURCES IN *A TALE OF TWO CITIES*

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Abstract: This descriptive qualitative-quantitative paper is an in-depth enquiry into how the textual cohesion resources are utilised in the construction of texture or textual cohesion meanings of a literary text – a topic that has received scarce attention in English literature teaching, learning and research, particularly at tertiary EFL (English as a Foreign Language) departments or faculties. The text under investigation is Chapter 1 entitled "The Period" of "Book the First" of the three-book novel *A Tale of Two Cities* by the famous British novelist Charles Dickens. The main theoretical framework adopted in this study is Halliday and Hasan's (1976) textual cohesion model as propounded in their seminal monograph *Cohesion in English*. The aspects of analysis are grammatical and lexical cohesion resources. The study shows that Charles Dickens has deployed a diverse range of textual cohesion resources to construct texture of his text, among which four stand out. First, in terms of reference resources, there is a very high frequency of endophoric references. Second, as regards conjunction resources, additive relation predominates. Third, concerning lexical cohesion resources, repetition takes up the largest proportion. And fourth, virtually no substitution and ellipsis are utilised in the text. The study closes with a résumé of the points explored, the salient textual cohesion resources deployed in the text, a recommendation affirming the relevance of Halliday and Hasan's textual cohesion model to the study of texture or textual cohesion meanings of texts in general and of literary texts in particular for EFL literature teaching, learning and research, and a suggestion for further study.

Keywords: texture, grammatical cohesion, lexical cohesion, textual cohesion model, *A Tale of Two Cities*

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KẾT CẤU CỦA MỘT VĂN BẢN VĂN HỌC: KHÁM PHÁ CÁC NGUỒN TÀI NGUYÊN LIÊN KẾT VĂN BẢN TRONG *MỘT CÂU CHUYỆN VỀ HAI THÀNH PHỐ*

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Tóm tắt: Bài báo theo hướng mô tả định tính - định lượng này là một nghiên cứu chuyên sâu về các nguồn tài nguyên liên kết văn bản được sử dụng như thế nào trong việc kiến tạo kết cấu hay ý nghĩa liên kết văn bản của một diễn ngôn văn học – một chủ đề ít được quan tâm trong giảng dạy, học tập và nghiên cứu văn học tiếng Anh, đặc biệt là tại các bộ môn hay các khoa dạy tiếng Anh như một ngoại ngữ trong các trường đại học. Văn bản được nghiên cứu là Chương 1 có tựa đề "Thời ấy" của "Tập thứ nhất" trong bộ tiểu thuyết ba tập *Một câu chuyện về hai thành phố* của tiểu thuyết gia người Anh nổi tiếng Charles Dickens. Khung lí thuyết chính được sử dụng trong nghiên cứu này là mô hình liên kết văn bản của Halliday và Hasan (1976) như được đề xuất trong chuyên khảo có tính khai sáng của họ *Liên kết trong tiếng Anh*. Các khía cạnh phân tích là các nguồn tài nguyên liên kết ngữ pháp và các nguồn tài nguyên liên kết từ vựng. Nghiên cứu cho thấy Charles Dickens đã sử dụng một phạm vi các nguồn tài nguyên liên kết văn bản đa dạng để kiến tạo nên kết cấu của diễn ngôn, trong đó có bốn nguồn tài nguyên nổi bật. Thứ nhất, xét về các nguồn tài nguyên tham chiếu, có một tần suất rất cao các tham chiếu nội chỉ. Thứ hai, xét về các nguồn tài nguyên liên từ, quan hệ bổ sung chiếm ưu thế. Thứ ba, liên quan đến các nguồn tài nguyên liên kết từ vựng, liên kết lặp lại chiếm tỉ lệ lớn nhất. Thứ tư, hầu như không có liên kết thay thế và liên kết tỉnh lược nào được sử dụng trong diễn ngôn. Nghiên cứu kết thúc bằng việc tóm tắt lại các nội dung đã khám phá, các nguồn tài nguyên liên kết văn bản nổi bật được sử dụng trong diễn ngôn, khuyến nghị khẳng định sự quan yếu của mô hình liên kết văn bản của Halliday và Hasan đối với nghiên cứu về kết cấu hoặc ý nghĩa liên kết văn bản của diễn ngôn nói chung và của diễn ngôn văn học nói riêng phục vụ cho giảng dạy, học tập và nghiên cứu văn học trong dạy tiếng Anh như một ngoại ngữ, và gợi ý cho việc nghiên cứu tiếp trong tương lai.

Từ khóa: kết cấu, liên kết ngữ pháp, liên kết từ vựng, mô hình liên kết văn bản, *Một câu chuyện về hai thành phố*

1. Introduction

Texture – a property that makes a text "hang together as a text" (Halliday & Hasan, 1976, p. 23) – has been a key focus of investigation in text/discourse analysis (cf. Forey & Thompson, 2009). It is generally defined as the features that make a text a unified whole and give it meanings. These include grammatical patterns in a text (concerned with transitivity patterns realising experiential meanings, mood patterns realising interpersonal meanings, theme patterns realising textual meanings, and clause complexing patterns realising logical meanings) and the relationships between words in a text (concerned with textual cohesion resources realising texture or textual cohesion meanings) (Halliday & Hasan, 1976, 1989). In this study, an attempt is made to look specifically at how textual cohesion resources are deployed to construct texture or textual cohesion meanings of a literary text – a topic which seems to have received very little attention in English literature teaching, learning and research, particularly at tertiary EFL (English as a foreign language) departments or faculties. The data for analysis is Chapter 1 entitled "The Period" of "Book the First" of the three-book novel *A Tale of Two Cities* by the eminent British novelist Charles Dickens. The reason for the choice of the data is that *A Tale of Two Cities* is one of Charles Dickens' best and most exciting and successful literary works, and the novel has been adapted for film, television, radio, and the stage in Britain (https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/A_Tale_of_Two_Cities), and it has been translated into several languages, including Vietnamese (see Dickens, 2018). The main theoretical framework adopted for analysis is what I would like to refer to as "textual cohesion model" (TCM) as developed in Halliday and Hasan's (1976) seminal monograph *Cohesion in English*. The study is organized around five sections. Section 1 is concerned with rationale of the study. Section 2 provides an overview of the key concepts relating to textual cohesion resources realising textual cohesion meanings of text. Section 3 deals with research methodology. Section 4 presents in detail some of the prominent textual cohesion resources deployed in the construction of textual cohesion meanings of the text. Section 5 summarizes the main points explored and the salient textual cohesion resources deployed in the text, recommends the relevance of the TCM to the analysis of literary texts, and makes a suggestion for further research.

2. Literature Review

2.1. Introductory Remarks

Among the various studies on textual cohesion to date, Halliday and Hasan's *Cohesion in English* is perhaps the most prominent monograph. Since its publication in 1976, this seminal monograph has become a groundwork for a great number of text cohesion studies and text cohesion analysis (e.g. Hasan, 1984, 2011; Halliday & Hasan, 1989; Martin, 1983, 1992, 2001; Hoang 2006; Forey & Thompson, 2009; and many others).

Drawing on insights from traditional as well as modern semantics and stylistics, Halliday and Hasan (1976) developed a set of abstract theoretical concepts and built them into a coherent text linguistics theory. Then Halliday (1985, 1994) and Halliday and Matthiessen (2004/2014) made a step further, incorporating this textual cohesion aspect called "Around the Clause: Cohesion and Discourse" into the design of SFG (systemic functional grammar), making it an indispensable component of the framework for exploring and understanding texture or textual cohesion meanings of a text. In terms of meaning, "Cohesion is a semantic relation between an element in the text and some other element that is crucial to the interpretation of it" (Halliday & Hasan, 1976, p. 8). In terms of realization, cohesion is a non-structural linguistic resource; it is a way of relating linguistic entities across all kinds of syntactic and other structural boundaries. In *Cohesion in English*, Halliday and Hasan deal with quite a number of textual cohesion concepts. However, for purposes of this paper, we will focus on two main headings: grammatical cohesion and lexical cohesion.

2.2. Grammatical Cohesion

Halliday and Hasan (1976) recognise four main types of grammatical cohesion: reference, substitution, ellipsis, and conjunction. These cohesive resources will be examined in the sections that follow.

2.2.1. Reference

Halliday and Hasan (1976, p. 33) make a useful distinction between what can be referred to as "endophoric reference" and "exophoric reference". Endophoric reference is reference within the text or reference to context of text; it consists of five subtypes: anaphoric reference, cataphoric reference, personal reference, demonstrative reference, and comparative reference. Exophoric reference, in contrast, is reference to context of situation. To begin, let us consider Extracts [1] and [2] below. (The reference items in point are in italics; the extracts are divided into clause simplexes and are given numbers enclosed in round brackets.)

> [1] (1) *The rocket* has just taken off. (2) *It* is going to Mars. (3) Scientists have been sending spacecraft there for several years now. (4) About 100 years ago an *astronomer* looked at *Mars* through *his* telescope and said *he* could see canals *there*. (5) Ever since *he* did that, people have been asking the same question: (6) "Is there life on Mars?"
>
> [2] (7) Within five or ten minutes, or more than that, three of the others had called *her*. (8) "*Kathy*, *this* is *David*. (9) I've given our son Fin *a birthday present*; (10) but he wants *another one* from you."

A cursory look at Extracts [1] and [2] will reveal that they contain a number of instances of what can be referred to as cohesive relations. In Extract [1], *It* in clause (2) is semantically related to *The rocket* in clause (1): *It* refers back to *The rocket*; *he* in clause (4) and *he* in clause (5) are semantically related to *astronomer* in clause (4): they both refer back to *astronomer*. These instances of cohesive relation can be generally referred to as **anaphoric reference**, defined as an item or items which point(s) the reader or listener "backwards" to a previous mentioned entity, process, or state of affairs (Halliday & Hassan, 1976; see also Halliday 1985, 1994; Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004/2014; Hoang, 2006).

In contrast, in Extract [2], the personal possessive adjective or pronoun *her* in clause (7) does not refer backwards but simply refers forwards to *Kathy* in clause (8). This kind of cohesive relation is called **cataphoric reference**, defined as an item or items which point(s) the reader or listener "forwards" – it draws them further into the text in order to identify the element(s) to which the reference item(s) refer(s) (Halliday & Hasan, 1976; Hoang, 2006).

A closer inspection of Extract [1] shows that the cohesive relation between *It* in clause (2) and *The rocket* in clause (1), and that between *he* in clause (4) and *he* in clause (5) and *astronomy* in clause (4) are different in nature. In the former type, the relation is between two things: *It* to *The rocket*, which can be called non-personal reference, whereas in the latter type, the relation is between two humans: *he* and *he* to *astronomer*, which can be referred to as **personal reference**, defined as reference by means of function in speech situation and through the category of person (Hoang, 2006, p. 75).

In Extract [1], we can notice that the adverb *there* in clause (4): About 100 years ago an astronomer looked at Mars through his telescope and said he could see canals *there*, and in Extract [2], we can see the demonstrative pronoun *this* in clause (8): Kathy, *this* is David. These are forms of verbal pointing by the speaker who identifies the referent by locating it on the scale of proximity in terms of space and time: *this* points forwards to *David*, and *there* backwards to *Mars*. Halliday and Hasan (1976, p. 57) call these types of reference collectively **demonstrative reference**.

In Extract [2], we can notice the nominal group *a birthday present* in clause (8) and the nominal group *another one* in clause (9). Like the cohesive relation between *he* and *astronomer* (personal reference) and that between *there* and *Mars* (demonstrative reference) in Extract [1], their presence contributes to textual cohesion. But whereas personal reference and demonstrative reference, when used anaphorically, set up a relation of co-reference, whereby the same entity is referred to over again, *a birthday present* and *another one* set up a relation of contrast which is referred to as **comparative reference**.

A closer examination of clause (1) in Extract [1] shows that the definite nominal group *The rocket* at the beginning of the clause does not refer backwards. Nor does it point the reader or listener forwards. In order to know what or where *The rocket* refers to, we need an extralinguistic context, what over one hundred years ago the eminent British anthropologist Manilowski (1923) called "context of situation" accompanying the utterance *The rocket has just taken off …* In *Cohesion in English*, Halliday and Hasan (1976) call this type of cohesive relation **exophoric reference**, defined as a kind of reference which refers to the context of situation (Halliday & Hasan, 1976, p. 33; see also Halliday & Hasan, 1985, p. 76; Hasan, 1996, p. 197).

2.2.2. Substitution

Substitution is a cohesive type of relation. It can refer to relation between linguistic items, such as words and phrases. It can also refer to the process or result of replacing one item by another at a particular place in discourse. There are three types of substitution: nominal substitution, verbal substitution, and clausal substitution.

Nominal substitution is concerned with the use of a substitute word to replace the Head of a corresponding nominal group. In English, the noun functioning as the Head is always countable. Nominal substitution is realised by items such as *one*, *ones*, and *same*. Below are some examples:

[3] There are three books on the table. Which *one* do you like to borrow?

[4] Cherry ripe, cherry ripe, ripe I cry,
Full and fair *ones* – come and buy.

[5] A: I'll have two poached eggs on toast, please.
B: I'll have the *same*.

Verbal substitution is a type of substitution which is concerned with a substitute word in the place that is occupied by the lexical verb. The verbal substitute in English is *do*. It operates as Head of a verbal group, and its position is always final in the group. Below are two examples:

[6] The words did not come the same as they *do*.

[7] I don't know the meaning of half of those long words, and, what's more, I don't believe you *do* either.

Clausal substitution is a type of substitution in which what is presupposed is not an element within the clause but an entire clause. The common linguistic items used as substitutes in English are *so* and *not*. Here are two examples:

[8] A: Has David submitted his assignment?
B: I hope *so*.

[9] A: Will she come to the meeting?
B: I think *not.*

2.2.3. Ellipsis

Ellipsis refers to the omission of part of an utterance or grammatical structure, which can be readily understood by the hearer or reader in the co-text of text or context of situation (Wales, 2001, p. 121; see also Galperin, 1981). To put it another way, ellipsis is used in the sense that something is omitted in a structure but the missing part can always be recovered from another structure within a sentence or beyond a sentence (Halliday & Hasan, 1976, p. 143; Hoang, 2006, pp. 78-79). Ellipsis as a cohesive device always appears anaphoric. Like substitution, ellipsis falls into three subtypes: nominal ellipsis, verbal ellipsis, and clausal ellipsis.

Nominal ellipsis refers to omission or ellipse in the nominal group. Nominal ellipsis can be ellipsis of Subject. This type of ellipsis cohesion is commonly found in paratactic clause complex. For example (the symbol [ ] indicates the ellipsed item).

[10] (1) *the guard* shot three dead, and then (2) [ ] got shot dead himself by the other four

[11] (1) *Jack* fell down and (2) [ ] broke his crown …

In the above examples, there are Subject ellipses in [10] (2) and in [11] (2), but they can be retrieved from the previous clauses: *the guard* in [10] (1) and *Jack* in [11] (1).

Nominal ellipsis can also be found in nominal group in English. At experiential level it is typically realised by the structure of Deictic + Numerative + Epithet + Classifier + Thing/Head as in *The* (Deictic) *three* (Numerative) *beautiful* (Epithet) *garden* (Classifier) *flowers* (Thing/Head). When the Thing/Head is omitted, one of the elements in the modifier must take the role of the Thing/Head, but the reader can recover the omitted Thing/Head from the presupposition. Below is an example in point.

[12] A: I like the red *hat*.

B: I prefer the *green* [ ].

In the above example, there is a nominal ellipsis, but it can be retrieved from the previous clause: *hat*. We also notice that *green* which functions as Epithet in the nominal group is now functioning as Head.

Verbal ellipsis refers to omission or ellipse in the verbal group. Since the verbal group in English consists of Finite plus Predicator such as *is* (Finite) *speaking* (Predicator), it follows automatically that any clausal ellipsis in which the Mood element is present but the Residue omitted will involve ellipsis within the verbal group. Below are two examples to illustrate the point.

[13] A: Has Kathy been working hard?

B: Yes, she *has* [ ].

[14] A. What are you doing?

B. [ ] *Dancing*.

The two verbal groups in the answers, *has* (in *Yes, she has*) in [13] B and *Dancing* in [14] B are both instances of verbal ellipse. Both of them can be said to stand for *has been working hard* in [13] B and *am dancing* in [14] B.

Clausal ellipsis takes the presupposing clause as a basic structure where ellipsis occurs in constituents like the Subject, Complement, Predicator and Adjunct. The missing part can be recovered from the corresponding presupposed structure in another clause. Undoubtedly the whole clause can be omitted. Example:

[15] A: Long has gone to Ho Chi Minh City this morning.

B: Has he? He didn't tell me [ ].

In the above example, there is a clausal ellipsis in [15] B, but it can be recovered from the previous clause. Therefore, the clause that is omitted would be *he's gone to Ho Chi Minh City this morning*.

2.2.4. Conjunction

Conjunction differs from reference, substitution, and ellipsis in that it is not a device for reminding the reader or listener of previously mentioned entities, actions, and states of affairs. In other words, it is not what linguists call an anaphoric relation. However, it is a cohesive device because it signals relationships that can only be fully understood through reference to other parts of the discourse.

Conjunctive cohesion in discourse analysis can be studied either in a narrow way in terms of the logical relation between consecutive clauses (clause complex), or in a broad way in terms of the logical relation between consecutive events irrespective of their being two sentences or two clauses in a clause complex. For example:

[16] He was very uncomfortable. *Nevertheless*, he fell asleep.

[17] You need to cleanse the skin well, *then* to use a good cleaner.

Both the examples above show that from what has been said in the first clause or event one can predict what is going to follow next. Such relation is achieved by the use of a conjunction or can be checked by the possibility of its insertion. Among the many types and subtypes of conjunctive relation introduced by Halliday and Hasan (1976), Halliday (1985, 1994) and Halliday and Matthiessen (2014), four are the most common: adversative, additive, temporal, and causal.

The semantic meaning of **adversative relation** is “contrary to expectation”. The expectation may be derived from the content of what is being said or from the communication process, the speaker-hearer situation. For example:

[18] I’m afraid I’ll be home late tonight. *However*, I won’t have to go in until late tomorrow.

[19] All the figures were correct; they’d been checked. *Yet* the total came out wrong.

Adversative sense in English is expressed by a number of words such as *however, yet, although, though, but, in spite of, in contrast, contrary to, adversely, nevertheless, despite.*

Halliday and Hasan (1976, pp. 233-234 and p. 244) suggest that the term **additive** should be distinguished from the term “coordinative”, because coordination in clause/sentence grammar implies the relation of a purely paratactic type, and the position of the two related items are interchangeable in most cases, such as *and* in “Winter has gone *and* spring has come”. But in text grammar, clauses have to succeed one another, it follows that the conjunctive which introduces the second clause always carries the meaning “there is something more to say”. It is no longer paratactic in its proper sense. It is for this reason that the term “additive” is preferable. Additive sense in English is expressed by the conjunctions *and* and *or* (indicating alternative meaning). Below are two examples:

[20] the mail was waylaid by seven robbers, *and* the guard shot three dead, *and* then got shot dead himself by the other four.

[21] Which do you prefer, learning English *or* [ ] French?

The **causal relation** is undoubtedly cohesive in a discoursal environment, as it must consist of two elements, cause and effect. Logically a cause precedes an effect, but in real speech situations, people sometimes start with the effect and then find its root in the cause. In any case, however, the logical relation remains the same; that is to say “because a, then b” has the same value as “b, because a”. Parallel to the causal relationship, there is a conditional relation. While the causal relation is concerned with the real fact(s), the conditional relation mainly deals with the formula "if a, then b", or "b, if a", where the condition "a" functions as the cause implicitly, without which there will be no result. In English the simple form of causal relation is expressed by conjunctive items such as *so, thus, hence, therefore, nevertheless, however, consequently, accordingly,* and a number of conjunctive expressions like *as a result (of that), in consequence (of that), because of that*. Below are three examples of causal relation. The first is marked by *so,* the second by *Thus,* and the third by *Consequently*.

[22] ... she felt that there was no time to be lost, as she was shrinking rapidly; *so* she got to work at once to eat some of the other bit.

[23] …, those two of the large jaws, and those other two of the plain and the fair faces, trod with stir enough, and carried their divine rights with a high hand. *Thus* did the year one thousand seven hundred and seventy-five conduct their greatnesses, and myriads of small creatures - the creatures of this chronicle among the rest – along the roads that lay before them.

[24] She wouldn't have heard it at all, if it hadn't come quite close to her ears. *Consequently,* it tickled her ears very much, and quite took off her thoughts from the unhappiness of the poor little creature.

Clauses in a discourse are also tied together by their **temporal relation**, because a discourse is not a collection of unrelated processes, such as a dictionary of quotations. A discourse must be a unified whole, reflecting the whole process of an episode. Being an episode, the event or the story has to develop in accordance with the sequence of time which falls into three main types of temporal relation: simple temporal relation, complex temporal relation, and conclusive temporal relation.

Simple temporal relation refers to the relation between two events, one of which may be an earlier event and the other the later event (sequential relation). Of course, the two events can occur simultaneously (simultaneous relation), or the second event can refer to the previous event (preceding relation). Temporal markers in a discourse which express this sort of relation are regarded as simple temporal markers. In English, simple temporal markers are *then, next, afterwards, after that, subsequently; (just) then, at the same time, simultaneously; earlier, before, then/that, previously*. Below is an example of simple temporal relation which is realised by *Then*.

[25] The alarm goes off at 4.30. I get up and go and wake Warren. *Then* I go downstairs, make some tea, and take a cup up to Warren.

With ***complex temporal relation***, the meaning is more specific, often in conjunction with some addition elements. Temporal relations may be immediate, interrupted, repetitive, specific, durative, terminal, and punctiliar. These relations are realised by conjunctives such as *at once, on which, just before, after a time, next time, this time, on this occasion, next day, all this time, by this time, until then, next moment,* etc. Below is an example of complex temporal relation:

[26] The weather cleared just as the party approached the summit. *Until then* they had seen nothing of the panorama around them.

Conclusive relation differs from those above in the sense that it is one-directional; i.e., the event is subsequent to all events in a particular passage. In English this type of temporal relation is realised by conjunctives such as *finally, at last, in the end, eventually, in short, until, at length, briefly, to resume,* etc. Below is an example of conclusive temporal relation.

[27] It was the best of times, it was the worst of times, it was the age of wisdom, it was the age of foolishness, […] – *in short*, the period was so far like the present period, that some of its

noisiest authorities insisted on its being received, for good or evil, in the superlative degree of comparison only.

2.3. Lexical Cohesion

The concept of lexical cohesion was first advanced in terms of collocation by Firth (1957) and was developed in some detail by Halliday (1961, 1966, and elsewhere). Lexical cohesion occurs when two words in a discourse are semantically related in some way. Halliday and Hasan (1976) recognise two major categories of lexical cohesion: reiteration and collocation.

2.3.1. Reiteration

Reiteration refers to "a form of lexical cohesion which involves the repetition of a lexical item at one end of the scale, the use of a general word to refer back to a lexical item, at the other end of the scale" (Halliday & Hasan, 1976, p. 278). Under reiteration, six categories are identified, namely, repetition, synonymy, superordinate-hyponymy, meronymy, antonymy, and general words.

Repetition refers to the same lexical item with the same meaning occurring more than one in the same discourse. It is a stylistic device that writers employ to "reinforce the message" (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2014, p. 463) or "to fix the attention of the reader on the key-word of the utterance" (Galperin, 1981, p. 211). Below are two examples to show the repetition of the verb *tilted* and the adverb *again* in [28], and the noun *period* in [29].

[28] "You get me a file." He *tilted* me *again*. "And you get me wittles." He *tilted* me *again*. "You bring 'em both to me". He *tilted* me *again*.

[29] the *period* was so far like the present *period*

Synonymy refers to the relation between different words bearing the same meaning or nearly the same (identical) meaning for a particular person, object, process or quality. In example [30] below, *sound* is synonymous with *noise*, and *cavalry* with *horses*.

[30] He was just wondering which road to take when he was startled by a *sound* from behind him. It was the *noise* of trotting *horses* ... He dismounted and led his horse as quickly as he could along the right–hand road. The sound of the *cavalry* grew rapidly nearer...

It is commonly accepted that superordinate is concerned with class and subclass relation, and meronymy is with part and whole relation. Both constitute a set of choices under the taxonomic. The first relation can be termed **superordinate–hyponymy** and the second one, **meronymy**.

The main idea of superordinate–hyponymy is 'inclusion'; that is, a lower term – the hyponym – is included in an upper term – the superordinate. The relation between the two lower terms is that of co–hyponym. [31] and [32] are instances of superordinate–hyponym and co–hyponym relations.

[31] *animal*	*dog, cat, bear, monkey*
[32] *vehicle*	*car, bus, coach, motorbike*

In meronymy, the relation between two parts is one of co–meronym. Instances of meronym and co–meronym relations are exemplified in [33] and [34].

[33] *door, driving wheel, headlight, brake*	*car*
[34] *top, branch, limb, root, trunk*	*tree*

Antonymy "involves opposition between two terms" (Hasan, 1996, p. 193). In other words, it refers to a contrast between two word items which can be expected. Antonymy can be further divided into contrary, complementary, relational opposite and ordered series.

Contrary relation refers to those pairs of opposites that are gradable as *best* and *worst* in

[35] It was the *best* of times, it was the *worst* of times.

Complementary relation consists of a set of only two opposites. Thus, the denial of one implies the assertion of the other, and the assertion of one implies the denial of the other. The two expressions *everything – nothing* in [36] and *win – lose* in [37] are the examples in point.

[36] We had *everything* before us, we had *nothing* before us

[37] Everybody knows that an army can be bribed to *win*, but nobody seems to have thought of bribing it to *lose* a battle.

Relational opposite relation is concerned with two opposite words which are mutually dependent and co–existent. Examples are *mob – musketeers* in [38] and *doctor – patient* in [39].

[38] The *mob* fired on the *musketeers*, and the *musketeers* fired on the *mob.*

[39] He is a *doctor* and she is a *patient.*

Finally, antonymy can be expressed in terms of ***ordered series***. Each item in the series is against the others, but there are more than two opposites and each item is arranged in rank or in order. As a result, they are non–gradable. Examples are *spring – winter* in [40], and *eight – nine* in [41].

[40] It was the *spring* of hope, it was the *winter* of despair.

[41] It was *eight* o'clock, er, no, *nine* – that's it, *nine* o'clock, Sir.

General words. In the lexis system of every language, there is a class of general nouns, which have generalised reference within the major noun classes, such as "human noun": people, person, man, woman, child, boy, girl, "object noun": thing, object, "place noun": Hanoi, London, Paris. These items are often neglected in the descriptions of not only English but also of other languages, but they play a significant part in verbal interaction, and are also an important source of cohesion particularly in the spoken language (Halliday, 1966, Halliday & Hasan, 1976). The following examples illustrate the cohesive function of general words.

[42] A: Didn't everyone in our class make it clear they expected the *class monitor* to resign?
B: They did. But it seems to have made no impression on the *guy*.

[43] A: Did you try *pho* (phở) when you visited Vietnam?
B: Yes, I did. I liked the *thing* very much.

In [42], *guy* in the second move is the general noun for human. It includes the specific noun *class monitor* in the first move and is semantically related to it anaphorically. In the same way, in [43], *thing* in the second move is the general noun for object. It includes the specific noun *pho* in the second move and is semantically related to it anaphorically.

2.3.2. Lexical Collocation

Collocation refers to lexical cohesion that is achieved through the association of lexical items that regularly co–occur. Collocation does not depend on taxonomic organisation of word items, because many word items belong to classes other than nouns, such as verbs, adjectives and adverbs, which are difficult to organise taxonomically. Under collocation, three subtypes are recognised: resultative, modificational, and contextual.

Resultative collocation refers to the relation of one item leading to the outcome of another item such as *kill – die, rain – wet, dark – night, praise – please, river – flow, wind – blow, chair – sit*, etc. **Modificational collocation** is concerned with the relation holding between an item and one of its inherent qualities; e.g., *run – fast, bright – sun, dark – night, clear – voice, face – pale, rain – heavy, thunder – loud*, etc. **Contextual collocation** differs from the resultative collocation in that the word items do not represent a cause–effect relation, but expectation can be made between the process and the participant. The words concerned are merely nouns and verbs. Examples are *house – build, assets – go bankrupt, doctor – examine, teacher – teach/explain, bishop – preach,* etc. Apart from this, the relation of things or objects that tend to occur together in the contextual situation can also be included under this heading. For example: *car – driver, river – bank, ship – yard, study – books, read – newspapers, withdraw – deposit/interest*, etc.

Halliday and Hasan (1976, p. 288 and elsewhere) and Nunan (1993, 1999) note that due to the complexity of the concept, collocation can cause major problems for the discourse researcher because it includes all those items in a discourse that are semantically related. In some cases, this makes it difficult to decide for certain whether a cohesive relationship exists or not. They point out that the main problem is that collocation is expressed through open rather than closed class items. Furthermore, there is no limit to the items that can be used to express collocation. This means that it is difficult to establish sets of regularly co–occurring words and phrases. An additional problem is the fact that many lexical relationships are text– as well as context–bound. This means that words and phrases that are related in one text may not be related in another. For example, the words *cat* and *friend* can hardly be said to contract a significant cohesive relation. However, in the following example they are synonymous or cohesive by means of co-synonymy.

[44] My wife bought a nice little *cat* last month. The *cat* is now her best *friend*.

Given this text-bound nature of many lexical relationships, it is impossible to develop a finite list of relatable lexical items in English. However, despite its problematic nature, lexical cohesion is, in many ways, the most interesting of all the cohesive categories (Halliday & Hasan, 1976; Nunan, 1993, 1999; Hoang, 2006). The background knowledge of the reader plays a more obvious role in the perception of lexical relationships than in the perception of other types of cohesion. This is because collocation patterns will only be perceived by someone who knows something about the subject at hand. The text-bound nature of many lexical relations, and the role of the language user in perceiving these, creates a problem for the linguist concerned with providing a semantic account of lexical cohesion.

3. Research Design and Methodology

This study employs a descriptive qualitative-quantitative research method which can be reflected in the subsections that follow.

3.1. Aim of Study and Research Questions

The overarching aim of this study is to uncover salient textual cohesion resources Charles Dickens deploys to achieve cohesive effect or texture of his text, using Halliday and Hasan's (1976) TCM developed in their *Cohesion in English* as the analytical framework. To achieve the above aim, the study sets for itself two questions for exploration:

- What textual cohesion resources does Charles Dickens utilise in the creation of texture of his text?
- How does Charles Dickens utilise those textual cohesion resources to construct texture of his text?

3.2. Data Collection, Data Analysis and Notational Conventions

The data collected for analysis is Chapter 1 entitled “The Period” of “Book the First” of the three-book novel *A Tale of Two Cities* by the eminent British novelist Charles Dickens. The version of the novel taken for analysis was published in 2003 by CRW Publishing Limited. For analytical purposes, the chapter under study is referred to as text.

Data analysis began by careful reading the text several times to ensure a comprehensive grasp of the content. During the reading process, special attention was paid to identifying tokens of textual cohesion resources utilised in the construction of texture or textual cohesion meanings of the text.

Cohesion is a vast and complex concept, covering so many areas of text meanings. Within the scope of this paper, the analysis of the text is limited to the following aspects: (1) analysis for base-line information of the text which includes the total running words of the text, the number of paragraphs of the text, and the number of clause simplexes of the text; (2) analysis of grammatical cohesion which includes reference, substitution, ellipsis, and conjunction occurrences deployed in the text; and (3) analysis of lexical cohesion which includes repetition, synonym, antonym, superordinate-hyponym and meronym occurrences deployed in the text.

Instances of the analysed aspects are counted, frequency of each feature is obtained by number and, where possible, in proportion in relation to its relevant total, and percentage is rounded to the nearest figure. Findings are displayed in tables, and discussion of the prominent textual cohesion features realising texture or textual cohesion meanings of the text is provided.

The notational conventions used for analysis of the text are provided as follows: Clause simplex boundary is indicated by two vertical strokes: ||; and numbers of clause simplexes are indicated by Arabic numerals placed immediately before the clause wording: || (1), || (2), || (3), and so on (see Appendix). For example,

> || (17) There were a king with a large jaw and a queen with a plain face, on the throne of England; || (18) there were a king with a large jaw and a queen with a fair face, on the throne of France. || (19) In both countries it was clearer than crystal to the lords of the State preserves of loaves and fishes, || (20) that things in general were settled for ever. ||

4. Findings and Discussion

4.1. Base-line Information

Findings of base-line information of the text can be summarised in Table 1.

Table 1

Base-line information

- Number of total running words:	1019
- Number of paragraphs:	6
- Number of clause simplexes:	80
- Number of finite clause simplexes:	63
- Number of non-finite clause simplexes:	17

Table 1 shows that the number of total running words of the text is 1019; and the text consists of 6 paragraphs, 80 clause simplexes which consists of 63 finite clause simplexes and 17 non-finite clause simplexes. Further findings existing in the text which are not shown in the table will be brought out in the analysis of the relevant sections that follow.

4.2. The Texture of the Text

Analysis for the texture of the text includes analysis of grammatical cohesion and analysis of lexical cohesion.

4.2.1. Grammatical Cohesion of the Text

Our analysis of the text shows that there are virtually no ellipses and substitutions. The analysis, therefore, will focus on two remaining cohesive resources: reference and conjunction.

4.2.1.1. Reference

Our analysis starts with Table 2 where we will present a detailed account of all types of reference found in the text except the definite article *the* which will be treated in a separate section (in 4.3.1.2). To facilitate further analysis and discussion, Table 2 is divided into six columns. The first column indicates cohesive devices (cohesive resources), the second column provides interpretative sources, the third column presents phoric or tie status of the device, the fourth column gives chain information which is stated in terms of the address of the preceding or following clause simplex(es) in the same chain, the fifth column presents the number of tokens deployed in each chain, and the final column provides the number of cohesive ties of each chain. Note that when the tie is exophoric, a blank is entered in the second column and is not counted in the fifth and sixth columns.

Table 2

Reference Resources Deployed in the Text

Cohesive device	Interpretative source	Phoric status	Chain	No. of tokens	No. of ties
it	period	endo: anaphoric	(10)-(9)-(8)-(7)-(6)-(5)-(4)-(3)-(2)-(1)	10	9
we		exophoric	(11)		
we		exophoric	(12)		
we		exophoric	(13)		
we		exophoric	(14)		
its (noisiest authorities)	period	endo: anaphoric	(16)-(15)	2	1
it		exophoric	(19)		
it		exophoric	(21)		
that (favoured period)	1775	endo: anaphoric	(22)-(21)	2	1
this (period)	the present period	endo: cataphoric	(22)-(15)	2	1
her (birthday)	Mrs. Southscott	endo: anaphoric	(23)-(23)	2	1
its (message)	Cock Lane ghost	endo: anaphoric	(26)-(25)	2	1
theirs (their messages)	spirits	endo: anaphoric	(27)-(27)	2	1
her (sister)	England	endo: anaphoric	(30)-(30)	2	1
her (… pastors)	France	endo: anaphoric	(33)-(30)	2	1

she	France	endo: anaphoric	(33)-(30)	2	1
his (hands)	youth	endo: anaphoric	(33)-(33)	2	1
his (tongue)	youth	endo: anaphoric	(33)-(33)	2	1
his (body)	youth	endo: anaphoric	(33)-(33)	2	1
he	youth	endo: anaphoric	(34)-(33)	2	1
his (view)	youth	endo: anaphoric	(35)-(33)	2	1
It		exophoric	(36)		
it	movable framework	endo: anaphoric	(37)-(37)	2	1
It		exophoric	(38)		
his (tumbrils…)	farmer	endo: anaphoric	(39)-(39)	2	1
that (woodman)	woodman	endo: anaphoric	(40)-(37)	2	1
that (farmer)	farmer	endo: anaphoric	(40)-(39)	2	1
they	woodman & farmer	endo: anaphoric	(41)-(40)-(39)-(37)	4	3
them	woodman & farmer	endo: anaphoric	(42)-(40)-(39)-(37)	4	3
they	woodman & farmer	endo: anaphoric	(43)-(40)-(39)-(37)	4	3
their (furniture)	families	endo: anaphoric	(48)-(47)	2	1
his (fellow-tradesmen)	highwayman	endo: anaphoric	(51)-(49)	2	1
he	highwayman	endo: anaphoric	(51)-(49)	2	1
his (character)	highwayman	endo: anaphoric	(51)-(49)	2	1
him	Fellow-tradesman	endo: anaphoric	(52)-(51)	2	1
his (ammunition)	guard	endo: anaphoric	(56)-(55)	2	1
that (potentate)	Lord Mayor of London	endo: cataphoric	(58)-(58)	2	1
his (retinue)	Lord Mayor of London	endo: anaphoric	(59)-(58)	2	1
their (turn-keys)	prisoners in London	endo: anaphoric	(60)-(60)	2	1
these	things	endo: cataphoric	(75)-(75)	2	1
them	all these things	endo: anaphoric	(75)-(75)	2	1
them	all these things	endo: anaphoric	(76)-(75)	2	1
those	king of England & king of France	endo: anaphoric	(78)-(18)-(17)	3	2
those	queen of England & queen of France	endo: anaphoric	(78)-(18)-(17)	3	2
their (divine rights)	king & queen of England & France	endo: anaphoric	(79)-(78)-(18)-(17)	4	3
Their (greatnesses)	–	endo: anaphoric	(80)-(78)-(18)-(17)	4	3
this	chronicle	endo: cataphoric	(80)-(80)	2	
them	creatures	endo: anaphoric	(80)-(80)	2	1
48		**48**	**40**	**100**	**59**

A cursory look at Table 2 will quickly reveal three noticeable points. First, both pronominals and demonstratives are deployed in the text, making the total number of 48 items. Second, these pronominals and demonstratives are used in two phoric functions: endophoric (which includes anaphoric and cataphoric), and exophoric. And third, the number of cohesive chains deployed in the text is 40 involving 100 tokens, making the total number of 59 cohesive ties.

A closer examination of Columns 1, 3, 4, and 6 shows four important findings. First, of the 48 cohesive devices found in Column 1, 39 are pronominals accounting for 81.2 per cent (of which the number of pronouns is 20/39 making up 51.2 per cent, the number of possessive adjectives is 18/39 accounting for 46.1 per cent, and the number of possessive pronouns is 1/39 accounting for only 2.5 per cent), and 9 are pronominal demonstratives accounting for 18.8 per cent. Second, in terms of phoric status, of the two types of reference found in Column 3, the number of endophoric references predominates: 40/48 accounting for 83.3 per cent v. 8/48 exophoric references accounting for 16.6 per cent. Third, of 40 cohesive chains in Column 4, 32 consist of 2 tokens accounting for 80 per cent, 2 consist of three tokens accounting for 5 per cent, 5 consist of 4 tokens making up 12.5 per cent, and 1, which is the longest chain, consists of 10 tokens making up 2.5 per cent. Of particular interest regarding this chain is that all the 10 tokens are the third impersonal pronoun *it* referring backwards or anaphorically to the definite nominal group title "The Period". And finally, the total number of the grammatical cohesive ties deployed in the text is 59, and if we want to calculate the total number of the grammatical cohesive ties over the total number of 80 clause simplexes of the text, we will obtain an approximate ratio of 0.73 tie/clause. These findings are summarised in Table 3.

Table 3

References Deployed in the Text

	Number	Percentage
Cohesive device:	48	100
Pronominal:	39	81.2
Demonstrative:	9	18.8
Phoric status:	48	100
Endophoric reference:	40	83.3
Exophoric reference:	8	16.6
Chain:	40	100
Two-token chain:	32	80.0
Three-token chain:	2	5.0
Four-token chain:	5	12.5
Ten-token chain:	1	2.5
Clause simplexes:	80	
Cohesive ties:	59	
Ratio of tie/clause simplex:	59/80	0.73

A note on the use of *it* and *we*. In Table 2 we notice 15 occurrences of the third impersonal pronoun *it*: in (1), (2), (3), (4), (5), (6), (7), (8), (9), (10), (19), (21), (36), (37), (38), and 4 occurrences of the first plural personal pronoun *we*: in (11), (12), (13), (14). All of them function as Subject in these clause simplexes. What is of interest here is that of the 15 occurrences of *it*, only 11: in (1), (2), (3), (4), (5), (6), (7), (8), (9), (10), (37) have an anaphoric function and contribute to the texture of the text. The remaining 4 occurrences of *it*: in (19), (21), (36), (38) and the 4 occurrences of *we* have a "generalised exophoric use in which the referent is treated as being as it were immanent in all contexts of situation" (Halliday & Hasan, 1976, p. 53), and thus do not contribute to the texture of the text.

4.2.1.2. The Use of 'the' in the Text

79 occurrences of the definite article *the* are found in the text, making up 7.7 per cent of the total running words. This noticeable ratio suggests that *the* deserves a separate treatment.

Among the specific determiners in English, the definite article *the* is one of the most commonly used words (Katies, 2001, p. 98; see also Collins Cobuild, 2000). According to (Halliday & Hasan, 1976, pp. 70-71), in many grammars of English the definite article *the* has always been set apart as a unique member of a class; its only relative is the indefinite article *a*; and no other items in English behaves exactly like *the*. On the one hand it has important similarities with a whole group of other items (specific as well as non-specific determiners). An examination of *the* reveals that in many ways, it resembles the demonstratives *this*, *that*, *these*, *those*, from one of which it is derived. Halliday and Hasan (1976) suggest that *the* is originally a reduced form of *that*, functioning only as a modifier, in the same way that *a* is the reduced form of *one* likewise restricted to the modifier function. Essentially *the*, like the demonstratives, is a specifying agent, serving to identify a particular individual or subclass within the class designated by the noun, but it does it only through dependence on something else because it contains no specifying of its own. In a similar manner, Babarash (1975, p. 21) also maintains that both *a* and *the* have originated from pronouns: *a* has developed from the Old English numeral *an* (one) which later acquired the meaning of an indefinite article, and *the* has developed from the Old English demonstrative pronoun *that* and in some cases it has preserved this demonstrative meaning in modern English.

Halliday and Hasan (1976) show that the main difference between *the* and other specific determiners (*this, that, these, those, here*, *there*) is that while all other specific determiners are semantically selective such as *my room, his book*, and *their pens* indicating person's possession – the item is identified as present in someone's possession, and *book here* and *pens there* indicating proximity – the item is identified as present in the environment, and more or less, remote, *the* is not – it is a semantically non-selective item. Further, the definite article *the* has no content; it merely indicates that the item in question is specific and identifiable, that somewhere the information necessary for identifying is recoverable. The environment in which *the* occurs may be situational or textual. When it is situational, it is said to be exophoric and this form of specification makes no contribution to the texture of text; by contrast when it is textual, it is said to be endophoric and this form of specification becomes cohesive.

When *the* is exophoric, the item (the noun or nominal group immediately following it) can be interpreted in one of two ways. (1) A particular individual or subclass is being referred to, and that individual or subclass is identifiable in the specific situation or environment. Examples are *the wine* in *Please pass the wine* (= the wine on the table) and *the garden* in *Mai is in the garden* (= the garden of this house/hotel). All immediate situational instances of *the* are exophoric in this way: *mind the step, where is the book, the children are singing in the room*, etc. And (2) The referent is identifiable on extralinguistic grounds no matter what the situation. This occurs under two specific conditions. First, it may occur because there exists only one member of the class of objects referred to; e.g. *the sun*, *the moon*, *the sky*; or, at least, one member which will be assumed in the absence of specific indication to the contrary, for example, *the country* (= our country or the country both you [the hearer] and I (the speaker] know), *the boy* (= our boy or the boy both you [the hearer] and I (the speaker] know). Secondly, it may be because the reference is the whole class, e.g. *the stars*; or the individuals considered as a representative of the whole class like *The verb* in *The verb is a part of speech denoting an action* and *the mail* in *the mail was waylaid by seven robbers*. Halliday and Hasan (1976, p. 71) call this type of exophoric reference which does not depend on the specific situation 'HOMOPHORIC' to distinguish it from the situationally specific type.

When *the* is endophoric, its identification lies in the text with two possibilities: reference forward or cataphoric reference and reference backward or anaphoric reference. Cataphoric reference *the* is limited to the structural type. Unlike the selective demonstratives *this*, *these*, and *here*, *the* can never be forward cohesively beyond the clause boundary (Halliday & Hasan, 1976, p. 72). It can only refer to a modifying element within the same nominal group (the interpretative source form part of the same nominal group in which the cataphoric *the* occurs; and its structural function is normally that of Qualifier) as *her Christian pastors* in *the guidance of her Christian pastors* and *France and Norway* in *the woods of France and Norway*.

Anaphoric reference *the* is the only one condition in which *the* is cohesive beyond the clause boundary. The clearest instances of this are those in which the item is actually repeated as *The tree* and *a tree* in

[45] There is *a tree* in the garden. *The tree* is an oak.

Often the reference is a synonym or near-synonym, or to some other item which by its connotations provides a target for the anaphora. An example of this is *the highwayman* and *the Captain* in

[46] *the highwayman* in the dark was a City tradesman in the light, and, being recognised and challenged by his fellow-tradesman whom he stopped in his character of *the Captain*.

Halliday and Hasan (1976, p. 73) claim that in most other varieties of spoken and written English, the predominant function of *the* is cataphoric.

We now turn to look at the definite article *the* and its functions in creating texture of the text. A detailed account of *the* is given in Table 4. The table is divided into five columns. The first column lists the occurrences of *the* and the nouns or the nominal groups it modifies, the second column provides the address or the clause number in which *the* occurs, the third column enunciates interpretative sources and reference chains, the fourth column states the phoric status of *the* in terms of endophoric (which includes anaphoric and cataphoric) and exophoric references, and the fifth column provides information about the number of cohesive ties.

Table 4

Analysis of 'the' and its Functions in the Text

Occurrence of *the*	**Address**	**Interpretative source**	**Phoric status**	**No. of ties**
the best	(1)	of times	endo: cataphoric	1
the worst	(2)	of times	endo: cataphoric	1
the age	(3)	of wisdom	endo: cataphoric	1
the age	(4)	of foolishness	endo: cataphoric	1
the epoch	(5)	of belief	endo: cataphoric	1
the epoch	(6)	of incredulity	endo: cataphoric	1
the season	(7)	of Light	endo: cataphoric	1
the season	(8)	of Darkness	endo: cataphoric	1
the spring	(9)	of hope	endo: cataphoric	1
the winter	(10)	of despair	endo: cataphoric	1
the superlative degree	(16)	of comparison	endo: cataphoric	1
the thrown	(17)	of England	endo: cataphoric	1
the thrown	(18)	of France	endo: cataphoric	1
the lords	(19)	of the state	endo: cataphoric	1
the State preserves	(19)	of loaves of fishes	endo: cataphoric	1
the year	(21)	of Our Lords	endo: cataphoric	1
the swallowing up	(24)	of London	endo: cataphoric	1

the spirit	(27)	of this year last past	endo: cataphoric	1
the earthly order	(28)	of events	endo: cataphoric	1
the chickens	(29)	of the Cock Lane brood	endo: cataphoric	1
the guidance	(33)	of her Christian pastors	endo: cataphoric	1
the woods	(37)	of France and Norway	endo: cataphoric	1
the rough outhouses	(39)	of some tillers	endo: cataphoric	1
the heavy lands	(39)	adjacent to Paris	endo: cataphoric	1
the weather	(39)	that everyday	endo: cataphoric	1
the farmer	(39)	death,…	endo: cataphoric	1
the highwayman	(49)	in the dark	endo: cataphoric	1
the failure	(56)	of his ammunition	endo: cataphoric	1
the Lord Mayer	(58)	of London	endo: cataphoric	1
the illustrious creature	(59)	in sight of all this retinue	endo: cataphoric	1
the majesty	(61)	of law	endo: cataphoric	1
the necks	(62)	of noble lords	endo: cataphoric	1
the mist	(68)	of them	endo: cataphoric	1
the hangman	(68)	ever busy and… than useless	endo: cataphoric	1
the door	(72)	of Westminster Hall	endo: cataphoric	1
the life	(73)	of an atrocious murderer	endo: cataphoric	1
the creature	(80)	of this chronicle	endo: cataphoric	1
the roads	(80)	that lay before them	endo: cataphoric	1
the period	(15)	'The Period' in the title	endo: cataphoric	1
the Cock Lane	(29)	'Cock Lane' in (25)	endo: cataphoric	1
the woodman	(37)	'woods' in (37)	endo: cataphoric	1
the Captain	(51)	'highwayman' in (49)	endo: cataphoric	1
the other four	(56)	'seven robbers' in (54)	endo: cataphoric	1
the mail	(57)	'the mail' in (54)	endo: cataphoric	1
the mob	(66)	'the mob' in (65)	endo: cataphoric	1
the musketeers	(66)	'musketeers' in (63)-(65)	endo: cataphoric	2
the dear old year 1775	(75)	'1775' in (21)	endo: cataphoric	1
the woodman	(77)	'the woodman' in (37)	endo: cataphoric	1
the farmer	(77)	'the famer' in (39)	endo: cataphoric	1
the large jaws	(78)	'a large jaw' in (17)-(18)	endo: cataphoric	2
the plain face	(78)	'a plain face' in (17)	endo: cataphoric	1
the fair face	(78)	'a fair face' in (18)	endo: cataphoric	2
the year 1775	(80)	'1775' in (75)-(21)	endo: cataphoric	2
The period	(title)	in situation	exophoric	
the other way	(14)	in situation	exophoric	
the present period	(15)	in situation	exophoric	
the Life Guards	(24)	in situation	exophoric	
the sublime appearance	(24)	in situation	exophoric	
the Cock Lane ghost	(25)	in situation	exophoric	
the English Crown	(28)	in situation	exophoric	
the human race	(29)	in situation	exophoric	

the whole	(30)	in situation	exophoric	
the shield and trident	(30)	in situation	exophoric	
the rain	(34)	in situation	exophoric	
the Revolution	(39)	in situation	exophoric	
The rather	(42)	in situation	exophoric	
the capital itself	(46)	in situation	exophoric	
the dark	(49)	in situation	exophoric	
the light	(49)	in situation	exophoric	
the head	(52)	in situation	exophoric	
the mail	(54)	in situation	exophoric	
the guard	(55)	in situation	exophoric	
the law	(61)	in situation	exophoric	
the mob	(65)	in situation	exophoric	
the common way	(67)	in situation	exophoric	
the hangman	(68)	in situation	exophoric	
the hand	(71)	in situation	exophoric	
the dozen	(71)	in situation	exophoric	
the rest	(80)	in situation	exophoric	
79			**79 (53 en +26 ex)**	**57**

Analysis in Table 4 reveals three noticeable features. First, of 79 occurrences or tokens of *the* found in the text, 53 are endophoric accounting for 67 per cent, and 26 are exophoric accounting for 33 per cent. Second, a detailed analysis of the endophoric references in the text shows that between cataphoric and anaphoric references, cataphoric references predominate: 38/53 accounting for 71.6 per cent v. 15/53 anaphoric references accounting for 28.3 per cent. And third, analysis in Columns 1 and 5 shows that 53 tokens of endophoric *the* form 57 cohesive ties.

Putting Table 2 and Table 4 together, we can summarise the main findings of cohesive devices utilised in the text in Table 5.

Table 5

Cohesive Devices Deployed in the Text

	Table 2	**Table 4**	**Total**	**Percentage**
Cohesive device:	48	79	127	100
Pronominal:	39	0	39	30.7
Demonstrative:	9	79	88	69.3
Phorus status:	48	79	127	100
Endophoric reference:	40	53	93	73.2
Exophoric reference:	8	26	34	26.7
Number of cohesive ties:	69	57	116	
Ratio of tie/clause:			116/80	1.45

Three points stand out from Table 5. First, between pronominal and demonstrative devices, demonstrative devices take the lead: 88/127 accounting for 69.3 per cent v. 39/127 pronominal devices accounting for 30.7 per cent. Second, between endophoric and exophoric references, endophoric reference predominates: 93/127 accounting for 73.2 per cent v. 34/127 exophoric tokens accounting for 26.7 per cent. And third, the ratio of the number of cohesive ties/the number of clause simplexes of the text is 1.45.

4.2.1.3. Conjunctive Cohesion

For purposes of this study, the analysis of conjunctive relations will focus on four main devices: additive, temporal, adversative and projecting (referring to a conjunctive relation established between a projecting and a projected clause in a reporting clause complex). Findings are given in Table 6.

Table 6

Conjunctive Devices Deployed in the Text

Types of conjunctive devices	Conjunctive devices	Address	No. of tokens	No. of ties
Additive	and	(32)	1	1
	and	(50)	1	1
	and	(51)	1	1
	and	(53)	1	1
	and	(55)	1	1
	and	(61)	1	1
	and	(65)	1	1
	and	(66)	1	1
	and	(78)	1	1
	and	(79)	1	1
Temporal	in short	(15)	1	1
	and then	(56)	1	1
	now	(69)	1	1
	now	(70)	1	1
	now	(71)	1	1
	and now	(72)	1	1
	today	(73)	1	1
	and tomorrow	(74)	1	1
Causal	so…that (15)–(16)	(15)–(16)	1	1
	because (43)	(43)	1	1
	Thus (79)	(79)	1	1
Adversative	But	(40)	1	1
	though	(41)	1	1
	and	(42)	1	1
	and	(67)	1	1
Projecting	that	(20)	1	1
	that	(37)	1	1
	that	(39)	1	1
Total	**28**		**28**	**28**

Table 6 shows that the total number of conjunctive devices/tokens utilised in the text is 28, making up 28 cohesive ties. A closer inspection reveals that of 28 conjunctive devices, the number of additive relations takes the largest number: 10/28 accounting for 35.7 per cent. Ranked second is the number of temporal relations: 8/28 accounting for 28.5 per cent, followed by the number of adversative relations: 4/28 accounting for 14.3 per cent and the number of causal relations: 3/27 accounting for 10.7 per cent; and bottomed the list is the number of projecting relations: 3/27 accounting for 10.7 per cent.

Three points are of notice here. First, all 10 additive relations are realised by the conjunction *and*. They are found to occur in clause complexes of expansion: extension type.

[47], [48], and [49] are the examples in point.

[47] … || (31) making paper money || (32) *and* spending it. ||

[48] … || (54) the mail was waylaid by seven robbers, || (55) *and* the guard shot three dead, || (56) *and* then got shot dead himself by the other four, 'in consequence of the failure of his ammunition': ||

[49] … ||| (63) musketeers went into St Giles's, || (64) to search for contraband goods, || (65) *and* the mob fired on the musketeers, || (66) *and* the musketeers fired on the mob, || (67) *and* nobody thought any of these occurrences much out of the common way. |||

Second, most temporal relations are found in clause complexes of expansion: enhancement type. They are of three main subtypes: simple temporal relation, simple temporal relation: conclusive, and simple additional temporal relation: consequential. [50], [51], and [52] are the examples in point:

[50] || (69) now, stringing up long rows of miscellaneous criminals; || (70) *now*, hanging a housebreaker on Saturday who had been taken on Tuesday; [simple temporal relation]

[51] || (15) – *in short*, the period was so far like the present period, || (16) that some of its noisiest authorities insisted on its being received, for good or evil, in the superlative degree of comparison only. || [simple temporal relation: conclusive]

[52] || (69) now, stringing up long rows of miscellaneous criminals; || (70) now, hanging a housebreaker on Saturday who had been taken on Tuesday; || (71) now, burning people in the hand at Newgate by the dozen, || (72) *and now* burning pamphlets at the door of Westminster Hall; || [simple additional temporal relation: consequential]

And third, in all three clause complexes of projection, the projecting conjunction *that* is used after the adjectives *clearer* in (19), *likely* in (36), and *likely* in (38). Its function is to connect the projecting clauses with the projected ones.

[53] ||| (19) In both countries it was clearer than crystal to the lords of the State preserves of loaves and fishes, || (20) *that* things in general were settled for ever. |||

[54] ||| (36) It is likely enough || (37) *that*, rooted in the woods of France and Norway, there were growing trees, when that sufferer was put to death, already marked by the Woodman, fate, to come down and be sawn into boards, to make a certain movable framework with a sack and a knife in it, terrible in history. |||

[55] ||| (38) It is likely enough || (39) *that* in the rough outhouses of some tillers of the heavy lands adjacent to Paris, there were sheltered from the weather that very day, rude carts, bespattered with rustic mire, snuffed about by pigs, and roosted in by poultry, which the farmer, death, had already set apart to be his tumbrils of the Revolution. |||

4.2.2. Lexical Cohesion

As regards the importance of lexical cohesion in forming texture of text, Halliday and Hasan have this to say:

> However luxuriant the grammatical cohesion displayed in any piece of discourse, it will not form a text unless it is matched by cohesive patterning of a lexical kind' (Halliday & Hasan, 1976, p. 292).

Lexical cohesion analysis of the text focuses on five main devices: repetition, synonymy, antonymy, superordinate-hyponymy, and meronymy. It should be noted that a given occurrence of one lexical token might have any two or three functions at the same time; i.e., it can have repetition, synonymy, and meronymy functions at the same time. For purposes of this paper, however, we will deal with each function separately. Table 7 presents a detailed analysis of the lexical cohesive devices found in the text. The first column enunciates the types of lexical cohesive devices; the second lists lexical cohesive devices and the address or the clause number in which the device occurs; the third gives the number of tokens deployed in each lexical cohesive device, and the fourth column provides the number of cohesive ties.

Table 7

Lexical Cohesive Resources Deployed in the Text

Types of lexical cohesive devices	Lexical cohesive devices	Number of tokens	Number of ties
Repetition	times (2) – times (1)	2	1
	age (4) – age (3)	2	1
	epoch (6) – epoch (5)	2	1
	season (8) – season (7)	2	1
	going (14) – going (13)	2	1
	direct (14) – direct (13)	2	1
	king (18) – king (17)	2	1
	queen (18) – queen (17)	2	1
	large (18) – large (17)	2	1
	throne (18) – throne (17)	2	1
	jaw (18) – jaw (17)	2	1
	face (18) – face (17)	2	1
	period (21) – period (15) – Period (title)	3	2
	rapping out (27) – wrapping out (26)	2	1
	messages (28) – messages (27)	2	1
	Cock Lane (29) – Cock Lane (25)	2	1
	spiritual (30) – spiritual (22)	2	1
	likely (37) – likely (36)	2	1
	enough (37) – enough (36)	2	1
	France (37) – France (30) – France (18)	3	2
	farmer (40) – farmer (39)	2	1
	worked (41) – worked (41)	2	1
	England (44) – England (22) – England (17)	3	2
	mail (56) – mail (54)	2	1
	London (60) – London (58) – London (24)	3	2
	highwayman (58) – highwayman (49)	2	1
	fired (66) – fired (65)	2	1
	mob (66) – mob (65)	2	1
	musketeers (66) – musketeers (65)	2	1
	robbed (74) – robbed (57)	2	1
	shot (56) – shot (55) – shot (54) – shot (53)	4	3
	woodman (77) – woodman (40) – Woodman (37)	3	2
	farmer (77) – farmer (40) – famer (39)	3	2
	worked (77) – worked (41) – worked (41)	3	2
	jaws (78) – jaw (18) – jaw (17)	3	2
	large (78) – large (18) – large (17)	3	2
	plain (78) – plain (17)	2	1
	fair (78) – fair (18)	2	1
	face (78) – face (18) – face (17)	3	2
	1775 (80) – 1775 (75) – 1775 (21)	3	2

	things (75) – things (20)	2	1
	41	**95**	**54**
Synonymy	epoch (6/5) – age (4)	2	1
	English Crown (28) – king (18)	2	1
	sufferer (37) – youth (31)	2	1
	capital (46) – London (24) – London (58) – London (60)	4	3
	highwayman (49) – Captain (51)	2	1
	5	**12**	**7**
Antonymy	worst (2) – best (1)	2	1
	foolishness (4) – wisdom (3)	2	1
	incredulity (6) – belief (5)	2	1
	Darkness (8) – Light (7)	2	1
	winter (10) – spring (9)	2	1
	despair (10) – hope (9)	2	1
	nothing (12) – everything (11)	2	1
	good (15) – evil (15)	2	1
	dark (49) – light (49)	2	1
	9	**18**	**9**
Superordinate-hyponymy	times (2/3) – age (3/4) – epoch (5/6) – period (title/15/15) – season (7/8)	5	3
	countries (19) – England (18) – France (18)	3	2
	England (22/44) – London (24) – capital (46) – Westminster (24) – Cock Lane (25/29) – Turnham Green (59) – London gaols (60) – Newgate (71) – Westminster Hall (71) – highwayman (49) – Lord Mayor of London (58) – mob (65/66) – musketeers (65/66) – hangman (68)	14	13
	France (30) – Paris (39)	2	1
	youth (33) – hands (33) – tongue (33) – body (33)	4	3
	woods (37) – trees (37)	2	1
	6	**29**	**23**
Meronymy	jaw (17) – king (17)	2	1
	face (17) – queen (17)	2	1
	jaw (18) – king (18)	2	1
	face (18) – queen (18)	2	1
	4	**8**	**4**
Total	**65**	**162**	**97**

Table 7 shows that the total number of lexical cohesion instances found in the text is 65 which involves 162 tokens, making up the total number of 97 lexical cohesive ties. A closer analysis reveals three noticeable features. The first is that of 65 instances of lexical cohesion devices deployed in the text, repetition tops the list: 41/65 accounting for 63 per cent. Ranking second is antonymy: 9/65 accounting for 13.8 per cent. Taking the third position is superordinate-hyponymy: 6/65 accounting for 9.2 per cent, followed by synonymy: 5/65 accounting for 7.6 per cent, and bottoming the list is meronymy: 4/65 accounting for 6.1 per cent. The second feature is that of 162 tokens deployed in 65 instances of lexical cohesion device, repetition still tops the list: 95/162 accounting for 58.6 per cent. But occupying the second position is now not antonymy but superordinate-hyponymy: 29/162 accounting for 17.9 per cent. Ranking third is antonymy: 18/162 accounting for 11.1 per cent, followed by synonymy: 12/162 accounting for 7.4 percent, and bottoming the list is again meronymy: 8/162 accounting for 4.9 per cent. And the third, and most noticeable, feature has to do with the utilisation of the superordinate noun *England* in clause (22) where we find 14 tokens of superordinate-hyponyms, making up a chain of 13 ties: *England* (22) – *London* (24) – *capital* (46) – *Westminster* (24) – *Cock Lane* (25/29) – *Turnham Green* (59) – *London gaols* (60) – *Newgate* (71) – *Westminster Hall* (71) – *highwayman* (49) – *Lord Mayor of London* (58) – *mob* (65/66) – *musketeers* (65/66) – *hangman* (68). These findings are summarised in Table 8.

Table 8

Findings of Lexical Cohesion Resources

Lexical cohesion devices	No. of instances (%)	No. of tokens (%)	No of ties (%)
Repetition	41 (63.0)	95 (58.4)	54 (55.6)
Synonymy	5 (7.6)	12 (7.4)	7 (7.2)
Antonymy	9 (13.8)	18 (11.1)	9 (9.2)
Superordinate-hyponymy	6 (9.2)	29 (17.9)	23 (23.7)
Meronymy	4 (6.1)	8 (4.9)	4 (4.1)
Total	**65 (100)**	**162 (100)**	**97 (100)**

5. Conclusion

5.1. Summary of Research Findings

In this paper we have attempted to make an enquiry into some major cohesive resources Charles Dickens employs in the construction of textual meanings of his text. The text under study is Chapter 1 entitled "The Period" in the famous novel *A Tale of Two Cities*. The theoretical framework adopted in our study is the TCM as propounded by Halliday and Hasan in their *Cohesion in English*. Our analysis has shown that although the text investigated is a chapter of a long novel, it displays a full range of possibilities open to texts in general. But due to the extremely complex nature of textual cohesion resources, we have restricted ourselves to exploring only two main types: grammatical cohesion (which includes reference, substitution, ellipsis and conjunction) and lexical cohesion (which includes repetition, synonym, antonym, superordinate-hyponymy and meronymy). The findings of our study have shown that Charles Dickens has utilised a variety of grammatical and lexical cohesive resources to create texture of the text, among which the following findings are salient:

- Virtually no substitution and ellipsis.
- A high number of instances of cohesive devices: 194 which involve 343 tokens, making up the total of 241 cohesive ties.
- Both pronominal and demonstrative references, between which the latter resource predominates: 88/127 accounting for 69.3 per cent v. 39/127 of the former resource accounting for 30.7 per cent.
- Both endophoric and exophoric references, between which endophoric references take up a predominant frequency: 93/127 accounting for 73.2 per cent v. 34/127 exophoric references accounting for 26.7 per cent.
- Five main types of conjunctive resources: additive, temporal, causal, adversative, and projective, of which additive is the main strategy: 10/28 accounting for 35.7 per cent.
- Five main types of lexical cohesion resources: repetition, synonymy, antonymy, superordinate–hyponymy, and meronymy, of which repetition takes up the largest number: 41/65, accounting for 63 per cent, involving 95/167 tokens accounting for 56.8 percent and making the total number of 54/97 lexical cohesive ties accounting for

55.6 per cent.

- A high ratio of cohesive ties per clause: 213/80 accounting for 2.7 percent.

The findings summarised above allow three conclusive suggestions. First, the text is of purely written and monologic mode. Second, the text is highly cohesive and self-sufficient. And third, the text is, by and large, not quite easy to read, particularly for contemporary EFL learners of English as it contains a number of content words whose meanings cannot be guessed from the context of the text. To understand them, they need extralinguistic knowledge (context of situation); i.e. knowledge about place names, proper names and British and French cultural information in the nineteenth century, which may not be familiar to them.

In analysing and discussing the textual cohesion resources of the text, we have placed them all within the compass of the TCM as developed by Halliday and Hasan in their *Cohesion in English*. It is clear from our study that the TCM is a highly relevant theoretical framework for textual cohesion studies: it stands to benefit discourse researchers, teachers and students not only because it focuses almost exclusively on textual cohesion studies but also because it accommodates an extremely rich pool of instruments to help them analyse the text and explain its textual cohesion meanings in a sensible way.

Our research has pedagogical implications. It is obvious that to understand meanings of a text, we need a relevant linguistic framework, and as the findings from our research have shown, the relevant theoretical framework here is Halliday and Hasan's TCM. But how far it is possible to use the framework depends largely on how much the user can exploit its power. It is, therefore, recommended that discourse analysts, tertiary EFL teachers and students explore the framework carefully before starting their work. And, to help teachers and students better familiarise themselves with the model, it is recommended that SFL of which the TCM is a part be an eligible component of any tertiary EFL teaching curriculum.

5.2. Limitations of the Study and Further Research

In her *Selected Works of Ruqaiya Hasan on Applied Linguistics*, the eminent systemic functional linguist Ruqaiya Hasan (2011, p. 56) suggests that the realisation of the linguistic features that make a text a text is not localized but is likely to be dispersed over the whole text as a whole, and within the meanings of a text there are constellations of meanings which are crucial to the identity of its register. Her suggestion implies that to be able to uncover all the meanings characterizing a text of whatever text type, the discourse researcher should explore as many constellations of meanings of it as possible. In this study we have focused on examining only one constellation of meanings of the text – texture or textual cohesion meanings realised in textual cohesive or text-forming resources. Other constellations of meanings of the text such as the experiential meanings realised in transitivity resources, the interpersonal meanings realised in mood (including modality) resources, the textual meanings realised in theme and information focus resources, and the logical meaning realised in clause-complexing resources, should be explored. These are topics of further research.

As acknowledged elsewhere (see Hoang, 2024, 2025), the data of this study has been confined to only one of the forty-five chapters of Charles Dickens' *A Tale of Two Cities*. This modest scope may limit the generalisability of the findings. In order to get a comprehensive picture of Charles Dickens' work and to be able to make more meaningful generalisations about his writing style, the entire novel should be taken as research data. This can also be a topic for future study.

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Appendix

Key:

||	indicate clause simplex boundary
|| (1), || (2), || (3) …	indicate numbers of clause simplex

The Period

Paragraph 1

|| (1) It was the best of times, || (2) it was the worst of times, || (3) it was the age of wisdom, || (4) it was the age of foolishness, || (5) it was the epoch of belief, || (6) it was the epoch of incredulity, || (7) it was the season of Light, || (8) it was the season of Darkness, || (9) it was the spring of hope, || (10) it was the winter of despair, || (11) we had everything before us, || (12) we had nothing before us, || (13) we were all going direct to Heaven, || (14) we were all going direct the other way || (15) – in short, the period was so far like the present period, || (16) that some of its noisiest authorities insisted on its being received, for good or evil, in the superlative degree of comparison only. ||

Paragraph 2

|| (17) There were a king with a large jaw and a queen with a plain face, on the throne of England; || (18) there were a king with a large jaw and a queen with a fair face, on the throne of France. || (19) In both countries it was clearer than crystal to the lords of the State preserves of loaves and fishes, || (20) that things in general were settled for ever. ||

Paragraph 3

|| (21) It was the year of Our Lord one thousand seven hundred and seventy-five. || (22) Spiritual revelations were conceded to England at that favoured period, as at this. || (23) Mrs Southcott had recently attained her five- and-twentieth blessed birthday, || (24) of whom a prophetic private in the Life Guards had heralded the sublime appearance by announcing that arrangements were made for the swallowing up of London and Westminster. || (25) Even the Cock Lane ghost had been laid only a round dozen of years, || (26) after rapping out its messages, || (27) as the spirits of this very year last past (supernaturally deficient in originality) rapped out theirs. || (28) Mere messages in the earthly order of events had lately come to the English Crown and People, from a congress of British subjects in America: || (29) which, strange to relate, have proved more important to the human race than any communications yet received through any of the chickens of the Cock Lane brood. ||

Paragraph 4

|| (30) France, less favoured on the whole as to matters spiritual than her sister of the shield and trident, rolled with exceeding smoothness down hill, || (31) making paper money || (32) and spending it. || (33) Under the guidance of her Christian pastors, she entertained herself, besides, with such humane achievements as sentencing a youth to have his hands cut off, his tongue torn out with pincers, and his body burned alive, || (34) because he had not kneeled down in the rain || (35) to do honour to a dirty procession of monks which passed within his view, at a distance of some fifty or sixty yards. || (36) It is likely enough || (37) that, rooted in the woods of France and Norway, there were growing trees, when that sufferer was put to death, already marked by the Woodman, fate, to come down and be sawn into boards, to make a certain movable framework with a sack and a knife in it, terrible in history. || (38) It is likely enough || (39) that in the rough outhouses of some tillers of the heavy lands adjacent to Paris, there were sheltered from the weather that very day, rude carts, bespattered with rustic mire, snuffed about by pigs, and roosted in by poultry, which the farmer, death, had already set apart to be his tumbrils of the Revolution. || (40) But that woodman and that farmer, || (41) though they worked unceasingly, worked silently, ||

(42) and no one heard them || (43) as they went about with muffled tread: the rather, forasmuch as to entertain any suspicion that they were awake, was to be atheistical and traitorous. |||

Paragraph 5

|| (44) In England, there was scarcely an amount of order and protection || (45) to justify much national boasting. || (46) Daring burglaries by armed men, and highway robberies, took place in the capital itself every night; || (47) families were publicly cautioned || (48) not to go out of town without removing their furniture to upholsterers' warehouses for security; || (49) the highwayman in the dark was a City tradesman in the light, || (50) and, being recognised || (51) and challenged by his fellow-tradesman whom he stopped in his character of 'the Captain', (52) gallantly shot him through the head || (53) and rode away; || (54) the mail was waylaid by seven robbers, || (55) and the guard shot three dead, || (56) and then got shot dead himself by the other four, 'in consequence of the failure of his ammunition': || (57) after which the mail was robbed in peace; || (58) that magnificent potentate, the Lord Mayor of London, was made || (59) to stand and deliver on Turnham Green, by one highwayman, who despoiled the illustrious creature in sight of all his retinue; || (60) prisoners in London gaols fought battles with their turnkeys, || (61) and the majesty of the law fired blunderbusses in among them, loaded with rounds of shot and ball; || (62) thieves snipped off diamond crosses from the necks of noble lords at court drawing-rooms; || (63) musketeers went into St Giles's, || (64) to search for contraband goods, || (65) and the mob fired on the musketeers, || (66) and the musketeers fired on the mob, || (67) and nobody thought any of these occurrences much out of the common way. || (68) In the midst of them, the hangman, ever busy and ever worse than useless, was in constant requisition; || (69) now, stringing up long rows of miscellaneous criminals; || (70) now, hanging a housebreaker on Saturday who had been taken on Tuesday; || (71) now, burning people in the hand at Newgate by the dozen, || (72) and now burning pamphlets at the door of Westminster Hall; || (73) today, taking the life of an atrocious murderer, || (74) and tomorrow of a wretched pilferer who had robbed a farmer's boy of sixpence. |||

Paragraph 6

|| (75) All these things, and a thousand like them, came to pass in and close upon the dear old year one thousand seven hundred and seventy-five. || (76) Environed by them, || (77) while the woodman and the farmer worked unheeded, || (78) those two of the large jaws, and those other two of the plain and the fair faces, trod with stir enough, || (79) and carried their divine rights with a high hand. || (80) Thus did the year one thousand seven hundred and seventy-five conduct their greatnesses, and myriads of small creatures – the creatures of this chronicle among the rest – along the roads that lay before them. ||

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RESONANCE IN EXPRESSIONS OF FACIAL AFFECT AND VOICE AFFECT IN "FROZEN" ANIMATION

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Abstract: In contemporary discourse analysis, understanding communication extends beyond written and spoken words to encompass a broader range of modes, including images, gestures, and sounds. Multimodal Discourse Analysis emerges to explore how meaning is constructed and communicated through these diverse modes within various contexts. This study addresses this fruitful field by examining the relationship between voice qualities and facial expressions in conveying emotions through a popular children's animation called "Frozen". The analysis is based on Ngo et al.'s (2022) framework to explore the interplay of the two systems of Facial Affect and Voice Affect from an interpersonal perspective. In analyzing Elsa, one of the two main characters in the animation, we found that she is largely portrayed as having low spirits, evident in the type of facial and vocal features she expresses. Although there are occasional disjunctions between these two systems of affect, likely stemming from contextual variables or production flaws, the majority of instances reveal resonance between Elsa's expressed features of Facial Affect and Voice Affect. Theoretically, the findings involving a complete animation contribute to the literature on multimodal texts targeted at children. It also yields practical benefits in encouraging the utilization of multimodal resources to enhance children's language and social development.

Keywords: systemic functional semiotics, multimodal discourse analysis, children's animations, Facial Affect, Voice Affect

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SỰ CỘNG HƯỞNG GIỮA NÉT MẶT VÀ GIỌNG NÓI ĐỂ THỂ HIỆN CẢM XÚC TRONG PHIM HOẠT HÌNH "FROZEN"

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Tóm tắt: Trong phân tích diễn ngôn hiện đại, bên cạnh chữ viết và lời nói, việc giao tiếp được thực hiện đa dạng hơn qua các kênh như: hình ảnh, cử chỉ và âm thanh. Phân tích diễn ngôn đa phương thức ra đời nhằm tìm hiểu cách ý nghĩa được hình thành và truyền đạt qua những kênh khác nhau trong những ngữ cảnh khác nhau. Nghiên cứu này được tiến hành để đánh giá mối quan hệ giữa giọng nói và khuôn mặt trong việc biểu đạt cảm xúc qua phim "Frozen", một bộ phim hoạt hình nổi tiếng dành cho trẻ em. Sự giao thoa giữa các yếu tố biểu cảm khuôn mặt và biểu cảm giọng nói được phân tích theo góc nhìn liên nhân dựa trên khung lý thuyết của Ngô và các cộng sự (2022). Khi phân tích Elsa, một trong hai nhân vật chính của bộ phim, chúng tôi phát hiện rằng nhân vật này phần lớn thời gian được thể hiện là một người u sầu qua những đặc điểm về khuôn mặt và giọng nói. Tuy có sự chênh lệch trong một vài trường hợp do ngữ cảnh hoặc lỗi kỹ thuật trong quá trình sản xuất phim, đa phần các biểu cảm khuôn mặt và biểu cảm giọng nói của Elsa có sự cộng hưởng để truyền đạt cảm xúc nhân vật. Về mặt lý thuyết, bằng việc phân tích một bộ phim hoàn chỉnh, các kết quả này góp phần làm phong phú thêm nghiên cứu về văn bản đa phương thức dành cho trẻ em. Bên cạnh đó, bài viết khuyến khích ứng dụng các nguồn tài nguyên đa phương thức nhằm tăng cường sự phát triển ngôn ngữ lẫn nhận thức xã hội của trẻ nhỏ.

Từ khóa: ký hiệu học chức năng hệ thống, phân tích diễn ngôn đa phương thức, phim hoạt hình trẻ em, biểu cảm khuôn mặt, biểu cảm giọng nói

1. Introduction

In the dynamic landscape of communication, meaning is seldom confined to mere words. In our current society, communication transcends traditional linguistic boundaries, intertwining with a plethora of visual, auditory, spatial, and gestural elements. It is within this tapestry of modes that Multimodal Discourse finds its relevance and significance. The groundwork for multimodal research was laid out by O'Toole (1994) and Kress & van Leeuwen (2006), drawing upon Halliday's (1985) social semiotic approach to language, which conceptualizes words, sounds, and images as interconnected systems and structures with inherent meaning potential (O'Halloran, 2004). Studies involving multimodal discourse analysis draw their research subjects from a variety of sources, such as textbooks (Unsworth & Ngo, 2015; Silva, 2016), picture books for children (Vo, 2016; Ton, 2019), advertisements (Akmal et al., 2022; Ruswardiningsih & Djohan, 2022), music videos (Brady, 2015; Sánchez-Vizcaíno et al., 2023), political cartoons (Mowafy, 2021; Wu, 2023) and movies (Lisiecka, 2019; Nurlina, 2023). These sources are referred to as "multimodal phenomena", in which various "semiotic resources", for example, language, images, music and gestures, are used to create and clarify meaning (O'Halloran, 2004, pp. 121-122).

This study focuses on a popular multimodal phenomenon, movies, or specifically animated movies for children, from a Systemic Functional Linguistics (SFL) perspective. Research on children's animations from an SFL perspective primarily follows two directions. The first approach is utilizing Systemic Functional Grammar (SFG) (Halliday, 1994) and the Grammar of Visual Design by Kress & van Leeuwen (2006) to describe the characteristics of still shots taken from animations with regards to the three metafunctions (Phan, 2020; Rady, 2023). The second approach also applies the two above-mentioned theories, but the core purpose is to discover how language and its corresponding visual element are combined to portray specific ideological codes, values and stereotypes (Asseel, 2020; Rasheed et al., 2020; Shehatta, 2020). Most notably, the studies only concentrate on static images, whereas the semiotic resources in animations integrate across both visual and auditory modalities.

Our study aims to bridge this gap by conducting an in-depth analysis of the relationship between sounds and accompanying facial expressions of the main character in a famous children's animation, "Frozen", when conveying emotions. The framework used in this study was designed by Ngo et al. (2022) for analyzing paralanguage using Systemic Functional Semiotics. Research questions for this study are:

1. What types of Facial Affect and Voice Affect are used in the visual and spoken discourse featuring the main character Elsa in "Frozen" animation?

2. How do the expressions of Facial Affect and Voice Affect resonate one another in "Frozen"?

This choice is driven by both theoretical and practical considerations. Theoretically, the analysis seeks to offer empirical insights into this relatively novel field of research. Traditionally, facial expressions have been given significantly more attention than vocal ones when it comes to portraying emotions (Scherer, 1986, cited in Juslin & Laukka, 2003; Scherer & Banse, 1991), although "with many kinds of animals, man included, the vocal organs are efficient in the highest degree as a means of expression" (Darwin, 1897, p. 88). However, as Sauter (2006) pointed out, one drawback of using speech to identify emotion is that it contains semantic information; this piece of information might be "congruent or incongruent with the paralinguistic content of the signal, and hence interfere or facilitate the listener's judgment of the emotional tone of the speech" (p. 28). Therefore, instead of analyzing speech or facial expressions separately, we decided to employ both paralinguistic means into our study to better interpret the research subject's emotions. To the best of our knowledge, there has been no prior research exploring identical or similar data in this direction. From a practical standpoint, the significance of the analysis lies in acknowledging the value of animations as sources of entertainment and as useful educational tools that can foster emotional, social and language development in children.

This paper is structured as follows: First, the theoretical framework for analyzing paralanguage is presented. This is followed by a detailed description of the methodologies employed to conduct the study. Subsequently, the major findings are presented and discussed. The paper is concluded with the significance of the research in multimodal discourse analysis as well as implications for further studies.

2. Literature Review

2.1. Systemic Functional Linguistics

Systemic Functional Linguistics, first introduced by Halliday in the early 1960s, is a theory that views language as a social semiotic resource (Bateman, 2008). "The value of a theory lies in the use that can be made of it, and I have always considered a theory of language to be essentially consumer oriented" (Halliday, 1985, p. 7). Language transcends arbitrary rules and structures; it is a tool people use to create meaning and interact with the world. Within SFL, there is the theory of SFG, in which Halliday (1994) introduced three modes of meaning that operate simultaneously in all utterances; they are the ideational (experiential and logical), interpersonal and textual metafunctions. The ideational metafunction refers to the way language is used to convey information about the world and represent experiences. The interpersonal metafunction is utilized to encode social relationships and express our attitudes. Finally, the textual metafunction uses language to create coherent and cohesive texts (Butt et al., 2003). Derived from SFG, Kress and van Leeuwen (2006) proposed a systemic and comprehensive framework for visual analysis in "Reading Images: The Grammar of Visual Design". The grammar of images also has three layers of meanings that correspond to the three metafunctions: representational meaning, interpersonal meaning and compositional meaning.

According to Ngo et al. (2022), an SFL-based approach to studying paralanguage proves advantageous for various reasons, three of which are directly relevant to our study. Firstly, the expansion of SFL-inspired research that extends beyond language to encompass various modalities, such as behaviour, sounds and music, underscores the need for a more extensive and unified theoretical framework that is not restricted to only language and images. Secondly, paralanguage and spoken language are so closely intertwined and consistently involved in various intermodal texts that the necessity of a shared metalanguage becomes evident. Lastly, work on Appraisal (Martin & White, 2005), the language of evaluation in SFL, is inextricably linked to systems used to portray emotions though paralinguistic features.

2.2. Paralanguage

In the given framework, paralanguage refers to "semiosis dependent on language and realized through both voice quality and body language (including facial expression, gesture, posture and body movement)" (Ngo et al., 2022, p. 3). Unlike somasis, also known as non-semiotic behavior, semiosis concerns systems of signs, or systems of behavior with embodied meaning.

Zappavigna and Martin (2018) devised a model for dealing with two dimensions of the relation between language and paralanguage; these dimensions are "linguistic body language" and "epilinguistic body language". The terminologies were later revised in Ngo et al.'s framework and changed to "sonovergent paralanguage" and "semovergent paralanguage" respectively (2022, p. 22). Sonovergent paralanguage is the kind of paralanguage that converges with prosodic phonology, that is, rhythmic and intonation patterns of spoken language (Nespor & Vogel, 2007). Regarding semovergent paralanguage, the focus of our study, it is the type that converges with lexico-grammar and semantics (the meaning-making resources) of spoken discourse (Martin & Rose, 2007).

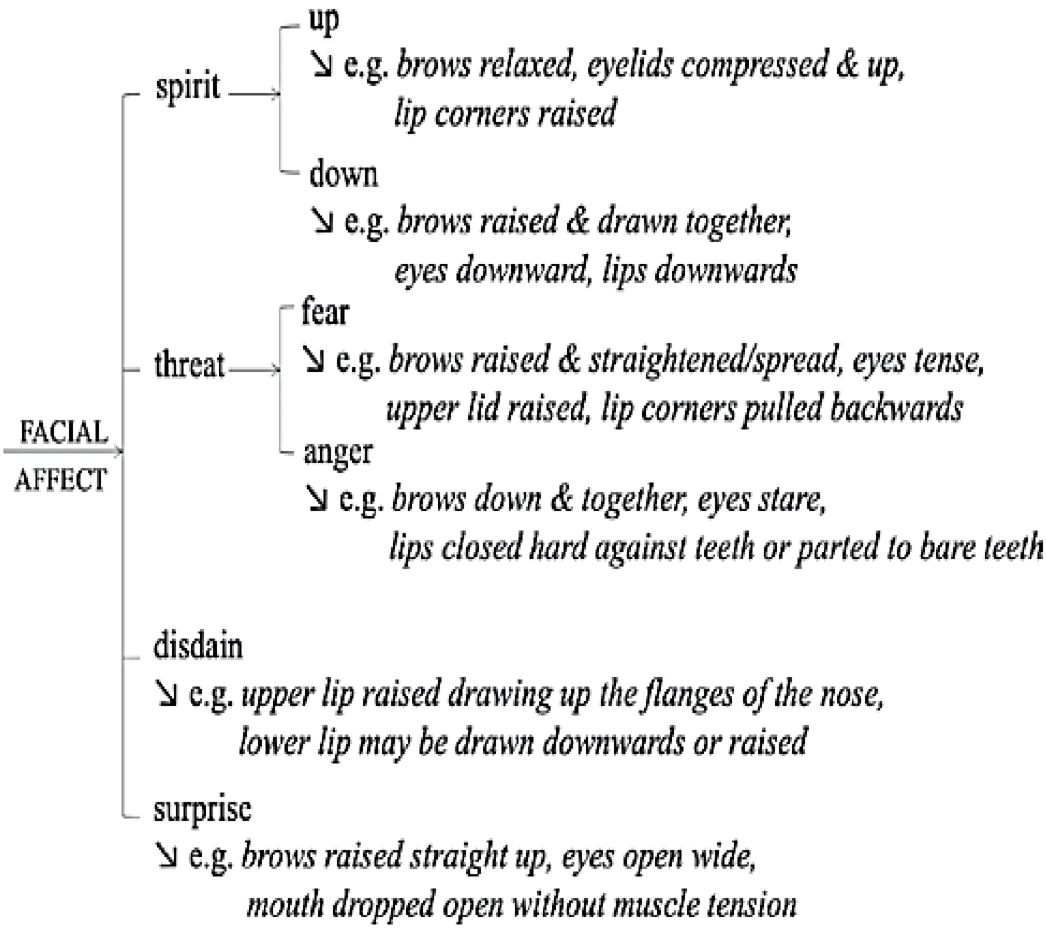
With an aim of analyzing the emotions of a protagonist in the "Frozen" animation, this study centers on semovergent paralanguage inspected from the interpersonal perspective as interpersonal semovergent paralanguage potentially resonates with Appraisal resources, specifically the sub-system of Affect used for communicating emotions in the system of Attitude. Paralinguistic Affect portrays expressions of emotion in Facial Affect and Voice Affect (Ngo et al., 2022).

Features of the system of Facial Affect are realized through muscle movements of the face, namely eyebrows, eyelids, eyes, mouth and lips. This system takes into account the contributions made by previous researchers, Darwin (1872), and Ekman and colleagues (Ekman

& Friesen, 2003; Ekman, 2004, cited in Ngo et al., 2022). Darwin created the principle of antithesis, in which he proposed that opposing facial movements lead to opposing emotions. Ekman introduced the six basic universal facial expressions of emotion, which are happiness, sadness, anger, fear, disgust and surprise.

Figure 1

The System of Facial Affect (Ngo et al., 2022, p. 121)



The network in Figure 1 models Facial Affect with six features of emotions: [spirit:up], [spirit:down], [fear], [anger], [disdain] and [surprise]. Each feature is shown through a different set of facial movements. [spirit:up] and [spirit:down] are opposing features of [spirit], demonstrating happiness and sadness; Ngo et al. (2022) did not name these features “happiness” and “sadness” to avoid confusion with the feature of [happiness] in the linguistic system of Attitude.

While language allows for nuanced expressions of emotion through lexical variations, such as “happy”, “excited” “pleased” and “ecstatic”, paralinguistic expressions have a relatively limited range for expressing emotions. Therefore, in analyzing intermodal resonance, while linguistic expressions may convey subtle differences, facial expressions remain more generalized, and one given expression of Facial Affect may have to couple with a wide range of lexical realizations.

Figure 2

The System of Voice Quality (Ngo et al., 2022, p. 130)

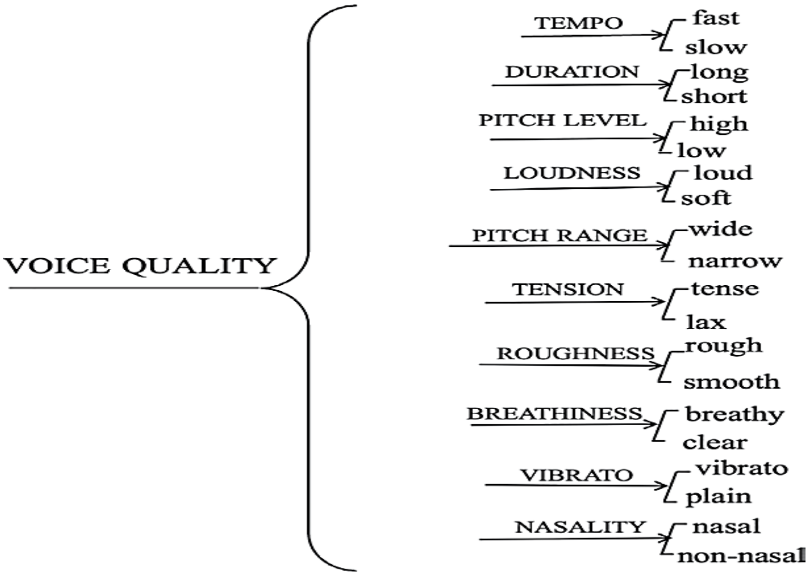
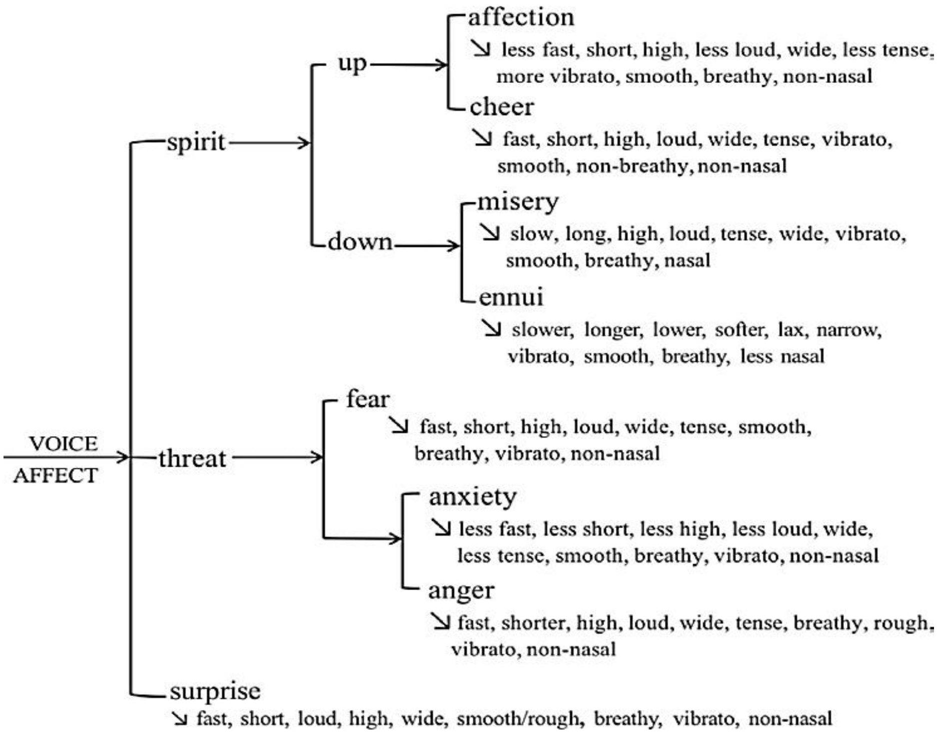


Figure 3

The System of Voice Affect (Ngo et al., 2022, p. 131)



Another semiotic resource utilized for conveying emotions is the voice. Additional examination of voice qualities enables us to make finer comparisons in paralinguistic emotions than solely relying on facial expressions. The system of Voice Quality in the framework was developed based on van Leeuwen's "sound quality systems" (1999, p. 151). Van Leeuwen's model includes subsystems of Pitch level, Pitch range, Loudness, Tension, Roughness, Breathiness, Vibrato and Nasality. The Pitch level can be high or low, depending on whether speakers use the higher or lower end of their pitch range. The Pitch range, which can be wide or narrow, is the difference between the highest pitch and the bottom level that the pitch does not go below. Next, the Loudness of the voice indicates how much energy is put into it and is measured in dB. With Tension, when a person's voice becomes tense, it becomes higher, sharper, and particularly, more tense due to tense throat muscles. When it comes to Roughness, a rough voice is one with hoarseness, harshness and rasp, while a smooth voice is clean, smooth, and "well-oiled" (p. 132). Moreover, when a voice is breathy, it becomes soft, and the sounds of breath mix in the tone of voice itself. Vibrato indicates the vibration of the voice; the voice could exhibit some kind of irregular wavering or trembling or it could sound plain and unmoved. The last subsystem is Nasality. It is defined as "sound produced with the soft palate lowered and mouth unblocked, so the air escapes both via the nose and via the mouth" (p. 135); thus, the voice appears blocked and tense. To the van Leeuwen's system, Ngo et al. (2022) added the subsystems of Duration with time-related features of [long] and [short], and Tempo with [fast] and [slow]. However, in this study, we have omitted Duration because Ngo et al. did not provide a detailed explanation of this subsystem or a reliable way to determine whether an utterance is [long] or [short].

As van Leeuwen noted, "Every sound quality is a mixture of different features. The voice is never only high or low, or only loud or soft, or only tense or lax" (p. 131). This means that in a single utterance, several voice qualities occur simultaneously, and each feature in the Voice Affect system in Figure 3 is a particular mixture of several qualities.

3. Methodology

3.1. Research Method

To address the research questions, we employed both the qualitative and quantitative methods. The qualitative method was first used to identify the types of Facial Affect and Voice Affect present in the spoken and visual discourse of "Frozen"; this was performed through direct observation (Facial Affect), and perceptual examination and the use of Pratt, a speech analysis software (Voice Affect). Consequently, the data was inputted into Microsoft Excel to be quantitatively analyzed to arrive at the occurrence frequencies of different features. Finally, the qualitative method was utilized to investigate the resonance between these two systems of Paralinguistic Affect. To do this, we compared the types of Voice Affect and Facial Affect that each tone group exhibits to see whether they belong to the same branch of emotions.

3.2. Data Description

The animation that serves as the data for this study is "Frozen", downloaded from fsharetv.com. "Frozen" is a Disney animated movie released in 2013. The story revolves around two princesses, Elsa and Anna, who live in the kingdom of Arendelle. Elsa has magical powers but she struggles to control them. To protect her sister and the kingdom, Elsa isolates herself, causing a rift between the sisters. Upon Elsa's coronation as queen, her powers are revealed, and she inadvertently plunges Arendelle into eternal winter. Feeling responsible, Elsa flees to the mountains, leaving her sister to search for her. Throughout the journey, Elsa grapples with her powers and her duty as queen, ultimately embracing her true self and learning the power of love and acceptance. Of the many animations for children, we decided to choose "Frozen" because of its overwhelming popularity, illustrated by its massive commercial success; the animation grossed $1.28 billion USD worldwide (USA Today, 2023). It also won two Academy

Awards for Best Animated Feature and Best Original Song (Playbill, 2014). The animation has become a beloved classic in the Disney canon, inspiring merchandise and igniting widespread fan enthusiasm.

Out of the two main characters in "Frozen", Elsa and Anna, we decided to focus on Elsa. As a character who experiences a wide range of emotions throughout the movie, Elsa offers ample opportunities for studying the correlation between vocal intonation and emotional states. In addition, Elsa undergoes significant character development as the story unfolds, which may be reflected in changes in her voice quality and facial expressions. Another reason is that we wanted to study a character in all of the movie, instead of selecting only the prominent scenes. Due to the time constraint and the scope of this study, it is unrealistic to analyze Anna as she appears in almost every scene, whereas Elsa's screen time is neither limited nor abundant.

3.3. Data Analysis

In this study, the unit of analysis for the visual discourse is single static images extracted from the movie. The still capture taken from a particular scene is the one that shows the most intense amount of emotion during that scene. The muscle movements of the face are compared with the descriptions in the system of Facial Affect to identify which feature the image portrays.

The unit of analysis for the spoken discourse is the tone group. The tone group is the smaller component of the utterance; an utterance may consist of one or more tone groups. The boundaries of tone groups are often marked by pauses in speech – that is, a tone group ends and is followed by a pause, and another tone group begins following the pause (Roach, 2009).

Analyzing the spoken discourse was relatively more difficult and time-consuming than analyzing the visual one. First, the neutral speech of Elsa was taken from a scene in which she expresses the mildest of emotions. This provided a baseline of voice qualities against which the variations of each feature in Figure 3 can be compared to define what feature a tone group belongs to. Next, the audio extractions underwent perceptual examination of voice qualities by the researchers. The results of this process were then compared with Pratt visualizations to reach the final conclusions. Pratt is an open-source tool created by Boersma and Weenink to analyze speech in phonetics, and it has been developing since 1992 (Boersma & van Heuven, 2001). However, as Ngo et al. (2022) mentioned, using technology to measure the acoustic qualities of voice may not be entirely accurate. This is because in movies, the characters' voices are often recorded with background noise and music, and in such cases, the visualizations might calculate and present values of all the sounds in one measurement. Therefore, the perceptual analysis is considered to be the more reliable method in this study.

4. Findings and Discussion

4.1. Types of Facial Affect and Voice Affect in "Frozen"

A total of 156 tone groups (in 111 utterances) and 156 static images were collected from Elsa's scenes in "Frozen". Each tone group/image was coded with a number from (1) to (156) within their system of Facial Affect and Voice Affect, making it easier for the researchers to present the findings.

Regarding the system of Facial Affect, the character Elsa portrays five out of six features; no instance of [disdain] was recorded throughout the movie. Next, there are four different situations in which the images are classified as "Others". Firstly, the facial expression of the character cannot be identified because her face is largely or entirely covered by another character (e.g. (14) and (16)), she has her back turned to the viewer (e.g. (49) and (73)), or her face is captured at a long-shot angle (e.g. (80)). Secondly, Elsa expresses a mixture of emotions, for example, a mixture of [spirit:up] and [anger] (image (3)) or a mixture of [spirit:down] and [fear] (image (13)). Thirdly, the muscle movements are not significant enough to categorize the image into a specific feature, for instance, in image (20), Elsa's eyebrows are only slightly drawn together and the mouth corners are slightly pulled downwards, thus, the signs are not enough for it to express [spirit:down]. Lastly, if her emotion is neutral, or only one out of the three important parts of the face (eyebrows, eyes and mouth) shows movements (e.g. (33) and (83)), the image is placed into the "Others" group.

Figure 4

Example of an Image Belonging to "Others"

Table 1

Types of Facial Affect in "Frozen"

No.	Types of Voice Affect	Number of Occurrences	Percentage
1	[spirit:up]	29	18.6%
2	[spirit:down]	61	39.1%
3	[fear]	11	7.1%
4	[anger]	6	3.8%
7	[disdain]	0	0%
8	[surprise]	3	1.9%
9	Others	46	29.5%
	Total	156	100%

Table 1 demonstrates that among the five features, Elsa most frequently expresses the [spirit:down] emotion with her eyebrows raised and drawn together, eyes cast downwards, lower eyelids slightly raised, and mouth corners pulled downwards. However, it is found that the [spirit:down] feature can also be expressed with slightly different movements from the characteristics described in Figure 1. Instead of casting her eyes downwards, Elsa shows even stronger emotions by closing her eyes (e.g. (63), (90) and (112)). Elsa's eyebrows may also be drawn down instead of raised up; this is observed in more than 30 instances (e.g. (54) and (118)).

Figure 5

Elsa Expresses [Spirit:Down]

The second most common feature is [spirit:up], but the number of occurrences is only half that of [spirit:down]. This means that, during the majority of her screen time, Elsa is depicted as a young person who lives in sadness and misery. An interesting point to consider is that when expressing [spirit:up], Elsa's eyebrows are often not relaxed like the description, but instead, are raised (e.g. (151) and (156)).

Figure 6

Elsa's Expression of [Spirit:Up]

Although there are some differences, the researchers still chose to put the aforementioned cases into the [spirit:down] or [spirit:up] category based on the contextual clues of the scenes. As Ngo et al. (2022) remarked, when analyzing from a social semiotic perspective, one should "always keep meaning in mind" (p. 76).

Turning to Voice Affect, it is worth highlighting that while each feature consists of options belonging to the nine sub-systems of Voice Quality, in most of the audio files collected as data, the characteristics of the voice do not correspond with all nine sub-systems. However, the voice of a tone group is still assigned a particular feature if its qualities match the options of at least six out of the nine sub-systems in the description.

Table 2

Types of Voice Affect in "Frozen"

No.	Types of Voice Affect	Number of Occurrences	Percentage
1	[affection]	13	8.3%
2	[cheer]	9	5.8%
3	[misery]	24	15.4%
4	[ennui]	2	1.3%

5	[fear]	14	9.0%
6	[anxiety]	30	19.2%
7	[anger]	6	3.8%
8	[surprise]	5	3.2%
9	Others	53	34.0%
	Total	156	100%

Table 2 presents the results of the Voice Affect analysis. Similar to Facial Affect, there are certain cases that do not match with the eight given features and thus, need to be grouped together in "Others". The voice qualities of these cases either match that of Elsa's neutral speech (e.g. (27) and (37)) or only some aspects (less than six) of voice qualities align with the descriptive terminologies (e.g. (19) and (32)). For example, in order for a tone group to express [misery], it needs to be slow, high, loud tense, wide, vibrato, smooth, breathy and nasal. The voice in audio (19) is slow, nasal, smooth, but it is not tense, high, wide, or is vibrato enough to be classified as [misery]. Among the eight features, the most prevalent is [anxiety], followed by [misery]. This result further reinforces the conclusion that Elsa's mood is indeed low for most of the time.

4.2. Resonance in Expressions of Facial Affect and Voice Affect in "Frozen"

In the previous section, we have individually analyzed two equally important paralinguistic systems pertaining to the conveyance of emotion: Facial Affect and Voice Affect. While animated facial expressions vary in the movements of only three major expressive areas – namely, eyes, eyebrows, and mouth – the voice exhibits diversity across a broader spectrum of vocal qualities, resulting in a wider variety of potential groupings. Therefore, when investigating emotions, it is necessary to place the two systems side by side to enhance the accuracy of analysis. "If we accept that natural (i.e. not performed) vocal and facial expressions of emotion are biological in nature" (Darwin, 1872, cited in Ngo et al., 2022), it is reasonable to expect resonance across the systems of Facial Affect and Voice Affect in all cases (except in instances of deliberate voice manipulation, such as in showing sarcasm).

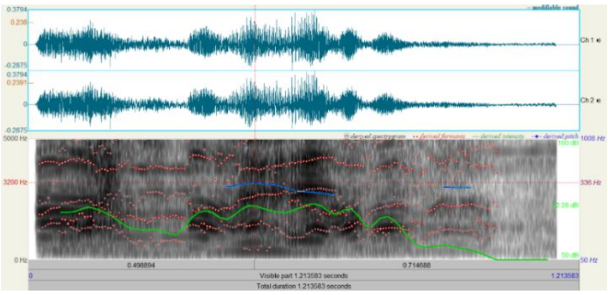
With regards to the resonance in expressions of Facial Affect and Voice Affect in "Frozen", the results can be divided into three groups. In the first group, options in Facial Affect and Voice Affect are found to resonate with each other. The number of instances recorded for this group is 58. We can take tone group (5) as an example. In a convergent speech, Elsa tells Anna to watch closely as she uses her superpowers to conjure up snowflakes filling the entire ballroom. Her Facial Affect expresses [spirit:up] as realized through raised eyebrows, slightly compressed eyelids due to raised cheeks and raised lip corners forming an open-mouth smile (Figure 7).

Figure 7

Elsa Performing Magic

Figure 8

Pratt Visualization of Tone Group (5)



Her voice also realizes [cheer] as it is vibrato, high and loud; it has a maximum pitch level of 336 Hz and intensity of 72 dB, much higher than that of her neutral utterances, which are 202 Hz and 59 dB. It is also relatively [smooth] but [tense] (illustrated respectively in the Pratt visualization by the absence of sub-harmonics in the sound waveform and the darkness of the upper bands in the grey area). The spectrogram does not show any evidence of breathiness as the darkness remains consistent in both upper and lower areas (Figure 8).

As for the second group, options in Facial Affect and Voice Affect do not resonate with each other. The number of cases recorded for this group is 25. Tone group (98) can be seen as a typical example. In this scene, Elsa and Anna are arguing inside the ice castle, then suddenly, Olaf, the snowman that the two sisters built when they were little, comes in. Elsa’s voice at this moment is less loud than high-level [cheer] (59 dB), lax, high (maximum pitch of 370 Hz), smooth, breathy (shown in the Pratt visualization with a grey area that has a lighter upper part and darker lower part) and vibrato; thus, this tone group expresses [affection] (Figure 9).

Figure 9

Pratt Visualization of Tone Group (98)

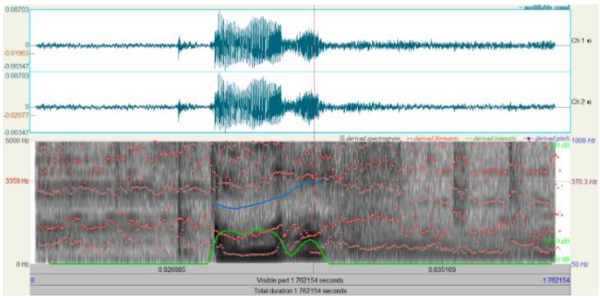


Figure 10

Elsa seeing Olaf

We might expect her facial expression to convey [spirit:up] when she sees the creature that she created and loved. However, in this instance, her eyebrows are drawn down and together, eyes slightly cast downwards, and corners of mouth pulled downwards, which are characteristics of [spirit:down] (Figure 10).

However, this dissonance would seem natural if we consider the scene preceding it; Elsa and Anna have been caught up in an argument. Consequently, when Elsa catches sight of Olaf, her face still maintains its [spirit:down] state (evident in image (96)) for some time before transitioning to [spirit:up] (evident in image (98)). We should also bear in mind the fact that animations present a simulated reality with imperfections in character depiction, the presence of background music and other ambient sounds as well as differences in microphone proximity for voice actors. Therefore, where such disjunction between Facial Affect and Voice Affect cannot be interpreted as meaningful, it may simply be explained as a slip in the production process (Ngo et al., 2022).

The final group comprises Facial and Voice combinations that come between having resonance and exhibiting disjunction. The paralinguistic features in these instances (a total of 73 instances) mainly belong to the "Others" group.

4. Conclusion

This study examines the types of Facial Affect and Voice Affect expressed by the character Elsa and how these paralinguistic expressions resonate with each other. In analyzing Elsa's expressions in "Frozen", it is evident that she predominantly conveys a sense of low spirits, characterized by specific facial and vocal cues. While her expressions often align with predefined categories, variations do exist. Despite some discrepancies between facial and vocal expressions, the majority of instances demonstrate resonance between Facial Affect and Voice Affect systems.

Considering the ongoing advancements in multimedia and the expanding influence of English as a global language, the significance of the findings becomes increasingly apparent. An understanding of the various meaning-making resources and their interconnections through animations will undoubtedly be advantageous for children. Animations provide an immersive language learning experience, allowing children to hear authentic English spoken in various contexts, accents, and tones. At the same time, there are visual cues that aid in understanding language and context, making it easier for children to grasp new vocabulary and expressions. Additionally, movies often depict cultural aspects and societal norms, providing valuable cultural insights alongside language learning. This study has also helped to expand the description of the Facial Affect [spirit:down] and [spirit:up] features as well as providing reasons explaining for the disjunction of speech and facial expressions in certain cases. These details may be useful for further research along the same lines.

Despite its contributions, the study has obvious limitations. The most apparent limitation is the size of the data, which involves solely one animation. We hope that future studies with the same framework will be conducted with larger datasets to ascertain whether the findings presented in this study can be generalized to encompass the entire genre under investigation. Another limitation lies in the fact that we only analyzed the relationship between the voice and its accompanying facial expressions, whereas, interpersonal semovergent paralanguage also involves posture, muscle tension, the position and movements of the hand/arm (Hood, 2011). Future researchers could consider investigating these paralinguistic elements and their interplay. Another suggestion is analyzing paralanguage from other perspectives, namely the ideational and textual perspective. Finally, as we are currently surrounded by great varieties of multimodal texts, it is beneficial to further investigate more practical implications of multimodal discourse with the aim of maximizing the use of these resources in fostering language education and social awareness.

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Appendix

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A PROPOSED FRAMEWORK FOR WASHBACK EFFECTS OF E-PORTFOLIOS IN SPEAKING ASSESSMENT

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Abstract: This paper aims to propose a framework to explore the washback effects of e-portfolios in speaking assessment. Drawing on multiple theoretical frameworks in washback research, it first reviews classical models of language assessment and illustrates how evolving priorities in language education have led some educators to adopt alternative, technology-driven approaches, notably e-portfolios. The paper then synthesizes prior theoretical foundations alongside empirical studies to identify key stakeholders including students, teachers, and school administrators and their roles in shaping and experiencing washback effects. Building on this synthesis, the paper proposes a framework that shows how stakeholders' beliefs, attitudes, and practices intersect when e-portfolios are used to assess English speaking skills. Finally, it underlines the framework's theoretical significance for valid and responsive assessment design and provides pedagogical recommendations for educators and assessment practitioners seeking to implement e-portfolios effectively in diverse instructional contexts.

Keywords: washback effects, e-portfolio assessment, English-speaking assessment, language assessment

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KHUNG ĐỀ XUẤT VỀ TÁC ĐỘNG DỘI NGƯỢC CỦA HỒ SƠ HỌC TẬP ĐIỆN TỬ TRONG ĐÁNH GIÁ KỸ NĂNG NÓI

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Tóm tắt: Bài báo này đề xuất khung tìm hiểu tác động dội ngược (washback) của hồ sơ điện tử (e-portfolio) đối với việc đánh giá kỹ năng nói. Dựa trên nhiều khuôn khổ lý thuyết trong nghiên cứu tác động dội ngược, bài báo trước hết xem xét các mô hình đánh giá ngôn ngữ cổ điển và minh họa các ưu tiên ngày càng thay đổi trong giáo dục ngôn ngữ đã dẫn dắt một số nhà giáo dục áp dụng các phương pháp thay thế dựa trên công nghệ, điển hình là e-portfolio, như thế nào. Tiếp đó, bài báo tổng hợp các nền tảng lý thuyết trước đây cùng với các nghiên cứu thực nghiệm để xác định các bên liên quan chủ chốt gồm: sinh viên, giảng viên và cán bộ quản lý nhà trường, và vai trò của họ trong việc hình thành và trải nghiệm các tác động dội ngược. Trên cơ sở tổng hợp này, bài báo đề xuất một khung cho thấy cách thức niềm tin, thái độ và thực hành của các bên liên quan giao thoa khi sử dụng e-portfolio để đánh giá kỹ năng nói tiếng Anh. Cuối cùng, bài báo nhấn mạnh ý nghĩa lý thuyết của khung này đối với việc thiết kế đánh giá có tính hợp lệ và linh hoạt, đồng thời đưa ra các khuyến nghị sư phạm cho giảng viên và chuyên gia đánh giá nhằm triển khai e-portfolio một cách hiệu quả trong các bối cảnh giảng dạy đa dạng.

Từ khóa: tác động dội ngược (washback), đánh giá bằng e-portfolio, đánh giá kỹ năng nói tiếng Anh, đánh giá ngôn ngữ

1. Introduction

Historically, language assessments have been essential in identifying students' strengths and areas for improvement, while also providing teachers with valuable data to inform their training (Bachman & Palmer, 2010). Between the 1970s and the early 2000s, assessments predominantly focused on traditional tests and examinations targeting specific language elements - grammar, vocabulary, and reading comprehension (Bachman & Palmer, 2010). Although these assessments evaluated certain aspects of language proficiency, they occasionally undervalued other communicative and performance-related skills, especially speaking, therefore limiting a comprehensive understanding of learners' capabilities (Inbar-Lourie, 2008).

Over the past two decades, alternative assessment methodologies that provide more authentic and significant evaluations of language usage have garnered substantial attention (Brown, 2004; Europe, 2001). Among these alternative assessment types, e-portfolio-based assessment with the implementation of technology enables students to collect and display diverse artifacts (e.g., recorded activities, reflections, multimedia presentations), the e-portfolio-based assessment collectively illustrates students' progress and performance in language acquisition (Barrett, 2005). Advocates of e-portfolios assert that they offer formative feedback, facilitating active student engagement in their developmental process and more comprehensively documenting communicative proficiency (Zhang & Tur, 2022).

Despite growing interest in e-portfolio assessment, two important gaps persist (Alderson & Wall, 1993). First, although washback has been extensively studied in traditional testing contexts (Alderson & Wall, 1993; Bailey, 1996; Cheng & Curtis, 2012; Green, 2013), relatively few have investigated the potential impact of e-portfolio-based assessment on teaching and learning, particularly for developing English speaking proficiency (Barrett, 2005; Cepik & Yastibas, 2013; Duong & Nguyen, 2022; Lasminiar, 2022). Existing studies of e-portfolio washback tend to focus on written genres or general language development (Pourdana & Tavassoli, 2022), leaving oral proficiency outcomes under-investigated. Second, few studies that examine e-portfolio washback in speaking settings remain mostly descriptive and disjointed, providing case studies or small-scale surveys without tying their results into a cogent model. Teachers thus lack a thorough framework explaining which contextual elements, evaluation strategies, and stakeholder views combine to generate either positive or negative washback on speaking abilities.

To fill these gaps, this study pursues two aims: (1) to synthesize theory and empirical evidence on washback effects of e-portfolio in speaking assessment, and (2) to propose and illustrate a stakeholder-driven framework. The proposed framework of the review aims to guide future research and practical applications, thereby enhancing the understanding of how technology-enhanced evaluations can impact the development of speaking competence across diverse educational settings.

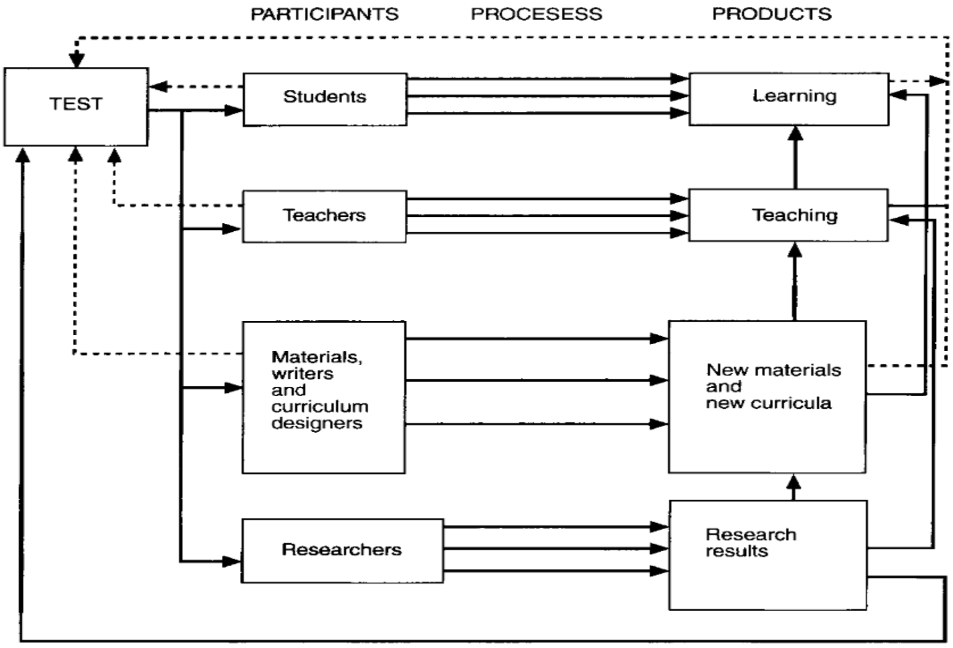
2. Theoretical Foundation

2.1. Washback

The conceptualization of test influence and impact may be traced back to the 1950s and 1960s, when scholars like Vernon (1958) and Wiseman (1961) asserted that testing might affect instructional methods. Washback was not acknowledged as a crucial but intricate educational phenomenon until the 1980s (Hughes, 1988). Washback, often referred to as backwash, has been broadly conceptualized as the influence of testing on teaching and learning practices, encompassing both intended and unintended (Alderson & Wall, 1993; Bailey, 1996; Messick, 1996). Classical definitions commonly emphasize the direct link between assessment and instructional practices. For instance, Alderson and Wall (1993) defined washback as test-driven impacts on what teachers teach and how learners learn, emphasizing both beneficial and detrimental consequences of assessment practices. Besides teachers and students concerning the process of testing and assessment, Hughes (2003) involved other participants as stakeholders through four prerequisites: (1) learners must have a tangible incentive to succeed, (2) teachers must be likewise motivated to support that success, (3) all participants must understand the test's nature and consequences, and (4) they must be fully informed about its curricular and methodological demands. Echoing this view, Bailey (1996) extended this view by emphasizing stakeholder perceptions of test authenticity and stakes, arguing that washback effects depended not only on test features but also on how stakeholders including students, teachers, curriculum developers perceived and reacted to those features. Bailey's (1996) model (see Figure 1) explicitly included multiple stakeholders (students, teachers, researchers, curriculum designers, and materials writers) as active agents in shaping washback, highlighting its inherently socio-contextual nature.

Figure 1

Bailey's (1996) basic model of washback



More recent scholarship has expanded upon these foundational definitions. For instance, Cheng and Curtis (2012) emphasized washback as a complex interplay of contextual factors (institutional policies, stakeholder attitudes, cultural dimensions) beyond the simple test-instruction relationship. Green (2013) further suggested that washback could manifest differently across macro (policy-level), meso (institutional), and micro (classroom) levels, implying that washback is context-sensitive and dynamic rather than universal. Recent research (Saif, 2006; Xie & Andrews, 2013) highlighted that washback is a complex and multi-layered phenomenon, and points out that early definitions did not fully capture the multifarious washback in current language education. Whereas the standard models gave a limited view, more careful inspection confirms that they had problems with the changes caused by innovation and new educational goals (Saif, 2006). While earlier writers outlined core definitions (Alderson & Wall, 1993; Bailey, 1996) to describe washback, modern expertise proposes a larger and more flexible way to view washback that includes technological developments, varied stakeholder roles, and complex contextual interactions (Cheng & Curtis, 2012; Green, 2013; Saif, 2006).

Even with these expanded definitions, existing theoretical frameworks did not fully cover what happens in the digital assessment area, especially with e-portfolios. While washback has been well analyzed in recent studies, there has not been enough theory to explain exactly how it works in e-portfolios. By bringing together multiple stakeholder functions and factors from the setting to address how e-portfolio assessments moderate washback in speech assessment, the suggested paradigm offered in this work may directly tackle to this issue.

The framework was developed from Bailey's concept of stakeholder interactions to incorporate digital assessment tools (e-portfolio) and combines more aspects, including stakeholders' beliefs, attitudes, and contextual influences, to make clearer the ways modern washback mechanisms work. Yet Bailey's (1996) model predates digital assessment; it omits technology-specific factors such as platform usability and multimedia feedback.

2.2. E-Portfolio-Based Assessment

Initial discussions on portfolio-based assessment often concentrated on the collection of tangible artifacts that represent a learner's progression across time (Barrett, 2005). Traditional portfolios usually include written work, feedback from instructors, and personal reflections. With the progress in educational technology, educators and students have been being shifting portfolios from physical to electronic forms for the storage, presentation, and evaluation of student work (Farrell, 2020).

E-portfolio is defined as a digital, web-based portfolio of students' work, reflections, and achievements that is created over time within an electronic format (Alawdat, 2013; Phung & Dang, 2022). It consists of a wide range of artifacts - texts, audio, video, graphics, results extracted from academic and extra-curricular activities, with reflective commentaries (Zhang & Tur, 2022).

E-portfolio-based assessment represents a shift toward authentic, learner-centered assessment methodologies, leveraging digital technologies to document and reflect on learners' competencies through diverse artifacts (Barrett, 2005; Safari & Koosha, 2016). Unlike conventional tests that mostly assess discrete language elements, e-portfolios give learners whole and continuous documentation of their development in communicative skills top priority, to support learner autonomy and continuous formative feedback (Brown & Abeywickrama, 2019; Cepik & Yastibas, 2013; Chang et al., 2018). The success of e-portfolios mostly relies on their congruence with instructional objectives, involvement of stakeholders, and contextual factors.

Many theoretical frameworks inform the teaching and assessment aspects of e-portfolios. According to constructivist theories, learners gain understanding by thinking about what they have done and working together, which is in line with what e-portfolios support (Jonassen & Rohrer-Murphy, 1999). It is also noted by self-regulated learning (SRL) frameworks that e-portfolios allow learners to note their progress, choose goals, and apply useful strategies, all of which are vital for language learning (Zimmerman & Schunk, 2013). Black and Wiliam (2009) point out in Assessment for Learning (AFL) theory that it is important to include plenty of formative feedback loops for effective e-portfolio use by putting formative feedback in a lead role in e-portfolio development.

Because of these variations in theory, e-portfolio assessment is conceptualized as much more than a simple use of technology. It is recognized as an effective teaching and assessment practice. Bringing together constructivist, SRL, and AFL theories provides a cohesive theoretical foundation for understanding e-portfolios' potential for generating meaningful washback in language education, particularly in fostering authentic speaking competencies.

2.3. Speaking Assessment

Speaking skill development is fundamentally grounded in the theoretical construct of communicative competence, encompassing linguistic competence, sociolinguistic appropriateness, discourse management, and strategic effectiveness (Bachman & Palmer, 2010; Canale & Swain, 1980). Effective speaking involves accuracy, fluency, pragmatic appropriateness, and the ability to interact dynamically in diverse communicative contexts (Galaczi & Taylor, 2018). Speaking assessment, therefore, must reliably capture these multifaceted dimensions of oral communication. However, it presents unique challenges due to its real-time, interactive, and socially contextualized nature (Luoma, 2004; Zechner & Evanini, 2019). The inherent subjectivity in evaluating spoken performance further exacerbates these challenges, often resulting in issues related to reliability, validity, rater biases, and inconsistencies (Fulcher, 2015).

Authentic interactive tasks (e.g., discussions, role-plays) align closely with real-world communication demands but simultaneously pose challenges related to standardization and scalability (Zaim & Arsyad, 2020; Zechner & Evanini, 2019). Distinctions between formative and summative speaking assessments further highlight essential considerations: formative assessment, through continuous feedback and iterative improvements, effectively fosters skill development, learner autonomy, and reflective practice (Black & Wiliam, 2009). Conversely, summative assessments, while useful for certifying competence or proficiency at specific checkpoints, might restrict opportunities for ongoing skill refinement and active learner engagement (Brown & Abeywickrama, 2019; Luoma, 2004).

The proposed framework aims to address these complexities by integrating formative assessment principles with e-portfolio-based methods, capturing ongoing learner progression through authentic, recorded speaking tasks. This integration not only mitigates limitations associated with summative evaluations but also promotes constructive washback effects, aligning assessment criteria closely with instructional objectives and thereby encouraging educators to adopt meaningful, communicative-focused teaching practices (Cheng & Curtis, 2012; Barrett, 2005). Thus, the development of this framework is crucial, providing theoretical coherence and practical guidance for enhancing speaking assessment through stakeholder interaction, feedback mechanisms, and pedagogical responsiveness in higher education contexts.

3. Empirical Research on Washback Effects

3.1. Washback in Traditional Assessments

To examine the empirical underpinnings of classical washback, systematic research was conducted across Scopus, Web of Science, and ERIC for peer-reviewed studies published in English between 2015 and 2025. The search used combinations of keywords such as ‘washback’, ‘traditional testing’, ‘language exam’, ‘test-driven instruction’, and ‘teacher cognition’. Studies were included if they focused on high-stakes language assessments, provided empirical data (quantitative, qualitative, or mixed methods), and explicitly addressed aspects of teacher practices, student engagement, or the impact of policy and context. Studies that focused solely on alternative or digital assessments were excluded. Following duplicate removal and abstract screening, approximately 110 articles were identified that directly contribute to understanding how high-stakes tests influence classroom practices and learning behaviors (Alqahtani, 2021; Athiworakun & Adunyarittigun, 2022; Aydin & Şahin, 2024; Chak, 2024; Dawadi, 2021; Nguyen & Nguyen, 2023; Saglam & Farhady, 2019; Shijun, 2022).

There are four key debates persisting in the current literature. First, the predominant theme of teaching-to-the-test and instructional narrowing was found in 78 studies (71%). Teachers often restricted instructional content and methods significantly to match exam requirements, sidelining communicative skills and innovative teaching approaches (Alqahtani, 2021; Athiworakun & Adunyarittigun, 2022; Chak, 2024; Dammak et al., 2022; Hoyos Pipicano, 2024; Muñoz et al., 2019; Saglam & Farhady, 2019; Shijun, 2022; Tong & Pham, 2024). Second, 53 studies (48%) highlighted significant impacts on learner behaviors, noting test-driven strategies such as memorization, drilling of past-exam papers, and strategic prioritization of high-weighted exam components. Students' authentic communicative language practices were frequently compromised by test-centric study habits (Alqahtani, 2021; Aydin &

Şahin, 2024; Chak, 2024; Dawadi, 2021; Nguyen, 2023b; Saglam & Farhady, 2019). Third, a smaller subset of studies (6 studies, 5%) explicitly examined student motivation and attitudes, indicating mixed motivational outcomes. While some students developed enhanced intrinsic motivation when exams were perceived as valid and goal-aligned (Dong & Liu, 2022; Liu & Yu, 2021; Nguyen, 2023a; Sadeghi et al., 2021; Wu & Lee, 2017), others reported increased anxiety and predominantly extrinsic motivation, focusing primarily on exam scores (Dawadi, 2021; Sadeghi et al., 2021). Lastly, policy contexts and institutional constraints were explicitly discussed in 18 studies (16%). These studies emphasized how accountability measures, institutional expectations, and curricular misalignment significantly mediated washback, often exacerbating the negative impact of high-stakes testing on teaching and learning (Athiworakun & Adunyarittigun, 2022; Nguyen, 2023; Dawadi, 2021; Shijun, 2022; Aydın & Şahin, 2024; Chak, 2024). Collectively, empirical research since 2015 strongly confirms the enduring relevance of classical washback theory, underscoring that washback effects are nuanced, context-dependent, and mediated by multiple factors, including teaching practices, learner strategies, student motivation, and broader policy contexts.

Critical analysis of these empirical studies indicates a consensus that traditional assessments significantly influence instructional practices and learner behaviors, often resulting in narrowed instruction and teaching to the test (Nguyen, 2023a; Saglam & Farhady, 2019). Even though many studies revealed that negative washback effects exist, several studies also highlight positive effects like curriculum alignment and planned, organized lessons (Aydin & Şahin, 2024). Nevertheless, the generalizability of these results is constrained by context-specific approaches and mostly depends on qualitative or small-scale studies, suggesting the necessity of more integrated, complete theoretical assessments. In conclusion, while empirical studies validate the enduring relevance of washback theory, they also expose its limitations in capturing the contested, non-linear realities of testing impacts. A critical reimagining of assessment frameworks is essential to align measurement practices with the developmental and emancipatory goals of education.

3.2. Washback in E-Portfolios

To capture the emerging body of research on washback effects in e-portfolio-based assessments, a complementary search was executed in Scopus, Web of Science, and ERIC. The search focused on English-language, peer-reviewed empirical studies published between 2015 and 2025 using terms such as ‘washback’, ‘e-portfolio’, ‘alternative assessment’, and ‘English speaking’. The selection criteria required the studies which investigated how e-portfolios impacted teaching and learning, specifically those that highlighted formative or technology-mediated processes. From this process, 15 core articles were identified that effectively extend classical washback theories into the e-portfolio context.

Although limited in number, these studies demonstrate that e-portfolios can reshape teacher practice and student behavior in ways that align with classical washback theory. Although limited in number, these studies demonstrate that e-portfolios can reshape teacher practice and student behavior in ways that align with classical washback theory. Empirical evidence reveals predominantly positive but context-dependent washback effects, including enhanced learner motivation (8 studies, 53%; e.g., Mathur & Mahapatra, 2024; Ayaz & Gök, 2023; Lasminiar, 2022), deeper reflective practices and learner autonomy (5 studies, 33%; e.g., Duong & Nguyen, 2022; Ayaz & Gök, 2023), and improved teacher-student feedback interactions (3 studies, 20%; e.g., Kusuma & Waluyo, 2023; Zheng & Barrot, 2022). However, critical analysis underscores significant variability in findings influenced by institutional readiness and support (4 studies, 27%; e.g., Bokiev & Abd Samad, 2021; Ngo & Luu, 2023), stakeholder attitudes (4 studies, 27%; e.g., Ngo & Luu, 2023; Ayaz & Gök, 2023), and technical conditions (5 studies, 33%; e.g., Lasminiar, 2022; Zheng & Barrot, (2022). Methodologically, existing studies primarily rely on small-scale qualitative approaches, limiting theoretical generalization and comprehensive understanding of washback mechanisms (Kusuma & Waluyo, 2023). These methodological limitations and the fragmented nature of existing evidence highlight a critical need for systematic, theory-driven integration, which the present framework explicitly addresses.

4. A Framework for Washback Effects of E-Portfolios in Speaking Assessment

4.1. Rationale for the Framework

The proposed framework synthesizes theoretical foundations from Section 2 and empirical insights from Section 3 to fill specific gaps in our understanding of how washback effects materialize in e-portfolio-based assessments of English-speaking skills. Theoretically, the framework integrates foundational washback theories, especially Bailey's (1996) stakeholder-focused model, which emphasizes the mediating role of stakeholder perceptions, attitudes, and practices in shaping assessment outcomes. Bailey's (1996) framework explicitly acknowledges multiple stakeholders such as students, teachers, administrators, curriculum developers, and materials writers, highlighting the complex and dynamic interactions between these agents in the washback phenomenon. By building directly upon Bailey's (1996) model, the proposed framework situates e-portfolios within a clearly articulated stakeholder-interaction approach, explicitly extending the foundational washback concepts to digital and speaking-oriented assessment contexts.

Lately, literature about e-portfolios highlights a focused teaching approach that puts learners at the center. This encourages reflecting, repeated feedback, and being self-directed (Barrett, 2005; Lam, 2020; Zhang & Tur, 2022). This is consistent with Bailey's focus on practicing assessment based on the interests of stakeholders, which allows for a logical, coherent approach to integrate formative assessment principles into the stakeholder-oriented washback model. Empirically, existing research (Duong & Nguyen, 2022; Lasminiar, 2022; Mathur & Mahapatra, 2022) demonstrates positive washback from e-portfolios on speaking skill development yet highlights context-specific challenges, including technological barriers and teacher workload. Crucially, however, most empirical studies focus predominantly on written or general language proficiency, neglecting oral skills (Chang et al., 2018; Ngo et al., 2025). The current framework explicitly addresses this gap by systematically linking stakeholder interactions, formative feedback cycles, and speaking-specific demands, offering a comprehensive understanding of how e-portfolios impact English-speaking instruction.

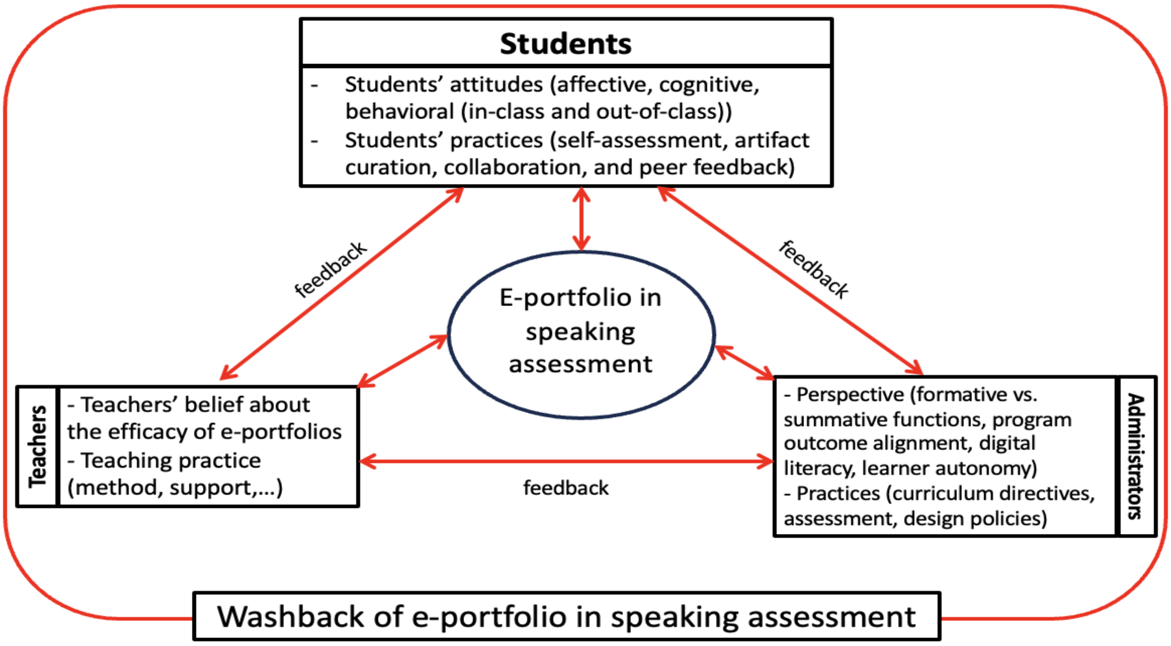
4.2. Components of the Framework

Figure 2 illustrates three parallel stakeholder dimensions including students, teachers, and administrators. This framework focuses on students, teachers, and administrators because our systematic review (Section 3) shows they are the primary agents driving washback effects of e-portfolios in speaking assessment. Students engage directly with speaking tasks and formative feedback; teachers translate assessment requirements into instructional design, feedback practices, and reflective activities; and administrators set the policy, resource, and training conditions that enable or constrain these classroom processes. Although parents can support extra practice or moral encouragement, empirical studies (Poole et al., 2018) report minimal direct parental involvement in speaking-oriented e-portfolio work. For this reason, the framework privileges these three instructional stakeholders, while noting that future research might extend it to include parents once evidence of their concrete roles emerges.

At the center lies e-portfolio in speaking assessment, which fosters iterative tasks and ongoing feedback cycles essential for spoken-language development. The current framework primarily focuses on individual e-portfolios used for assessing English-speaking skills. However, this does not exclude group e-portfolios. Peer collaboration, interaction, and peer feedback components commonly associated with group e-portfolios are also relevant to individual e-portfolios. In both scenarios, collaboration and peer feedback serve as critical practices contributing to the washback effects by enhancing student engagement and reflective practices. Thus, while the framework is illustrated through individual e-portfolios, it explicitly accommodates collaborative elements like peer assessment, group discussions, and feedback interactions.

Figure 2

The Framework for Washback Effects of E-Portfolios in Speaking Assessment



4.2.1. Students

Students are the primary beneficiaries (or "targets") of e-portfolios in speaking assessment. Their attitudes and practices critically influence whether e-portfolio tasks genuinely promote active learning or simply serve compliance requirements (Barrett, 2005; Cheng & Watanabe, 2004). Washback research consistently highlights learners' perceptions, motivation, behaviors, and attitudes as influential in determining assessment outcomes (Alderson & Wall, 1993; Bailey, 1996). In the context of e-portfolio use, students make critical decisions, including which oral performances to upload, how often they revise artifacts, and whether they actively engage in peer or teacher feedback activities (Zhang & Tur, 2022). To capture students' attitudes, we adopt Eagly and Chaiken's (1998) ABC model, which distinguishes three mutually reinforcing dimensions: affective (how learners feel about using e-portfolios), cognitive (what they believe about their value), and behavioral (how those feelings and beliefs translate into action). This tripartite lens is essential for analyzing washback, because the success of e-portfolio assessment ultimately hinges on learners' emotional engagement, perceived usefulness, and willingness to revise and collaborate. The subsections that follow examine each dimension in the context of speaking-skill e-portfolios.

- *Affective dimension*

The affective component is what a person thinks or feels about other individuals or a specific situation (Eagly & Chaiken, 1998). In this study, the affective dimension refers to a general student's feeling about the e-portfolios in the course of English-speaking skills. Facially positive affective attitudes of interest, enjoyment, and enthusiasm may also contribute to students' motivation as well as beneficial learning outcomes when using e-portfolios for assessing speaking skills (Ahangari & Akbari Hamed, 2013). On the other hand, negative affective attitudes like anxiety or apprehension that students may develop toward the assessment may in fact decrease the chances of the student engaging fully in the assessment process (Ahangari & Akbari Hamed, 2013).

- *Cognitive dimension*

The cognitive component refers to a person's attitude, that is, what he or she thinks or has in their mind every time they deal with people or a particular event. The cognitive dimension in this study implies students' expectations, estimates, or perceptions of e-portfolios as facilitative tools for learning English speaking skills, the criteria and anticipated performance of e-portfolio tasks, and other related mental processes that students go through while addressing the set e-portfolio tasks (Bailey & Garner, 2010). When students perceive the assessment process as relevant to their learning goals and/or as genuine, they may develop positive attitudes towards cognition, thus increasing their investments in the process (Barrett, 2005).

- *Behavioral dimension*

The behavioral aspect is defined as how a person acts or behaves toward others or a particular event (Eagly & Chaiken, 1998). The behavioral dimension encompasses in-class behaviors and out-of-class behaviors. The former may be associated with portfolio-related activities, assessment procedures applied by teachers, and responses to teachers' feedback (Baturay, 2015) while out-of-class behaviors may include the students' practice, contemplation, and evaluation of their own e-portfolios (Hakim & Srisudarso, 2020). Attitudes formed through positive behavioral patterns of learning involving learners' proactive learning behaviors and self-regulated learning have been found to enhance learning outcomes of e-portfolios in assessment (Chang et al., 2018; Duong & Nguyen, 2022).

Besides attitudes, in e-portfolio use, students actively decide which oral performances to upload, the frequency of artifact revisions, and whether to engage in teacher and peer feedback activities (Zhang & Tur, 2022). From the theoretical foundations and empirical findings, observable student practices are directly related to e-portfolio assessment, including self-assessment, artifact curation, collaboration, and peer feedback.

4.2.2. Teachers

In contrast with students, teachers' roles in the framework extend beyond attitudes to include both their beliefs about the efficacy of e-portfolios and the practical teaching practices they deploy. Beliefs, in this context, refer explicitly to teachers' pedagogical perspectives on e-portfolios, such as confidence in their value for improving speaking skills, perceptions of their feasibility, and attitudes regarding technology integration (Messick, 1996; Xie & Andrews, 2013). These beliefs significantly influence the pedagogical practices teachers adopt specifically, task design, frequency and quality of feedback, and the integration of reflective practices into speaking assessments (Ghany & Alzouebi, 2019).

Teachers, as architects of learning experiences, hold decisive authority over which e-portfolio tasks are assigned, how feedback is administered, and what standards guide oral performance evaluation (Green, 2013). Washback research consistently underscores teacher cognition and pedagogy as crucial determinants of whether an assessment fosters meaningful skill development or superficial test-oriented drills (Messick, 1996; Xie & Andrews, 2013). In an e-portfolio system, teacher beliefs about technology and teaching methods translate directly into the practice of providing timely feedback, designing reflective activities, or scaffolding speaking tasks. The framework thus distinguishes teacher beliefs (e.g., confidence in e-portfolios for speaking practice, perceived utility of reflection) from teacher practices (e.g., modeling task, feedback frequency, technology integration). This is aligned with teacher cognition studies showing that beliefs drive pedagogical choices, thereby shaping the assessment environment and its subsequent washback (Ghany & Alzouebi, 2019).

4.2.3. Administrators

Institutional leaders (e.g., department heads, curriculum coordinators) wield the power to create enabling or inhibiting conditions through resource allocation, training programs, and policy directives through resource allocation and training programs (Balaban, 2020; Poole et al., 2018). In the study's framework, they unite strategic perspectives (beliefs about e-portfolios' formative versus summative functions, alignment with program outcomes, and priorities for digital literacy and learner autonomy) with operational practices (curriculum directives; assessment design policies such as rubrics and evaluation criteria). These administrative actions establish the institution's overarching assessment culture, signal the value placed on reflective, technology-enhanced oral assessments, and determine whether teachers and students can sustain iterative feedback cycles. Ultimately, administrators shape the broader environment in which e-portfolio washback effects unfold, directly influencing the effectiveness of speaking-skill development.

At the higher education level, adapting Bailey's (1996) washback framework to emphasize administrators while omitting explicit roles for researchers and material writers is theoretically and empirically justified. Administrators have direct, decisive influence on policy formation, curriculum alignment, and resource allocation which are critical factors to shape washback at the institutional and classroom levels (Shih, 2007; Shohamy, 2020; Shohamy et al., 1996). In contrast, the impact of external researchers and material writers tends to be indirect, mediated through teachers' and administrators' adoption decisions (Abidin, 2021; Alderson & Wall, 1993). Moreover, in higher education environments, stakeholders usually play hybrid roles; instructors and administrators may concurrently participate in research activities and material production (Banegas et al., 2020). Thus, acknowledging these overlapping functions helps to better understand how washback effects show themselves through the active integration of assessment techniques, thereby matching the theoretical framework more precisely with the dynamic reality of university environments. Bailey's (1996) model also suggests a reciprocal interaction between tests and participants, implying that those engaged can affect the exams themselves. Rather than having a direct linear impact, washback operates as a dynamic and complex process influenced by various participants such as students, teachers, parents, researchers, curriculum designers, and material writers, underscoring the multifaceted and comprehensive nature of washback (Bailey, 1996; Dawadi, 2021).

4.3. Interaction Between Students, Teachers, and Administrators in Using E-Portfolios as an Assessment

Bidirectional Interactions among Stakeholders

E-portfolios for English-speaking assessment bring together students, teachers, and administrators in a dynamic system of mutual influence. While students and teachers collaborate on performance feedback and skill development, administrators provide the overarching policies and resources necessary to sustain the assessment process. These relationships are not one-directional. Rather, as Chang et al. (2018) note, student engagement can directly shape teacher practices, and strong administrative support enhances teachers' confidence and effectiveness. Over time, stakeholders develop iterative insights into how to optimize e-portfolio tasks, creating an evolving cycle of continuous improvement (Bailey, 1996; Shohamy, 2020).

Student - Teacher Interaction

At the classroom level, students and teachers engage in formative dialogue around speaking performance (Chang et al., 2011). In e-portfolios, students regularly upload recordings or reflective artifacts on the e-portfolio, and teachers provide targeted feedback on that e-portfolio to guide students' self-reflection and skill refinement. This ongoing exchange fosters deeper learner autonomy and constructive participation (Bailey & Garner, 2010). Hattie and Timperley's (2007) introduced three-level model of feedback including feed-up, feed-back, feed-forward. In the context of Vietnam, Nguyen and Nguyen (2023) Vietnamese EFL teachers and students feedback mirrors these practices through three channels including asynchronous audio/video comments on student recordings, threaded rubric-aligned text annotations, and brief one-on-one tutorials (face-to-face or online). Within the e-portfolio environment, students may review teacher comments on their uploaded speaking recordings and then request additional guidance or clarifications to refine subsequent portfolio submissions. Consequently, the washback generated through the e-portfolio cycle is driven by the quality and timeliness of teacher feedback and by the proactivity with which students engage in revising their speaking artifacts.

Student - Administrator Interaction

Even though students may not interact daily with administrators, the institutional support administrators provide significantly influences students' experiences (Quines & Monteza, 2023). Marsh and Roche's (1997) evaluation-informed policy model and Cook-Sather's (2006) student–faculty partnership framework emphasize surveys, focus groups, and committee involvement as key feedback channels. In Vietnam, quality-assurance surveys embedded in institutional dashboards, student–staff liaison focus groups (via semi-structured interviews), and student representation on assessment committees serve as the primary student–administrator feedback channels (Nguyen et al., 2023; Ta et al., 2023). When administrators set clear guidelines for e-portfolio usage or ensure adequate technical infrastructure, learners can more effectively record and upload speaking tasks. Conversely, limited resources or inconsistent policies may constrain students' ability to engage in meaningful reflection and revision. By following institutional protocols and capitalizing on available support (e.g., training workshops, stable digital platforms), students are better positioned to improve and achieve desired speaking outcomes.

Teacher - Administrator Interaction

Administrators also play an essential role in supporting teachers' professional development and motivation (Rai, 2018). In e-portfolio-based speaking assessments, collaborative planning between teachers and administrators (e.g., aligning curriculum outcomes, designing rubrics) helps ensure the assessment tasks remain relevant and well-structured. Administrators can further facilitate teacher success by allocating resources (e.g., software licenses, hardware for recording) or scheduling time for feedback cycles. Ongoing communication between teachers and administrators regarding washback effects (e.g., changes in teaching focus, student engagement) allows for real-time policy or resource distribution adjustments, enhancing the overall efficacy of e-portfolio implementation (Quines & Monteza, 2023). Leithwood and Jantzi (2000) stress that data-driven instructional leadership requires structured feedback loops. Hallinger et al. (2017) report that in Vietnamese higher education there are cohort-level analytics dashboards sent to academic leaders, regular strategy meetings with teachers, and targeted professional-development workshops which underpin effective policy enactment and continuous pedagogical improvement.

Contextual Mediators

Across these interactions, institutional culture, resource availability, and professional development operate as mediating factors (Messick, 1996; Shohamy et al., 1996; Yujie et al., 2024). Even the most proactive teacher beliefs or enthusiastic student attitudes may yield minimal washback if, for example, there is insufficient technology to manage frequent audio or video submissions. Conversely, an environment that values reflective practice and allots time for formative feedback is likely to maximize the positive influence of e-portfolios on speaking proficiency.

Speaking - Specific Considerations

Unlike traditional written tasks, spoken language disappears quickly when spoken since people cannot normally record it (Chang et al., 2011) unless they use recording technology. Digital attachments in e-portfolios provide students with a way to record spoken tasks while allowing them to hear their previous attempts alongside peer reviews. The iterative process of performance - feedback - revision works specifically for speaking advancement because it enables students to enhance their speaking accuracy along with fluency and communicative ability over time. The assessment process for e-portfolio oral submissions needs regular student submissions along with strong feedback systems and specialized attention to recording tools because it differs from traditional discrete-point and writing evaluation approaches.

In short, the washback effects of e-portfolio for speaking assessment rely on the lasting relationship between students, teachers, and administrators, while functional mediators at the institution support based on oral-language requirements. The combined effect of stakeholders with clear policies and clear communication helps build positive washback impacts for skill development instead of focusing on test preparation.

5. Conclusion

The proposed framework establishes multi-stakeholder reciprocity among students, teachers, and administrators, moving beyond traditional teacher-focused washback models by adopting a socio-cultural perspective on collaborative learning (Lantolf et al., 2015). Uniquely, this framework highlights technology-mediated tasks specifically aimed at speaking skill development, diverging from earlier washback discussions primarily concerned with validation or discrete linguistic outcomes (Messick, 1996). The cyclical interaction model emphasizes ongoing, interactive assessment processes, facilitating sustained oral proficiency growth and encouraging pedagogical shifts toward student-centered instructional practices (Barrett, 2005).

Practically, the framework provides a comprehensive roadmap for empirical research, guiding longitudinal, mixed-method studies to monitor washback effects. It also provides concrete plans for teacher professional development, therefore allowing useful classroom integration of task authenticity, feedback cycles, digital-literacy scaffolds, and learner reflection. Using the framework as an evaluation tool will help institutional stakeholders guarantee strong support for oral-skill development whether they are implementing or improving e-portfolio systems.

Notwithstanding these important contributions, current data mostly originates from higher-education environments, therefore restricting understanding of the roles of parental and community stakeholders. Future research must pilot the framework in K-12 and culturally diverse environments, employing mixed-methods designs incorporating rubric evaluations, AI-assisted pronunciation analyses, and learner diaries to enhance generalizability and sharpen theoretical constructs.

This study advances the discourse on e-portfolio assessments by advocating a shift toward authentic, natural language skill development. The framework demonstrates substantial potential for improving student communicative competence through structured stakeholder collaboration. However, extensive validation in varied educational contexts is essential, particularly examining external variables such as family engagement and resource availability. Ultimately, this research positions e-portfolios as transformative educational tools, capable of fostering both pedagogical innovation and comprehensive learner development within contemporary language education curricula.

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RESEARCH ON KOREAN STUDIES FROM THE INTERDISCIPLINARY APPROACH OF AREA STUDIES

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Abstract: This paper proposes an interdisciplinary approach to Korean studies through the lens of area studies. The study synthesizes and presents the key concepts and fundamental characteristics of both area studies and Korean studies to emphasize the necessity of applying area studies methodologies to Korean studies research. The paper highlights the interdisciplinary nature of this approach while clarifying key aspects of Korean studies research. Additionally, it relates the current state of Korean studies in Vietnam, identifies challenges, and proposes directions for development, aiming to establish a theoretical foundation for Korean studies as an interdisciplinary field of study and research in Vietnam.

Keywords: area studies, Korean studies, interdisciplinary research

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NGHIÊN CỨU HÀN QUỐC HỌC TỪ CÁCH TIẾP CẬN LIÊN NGÀNH CỦA NGHIÊN CỨU KHU VỰC HỌC

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Tóm tắt: Bài viết này nhằm đề xuất cách tiếp cận liên ngành của nghiên cứu khu vực học đối với nghiên cứu Hàn Quốc học. Nghiên cứu tổng hợp và đưa ra các khái niệm và đặc điểm cơ bản của cả nghiên cứu khu vực học và nghiên cứu Hàn Quốc học, từ đó đưa ra quan điểm về sự cần thiết trong áp dụng các phương pháp nghiên cứu khu vực học vào nghiên cứu Hàn Quốc học. Bài viết làm nổi bật bản chất liên ngành của cách tiếp cận này, đồng thời làm rõ các khía cạnh nghiên cứu của Hàn Quốc học. Ngoài ra, bài viết còn liên hệ đến tình hình nghiên cứu Hàn Quốc học tại Việt Nam, xác định những thách thức và đề xuất các hướng phát triển, nhằm thiết lập nền tảng lý thuyết cho nghiên cứu Hàn Quốc học như một ngành học và nghiên cứu liên ngành tại Việt Nam.

Từ khóa: khu vực học, Hàn Quốc học, nghiên cứu liên ngành

1. Background of the Study

Along with the burgeoning global interest in the Korean language, the development of Korean studies has also been a subject of academic discussion and concern in recent years. Since the early 2000s, numerous studies have addressed the challenges and prospects of Korean studies in various countries and regions worldwide. One of the pioneering studies in Korean studies was conducted by Kang in 2006, which analyzed the Korean language and Korean studies curricula (both undergraduate and graduate programs in South Korea) and proposed directions for the field's development. This study recommended separating the Korean language curriculum into basic and advanced levels, with the key suggestion being the inclusion of foundational courses on Korean politics, commerce, art, society, and culture within the language training program (Kang, 2006). Since 2015, studies on the development of Korean studies have seen a notable increase in both quantity and scope.[1] Generally, these studies assess the current state, identify challenges, and propose directions for the growth of Korean studies in specific countries (such as China, Indonesia, Vietnam) or regions (including Central and South America, Africa, Europe). A common theme across these studies has been the growing demand for new knowledge in both language-teaching subjects with the need for content localization and broader fields of Korean studies (non-language subjects on Korea). Additionally, there is a clear need for qualified faculties, as well as a call for expanded and more in-depth research into Korean studies, as emphasized in many of these works.

Korean studies, along with its teaching and research, has undergone more than 30 years of development in Vietnam. Amid significant changes in the teaching environment for

[1] Based on the data the author searched for on Korea Citation Index (KCI) - a non-commercial South Korean citation index operated by the National Research Foundation of Korea, with the keyword "한국학 발전 방향" (Development Directions of Korean Studies) over the years. (Website: https://www.kci.go.kr)

the Korean language and Korean studies in the country, research in these fields has also highlighted the need for transformation. In this context, the paper aims to propose a new perspective on approaching Korean studies as a specialized branch of area studies, applying the methodologies of area studies to the research of Korean studies. The discussion of positioning Korean studies as a social science or as a subset of area studies has been explored in several conferences and studies in Korea over the past five years. However, in Vietnam, the approach to Korean studies as an area studies discipline, along with its interdisciplinary nature, is still in its early stages. Therefore, the author seeks to synthesize and provide a deeper analysis of this issue, aiming to establish a theoretical foundation for approaching Korean studies from an interdisciplinary perspective within area studies in Vietnam.

This paper will synthesize and define the fundamental characteristics of both area studies and Korean studies. Building on this, it will propose an approach to Korean studies from an interdisciplinary perspective within area studies. Finally, some issues related to the current state of Korean studies in Vietnam will be examined through the lens of area studies as an interdisciplinary social science.

2. Area Studies and Interdisciplinary Research

2.1. Overview of Area Studies

Area studies is an interdisciplinary field within the social sciences and humanities. It originated in Europe at the end of the 19th century and experienced significant growth during World War II in many countries. Both historically and analytically, area studies has been regarded as a branch of International Relations (Morgenthau, 1952).

As International Relations gained recognition and established itself as an independent discipline after World War I, area studies initially followed international relations by focusing on specific regions but more comprehensively. It was often aimed at serving national security (geopolitics) and economic interests during that period, particularly for some European countries and the United States. Hence, area studies aims to generate comprehensive knowledge about a specific territory within a defined space. It is an integrative field that combines disciplines such as geography, history, culture, politics, economics, and society. From this point of view, the interdisciplinary approach to area studies becomes essential.

Area studies takes the region as the subject of research, and the term “area” or “region” itself can be interpreted in varying scopes depending on the purpose and subject of the study (Mai, 2012). Overtime, the research focus of area studies has shifted and varied across different regions. In the United States and several Western European countries, area studies is closely associated with political science, whereas in the United Kingdom, it tends to focus more on ethnology and anthropology. In Japan, area studies encompasses almost the entire world, covering various levels from macro-regions like the Asia-Pacific to individual countries (Tran, 2013).

In Vietnam, the term “area studies” was officially designated as a field of study by the Ministry of Education and Training in 2005. Prior to this, the roots of area studies in Vietnam can be traced back to the 20th century, considering the research by Western scholars on Vietnam and the works of feudal-era scholars on Vietnam and its region. An early characteristic of area studies in Vietnam was its approach to foreign language education. After the liberation of the North in 1954, foreign language departments such as English, Russian, Chinese, and Japanese were established and later expanded. By the early 2000s, programs such as Oriental studies and International studies (Europe - America) had become more prevalent, and the naming of foreign language departments often reflected a cultural dimension - for example, English Language and Culture or Korean Language and Culture.

Returning to the concept of area studies, Tran (2013) defines it as an "interdisciplinary science that examines a specific geographic-cultural space inhabited by one or more communities, characterized by a set of distinctive relationships mapped out geographically." Additionally, Go (2021) outlines four conceptual characteristics of area studies: (i) it is a field of study grounded in spatial foundations; (ii) it provides a comprehensive and holistic understanding of the region; (iii) it is an interdisciplinary field; and (iv) it aims to identify and research the distinctive characteristics of the studied region.

Based on these definitions, it is evident that the research methodology applied in area studies is interdisciplinary rather than specialized. Secondly, the unit of research - "area" - can be divided into various spatial levels, such as the world, areas, regions, sub-regions, countries, and specific cases. Thirdly, the subjects of area studies may include natural geography, people, history, language, economic activities, political organizations, culture, foreign relations, and more.

2.2. Interdisciplinary Research in Area studies

2.2.1. Concept and Characteristics of Interdisciplinarity

The concept of interdisciplinarity is described as "an approach in social science that involves the collaboration of two or more fields of study" (Tran, 2013; Trinh, 2015). Tran (2009) defines interdisciplinary research as "inter-scientific research," which refers to the integration of various subjects and fields of study. This interdisciplinary combination aims to synthesize knowledge from multiple domains and fields of study, create connections, establish reciprocal relationships, and encourage mutual influence among disciplines and research methods.

For a long time, the development of scientific fields has followed a path of specialization and division into distinct disciplines. The classification of knowledge into specific fields has facilitated in-depth research, leading to numerous scientific achievements. Scientific disciplines exist independently and equally, with clear boundaries between them. However, scientific issues - especially those in the social sciences and humanities, which examine human life - have become increasingly complex. Only by approaching these issues from diverse perspectives and weaving together different viewpoints can researchers fully comprehend the challenges faced by humanity.

Specialized research methods[2] have begun to show limitations in addressing the diversification and increasing complexity of society. Hence, interdisciplinary approaches are proposed as a viable solution, given that all scientific fields are interrelated and influence one another. Through interdisciplinary research, scholars aim to connect and establish reciprocal relationships among disciplines to gain a more comprehensive and profound understanding of the research problem. Some common interdisciplinary combinations in the social sciences and humanities include: culture-literature, economics-politics, geography-anthropology, history-

[2] Regarding scientific research methods, two main approaches can be identified: specialized research methods and interdisciplinary research methods. In many cases, the terms multidisciplinary or transdisciplinary methods are also used. Although their connotations may differ, they share the common meaning of approaching a research problem from multiple fields of analysis.

economics, culture-business, education-human resource management, economics-sustainable development, and art-business administration. Furthermore, interdisciplinarity also encompasses the integration of the social sciences with the natural sciences, or among various branches of the natural sciences.

2.2.2. Characteristics of Interdisciplinary Research in Area Studies

First and foremost, it is important to emphasize that interdisciplinary research in area studies aims to provide comprehensive and profound insights into that area. According to Nguyen (2008), "formal and systematic interdisciplinary research requires the simultaneous, holistic, and effective use of multiple specific methods for a research subject, bringing about a common scientific understanding. Here, the research methods must be placed on an equal footing, without bias or distinction between primary and secondary methods."

American area studies scholar Szanton (2002) emphasizes the importance of interdisciplinary research in area studies. He identifies five key characteristics, which are also the most fundamental conditions for conducting interdisciplinary research on an area, a country, or a territory, including: (1) intensive study of the local language of the research area; (2) use of the local language to conduct field research; (3) thorough investigation of the context surrounding historical events, local perspectives, documents, and interpretations; (4) examination, discussion, critique, and development of theory based on grounded observations; (5) engagement in discussions that involve multiple social sciences and humanities disciplines.

Additionally, Trinh (2015) notes that, due to the broad and universal nature of interdisciplinarity in area studies, the research subjects can be divided into two main categories, which are (1) research to understand and discover the nature or characteristics of the area, and (2) research on a specific issue within the area. To effectively conduct such research, the most essential requirements for researchers included proficiency in the local language and the ability to conduct fieldwork. In many cases, collaborative or team-based research is also required.

3. Korean Studies from the Perspective of Interdisciplinary Approaches in Area Studies

3.1. Overview of Korean Studies

In general, Korean studies is the academic field that focuses on studying Korea.[3] Depending on the scope of research and the approach taken by the researcher, the concept of Korean studies is adjusted to suit the research objectives. Specifically, Kim (2007) provides a simple and general definition of Korean studies as "a system of knowledge about Korea." On the other hand, Jeon (2010) offers a more detailed definition, describing Korean studies as "research on language, history, ethnicity, culture, and the region, as well as comprehensive and systematic knowledge about politics, economics, society, academia, and the arts on the Korean Peninsula".

In Korean studies, one debated issue is whether the Korean language falls within the scope of this academic field. Since the 1980s, the South Korean government has promoted

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[3] In terms of this paper, the official country name of the Republic of Korea could be also used as Korea and South Korea. In some cases, when it is necessary to refer to Korea in the historical context before the division into North and South, the author will mention the Korean Peninsula as an expanded research scope. Additionally, "Korean studies" refers to studies on South Korea in particular.

budget support for expanding and developing Korean studies abroad.[4] In 2002, the South Korean Ministry of Education officially recognized Korean language education as an academic discipline. Since 2004, the National Research Foundation of Korea has classified the Korean language as an independent academic field and has allocated national research funding for projects related to the Korean language (Jeon, 2010). Except for the North American region, where the origins of Korean studies are largely driven by security and regional geopolitical concerns, research on Korea generally began with an approach centered on the Korean language. A typical example is Southeast Asia, where, motivated by economic cooperation, Korean has been taught as a second foreign language and gradually has become an official academic major. According to the research synthesis by Kwak (2012) and Lee (2020), Korean studies programs abroad are generally divided into two categories: Korean linguistics, which combines teaching the Korean language with courses on Korean culture and society, and Korean studies (non-linguistic), which focuses on the study of Korea as an academic discipline.

In the scope of this study, the author adopts a broad definition of Korean studies that includes the Korean language. In other words, Korean studies is regarded as an academic field that examines all aspects of Korea - including language, history, geography, economy, politics, society, and culture. Based on this theoretical foundation, the study proposes an approach to Korean studies from the perspective of area studies. At the same time, it advocates for the application of interdisciplinary research methods from area studies to Korean studies, in order to address the increasing complexity and growing demand for research related to Korea.

3.2. Korean Studies from the Perspective of Area Studies

In the criteria for regional division within area studies, scholars have developed various ways of categorizing regions depending on the purpose and object of the research. First, at the spatial level, areas are divided into regions, sub-regions, and cases. Second, in terms of research scope, scholars distinguish between macro-level studies, cultural area studies, regional studies, national studies, micro-level studies, sub-regional studies, case studies, sample studies, and exemplar studies. Third, regarding the field of study, researchers may examine natural conditions, the environment, history, economy, political institutions, legal systems, demographics, society, and more (Tran, 2013).

Based on this foundation, Korean studies, in its broad sense, encompasses topics ranging from language, culture, economy, politics, and history to religion, law, and more. It is considered a research subject at the national level within the framework of area studies. Depending on specific research objectives, subjects related to South Korea may vary significantly among researchers. However, based on the interdisciplinary approach of area studies, the author proposes three fundamental characteristics when approaching Korean studies as follows.

First, based on the spatial foundation of the Korean Peninsula, the researcher should go beyond a purely geographic analysis to explore the demographic composition and everyday lives of the people residing in the area. Spatial scale in this context is not fixed but dynamic, shaped by shared values and cultural commonalities. When applying a human geography

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[4] In terms of Korean studies development policy, the South Korean government, through its specialized agency, the Academy of Korean studies (AKS) under the Ministry of Education, has distinguished between “Domestic Korean studies” and “Overseas Korean studies”.

approach, researchers examine various aspects - such as politics, economy, culture, history, and language - within the region, which are inherently linked to the lived experiences of its inhabitants. This approach allows researchers to uncover strong cause-and-effect relationships between social phenomena and the natural, cultural, and lifestyle characteristics of the people.

Second, the researcher needs to have a comprehensive understanding of Korea (and the broader Korean Peninsula). Such an understanding involves not only in-depth knowledge of South Korea itself but also of the country's relationships with closely connected nations and regions. This is because no country exists in isolation; international relationships - both bilateral and multilateral - play a significant role in shaping domestic conditions. In the case of South Korea, prominent cultural, economic, and political ties exist with countries such as China, Japan, the United States, and Vietnam. A comprehensive understanding also requires researchers (individually or as part of a team) to synthesize interdisciplinary knowledge from fields such as language, culture, history, economics, sociology, and political science to develop a more nuanced and multi-faceted analysis of social phenomena.

Third, drawing on this comprehensive and interdisciplinary foundation, researchers must generate findings that reflect the specificity of Korea. While disciplines such as sociology often aim for generalization, area studies emphasizes particularity (Go, 2021). This means that while general theoretical frameworks may be applied, researchers must also account for the distinct characteristics of the specific country or region under study. Generalization must not come at the expense of obscuring cultural and contextual uniqueness. For example, understanding the organizational logic of Japanese society does not equate to an understanding of Korean society. In comparative research, area studies specialists are uniquely positioned to identify both similarities and differences between countries and regions with precision.

4. Korean Studies in South Korea

In South Korea, the teaching of Korean studies at the university level can be broadly categorized into three main models. First, some universities offer Korean language programs that are supplemented by non-language Korean studies courses. Second, other universities have established dedicated departments of Korean studies that focus on core areas such as South Korea's politics, society, culture, economy, and history. Third, a number of institutions provide Korean studies as a specialized graduate program (Park et al., 2018). As of April 2025, a total of 36 universities in South Korea offer 46 undergraduate and graduate programs in Korean studies - up from 20 programs in 2022.[5]

In addition, the names of Korean studies departments vary widely, such as the Department of Korean Studies, the Department of Global Interdisciplinary Korean Studies, the Department of Global Korean Studies, the Department of Global Advanced Korean Studies, the Interdisciplinary Global Korean Studies Program, the Department of Korean Studies in Cooperative Interdepartmental Programs, or the Cooperative Korean Studies Program. According to the DaehakAlimi database (as of April 2025), among the 46 Korean studies programs, 22 fall under the category of area studies (often referred to as *International*

[5] Source: DaehakAlimi https://www.academyinfo.go.kr/index.do (Accessed: 2025.04.29). The author accessed the Daehak Alimi website by following the navigation path "Department Information" - "Keyword-based Department Information", and conducted a search using the keyword "Korean studies". Based on the 46 results retrieved, the information was organized and analyzed.

Area Studies), one under International Studies, 13 under Korean Language and Literature, one under Linguistics, two under General Education in Social Sciences, four under Cultural Studies, Folklore, and Art History, one under History/Archaeology, and two are unclassified or do not clearly fit into any specific academic category. This classification provides compelling evidence of Korean studies' advancement as a social science discipline. It also underscores the increasing emphasis on area studies and highlights the interdisciplinary nature of the field's contemporary development.

In addition to formal education, research in Korean studies has been significantly advanced through national initiatives. Notably, the Academy of Korean Studies (AKS) - a government-affiliated institution under the Ministry of Education - launched a major project (2021–2026) aimed at generating new foundational knowledge in Korean studies. As part of this initiative, ten (10) university departments or research institutes were selected to lead research in five specialized domains: Politics and Diplomacy, Economy and Society, History and Ethnology, Religion and Philosophy, and Language and Culture. These research units collectively formed the *K-Academic* centers for the development of Korean studies.[6]

Operating under a 3+2 year model, the project is supported by an annual budget of KRW 11 billion (approximately USD 8.5 million). It sets out two primary objectives: (1) to promote Korean studies research and education globally through the development of online lectures, curricula, and teaching materials; and (2) to contribute to the global production of original Korean studies knowledge and foster the next generation of scholars in the field.

To support global accessibility, researchers, educators, and students interested in Korean studies can easily access online lectures by signing up and joining classes on K-MOOC (Korea's Massive Open Online Course), a platform offering free online educational lectures from South Korea. Upon completing the course and meeting the assessment requirements, learners can receive a certificate of completion. For instance, Seoul National University has established the Center for Korean Economy and K-Academics within the framework of this project. By the third year of the project, the center had developed educational resources with 12 courses (hundreds of lecture videos), including "Korean Economic Development", "Korean Social Policy", "Industrialization of Korea during Economic Development", and "History of the Korean Shipbuilding Industry". Inha University participated in the Korean studies academic development project in the field of political diplomacy, and under the establishment and operation of the Inha K-Academic Diffusion Research Center, courses such as "Korea and International Relations", "Democratization and Democracy of Korea", "Formation of International Law", and "Korea and Overseas Koreans" were developed. Moreover, these courses cover a wide range, from K-pop, language, religion, philosophy, Hallyu, and cultural content, creating a vast body of source knowledge on Korean studies. The courses are generally designed in Korean (or English) and include Korean subtitles, with translations available mainly in English and Chinese. Professors teaching these courses are experts in their respective fields. In addition to the free online lecture materials that can be accessed from anywhere, interested individuals can also download the curriculum and teaching plans, access numerous published research papers, and participate in specialized seminars organized within the framework of the ongoing projects at ten universities, centers, and research institutes in South Korea.

[6] From 2007 to 2023, within the field of domestic Korean studies supported by the AKS, the "K-Academic Expansion Research Institute Project" received the largest average annual research funding.

Regarding recent academic discourse, a review of major Korean studies conferences from 2022 to 2024 reveals a distinct shift toward interdisciplinary research frameworks. There is a growing emphasis on expanding Korean studies beyond traditional boundaries, incorporating sociological and cross-disciplinary perspectives. One of the most prominent events exemplifying this trend is the 12th World Congress of Korean studies under the central theme of "Beyond Boundaries: Interdisciplinary Communication in Korean studies", a large-scale international conference organized by the Academy of Korean studies (AKS) in collaboration with Korean studies associations from various regions around the world. This congress brings together scholars and researchers in Korean studies globally. This theme is considered to mark a turning point for Korean Studies, signaling its transition into a new phase that better aligns with the realities and global demands for knowledge and research in the field.

At Inha University, notable international academic conferences were held under the themes "Political Science, International Relations, and Social Sciences as Korean Studies: Toward an Integrated Approach to Korean Studies" (June 2022), and "Exploring New Possibilities for Korean Studies in the 21st Century" (September 2024). The conference "Comparative Interdisciplinary Korean Studies in the Altai Region", organized by the Eurasia Korean Studies Research Center (April 2022); "The Potential of Global Korean Studies", hosted by the Institute for Global Korean Studies at Yonsei University (August 2022); "Exploring a New Paradigm for Korean Studies in Central Asia", held in Kazakhstan (June 2023); the "16th Kyujanggak International Symposium on Korean Studies" (November 2023), which covered a wide range of topics such as Korean history, colonial Korea, North Korea, ideology, communication, Korea-China relations, development in the Republic of Korea, Korean cinema, and premodern Korean history; and "Korean Studies in the Digital Era: Sources, Tools, and Methods", held at Keimyung University (May 2024) are few examples.

5. Discussion and Closing Remarks

5.1. Current Status of Korean Studies in Vietnam

According to statistics provided by the Korean Education Center in Hanoi, as of April 2025, a total of 48 universities in Vietnam offer majors in Korean language and/or Korean studies, with more than 27,000 students currently enrolled in these programs.[7] Geographically, 21 universities are located in northern Vietnam, 6 in the central region, and 21 in the southern region. Among these institutions, programs specifically focused on Korean studies constitute only approximately 27 percent of the total, while the vast majority - over 70 percent - offer curricula centered on Korean language, Korean culture, and, to a lesser extent, interpretation and translation. Furthermore, the field is supported by around 700 lecturers across Vietnamese universities, most of whom specialize in Korean linguistics or Korean language education (Luu, 2025).

A review of the curricula at several prominent Vietnamese institutions offering Korean studies majors,[8] reveals that specific courses on Korean studies (such as Korean

[7] Korean Education Center in Hanoi, http://www.kecvn.com/sub/sub3_7.php (Accessed: 2025.04.29). The total number of Korean language learners in Vietnam, including non-majors, exceeds 50,000. If colleges and vocational schools are included, approximately 60 educational institutions offer Korean language majors.

[8] The author analyzed the official curriculum of a few major Korean studies' education organization in Vietnam, including the Department of Korean Studies at the University of Social Sciences and Humanities, Vietnam National University Hanoi and Vietnam National University Ho Chi Minh City; the Korean Studies Division

Society, Introduction to Korean Studies, Korean Political System, Korean Foreign Policy, Korean Business Culture, Political Economy of Korea, etc.) account for only about 15 percent to 25 percent of the overall curriculum, while the majority are Korean language skill-based courses. In practice, due to a shortage of specialized faculty, the number of Korean studies courses offered is significantly lower than initially planned in the official curriculum.

The interdisciplinary trend in Korean studies education and research is also reflected in the case of the University of Social Sciences and Humanities, Vietnam National University, Ho Chi Minh City (USSH-VNU HCMC). In 2022, USSH-VNU HCMC launched the first Master's program in Korean studies in Vietnam. In 2024, the university officially introduced a new undergraduate major in Korean Business and Commerce, enrolling its first cohort of 60 students. This undergraduate program is designed to train high-quality human resources in the socio-economic sector, with a specialized focus on interdisciplinary business and commerce in relation to country studies, specifically, Korea. These initiatives represent pioneering efforts to respond to evolving societal demands for Korean-speaking professionals who are proficient in the language and well-equipped with expertise in a specific professional field. The establishment of the Korean Business and Commerce major reflects interdisciplinary collaboration between member universities of Vietnam National University, Ho Chi Minh City, particularly between the Faculty of Korean Studies at USSH and the Faculty of Business Administration at the University of Economics and Law (UEL). Graduates of this program are awarded a Bachelor's degree in Korean Business and Commerce, and those who complete additional required coursework may also qualify for a second degree in either Korean Studies or Business and Commerce, depending on the academic unit's regulations.

Based on the aforementioned observations, it is evident that the landscape of Korean studies education and research in Vietnam has undergone a notable transformation in recent years. The emergence of new Korean studies programs with a social science orientation and the growing recognition of Korean studies as an interdisciplinary field are expected to significantly reshape the discipline in the medium to long term. However, a key limitation persists: more than 70 percent of current lecturers in Korean studies programs specialize in Korean language and language education, while the number of faculty with expertise in core fields such as area studies, sociology, or international relations remains relatively limited. As a result, the range and depth of course offerings addressing contemporary issues in Korean society - such as Korean cultural industries, K-content, and media studies - remain insufficient to fully meet the growing academic and societal demand.

5.2. Challenges and Tasks in the Development of Korean Studies in Vietnam

A general trend observed in both theory and practice is discussed to develop Korean studies as a field of area studies with an interdisciplinary approach, starting from linguistics to social sciences and humanities. These collective efforts contribute to the broader advancement of what is now referred to as Korean studies. Through this interdisciplinary lens, phenomena and events occurring in or related to South Korea are situated within a comparative analytical framework, allowing for more comprehensive interpretation of increasingly complex and diverse issues.

For researchers in Korean studies, the primary professional requirement is proficiency

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under the Faculty of Asia-Pacific Studies at the Diplomatic Academy of Vietnam; and the Korean Studies Division within the Faculty of Korean Language and Culture at the University of Languages and International Studies, Vietnam National University, Hanoi.

in the Korean language.[9] Consequently, in Korean studies education, language training plays a crucial and foundational role, serving as a necessary tool for information access and data collection. However, language proficiency alone is insufficient; only when researchers are additionally trained in social science disciplines - particularly sociology, anthropology, economics, and political science - can they effectively analyze collected information and generate new knowledge. In practice, due to limitations in specialized personnel or learner demand, departments of Korean language or Korean studies in many countries are often responsible for fulfilling all these roles (Kim, 2021).

To sustain the demand for learning and researching Korean Studies in the long term, Korean studies needs to be "localized." This means that the phenomena occurring in Korean society should be explained within a cultural context, reflecting the social characteristics of the local country. In other words, Korean studies needs to be adapted to fit the social environment of the local country, and knowledge about Korea should be considered in relation to that country's cultural and social context. Through this, the localization of Korean studies will generate more interest and enthusiasm among learners.

In addition, research in Korean studies must foster greater exchange of perspectives between Korean and international scholars. A commonly observed challenge is the bias in research viewpoints that stems from regional or national differences among researchers. However, this limitation can be effectively addressed through collaborative research projects, open dialogue, and systematic information sharing.

Moreover, building a robust academic workforce in Korean studies requires diversification of disciplinary expertise. While current faculty members are still predominantly concentrated in Korean language, culture, literature, and history - fields that accounted for 57.3 percent of Korean studies faculty worldwide as of 2021 (Go, 2021) - there is a pressing need to expand into the social sciences, including sociology, political science, international relations, and economics. The existing specialization imbalance is already evident in the structure of Korean studies curricula across institutions. For instance, Korean studies programs in Australia have begun moving beyond traditional language training to address broader socio-political themes such as migration, North Korean affairs, inter-Korean relations, and Korea's role in Northeast Asia, particularly its interactions with China and Japan. Despite this progress, the supply of qualified experts still falls short of meeting the increasing demand for more comprehensive Korean studies education and research (Shin, 2020).

After more than three decades of development, Korean language education in Vietnam has experienced rapid growth, positioning Vietnam as one of the most dynamic countries globally in this field. However, for Korean studies to develop both in breadth and depth, it is clear that an interdisciplinary approach is an inevitable trend in teaching and research. To implement this direction, Vietnam already has a strong foundational platform in terms of language. However, as described above, creating a shift in direction requires a long process, the most important of which is a shift in mindset and awareness of the necessity for change.

This study acknowledges its limitations, particularly in its capacity to analyze the teaching and research of Korean studies in Vietnam from a fully interdisciplinary perspective. The current research also lacks comprehensive empirical data on the actual structure, content,

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[9] Limited proficiency in the Korean language is considered a significant obstacle for many foreign researchers in Korean studies, particularly those in Europe and North America, in accessing knowledge about Korea and promoting multidimensional academic exchange (Duncan, 2022).

and delivery of Korean studies programs across Vietnamese institutions. Future research should engage in more critical discussions of practical challenges and explore context-sensitive models for applying interdisciplinary methods to Korean studies education and research in Vietnam.

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INFLUENCE OF READING STRATEGY USE ON UNIVERSITY STUDENTS' SECOND LANGUAGE READING PERFORMANCE

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Abstract: Findings about the role of reading strategy use in second language (L2) reading have been inconclusive. This study, therefore, examined the reading strategies that distinguish high- and low-performing L2 readers. For this purpose, 32 Vietnamese ESL university students completed a fourteen-item TOEFL reading test and a survey of reading strategies consisting of 30 items measuring L2 learners' use of global, problem-solving and support strategies. The results of independent samples t-tests revealed no significant differences in their overall use of three strategy categories between high- and low-performing L2 readers, but the two groups showed significant differences in their use of three global strategies and one problem-solving strategy. These findings suggested that certain reading strategies could contribute to proficient reading in a L2.

Keywords: second language reading, reading strategies, reading performance

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TÁC ĐỘNG CỦA VIỆC SỬ DỤNG CHIẾN LƯỢC ĐỌC ĐỐI VỚI KHẢ NĂNG ĐỌC HIỂU NGÔN NGỮ THỨ HAI CỦA SINH VIÊN ĐẠI HỌC

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Tóm tắt: Các kết quả nghiên cứu trước đây về vai trò của việc sử dụng chiến lược đọc trong ngôn ngữ thứ hai còn chưa thống nhất. Do đó, nghiên cứu này được tiến hành với mục đích xác định các nhóm chiến lược và các chiến lược đọc cụ thể giúp phân biệt người đọc tốt và chưa tốt trong ngôn ngữ thứ hai. 32 sinh viên đại học Việt Nam đã hoàn thành một bài kiểm tra đọc hiểu TOEFL gồm 14 câu hỏi và một bảng khảo sát chiến lược đọc ngôn ngữ thứ hai, bao gồm chiến lược đọc tổng quát, giải quyết vấn đề, và hỗ trợ. Kết quả của các phép so sánh t-mẫu độc lập cho thấy không có sự khác biệt về mặt thống kê giữa nhóm có điểm số bài đọc cao và nhóm có điểm số thấp. Tuy nhiên, có sự khác biệt đáng kể trong việc sử dụng ba chiến lược giải quyết vấn đề và một chiến lược tổng quát giữa hai nhóm. Từ những kết quả này, có thể thấy rằng một số chiến lược đọc nhất định góp phần vào việc đọc thành thạo trong ngôn ngữ thứ hai.

Từ khóa: đọc hiểu ngôn ngữ thứ hai, chiến lược đọc, khả năng đọc hiểu

1. Introduction

Reading comprehension plays an important role in second language (L2) learning and is considered as a prerequisite for learning all language aspects (Aebersold & Field, 1997; Mikulecky, 2008). It serves as an essential source of input for other language skills (listening, speaking, and writing). Reading is also essential to academic development, as it provides the basis for a substantial amount of learning in education (Alvermann & Earle, 2003).

However, many English as second language (ESL) students show difficulties in English reading comprehension (Kindler, 2002). A number of factors such as reading fluency, vocabulary knowledge, and working memory may be attributed to L2 readers' difficulties (Johnston & Kirby, 2006; Macaruso & Shankweiler, 2008). Besides, their reading failure might result from their lack of awareness and use of reading strategies (Grabe, 1991; Carrell, 1991; Ouellettee & Beers, 2010). Reading strategies are deliberate actions that readers use to monitor and evaluate the reading process and help them achieve their reading goals (Cohen, 1990; Mokhtari & Sheorey, 2002). A vast body of research (e.g., Anderson, 1991; Do & Le, 2021; Jafari & Shokrpour, 2012; Kamran, 2012; Madhumathi & Ghosh, 2012; Okyar, 2021; Zhang & Wu, 2009) has been done to identify the role of reading strategies in L2 reading. Nevertheless, current findings of the relationship between L2 readers' strategy use and reading performance are seemingly controversial and require further research. This study, therefore, aimed to identify the reading strategy types and the individual reading strategies that distinguish low and high L2 reading performance among university students. Specifically, the following research questions were addressed in the study:

1. Is there a significant difference in reading strategy use between low- and high-performing L2 readers?

2. What individual reading strategies are used differently between low- and high-performing L2 readers?

2. Literature Review

2.1. Reading process and reading strategies

Reading can be defined as the process of understanding the written language. Any literate human being can read, nevertheless, the process of reading is far more complex than one might think. Since the 1970s, throughout the development of psycholinguistic and cognitive learning theories, reading research has shown that reading is an interactive process involving the application of both higher order and lower order processing in relation to the reader's background knowledge and features of the text itself (Hudson, 2007). Lower order (bottom-up) processing involves decoding (i.e., readers' ability to automatically process the symbol-sound correspondence) (Gough, 1972) and understanding literal and supporting information/details in the text. Higher order (top-down) processing is driven by readers' expectations and predictions about the content of the text. Readers begin with predictions and hypotheses derived from background knowledge about the topic or situation as suggested by the title or by skimming the text and then sample the text to confirm or disconfirm and correct their initial hypotheses (Goodman, 1967; Smith, 2004). Higher order processing is important for readers' understanding of main ideas and inferential information in the text. According to Rumelhart (1985), lower and higher order processing happen simultaneously and interact with each other in a parallel manner. Stanovich (1980) elaborates that the two types of processing complement and compensate each other when one is weaker than the other. Other factors such as contexts, reading purposes, and social and political status may also affect readers' process of constructing meaning from written materials (Hudson, 2007).

In addition, strategic reading is considered to be a key component of proficient reading (Grabe, 1991, 2012). In the process of interacting with the text and constructing meaning, the reader's ability to self-regulate their reading behaviour and invoke appropriate strategies to avoid comprehension failures plays an important role (Anderson, 1991; A. Cohen, 1990). A. Cohen (1990) defines reading strategies as those mental procedures that readers deliberately prefer to employ in accomplishing reading tasks. The use of reading strategies indicates how readers understand a reading task, what they think they can do to achieve their goal, and what action they decide to take to tackle comprehension difficulties. Therefore, the term *strategies* places a greater emphasis on the reader's active participation and should be used differently from the term *skills*, because *skills*, as Carrell (1989) notes, "may suggest only passive abilities which are not necessarily activated" (p. 129).

There are various classifications of reading strategies in the literature. Reading strategies are generally categorized into cognitive and metacognitive strategies (Garner, 1987; Theobald, 2021). Cognitive strategies are those used to construct meaning of text as a framework for understanding, while metacognitive strategies are those used to monitor understanding and take action when necessary. While reading, one normally employs numerous cognitive activities, for example, repetition, note taking, translation, grouping, and imagery. Metacognitive strategies include planning, setting goals, self-monitoring, self-management, and self-evaluation.

Barnet (1988) categorized reading strategies into two types: text-level and word-level strategies. Text-level strategies are those related to the reading passage as a whole and include activating prior knowledge, predicting and reading with a purpose. Word-level strategies involve guessing word meanings, identifying grammatical category of words, and recognizing word meaning through context. Anderson (1991) proposed 47 strategies and grouped them into five categories: supervising strategies (e.g., formulating a question), support strategies (e.g., skipping unknown words), paraphrasing strategies (e.g., translating a word or a phrase into the L1), strategies for establishing coherence in text (e.g., using background knowledge), and test-taking strategies (e.g., guessing without any particular consideration).

Developing the Survey of Reading Strategies (SORS) to examine L2 readers' strategy use, Mokhtari and Sheorey (2002) identified three categories of reading strategies as follows: global, problem-solving and support strategies. Global strategies are metacognitive strategies and defined as "intentionally, carefully planned techniques by which learners monitor or manage their reading" (Mokhtari & Sheorey, 2002, p. 4). These strategies are aimed at setting the stage for reading, for example, having a purpose in mind for reading and reviewing text characteristics before reading. Problem-solving strategies are cognitive strategies and "localized" and used when problems occur when the text becomes difficult to read, for example, re-reading and visualizing information in the text. Support strategies are supportive tools to aid comprehension such as the use of outside reference materials.

Some strategies are overlapped in the aforementioned taxonomies of reading strategies. Apparently, all these taxonomies include metacognitive and cognitive strategies that help readers monitor their reading and achieve comprehension. However, while Barnet's classification may be more text-driven and Anderson's is more elaborate with a large number of strategies, Mokhtari and Sheorey's seems to incorporate many strategies that are identified in other classifications, avoids overlaps between strategy categories and is simplified to be more appropriate with L2 readers. Given that Mokhtari and Sheorey's classification is specifically developed to examine reading strategy use in a L2 and has been used extensively in L2 reading research (e.g., Alhaqbani & Riazi, 2012; Chumworatayee, 2017; Do & Le, 2021; Jafari & Shokrpour, 2012; Kamran, 2012; Madhumathi & Ghosh, 2012; Okyar, 2021; Malcolm, 2009; Poole, 2005, 2010; Sheorey & Baboczky, 2008; Sheorey, Kamimura, & Freiermuth, 2008; Yüksel & Yüksel, 2012; Zhang & Wu, 2009), their classification was used in the current study.

2.2. Strategy Use by Good and Poor Readers in L2 Reading

L1 reading research has documented that strategic awareness and behavior differs between poor and good readers (e.g., Baker & Brown, 1984; Cantrell & Carter, 2009; Mokhtari & Reichard, 2004). Proficient readers are more purposeful when reading and more aware of the reading process, enabling them to effectively monitor and evaluate their reading behavior. They are likely to use more cognitive and metacognitive strategies to increase comprehension of a text, whereas younger and less skilled readers may employ less strategies or may focus on strategies which mainly deal with the decoding or the local level of the text (Baker & Brown, 1984; Garner, 1980). Compared to L1 reading, reading in a L2 is often more challenging and may require an even more active role of L2 readers (Grabe, 1991). A large body of L2 research has attempted to examine the relationship between L2 readers' strategy use and reading performance and provided mixed findings.

A number of studies have shown a positive link between L2 reading strategy use and reading performance (e.g., Barnett, 1988; Do & Le, 2021; Hosenfeld, 1977; Jafari & Shokrpour, 2012; Kamran, 2012; Madhumathi & Ghosh, 2012; Okyar, 2021; Zhang, 2001; Zhang & Wu, 2009). Barnett (1988) examined text-based and word-based reading strategies used by the college-level French learners of English and the relationship between their strategy use and their reading performance. In this study, participants were required to read an unfamiliar passage and write in English what they remembered. Then, they completed a set of background knowledge questions before doing a reading comprehension test. Finally, they answered a survey which assessed their perceived use of 17 reading strategies. Barnett found that the participants' strategic awareness and reading performance were significantly correlated. The participants who remembered the content of the passage to a greater extent and performed better on the reading test utilized more strategies than did their lower-performing counterparts. The better readers also tended to use more text-based strategies (e.g., using context to predict the upcoming content) to monitor their reading process.

Based on the metacognitive framework of reading strategy classification (Garner, 1987; Theobald, 2021), Zhang (2001) investigated L2 reading strategy use on a sample of 10 Chinese students. The data obtained through the retrospective interview showed that Chinese ESL learners with high reading ability in English indicated higher awareness of the appropriateness of applying metacognitive strategies than did the learners with low reading ability. For example, strategies like re-reading, guessing meaning from context and cooperating with the text were used considerably more often by the more efficient readers than their lower counterparts. On the other hand, translating into L1 and using a dictionary for meaning tended to be avoided by the higher scorers because they knew that these techniques would potentially slow down their comprehension speed. Zhang thus suggested that training L2 readers how to invoke appropriate strategies and use them effectively to complete reading tasks should be part of classroom instruction.

By the means of the SORS (Mokhtari & Sheorey, 2002), some studies have found a significant relationship between L2 learners' use of all strategy types and their reading ability (e.g., Alhaqbani & Riazi, 2012; Okyar, 2021; Yüksel & Yüksel, 2012). In a study of Indian ESL learners, Madhumathi and Ghosh (2012) categorized good and poor readers based on their performance on a TOEFL reading test and found that good ESL readers employed all three types of reading strategies more frequently than did poor ESL readers. In addition, good readers tended to often make use of reference materials and avoid time-consuming strategies such as *translating*, while poor readers regularly *paid closer attention* and *re-read* when text became difficult. Similar results were also observed among ESL learners of Turkish (Okyar, 2021; Yüksel & Yüksel, 2012) and Arabic (Alhaqbani & Riazi, 2012) as their L1. A significant correlation was also observed between L2 readers' use of three strategy types as categorized in the SORS and their self-perceived reading ability. Sheorey and Mokhtari (2001) found that ESL learners' overall use of reading strategies and use of global, problem solving and support strategies were positively correlated with their self-rated reading ability. Compared to the ESL learners who perceived themselves as poor readers in English, those who had higher self-rated reading ability appeared to use a number of reading strategies at a higher frequency, for example, *previewing the text, taking notes during reading, and visualizing information.*

In other studies which also employed the SORS (Mokhtari & Sheorey, 2002) as the measure of L2 reading strategy use, significant results were limited to one particular type of reading strategies only. For example, a significant correlation was observed only between global strategies and reading ability of Hungarian (Sheorey & Baboczky, 2008) and Vietnamese ESL learners (Do & Le, 2021), while in the case of Filipino college students, it was for problem-solving strategies only (Ilustre, 2011).

On the contrary to the findings of the influence of strategy use on L2 reading performance in the aforementioned studies, other studies have found no relationship between L2 learners' reading strategies and reading performance (Anderson, 1991; Sheorey et al., 2008).

For example, Anderson (1991) found no significant differences in strategy use between good and poor readers. Both groups of the readers used similar strategies, but good readers seemed to have better evaluation of their strategy use. Sheorey and colleagues (2008) found no relationship between Japanese ESL university students' use of reading strategy measured by the SORS and their reading ability.

There are a number of other factors that are also found to impact the use of reading strategies in a L2, for example, L2 proficiency and gender. Apparently, high proficiency learners are more likely to use a variety of reading strategies purposefully and properly, whereas low proficiency learners use less strategies and are more struggling in the attempt to attain an effective use of strategies (e.g., Carrell, 1989; Malcolm, 2009; Zhang & Wu, 2009). In order for learners to skilfully employ reading strategies in L2 reading, a level of language proficiency must be ensured (Razi & Grenfell, 2012). Female readers tend to use more reading strategies when reading in a L2 than do their male counterparts (Do & Le, 2021; Okyar, 2021; Poole, 2005, 2010).

In summary, evidence about the relationship between L2 readers' strategy use and reading performance appears to be inconclusive. Some studies revealed that good and poor L2 readers differ in their use of all or one type of reading strategies, while other found no differences between these two groups of readers. However, all the aforementioned studies primarily reported statistical analysis for the difference between good and poor L2 readers on the overall use of three strategy types but not the use of individual strategies. What might be more important is to identify which individual strategies distinguish good and poor L2 readers. The question of what individual strategies are associated with successful L2 reading and should be taught to L2 learners to help them improve their L2 reading performance requires further research. Therefore, the present study was carried out to shed some light on these issues. The study would replicate the methodology of the previous studies that used the SORS as the measure of L2 reading strategy use and a standardized measure of L2 reading performance such as TOEFL.

3. Methods

3.1. Participants

The participants in this study were selected using convenience sampling from a cohort of English Language Teaching majors at a public university in the central region of Vietnam. Although convenience sampling may not accurately reflect demographic characteristics of the entire L2 reader population and may result in limited representativeness, it was adopted considering the researcher's time constraints and accessibility as well as participants' availability. Therefore, a rather small participant sample including 32 students were recruited to take part in the study. There were 2 males and 30 females aged 20 and 21. All participants started learning English at either grade 3 or grade 6, and at the time of the study, they were enrolled in the first semester of their third-year study. In their undergraduate program, every semester from year 1 to year 3, they were required to take 3 credit hours for each language skill (i.e., listening, speaking, reading and writing), and at the time of the data collection, their English was considered to be at intermediate level. During language skill courses, they were introduced to international standardized language tests such as TOEFL iBT and IELTS, which was considered as an advantage considering time constraint for data collection. As mentioned earlier, this study aimed to use a standardized reading measure (TOEFL) and there was no time needed to familiarize the participants with this kind of the language tests.

3.2. Materials

3.2.1. Reading Comprehension Test

To measure participants' reading performance, a passage and its questions from the Reading section of a TOEFL iBT Preparation Guide was used. The selected TOEFL reading test was developed and published by the ETS, the owner and organizer of the TOEFL iBT and some other standardized language proficiency tests. The readability statistics of the reading passage are represented in Table 1. Flesch Reading Ease and Flesch Kincaid Grade Level (40.5 & 11.3, respectively) show that the passage is appropriate for native speakers in their 11th and 12th year at high school or first year of college (Flesch, 1948; Kincaid, Fishburne, Rogers, & Chissom, 1975). Although Flesch-Kincaid scales are designed to measure text readability for students who are native English speakers, the readability level of the TOEFL reading passage was deemed appropriate for university level ESL students whose English proficiency was expected to be at an intermediate level and above and who had spent at least nine years studying English at both secondary and tertiary level.

Table 1

Summary of Readability Statistics of the TOEFL Reading Passage

Number of words	688
Words per sentence	18.5
Number of Sentences	37
Number of Paragraphs	6
Percentage of Passive sentences	18%
Flesch Reading Ease	40.5
Flesch Kincaid Grade Level	11.3

There were 14 reading comprehension questions that followed the passage. The questions assessed readers' detail literal comprehension, main idea literal comprehension, and inferring as well as summarizing skills. Questions 1 to 13 were in multiple-choice format with four options per question, while Question 14 asked participants to choose three statements from six options to complete a short summary of the passage. Following the scoring instruction of the TOEFL iBT test, one point was assigned to each correct answer to Questions 1 through 13 and 2 points to Question 14.

3.2.2. Survey of Reading Strategies

In order to assess L2 readers' use of reading strategies, the SORS developed by Mokhtari and Sheorey (2002) was used. The SORS included 30 items categorized into three subscales: global, problem-solving, and support strategies. Global strategies consisted of 13 items which "are those intentional, carefully planned techniques by which learners monitor or manage their reading" (Mokhtari & Sheorey, 2002, p. 4), for example, having a purpose in mind, previewing the test as to its length and organization. Problem-solving strategies included eight items and were "localized, focused techniques" (Mokhtari & Sheorey, 2002, p. 4) that the reader used to tackle comprehension problems while working directly to the text, for instance, adjusting the reading speed when the material became difficult or easy, guessing the meaning of unknown words, and rereading the text. Support strategies consisted of nine items and were defined as "basic support mechanisms intended to aid the reader in comprehending the text such as using a dictionary, taking notes, underlining, or highlighting textual information (Mokhtari & Sheorey, 2002, p. 4). The frequency of L2 readers' strategy use was measured on a five-point

Likert scale available after each statement, ranging from 1 (“I never or almost never do this”) to 5 (“I always or almost always do this”). According to the scoring and interpreting instruction provided by Mokhtari and Sheorey (2002), the frequency of strategy use was grouped as follows: 3.5 or higher = High; 2.5 – 3.4 = Medium; 2.4 or lower = Low.

This study used the original version of the SORS as this instrument has been tested for validity and reliability in a number of studies (e.g., Alhaqbani & Riazi, 2012; Kamran, 2012; Madhumathi & Ghosh, 2012; Malcolm, 2009). Mokhtari and Sheorey field-tested the SORS on a large population of ESL students studying in the US and reported its internal reliability at .89, "indicating a reasonable degree of consistency in measuring awareness and perceived use of reading strategies among non-native students of English” (Mokhtari & Sheorey, 2002, p. 4). The SORS has been used in a vast body of reading strategy research and considered as a valid measure of L2 reading strategy use.

3.3. Data Collection

The data collection was carried out after obtaining permission from the administrator of the university where participants studied and participants’ written consent. The whole procedure lasted up to 55 minutes. First, participants were given a brief overview of the study, a short description of the survey, and instructions about how to complete the reading comprehension test and the survey within 10 minutes. Then, participants were asked to complete the reading comprehension test within 20 minutes. After finishing the test, participants were asked to complete the SORS within 25 minutes.

3.4. Data Analysis

The Statistical Package for the Social Science (SPSS, version 29.0) was used to analyze the data. Scores of the reading comprehension test were used to divide the sample into two groups of low- and high-performing readers. For the purpose, all participants’ scores were rank-ordered and the scores at the 50^{th} percentile were used as the cut-off point between the two groups. To examine the relationship between L2 reading strategy use and L2 reading performance, multiple independent samples t-tests were employed to identify whether low-and high-scoring readers employed different types of reading strategies and different individual reading strategies. In all statistical analyses, measures were taken to control for Type I error by performing Bonferroni adjustments. There were 13, 8, and 9 independent samples t-tests carried out for global, problem-solving and support strategies, respectively, and accordingly, .004, .006, and .006 were the adjusted p-values for the three strategy subtypes . In addition, effect sizes (*d*) were considered in interpreting the magnitude and practical importance of the observed differences between the lower and higher performing groups, following J. Cohen’s (1988) reference values of .2, .5, and .8 for small, medium, and large effects, respectively. Both *p* and *d* values were two criteria used to designate the significant differences when comparing the use of reading strategies between the high- and low-performing L2 readers.

4. Results

Examining the reported use of reading strategies of the whole group, it was found that none of the three types of reading strategies was reported with a low frequency of use, with support strategies (M=3.59, SD=.36) being used most frequently, followed by global (M=3.48, SD=.36) and problem-solving (M=3.43, SD=.47) strategies. Global and support strategies were used more than 50% of the time, approaching the point of “often” used, while problem-solving strategies had medium use. None of the individual reading strategies were used at low frequency and 14 had high usage, according to the interpretation proposed by Sheorey and Mokhtari (2002).

In order to investigate the relationship between L2 readers' use of reading strategies and their reading performance, the sample was first divided into two groups based on their scores on the TOEFL reading comprehension test. Of a total possible score of 15, the maximum score achieved was 9 (60% correctness) and the minimum was 1 (6% correctness). After participants' scores were rank-ordered, a cut-off point was set at the 50^{th} percentile which coincided with the score of 4 (27% correctness). Coincidentally, the 50^{th} percentile split the sample into two equal groups of 16 participants each. The scores of the low performing group ranged between 1 and 4, and the scores of the high performing group ranged between 5 and 9. The results of the independent samples t-test comparing the two groups' reading scores was significant, $t(30)=-7.51$, $p<.001$, $d=2.65$. This statistically significant result coupled with the very high value of the effect size *d* (J. Cohen, 1988) confirmed that the grouping of the low- and high-performing L2 readers in this study was supported by systematic difference in their reading performance.

Table 2 presents the results of independent samples t-tests to compare the high- and low-performing L2 readers' use of global strategies. Neither the overall use of global strategies nor the use of any individual global strategies was significant at the adjusted *p* value of .004; however, items 15, 21, and 23 were significant at $p=.05$ and had large effect size values of .93, .76, and .8, respectively (J. Cohen, 1988). A large effect size signifies that the difference between variables is of practical importance, and in view of Cumming's (2012) new approach to interpreting statistical significance based on effect size values rather than on p-values, it seemed reasonable to conclude that the two groups significantly differed in their use of these three strategies. The high-performing group used *tables, figures, and pictures in the text* (Item 15) significantly less frequently than did the low-performing group, $t(30)=2.64$, $p=.01$, $d=.93$. While the high achieving group used this strategy only *occasionally,* the low group used this strategy *about 50% of the time*. On the other hand, the high performing group had a more frequent use of *critical analysis and evaluation of the information presented in text* (Item 21) than did their low-performing counterpart, $t(30)=-2.13$, $p=.04$, $d=.76$. Similarly, the high performing group had a more frequent use of *checking their understanding of new information* (Item 23) than did the low performing group, $t(30)=-2.26$, $p=.03$, $d=.80$. While the low scorers indicated that they *sometimes* used this strategy, the higher scorers *usually* used it.

Although statistically non-significant, two other global strategies (Items 3 and 20) obtained medium effect size values of .57 and .58, respectively (J. Cohen, 1988), suggesting that the difference in the use of the high- and low-performing group may be attributed to a systematic variation rather than chance. Specifically, Item 3 "*I think about what I know to help me understand what I read"* elicited a higher mean among the higher performing group (M=3.97), as compared to the low performing group (M=3.37). On the other hand, the low performing group (M=3.63) *used typographical features like bold face and italics to identify key information* more frequently than the higher performing group (M=3.06). For the remaining eight global strategies (see Table 2), both groups generally reported a similar degree of use ranging from *sometimes* to *usually*. In addition, the total mean scores of each group for global strategies suggested that both high- and low-reading achievers used global strategies at a similar and medium frequency when reading in English.

Table 3 summaries the results of independent sample t-tests to compare the high- and low-performing L2 readers' use of problem-solving strategies. The high- and low-performing group showed no difference in their overall use of this strategy category, however, the high-performing group did use one problem-solving strategy (Item 7, "*I read slowly and carefully to* *make sure I understand what I am reading"*), significantly more frequently than their low-performing counterpart, $t(30)=-3.308$, $p<.001$, $d=1.18$. The very high effect size value ($d=1.18$) testified the practical importance of this statistically significant result. There were no significant differences in the use of the remaining seven problem-solving strategies between the two groups. Yet, the descriptive statistics revealed some interesting trends and differences between the high performing and low performing groups. For example, the most preferred problem-solving strategy by both groups was *rereading* and both groups *usually* used this strategy, while s*topping from time to time while reading* was least frequently used by both groups. For the other problem-solving strategies, the two groups reported a medium degree of use, ranging from *sometimes* to *usually.*

Table 4 presents the results of independent samples t-tests to compare the high- and low-performing L2 readers' use of support strategies. There was no statistically significant difference between the two groups in their overall use of support strategies as well as their use of any individual support strategies. Both groups reported relatively high frequency of support strategy use (more than 50% of the time). They both indicated the highest and very frequent use of the strategy "*I underline or circle information in the text to help me remember it"*. On the other hand, both groups used the strategy of *reading aloud when the text became difficult* at the lowest frequency and approximately 50% of the time.

Table 2

Results of Independent Samples T-Tests for the Differences in Global Strategy Use Between High and Low L2 Readers

Item Nº	Global Strategies	Groups	N	Mean	SD	t(30)	p	d
1	I have a purpose in mind when I read.	low	16	4.19	.75	-.46	.65	.16
		high	16	4.31	.79			
3	I think about what I know to help me understand what I read.	low	16	3.37	1.02	-1.63	.11	.57
		high	16	3.93	.93			
4	I take an overall view of the text to see what it is before reading.	low	16	3.50	1.37	.15	.88	.05
		high	16	3.44	.96			
6	I think about whether the content of the text fits my reading purpose.	low	16	3.44	.89	.18	.86	.07
		high	16	3.38	1.02			
8	I review the text first by noting its characteristics like length and organization.	low	16	3.06	1.12	.38	.72	.12
		high	16	2.94	.77			
12	When I read, I decide what to read closely and what to ignore.	low	16	3.63	1.08	.00	1.00	.00
		high	16	3.63	0.62			
15	I use tables, figures, and pictures in text to increase my understanding.	low	16	3.00	1.37	2.64	.01*	.93
		high	16	1.94	.85			
17	I use context clues to help me better understand what I am reading.	low	16	3.25	1.44	.98	.33	.35
		high	16	2.81	1.05			
20	I use typographical features like bold face and italics to identify key information.	low	16	3.63	.96	1.63	.11	.58
		high	16	3.06	1.0			
21	I critically analyse and evaluate the information presented in the text.	low	16	3.06	.77	-2.13	.04*	.76
		high	16	3.63	.72			
23	I check my understanding when I come across new information.	low	16	3.31	1.25	-2.26	.03*	.80
		high	16	4.19	.91			
24	I try to guess what the content of the	low	16	3.94	1.12	-.69	.50	.24

	text is about when I read.	high	16	4.19	.91			
27	I check to see if my guesses about the text are right or wrong.	low	16	3.88	.96	.00	1.00	.00
		high	16	3.88	.89			
	Total mean score of global strategies	low	16	3.48	.45	-.04	.97	.03
		high	16	3.49	.26			

Note. Groups: high and low-perming L2 readers based on their scores of the TOEFL reading test; SD: standard deviation; d: effect size value; *: significant at *p*=.05; The effect size of the difference between the low- and high-performing groups for strategies in bold were medium to large.

Table 3

Results of Independent Samples T-Tests for the Differences in Problem-Solving Strategy Use Between High and Low L2 Readers

Item Nº	Problem solving Strategies	Groups	N	Mean	SD	t(30)	p	d
7	I read slowly and carefully to make sure I understand what I am reading	low	16	3.00	1.15	-3.31	.002*	1.18
		high	16	4.13	.72			
9	I try to get back on track when I lose concentration.	low	16	3.06	.93	-.86	.398	.30
		high	16	3.31	.70			
11	I adjust my reading speed according to what I am reading.	low	16	3.00	1.10	-81	.422	.28
		high	16	3.31	1.08			
14	When text becomes difficult, I pay closer attention to what I am reading.	low	16	3.50	1.03	.33	.741	.11
		high	16	3.38	1.09			
16	I stop from time to time and think about what I am reading.	low	16	2.63	1.15	-.16	.875	.05
		high	16	2.69	1.08			
19	I try to picture or visualize information to help me remember what I read.	low	16	3.25	1.18	-.16	.874	.05
		high	16	3.31	1.01			
25	When text becomes difficult, I re-read it to increase my understanding.	low	16	4.19	.91	.18	.861	.06
		high	16	4.13	1.09			
28	When I read, I guess the meaning of unknown words or phrases.	low	16	3.81	1.22	-.83	.414	.30
		high	16	4.13	.89			
	Total mean score of problem-solving strategies	low	16	3.30	.50	-1.48	.149	.54
		high	16	3.55	.42			

Note. Groups: high and low-perming L2 readers based on their scores of the TOEFL reading test; SD: standard deviation; d: effect size value; *: significant at *adjusted p* = .006

Table 4

Results of Independent Samples T-Tests for the Differences in Support Strategy Use Between High and Low L2 Readers

Item Nº	Support Strategies	Groups	N	Mean	SD	t(30)	p	d
2	I take notes while reading to help me understand what I read.	low	16	3.89	.81	.22	.83	.09
		high	16	3.81	.83			
5	When text becomes more difficult, I read aloud to help me understand what I read.	low	16	3.00	1.50	.37	.72	.13
		high	16	2.81	1.42			
10	I underline or circle information in the text to help me remember it.	low	16	4.50	.73	-.28	.78	.10
		high	16	4.56	.51			
13	I use reference materials (e.g., a	low	16	3.44	1.26	.47	.65	.18

	dictionary) to help me understand what I read.	high	16	3.25	1.00			
18	I paraphrase (restate ideas in my own words) to better understand what I read.	low	16	3.56	.96	1.01	.32	.36
		high	16	3.25	.77			
22	I go back and forth in the text to find the information presented in the text.	low	16	3.63	1.02	-.36	.72	.12
		high	16	3.80	.93			
26	I ask myself questions I like to have answered in the text.	low	16	3.30	.93	-.78	.45	.27
		high	16	3.50	.89			
29	When reading, I translate from English into my native language.	low	16	3.50	1.03	-.88	.39	.30
		high	16	3.81	.98			
30	When reading, I think about information in both English and my mother tongue.	low	16	3.50	.89	-.54	.60	.19
		high	16	3.69	1.08			
	Total mean score of support strategies	low	16	3.58	.34	-.16	.87	.05
		high	16	3.60	.40			

Note. Groups: high and low-perming L2 readers based on their scores of the TOEFL reading test; SD: standard deviation; d: effect size value

5. Discussion

This study aimed to examine whether low- and high-performing L2 readers differ in their use of the three categories of reading strategies, namely, global, problem-solving and support strategies and identify the individual reading strategies that are used differently between the two groups of L2 readers. In view of the three categories of reading strategies, this study revealed no significant difference in the overall use of global, problem-solving and support strategies between high- and low-performing L2 readers. This finding was in line with prior findings of no significant difference in the use of reading strategies between good and poor L2 readers (Sheorey et al., 2008). The results of this study also aligned with Anderson's finding of no significant difference between good and poor readers' in their use of reading strategies which were classified into five categories: supervising, paraphrasing, support, establishing coherence, and test-taking strategies (Anderson, 1991). On the other hand, these results were not consistent with the findings of other studies showing a statistically substantial association between L2 learners' strategy use and their reading achievement (e.g., Jafari & Shokrpour, 2012; Kamran, 2012; Madhumathi & Ghosh, 2012; Okyar, 2021; Yüksel & Yüksel, 2012).

When considering the difference in the use of individual reading strategies between low- and high-performing L2 readers, the results showed that the higher performing group used three strategies significantly more frequently, including *critically analyzing and evaluating information* (a global strategy), *checking my understanding* (a global strategy), and *reading more closely and carefully* (a problem-solving strategy). The high-performing L2 readers in this study appeared to fit the profile of strategic readers in general. As shown in previous studies (Baker & Brown, 1984; Garner, 1980; Sheorey & Mokhtari, 2001), strategic readers are more purposeful when reading, better at monitoring the reading process and are more able to invoke appropriate strategies when comprehension breaks down, for example, *using existing knowledge to understand the text better*, *critically analyzing and evaluating information*, and *reading slowly and carefully*. On the other hand, the low-performing L2 readers reported to use tables, figures, and pictures to increase understanding more often than did the high-performing L2 readers. This might not be a surprise as poorer L2 readers may actually need to rely more on advance organizers (e.g., pictures, tables) accompanying texts to assist them better in understanding the content of the text.

However, the results of this study must be considered with caution. The study used a very small sample (32 participants) with no balance of genders (2 males and 30 females). The results of this study might be representative of Vietnamese female university students rather than male ones. Besides, participants were majoring in the English Teaching undergraduate program, and therefore, as the result of the teacher training courses as well as extensive exposure to written materials in English, they may have shown a relatively high level of strategic awareness and may not show a difference in strategy use in relation to their reading performance. Besides, the study included only 14 reading questions, which are a relatively small number of questions in measuring L2 readers' reading ability. Furthermore, the generally low level of participants' reading performance on the TOEFL reading test and the lack of a truly high achieving group may be the reason for the lack of significant differences between the low- and high-performing L2 readers in their use of the three types of strategies and most of the individual strategies. None of the participants got the highest score of 15 on the reading test, and the highest score attained was 9, accounting for only 67% of success on the test. Therefore, future research could include a bigger and more gender-balanced sample of participants who are regular ESL learners (rather than pre-service ESL teachers) and use measurements that are able to distinguish reading proficiency levels.

In addition, successful and unsuccessful readers may employ the same strategies, but the effectiveness of their strategy use is different (Anderson, 1991). This study compared high- and low-performing L2 readers on the frequency of their strategy use reported via a survey. Thus, another possibility is that, although both high- and low-performing L2 readers reported a similar frequency of use for the three strategy categories, the efficiency of their strategy use might be different and affect their performance. Future research may try to triangulate data from different instruments such as interviews, observations and think-aloud protocols for a more accurate account of L2 learners' reading strategy use.

These results show that low- and high-performing L2 readers differ in the use of certain reading strategies, although they may not differ in their overall use of global, support, and problem-based strategies. Obviously, this fact points at the need for further empirical comparisons between good and poor L2 readers on the use of individual reading strategies. It might be more important to identify those individual strategies (rather than the overall use) that are associated with good readers over and above differences in L1s, educational, and cultural backgrounds.

The process of reading involves an interaction between lower order and higher order processing, which results in the local and global comprehension of a text (Hudson, 2007; Rumelhart, 1985). Depending on the types of reading questions that may require different levels of processing (i.e., lower and higher ordering reading questions), readers may need to employ different strategies. Therefore, it might be important to identify which reading strategies facilitate L2 readers' performance on reading questions requiring high order and lower order processing. Due to the very small sample size and a small number of reading questions included, it was not statistically sound for the current study to look into this issue. Future research could extend the investigation of the effects of L2 readers' strategy use on their reading performance by examining the association between L2 readers' strategy and their performance on lower and higher ordering reading questions.

6. Conclusions

This study revealed systematic differences in the use of three global and one problem-solving strategies between high- and low-performing ESL readers. As discussed above, the effect size values for those strategies testify to the practical significance of the differences between the two groups. High-performing L2 readers critically analyze and evaluate information and check their understanding during reading more frequently. They also read more closely and carefully, whereas their low-performing L2 readers tend to check tables and figures presented with texts more frequently to assist their reading. These seem to suggest that more efficient L2 readers utilize strategies that help them monitor their reading better and make less use of strategies that might be considered as time-consuming (i.e., checking visual organizers accompanying texts).

The results of the current study have implications for language learners, encouraging them to become more conscious about their own strategy use. L2 teachers should raise L2 learners' awareness of the importance of using the strategies that can help improve their reading competence. Learners should have a clear understanding of the use of each strategy so that they can use them effectively to accomplish reading tasks and goals.

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SOCIAL INTEGRATION IN THE ECONOMIC SECTOR OF VIETNAMESE WOMEN MIGRATING TO SOUTH KOREA FOR MARRIAGE

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Abstract: In today's era of globalization, the trend of transforming into multi-ethnic and multicultural societies is rapidly happening in many countries around the world. South Korea and the strong migration trend to South Korea in recent years are prime evidences of this trend. One of the main driving forces behind South Korea's transition to a multicultural society is women migrating through marriage and multicultural families. From the perspective of migration motivation to the factors affecting adaptation and social integration in South Korea, it can be affirmed that an important measure to promote the social integration of women migrating through marriage in South Korea is to provide them with opportunities and capacities for economic integration. This article, based on in-depth interviews with migrant brides in South Korea and survey data on their economic capacity and activities, analyzes the current state of social integration of migrant women in the economic sector. This will act as an important evidence for proposing solutions or policies to support migrant women through marriage in South Korea, enabling them to integrate into society more substantively and effectively.

Keywords: social integration, economic activities of migrant brides, equality of opportunity, Vietnamese brides, international marriage

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HÒA NHẬP XÃ HỘI CỦA PHỤ NỮ VIỆT NAM DI TRÚ THEO DIỆN KẾT HÔN QUỐC TẾ TỚI HÀN QUỐC TRONG LĨNH VỰC KINH TẾ

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Tóm tắt: Trong thời đại toàn cầu hóa hiện nay, xu thế biến đổi sang xã hội đa nhân chủng - đa văn hóa đang diễn ra tại nhiều quốc gia trên thế giới với tốc độ nhanh chóng. Hàn Quốc và xu thế di cư mạnh mẽ tới Hàn Quốc trong những năm gần đây chính là một minh chứng rõ nét cho xu thế này. Một trong những động lực chính của sự chuyển đổi sang xã hội đa văn hóa của Hàn Quốc chính là phụ nữ di trú theo diện kết hôn và các gia đình đa văn hóa. Xét từ khía cạnh động lực di trú, cho tới các yếu tố ảnh hưởng tới thích ứng và hòa nhập xã hội Hàn Quốc, có thể khẳng định một biện pháp quan trọng để thúc đẩy hòa nhập xã hội của phụ nữ di trú theo diện kết hôn tại Hàn Quốc chính là việc tạo cho họ cơ hội và năng lực để hòa nhập xã hội về mặt kinh tế. Trên cơ sở nội dung phỏng vấn sâu các cô dâu di trú tại Hàn Quốc và dữ liệu khảo sát về năng lực kinh tế cũng như hoạt động kinh tế của họ, bài viết này[°] phân tích thực trạng hòa nhập xã hội của phụ nữ di trú trong lĩnh vực kinh tế. Đây sẽ là căn cứ quan trọng trong việc đưa ra những giải pháp hay đề xuất chính sách nhằm hỗ trợ phụ nữ di trú theo diện kết hôn tại Hàn Quốc hòa nhập xã hội một cách thực chất và hiệu quả hơn trong các nghiên cứu về sau.

Từ khóa: hòa nhập xã hội, hoạt động kinh tế của cô dâu di trú, công bằng về cơ hội, cô dâu Việt, kết hôn quốc tế

1. Introduction

In today's era of globalization, the trend of transforming into multi-ethnic and multicultural societies is rapidly happening in many countries around the world. The International Organization for Migration (IOM) has pointed out that unequal and unfair development is the reason why people from less developed countries and territories migrate to more developed countries in pursuit of a higher quality of life (IOM, 2018). From the perspective of migrants, one of the key motivations for migration is to improve their financial conditions, escape poverty, or, in other words, migration is a means of securing livelihoods and escaping poverty (Le et al., 2008). From the perspective of host countries, accepting migrants from other nations is also a way to ensure sustainable development and maintain national competitiveness in the context of rapidly aging societies. South Korea and the strong migration trend to South Korea in recent years are notable examples of this phenomenon. According to the data released by Statistics Korea in July 2023, South Korea's population is projected to reach 40 million by the 2040s before declining to 38 million by 2070. In response to this, the South Korean government is implementing policies to enhance the roles of women

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and foreigners in order to expand the economically active population. As a result, in 2022, the number of foreigners aged 15 and older in South Korea reached 1,302,000, witnessing an increase of 338,000 (35.1%) compared to 2012 (964,000). This growth includes an increase of 167,000 men and 172,000 women. The proportion of foreigners in South Korea is expected to rise from 3.2% in 2023 to 4.3% by 2040.

A multicultural society is an inevitable and irreversible trend in contemporary South Korean society. One of the main driving forces of this transformation is women migrating through marriage and multicultural families. Among foreign residents in South Korea, about 60% of women migrating through marriage belong to the long-term resident population, having lived in the country for more than ten years (Ministry of Gender Equality and Family, 2019). Therefore, the South Korean government has continuously made efforts to establish a system of policies specifically targeting migrant women through marriage as primary beneficiaries, aiming to create a healthy, open, and inclusive multicultural society. From the perspective of migration motivations to the factors influencing adaptation and social integration, it can be stated that an important measure to promote the social integration of women migrating through marriage in South Korea is to provide them with opportunities and capacities for economic integration. This article, based on in-depth interviews with Vietnamese migrant brides in South Korea and survey data on their economic capacity and activities, analyzes the current state of social integration of migrant women in the economic sector. This will act as an important evidence for proposing solutions or policies to support migrant women through marriage in South Korea, enabling them to integrate into society more substantively and effectively in future studies.

2. Content

2.1. Theoretical Framework

"Hoà nhập" is translated into "Integration" in English and "통합" in Korean. This word can also be found in Latin language. The Latin word "Integratio" is derived from "Integer", which means restoring completeness. The concept of social integration began to be seriously considered with the emergence of early modern countries, the differentiation of social functions, and the expansion of the concept of citizenship (Park, 2019). At the World Summit for Social Development held by the United Nations in 1994 in Copenhagen, Sweden, "social integration" was defined with two meanings. The first meaning is "inclusion", which contrasts with "exclusion", referring to the process of providing benefits such as justice, material well-being, and political freedom to the majority of the population. The second meaning is "harmony", which contrasts with "disintegration". In this sense, social integration refers to "harmony and solidarity", aiming to prevent the breakdown of families and communities or the disruption of social order due to social crimes and corruption (Lee et al., 2014). Based on this definition, it can be seen that there is no significant distinction between the two concepts "social inclusion" and "social integration". Both aim at recognizing differences, reducing levels of inequality and social exclusion, and strengthening social relationships and interactions.

Based on this definition, social integration in the economic sector means that all social groups, especially vulnerable groups (such as the poor, the disabled, ethnic minorities, and women…), can fully and fairly participate in the economic activities of society. Social integration highlights the recognition of diverse individuals as equal members of society, aiming to reduce inequality and social exclusion. Therefore, the principle of "equity" is a crucial factor in assessing the level of integration of groups commonly referred to as "minorities" within society.

Peragine and Biagi (2019) assert that, according to the Equality of Opportunity (EOp) approach, the primary goal of public policies is to ensure that individuals develop their lives within a fair contextual framework. The implementation of the Equality of Opportunity principle extends beyond the mere application of non-discrimination policies, which mandate that individuals with different characteristics be treated equally and provided with equal opportunities (e.g., race and gender should not affect access to education, healthcare, or the labor market). This approach is both fair and morally right, as explained by Fleurbaey (1994), who based his argument on two fundamental ethical principles concerning equal distribution and the recognition of personal responsibility. The first is the principle of compensation, which requires society to compensate individuals for disparities in outcomes caused by factors beyond their control (such as race, gender, religion, or family background). The second principle relates to the allocation of outcomes based on individual effort (or, more broadly, the fulfillment of personal responsibility) (Fleurbaey, 1994; cited in Ferreira & Peragine, 2015). Building on the foundation of the Equality of Opportunity theory, this study examines social integration in economic sector through two specific aspects:

1. Are migrants provided with fair opportunities to participate in economic activities? (reflected in equal access to job search channels, vocational training, and opportunities to engage in various sectors and industries)

2. Are migrants allocated resources fairly in the way that accurately reflects their personal responsibility, effort, and labor outcomes (as reflected in income levels)?

This theoretical framework serves as the foundation for the author's data analysis in the research findings. Besides, to clarify the impact of economic activities on migrants' social integration, the author also assesses how economic activities influence social integration in other sectors, such as culture, politics, or society.

2.2. Research Methods

2.2.1. Data Analysis Method

In the study, the author has applied the following data analysis method: research, investigation, and synthesis of documents to understand and model concepts and theories related to social integration, as well as the different dimensions of social integration; data synthesis and statistical analysis method to utilize data sources from the Ministry of Gender Equality and Family and Statistics Korea.

2.2.2. In-depth Interview Method

The author conducted in-depth interviews with 37 Vietnamese migrant brides in South Korea. Most of these migrant brides have lived in South Korea for at least five years, ensuring a sufficient period of settlement to contribute to their level of social integration in different dimensions.

The key information about the interviewed participants can be summarized as follows:

- Place of residence in South Korea: 8 brides live in Daegu, 2 in Busan, and 26 in Seoul and its surrounding areas.
- Age distribution: 1 bride is under 30 years old; 23 brides are between 30 and under 40; 9 brides are between 40 and under 50; and 4 brides are over 50.

- Length of residence in South Korea: 5 brides have lived in South Korea for less than 5 years; 8 for 5 to under 10 years; 16 for 10 to under 20 years; and 8 for 20 years or more.

These in-depth interview participants represent a diverse range of locations, age groups, and living experiences in South Korea, providing a reliable source of information on the social integration of migrant women in South Korea.

The in-depth interview content is structured into three main sections:

1. Collecting personal information (includes identity, hometown in Vietnam, place of residence in South Korea, and family background).

2. Investigating the social integration process of these brides in South Korea (education and training, challenges faced upon arrival, strategies for overcoming these challenges, and current living conditions).

3. Assessing their social integration levels in South Korea (participants provide self-assessments of their satisfaction with life in South Korea, factors contributing to their success/difficulties in integration, and their future aspirations).

Within the scope of this study, the author focused on analyzing interviews related to economic activities and social integration in the economic sector of Vietnamese women who migrated to South Korea through marriage.

2.3. Research Objectives

The objective of this study is to provide a systematic understanding of the process and status of social integration among Vietnamese women who migrate to South Korea through international marriage. Based on this foundation, the study aims to clarify the reciprocal relationship between economic, cultural, political, and social factors, highlighting the necessary stages of adaptation and integration that migrant women must navigate to effectively and rapidly integrate into Korean society. By analyzing the research findings, the study proposes recommendations to facilitate the social integration process and enhance the social status of Vietnamese migrant women in South Korea, not only within their families but also across various sectors of social participation.

2.4. Research Findings

2.4.1. The Right to Participate in Economic Institutions of Migrant Women in South Korea

2.4.1.1. Job Searching

According to the report from Statistics Korea, the number of employed migrants in 2024, ranked by nationality, is listed as follows: Ethnic Chinese Koreans (341,000 people) and Vietnamese (123,000 people). According to survey results from in-depth interviews, there are two common job-searching channels for migrant brides in South Korea: 1) the Vietnamese community in South Korea 2) the internet. For the first channel, access methods and referral formats vary. Job opportunities may come from relatives or acquaintances from Vietnam or from Vietnamese women who know each other through a shared community in the same living area (through informal social groups or meetings at organizations such as the Multicultural Family Support Center or religious institutions like churches and temples...). Being introduced to jobs through acquaintances allows migrant brides to quickly find a job that matches their language proficiency while also meeting their economic needs. However, most of these jobs are manual work or temporary positions that do not require high intellect (such as working in restaurants or performing manual labor in manufacturing sites…).

> "After arriving in South Korea, I discovered that I had been deceived into marriage, so I ran away. While wandering on the streets, I met two Vietnamese people. They stopped their car and asked me if I was Vietnamese. After realizing we were fellow countrymen from Thái Bình, they let me get in their car and took me to their place. Later, they helped me get a job at a family-run business. I worked at that company for a year before moving to another area. At my first job, I only received a salary of 1.1 million won (around 20 million VND). Later, as the work was too demanding and I had to take on additional tasks left by an elderly employee who had retired, my salary increased to 1.2 million won (around 22 million VND). Each month, I could only save 200,000 to 300,000 won, and I could only send money back to my parents once every six months."
>
> (Ms. T***, 39 years old, Gwangju - Now returned to Vietnam)

For finding jobs on the Internet, except for job opportunities posted in some groups of Vietnamese community groups in South Korea (via Kakaotalk groups or Facebook pages), there are also many different channels by Korean government (job seeking websites, Employment Support Center under the Ministry of Employment and Labor, recruitment channels of welfare centers…). The characteristic of jobs found through these channels is that only those who have reached a certain level of Korean language proficiency can access and obtain them. In particular, the process of preparing application documents according to job requirements or interviewing via phone is all conducted in Korean. Therefore, it can be assessed that these jobs are more diverse in terms of sectors, and most of them offer better salaries and benefits.

> "I have done many jobs (I only worked at the Multicultural Family Support Center for one year). I usually find jobs on my own, mainly through newspapers and websites… After my Korean was better, I reached out to employment centers for support. These agencies are usually very enthusiastic and provide thorough explanations. Thanks to that, I was able to work in some occupations which are similar to Koreans or in positions prioritized for foreigners (discussed during the interview), such as tour guides."
>
> (Ms. N***, 41 years old, Daegu)

Another job introduction channel frequently mentioned by migrant women in interviews is referrals from Koreans. These Koreans could be neighbors or acquaintances they interact with in daily life. More commonly, they are teachers or staff members at Multicultural Family Support Centers who, after interacting with the migrant women and recognizing their diligence and abilities, recommend them for jobs. Most of these recommended jobs are somewhat related to the Vietnamese language or require foreign support (for example, developing educational products for foreign children, teaching cultural classes at schools, or working at other support centers).

> "I started working when my child was three years old after moving to Bucheon to learn Korean. I joined a multicultural instructor class. The teachers at the school referred me to teach multicultural education at kindergartens, then gradually moved on to elementary, secondary, and high schools. Sometimes, welfare centers and police departments also invited me to teach."
>
> (Ms. N**, 44 years old, Bucheon)

2.4.1.2. Participate in Vocational Training Activities

Among the various aspects of economic participation rights, vocational training plays a crucial role in helping migrant brides secure stable jobs with decent wages, even if these are manual labor jobs in factories. However, in reality, very few migrant women have access to workplace training or skill development programs. While the rate of vocational training among male migrant workers in public institutions or corporate training centers is relatively high, migrant women are often trained at welfare centers or private institutions… (Park Min Jeong, 2020). Additionally, the percentage of female migrants working for employment purposes is low, and many of them choose temporary or seasonal jobs. This is both the cause and result of their limited access to formal vocational education services. Many organizations that are not directly related to vocational training or lack official recognition in this field only offer short-term courses or training that do not fully align with women's needs and career aspirations.

> "The South Korean authorities have conducted surveys on vocational training needs among migrant brides. The results indicated that most women want to pursue office jobs such as working as translators and interpreters in the medical and legal fields. Therefore, there is a high demand for advanced vocational training programs. However, due to labor shortages in Korea, vocational training programs still primarily focus on some sectors that Koreans are unwilling to work in (cleaning and domestic help…)."
>
> (Ms. O***, 47 years old, Gyeonggido)

Nevertheless, participating in vocational training classes has provided many women with stable job opportunities in specialized fields suited to married migrant women.

> "While studying cultural courses, I also joined a cooking class with the goal of becoming a cooking instructor after graduation. In Seoul, there is a program for training foreign cooking instructors". In addition to teaching Korean cuisine, they also prepare us to teach Vietnamese dishes such as making "banh xeo" (crispy Vietnamese pancakes). During the course, they also train us on how to create recipes. Currently, the wage for teaching cooking classes is 120,000 KRW per hour (approximately 2 million VND). If I can teach in Korean, the salary would be very good."
>
> (Ms. H***, 36 years old, Seoul)

2.4.1.3. Participate in Various Occupational Fields

When investigating the employment sectors of migrant brides, the author found that the type of work is directly related to their Korean language proficiency and educational background. In the case of brides such as Kim Anh (Busan), Thuy Tien (Seoul), and Kim Dung (Daegu), who married with advanced Korean language proficiency (or held a university degree in Korean studies), they were able to enter the labor market and secure office jobs or high-income positions immediately. These include roles such as staff members at Multicultural Centers, the International Exchange Foundation, or student managers at universities. In contrast, those with lower Korean proficiency upon arrival often had to start with manual labor jobs, such as factory work or assisting in restaurants. They could only have better-paying positions after attaining a certain level of Korean language proficiency.

When examining employment status by country of origin, the percentage of women engaged in regular employment is lower than that of men, with disparities between Vietnam, China, and other Asian countries. Additionally, there are significant differences in employment status based on gender and education levels. While 70.8% of men with a college degree or higher are in regular employment, only 55% of women are full-time workers. Statistics from the Korean Women's Development Institute in 2021 indicate that marriage-based immigrants predominantly work in the service sector, whereas their participation in managerial and professional roles is lower than that of the general South Korean workforce. 25.1% of these workers are engaged in short-term jobs (less than 36 hours per week), accounting for approximately 26.4% of Korea's total short-term workforce.

According to in-depth interviews, migrant brides mainly concentrate on four primary job sectors:

Manual labor jobs that do not require Korean language skills, education, or specific qualifications. These jobs mainly include working in factories, serving in restaurants, or taking on temporary work that can be done from home. The advantages of these jobs are that they are easy to obtain, require no Korean proficiency, and offer flexible working hours (which is essential for women who need to balance work with household responsibilities, such as taking care of children - a role traditionally assigned to women in Korean families). However, these jobs are physically demanding and often come with low wages and potential employer exploitation. According to the Korean Ministry of Employment and Labor, as of August 2023, the minimum wage in Korea was set at 9,860 KRW per hour (approximately 180,000 VND per hour) and 2,060,740 KRW per month (around 40 million VND per month, based on a 40-hour workweek, 209 hours per month). However, most migrant brides hardly receive this standard wage when working in this kind of job.

> "When I first arrived, I only worked part-time in restaurants, construction sites, or small jobs that my friends invited me to do on a daily basis, earning around 50,000 to 80,000 KRW per day (approximately 1 to 1.5 million VND)."
>
> (Ms. D***, 36 years old, Daegu)

> "When I wanted to start working, I knew very little Korean, so my friends helped me find a job at a restaurant where I could work and learn the language at the same time. After 7 to 8 months, I started working, but my salary was low. Even though I sent money back to Vietnam, it was not much (over 30 million VND per month). Most of my earnings were used for covering my living expenses in Korea, including rent and personal needs."
>
> (Ms. H***, 32 years old, Incheon - Currently returned to Vietnam)

> "I once worked in a garment factory for a month, and it was very exhausting - the working environment was unclean, with lots of fabric dust. Skilled workers received better wages, but those doing simple tasks like thread-cutting were low-paid."
>
> (Ms. H***, 36 years old, Seoul)

After becoming proficient in Korean, many migrant brides have access to some jobs that make use of their ability to speak two languages, such as translation, interpretation, or assisting the Vietnamese community in Korea. Consequently, a significant number of migrant brides work as consultants at foreigner support centers (such as the Danuri Call Center or welfare centers for foreigners) or provide support to multicultural families and international students.

> "I came to Korea in 1994 as an industrial trainee but became undocumented after 11 months. Back then, I moved to Busan to work in a garment factory and then relocated to Seoul, continuing to work in clothing and travel bag manufacturing. In 2006, I remarried a Korean man and returned to Vietnam for paperwork before coming back to Korea on an F6 (spouse of Korean National) visa. In 2009, the Danuri Call Center was hiring, and although my Korean was not so fluent, my husband encouraged me and even helped me prepare and mail my application. I got the job, and now I have been working there for 15 years."
>
> (Ms. N*****, 59 years old, Anyang)

> "Every day from 9 AM to 4 PM, I work at Dongnam Health University, assisting international students. This university is one of the top three institutions in the area with the highest number of Vietnamese students."
>
> (Ms. H**, 30 years old, Suwon)

Migrant brides with higher education degrees from Vietnam or who have obtained university degrees and professional certifications in Korea often seek jobs in the teaching sector. These include various roles such as teaching foreign languages (Vietnamese for Koreans or Korean for Vietnamese) and cultural education (teaching Vietnamese culture to students or professionals working in multicultural fields)… Informal tutoring jobs only require fluency in two languages, while official teaching positions (at language centers or schools) require qualifications. Entering the education sector marks an important milestone in the social integration of migrant brides, as their academic achievements are recognized and their work is highly valued in Korean society.

> "I currently work as a multicultural education instructor, mainly teaching about Vietnamese culture, people, and traditions. I teach elementary and secondary school students (by session) and also at kindergartens (one session per school). Additionally, I also organize cultural experience activities, such as Vietnamese cuisine and traditional clothing demonstrations. Since I only teach 1–2 sessions per week, the income is low, and the work is unstable. However, this job requires strong Korean language skills and good communication abilities, and it is intellectually rewarding."
>
> (Ms. N**, 44 years old, Bucheon)

> "I teach cooking classes for Koreans. This is a job I got after attending a cooking class sponsored by the Seoul Metropolitan Government. Additionally, I teach Vietnamese language classes for children from multicultural families. This is freelance work, which I will apply whenever the Multicultural Family Support Center hires."
>
> (Ms. H***, 36 years old, Seoul)

Social integration allows migrant brides to confidently pursue diverse job opportunities in Korea, beyond traditional fields that are mainly associated with immigrant workers. Hence, for migrant brides who have lived in Korea for many years, possess higher education, and have successfully adapted, their career choices expand significantly, with jobs facilitating personal development goals (as in the case of the brides cited below). Some return to their majors from Vietnam, while others explore new professions based on personal interests and experiences.

> "Previously, I worked at the Multicultural Family Support Center, specializing in assisting newly arrived brides. Currently, I have transitioned to working for an American insurance company, where I am the first foreign employee. Additionally, I volunteer as an interpreter for the Northern Gyeonggi Provincial Police Agency and provide translation services for the Tax Office in Incheon."
>
> (Ms. L***, 46 years old, Seoul)

> "My company develops educational programs under contract, creating bilingual teaching materials and organizing year-end events. Since my major in Vietnam was marketing, I am currently responsible for planning and online marketing (sales management, ordering, and project planning). The company does not offer overtime pay (regular working hours are from 10 AM to 5 PM), so I am not completely satisfied with the salary. However, I enjoy the working environment, and my mother-in-law supports my decision to continue working."
>
> (Ms. D***, 36 years old, Daegu)

> "My goal by the age of 45 is to become a Vietnamese language lecturer and interpreter (to ensure my livelihood) while also studying and obtaining certifications to become a coach. I am gradually transitioning into the field of professional financial training. Although I am still in the process of building a solid knowledge background, my financial training activities are currently community-based. In the future, I aim to expand my financial consulting services beyond the Vietnamese community in South Korea to more diverse customers."
>
> (Ms. T***, 38 years old, Seoul)

Especially, as South Korea enters a hyper-aging society, certifications in newborn care, elderly care, and disability assistance, as well as domestic work training, are attracting significant attention. These programs enable migrant women, who typically have limited economic participation while their children are in school, to enter the highly demanded caregiving labor market in Korea.

> "My in-laws suffer from dementia and have mobility issues. To assist them, I researched elderly welfare programs and discovered that government support was available. Hence, I took a two-month elderly care course to better understand elderly needs and caregiving methods, and I even completed an internship. Currently, my father-in-law receives three hours of daily government-funded care. Meanwhile, I have registered as my mother-in-law's caregiver, also providing three hours of care per day. This arrangement gives me flexibility and allows me to earn an income as well."
>
> (Ms. H**, 30 years old, Suwon)

Through the shared experiences of migrant women who moved to Korea through marriage, there are some conclusions about their right to participate in economic institutions. In general, these women do not face significant barriers in accessing economic opportunities, as evidenced by the diversity of job search channels and career fields they engage in. However, their access to specific job markets and industries is closely linked to their personal abilities and social networks. The better a migrant bride's Korean language skills and the deeper her connections with Koreans (both within her in-laws and other Korean acquaintances), the greater her access to effective job search channels and diverse vocational training programs. These factors also increase their chances of having skilled and socially-respected jobs. This is a key strategy for improving the economic integration of migrant women through marriage.

2.4.2. The Right to Fair Distribution

2.4.2.1. Income Equality

According to the theory of Equality of Opportunity, economic integration also involves the right to fair distribution, primarily reflected in income and asset distribution. This ensures that vulnerable groups benefit from social security and equality. According to the Korean Ministry of Employment and Labor, the minimum wage as of August 2023 was 9,860 won per hour **(**approximately 180,000 VND/hour**)** and 2,060,740 won per month **(**around 40 million VND/month**)** based on a 40-hour workweek (209 hours per month). This means that migrant brides should be entitled to at least this minimum wage.

However, survey results indicate that migrant brides still face wage discrimination. According to a 2020 survey by the Migrant Research and Training Center**,** 8.5% of ethnic Koreans from China reported earning less than 1 million won per month, while 38.0% earned between 1 million and 2 million won**.** Meanwhile, 49.4% earned between 2 million and 3 million won, despite only 40.4% working full-time**.** In contrast, Vietnamese and other Asian migrant women had a higher full-time employment rate (48.8% and 53.7%, respectively); however, less than 30% earned over 2 million won per month**.** Similar findings were reported in the 2021 survey conducted by the Korean Women's Development Institute on multicultural families**.** In other words, even though employment rates among ethnic Koreans from China are lower, they receive relatively higher wages compared to migrant women from other countries. For migrant women from other countries, even those with stable, full-time jobs still receive significantly lower wages. Vietnamese migrant women, including migrant brides, often earn far less than their Korean counterparts and even other migrant workers, such as those from China.

Income disparity reveals a broader issue: workplace discrimination against migrant women in Korea.

> "Based on my own experience in consulting, wage discrimination against foreigners is a prominent issue. Even the luckiest among us only receive the basic salary; regardless of how long or well we work, our salary remains the same as that of Korean employees. Some workplaces do not even pay the legal minimum wage or provide tax deductions. Personally, I only receive the lowest salary at my center."
>
> (Ms. O***, 47 years old, Seoul)
>
> "I once worked in a factory where foreign workers were exploited (wages were stagnant despite working longer hours). Some companies even withheld salaries. That's why we always advise each other to thoroughly research companies before accepting a job. In my case, in 2018, before returning to Vietnam, I worked at a supermarket. When I resigned, I was supposed to receive severance pay, but the supermarket refused to pay. I had to ask a friend in South Korea to look into the labor laws and fought for months just to receive a few hundred thousand won (equivalent to one month's salary)."
>
> (Ms. T****, 35 years old, Mokpo - now returned to Vietnam)

Discrimination can also be seen in the multicultural awareness of colleagues in the workplace.

> "Even though South Korea considers itself a multicultural society—meaning mutual understanding is essential. However, in fact, foreigners are often expected to assimilate entirely into Korean culture, while Koreans rarely make an effort to learn about other cultures. You can see this in how cultural programs primarily target children, while adults have limited opportunities to learn. Even some employees at multicultural centers have little awareness of foreign cultures and see no need to educate themselves."
>
> (Ms. O***, 47 years old, Seoul)

2.4.2.2 Career Mobility

According to Statistics Korea, 327,000 foreign workers have stayed at a single office for over three years**,** 241,000 people stayed for one to two years**,** and 176,000 people for less than six months**.** 48.6% of foreign workers stay in a job for one to two years, reflecting a high turnover rate and showing a trend of career mobility of foreigners living in South Korea.

Key factors driving job changes include seasonal work, unfair wages, and economic pressures… Migrant brides, in particular, report that besides some external factors (Covid 19, the policies of the Korean government: closing support centers for foreign workers), their dissatisfaction with the jobs (workplace discrimination, difficult working conditions, and bad relationships with employers…) are the reasons for frequently changing jobs. However, the most common reason is their desire to find better opportunities with better working environments as well as higher salaries and benefits.

Thus, changing jobs is also a way for migrant brides to choose suitable jobs, helping them achieve stability both financially and mentally. This serves as a crucial condition for deeper and more sustainable social integration. Moreover, the opportunity to change jobs, much like the opportunity to participate in economic institutions, is closely related to the individual migrant bride's level of education, skills, and social network. Migrant brides' sharing clearly shows that the better their Korean language proficiency and the more specialized qualifications they obtain (in South Korea), the greater their chances of accessing a diverse range of job opportunities that match their career aspirations and personal goals.

> "For the first five years, I didn't know Korean, so I helped my mother-in-law run her food

> stall (delivering orders by bicycle). She paid me 600,000 won (about 12 million VND) and gave me extra money for my child's milk. I saved this to support my family and buy a house in Vietnam. Later on, after obtaining a two-year Korean language certificate, a Korean acquaintance introduced me to an office job at a travel agency. That was between 2005 and 2006 when many Koreans wanted to visit Vietnam. Hence, I earned under 1 million won per month. Later, I became a tour guide in Vietnam, making up to $1,200 per month.
>
> To increase my income, I continued to learn Korean and transitioned to work in marriage services especially in 2009 when there were many migrant brides to Korea. At that time, my official salary was $1,200, and I also received commission bonuses every time I brought a groom to meet the bride. So, my total income reached around $1,800 to $1,900 (approximately 40 million VND). Thanks to that, I was able to buy a house in Vietnam (District 3, Saigon) and another in Gangnam (of course, out of the 900 million KRW for the house purchase, I took a 150 million KRW bank loan). As competition in the tourism industry increased, I switched to marriage services in 2009 and then transitioned into labor recruitment and study abroad consulting. In 2014, my husband was in an accident, and I became the sole provider. After he passed away in 2019, COVID-19 boomed, and I faced financial hardship. Now, my life is fairly stable and I continue working in visa and labor recruitment services."
>
> (Ms. T**, 60 years old, Seoul)

2.4.2.3 Opportunities for Self-Development in the Workplace

Besides improving the financial situation of their families, economic activities also hold significant meaning for the mental and social lives of migrant brides. When they first arrive in Korea, most women feel unfamiliar with their new lives in a completely different country. In the beginning, when their Korean language skills are still limited, most of them stay at home, focusing on learning the language and taking care of their families (many newly arrived brides already have children and spend around one to two years at home fulfilling childcare duties). This is also the period when they feel the most uncomfortable, stressed, and vulnerable. Only when they have the chance to go out and work do these brides get the opportunity to change themselves, interact with the outside world, and truly integrate into society.

First and foremost, to find stability and balance, migrant brides continuously strive to adapt and improve themselves to fit into the working environment.

> "The first time I worked at the Danuri Call Center and answered calls, I was extremely nervous. I still remember my first call. It was for interpreting for a married couple. During my first year, I constantly thought about quitting because the job was extremely stressful and overwhelming. At that time, the call center had consultants from six different countries, and I was the oldest among them, with limited Korean language skills.
>
> The people I assisted were usually Korean men married to Vietnamese women. Most of them were poor, often the eldest sons in their families, had health issues, or lacked higher education. Some even told me straight over the phone that my salary was paid with their taxes, so I had to endure their scolding. While the job was not physically demanding, it was mentally exhausting. It took me five to seven years to get used to it and learn how to control my emotions. Working at the call center did not provide as much financial stability as working in a factory, but with my husband's encouragement, I decided to commit to it until retirement."
>
> (Ms. N*****, 59 years old, Anyang)

Survey results also show that compared to manual, simple, and temporary jobs, office jobs or positions that require frequent interaction with Koreans serve as a goal and a motivation for migrant brides to develop themselves to meet South Korean employment requirements.

> "I graduated with a degree in Korean language in Vietnam and worked at a Korean company before moving here. So, I had no issues with language or cultural adaptation. However, what shocked me the most was the tough requirements when applying for jobs. When I first came to Korea, I wasn't eligible for official employment (having lived in South Korea for two years) and had no recognized South Korean qualifications (my university degree and work experience from Vietnam were not accepted in South Korean job applications). I ended up working at a golf course because it was a manual labor job that didn't require any certifications, and I stopped preparing for other opportunities.
>
> By 2023, I had the chance to apply for an online teaching job (teaching Vietnamese), but the employer required a valid TOPIK certificate, and mine had expired a long time ago. I had to retake the test but failed to register in time, missing two job opportunities. Luckily, an online TOPIK testing program was recently launched, and I passed with Level 5, which was sufficient.
>
> Later, the Ministry of Foreign Affairs organized a two-week teacher training program for foreigners teaching Korean. Initially, I planned to take unpaid leave to attend, but since my company didn't allow it, I decided to quit the job. After completing the training, I applied for a position at the Multicultural Family Support Center. However, once again, without Korean-recognized qualifications, computer certification, or translation/interpreting certifications, I was ineligible for any position at the center. Even administrative jobs at the center required a social welfare degree. This made me realize that in South Korea, everything requires official certifications and qualifications. Although I had taken various courses in the past, I had never considered obtaining qualifications. Initially, I wondered why so many people kept studying. Was it because they genuinely didn't know things, or was it necessary? During my job interview, the director of the Multicultural Family Support Center pointed out that I did not make careful preparations for job applications."
>
> (Ms. L*, 36 years old, Incheon)

Beyond learning Korean and working in such familiar fields as translation and language teaching, job opportunities have also encouraged women to explore new career paths with diverse professional goals.

> "I am currently training to become a yoga instructor, aiming to teach full-time via the Internet. I believe that everyone has a job that suits them. So, last year, I decided to pursue this path and enrolled in an online course from Vietnam to gain foundational knowledge."
>
> (Ms. D***, 37 years old, Seoul)

> "I am still in university (studying online at a cyber university, attending classes whenever I have free time). I plan to study social welfare to open a nursing home in Vietnam. My husband also insists that I become proficient in Korean and computers, so he has encouraged me to obtain a medical tourism guide certification as well."
>
> (Ms. H**, 30 years old, Suwon)

Thus, economic activities have provided an environment and opportunities for migrant brides to engage with society, naturally improving their Korean language skills. At the same time, striving for career achievements and progress also acts as a driving force, stimulating their desire for learning and self-development.

3. Conclusions

From the analysis above, several conclusions can be drawn regarding the social integration of Vietnamese migrant women for international marriage in South Korea's economic sector:

First, in terms of the right to participate in economic institutions, Vietnamese migrant brides in South Korea do not face significant difficulties in accessing opportunities for economic participation. This is evident in the diversity of job-seeking channels and the range of industries they engage in. However, the extent of their access to support channels or job sectors depends directly on their qualifications and capabilities. Among these factors, Korean language proficiency is the most important, followed by educational qualifications, work experience, and the ability to expand social networks.

Second, regarding the right to fair distribution, migrant brides still face many injustices and discrimination in economic activities, as reflected in their significantly lower income levels compared to native workers. However, this discrimination applies broadly to all foreign migrant workers rather than being a specific issue applied to marriage migrants. The form and degree of discrimination depend on the working environment, the level of awareness of people around them, their qualifications, as well as the women's ability to advocate for themselves.

Third, these migrant brides continuously strive to bridge the gap, overcome discrimination, and assert themselves in the South Korean labor market. This is reflected in their willingness to step out of their "comfort zones" to seek more diverse job opportunities that better match their skills and personal identities, thereby securing stable income and contributing to their family's overall economic well-being. This level of engagement represents a higher degree of social integration in the economic sector among long-term migrants in South Korea.

From the surveys on the economic integration of marriage migrant women, it can be concluded that, in addition to external factors (such as South Korean perceptions of multiculturalism and corporate hiring policies), internal factors (such as individual competence, qualifications, and social networks…) play a decisive role in ensuring fair distribution of both resources and opportunities in economic activities for migrant brides. This is also a motivation for these women to continuously enhance their skills and showcase their individual identities in the integration process in Korean society. At the same time, it also presents a policy challenge, in which both the Vietnamese and South Korean governments need to develop appropriate support measures to ensure the comprehensive and practical social integration of individuals in this group.

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THE IMPACT OF TRANSLATION ON LANGUAGE LEARNING - AN INSIGHT FROM THE FUNCTIONAL APPROACH TO TRANSLATION

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Abstract: Translation or Grammar - Translation method (GTM) in its new form has made a comeback in language teaching after decades of neglect due to its limitations. This paper presents the impact of translation on students' English learning in a tertiary English language program in Vietnam. The methodology was based on a contrastive examination of students' written and spoken comments on the translation tasks and students' translation solutions both before and after the translation workshops. The students demonstrated improved awareness of communicative contexts of texts or communicative language use and enhanced text comprehension. The study reinstates the enhanced role of translation in language teaching particularly when translation is defined from the functional approach to translation. GTM in its new form can still be relevant in Vietnam and other similar contexts.

Keywords: Grammar - Translation Method (GTM), language teaching, functional approach to translation, language use, text comprehension

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TÁC ĐỘNG CỦA DỊCH THUẬT ĐỐI VỚI VIỆC HỌC NGÔN NGỮ - GÓC NHÌN TỪ CÁCH TIẾP CẬN CHỨC NĂNG TRONG DỊCH THUẬT

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Tóm tắt: Phương pháp Dịch thuật - Ngữ pháp (GTM) dưới hình thức mới đã quay trở lại trong giảng dạy ngôn ngữ sau nhiều thập kỷ bị xem nhẹ do những hạn chế của phương pháp này. Bài báo này trình bày tác động của dịch thuật đối với việc học tiếng Anh của sinh viên trong một chương trình đào tạo tiếng Anh bậc đại học tại Việt Nam. Phương pháp nghiên cứu dựa trên việc đối chiếu và phân tích định tính các bài phản hồi bằng hình thức viết và nói của sinh viên về các nhiệm vụ dịch thuật cũng như các phương án dịch của sinh viên trước và sau các hội thảo về dịch thuật. Kết quả cho thấy sinh viên có nhận thức tốt hơn về ngữ cảnh giao tiếp của văn bản và việc sử dụng ngôn ngữ trong giao tiếp, đồng thời nâng cao khả năng hiểu văn bản. Nghiên cứu khẳng định vai trò quan trọng của dịch thuật trong giảng dạy ngôn ngữ, đặc biệt khi dịch thuật được định nghĩa theo cách tiếp cận chức năng. Phương pháp GTM dưới hình thức mới vẫn có thể phù hợp với bối cảnh giảng dạy tiếng Anh tại Việt Nam và các môi trường giáo dục tương tự.

Từ khóa: phương pháp Dịch thuật - Ngữ pháp (GTM), giảng dạy ngôn ngữ, cách tiếp cận chức năng trong dịch thuật, sử dụng ngôn ngữ, hiểu văn bản

1. Introduction

Translation has traditionally been excluded from language classrooms due to its association with the limitations of the Grammar Translation Method (GTM). However, in recent years, it has regained attention for its beneficial effects on students' language skills. Research on the role of translation in language education suggests that language learning is not solely based on structural or behaviorist principles, which align with “formalist, non-communicative views of language” (Colina, 2002, p. 4). Scholars such as Cook (2010) and Colina and Lardford (2018) have started to emphasize the communicative aspects of translation, highlighting its role in facilitating communication. Despite this shift, the communicative function of translation remains uncommon in many language learning environments. Additionally, numerous studies on translation, including those by Adil (2020), Lee (2013), Valdeón (2015), and Yusupov (2022), tend to focus on linguistic aspects or lack sufficient empirical data.

Based on the communicative view of translation, this study goes beyond the contrastive analysis activity and introduces to learners aspects of translation from a functional approach to translation. While many studies on this approach explore the effectiveness of this approach on learner’s translation skills and knowledge, this paper presents how translation, from the functionalist viewpoint, contributes to learners’ increased awareness of text and language use, which is part of language competence.

2. Literature Review

2.1. Translation in Language Teaching

After being marginalized in language teaching for decades due to its connection with the GTM, translation has once again been recognized as a valuable tool in language education. At the very least, it does not hinder language development or disrupt second language (L2) acquisition (Malmkjaer, 1998). For instance, Duff (1989) argues that translation helps students become more aware of first language (L1) influence on L2 and equips them with strategies to address issues arising from language interference. It enhances learners' linguistic knowledge (Belpoliti & Plascencia, 2013; Benelhadj Djelloul, & Neddar, 2017; Ebbert-Hübner & Maas, 2017; Valdeón, 2015), language skills (D'Amore, 2014; Lee, 2013; Mbeudeu, 2017; Yusupov, 2022), communicative ability (Adil, 2020), humanistic perspectives (Navidinia, Akar, & Hendevalan, 2019) and autonomy (Rafiqa, Yasim, Fajriani & Saleh, 2019). Translation enables students to develop confidence and self-esteem and it is favourably regarded by both students and teachers (Canga-Alonson & Rubio-Goitia, 2016; Kelly & Bruen, 2015).

The matter of concern is not whether translation is useful or not, but rather, how to use it for what purpose and to what effect. In studies in support of translation in language teaching including Lee (2013) and Valdeón (2015), translation has been used as a contrastive analysis activity in which sentences in the L1 and the L2 are compared and contrasted. The purpose of such an activity has been to enable students to learn isolated vocabulary items and grammatical sentential structures rather than focusing on contextual features of translation tasks or treating translation as a skill by itself. Most studies have prioritised students' memory of linguistic items to their functional use of language. The effect of translation on the learner's language knowledge has been finitely compared with other language activities. Generally, most of the studies did not focus on the meaningfulness of linguistic items which can only be achieved by placing them in contexts. In other words, the linguistic view of translation is still common in studies supporting translation, which is similar to those against translation. In fact, House (2008) claims that a linguistic view of translation is held among those who plead against and for the use of translation in language teaching.

Linguistic approaches to translation (based on contrastive linguistics) do not consider the contextual use of words and sentences. It is important to note that translation is not the same as contrastive linguistics. Emphasising the need to understand the differences between the two fields, House (2008) explains how "langue" or the language system differs from "parole" or concrete utterances in texts and insists that translation is performed at the level of parole rather than langue. This means that translators must choose among various target equivalents. According to House, "(w)hile contrastive linguistics tends to focus on the language system, translation is concerned with the reali(s)ation of that system in acts of communication" (p. 136). In fact, translation tasks based on contrastive analysis do not offer learners opportunities to improve their ability to achieve communicative goals in using a L2.

Language learning and translating both emphasise learners' ability to communicate (Carreres & Noriega-Sánchez, 2011, 2021; Colina, 2002). Colina (2002) relates the concept of communicative language competence by Savignon (1972, 1983) and Lee and VanPatten (1995) to communicative translation competence by Kiraly (1995). She maintains that both activities aim at improving learners' ability to express, interpret, and negotiate meaning in communicative situations. In other words, communicative language competence is achieved by interacting with the input rather than learning formal aspects of the language while communicative translation competence enables learners to act appropriately in communicative translation tasks. In the same vein, Carreres (2014) refers to the concept of communicative competence developed by Canale and Swain (1980) including grammatical competence (the knowledge of linguistic aspects of languages), sociolinguistic competence (understanding of the social contexts and cultures), discourse competence (knowledge of text types and text type conventions) and strategic competence (strategies to enhance communication).

Sociolinguistic competence and communicative competence are linked with the appropriate use of language in various contexts (Canale & Swain, 1980). To facilitate effective communication, learners should be aware of language functions including "instrumental" functions (e.g., Reiss' (1981) operative function of text) and "imaginative" functions (e.g., relevant to figures of speech). In language learning, learners are expected to understand the social contexts in which communication takes place, including who the participants are and what the communicative purpose is. Accordingly, learners' awareness of communicative contexts of texts and communicative language use, can enhance their ability to comprehend texts. This is aligned with Bachman's (1990) description of a language learning activity (assessment, planning, and execution). For example, in comprehending a text, learners must assess the situation (e.g., the author, our background knowledge, and our reading expectations) before planning available resources (e.g., knowledge of vocabulary and the subject matter relevant to job descriptions) and adopting different reading strategies to achieve the goal of comprehension.

The discussion which aligns with Nguyen (2024) reinstates the communicative view of translation in language teaching, which helps justify the adoption of the functional approach to translation, an emerging trend in using translation in language teaching

2.2. The Functional Approach to Translation

Functional approaches to translation have shifted the focus from a purely linguistic perspective to viewing translation as a communicative and intercultural activity. This approach, initially proposed by Reiss (1981) and later expanded in Nord's (2005) text-oriented translation model, emphasizes that translation should be guided by its intended purpose or the function of the target text (TT). This model enables translators to gain a deep understanding of the source text (ST) and make informed decisions based on the intended function of the translation. The translator needs to figure out extratextual and intratextual factors. The former includes "sender" (text producer or writer), "sender's intention", "audience" (reader), "medium" (channel), "place of communication", "time of communication", "motive for communication" (why a text is produced), and "text function" while the latter includes subject matter, content, presupposition, text composition (or structure), non-verbal elements, lexis, sentence structure and suprasegmental features (e.g., italic or bold type).

Several studies have suggested integrating functionalist principles, particularly those of Nord, into translation instruction within language programs. Colina and Lafford (2018) provide examples of translation activities that emphasize the influence of contextual factors - such as text, author, reader, and function - on text comprehension and production. Specifically, they present both top-down and bottom-up genre-based approaches to text analysis, considering various textual elements. Károly (2014) and Chen (2010) implement the functional theoretical framework and Nord's text analysis model into foreign language programs with the aim of developing students' translation competence. These studies focus on students' awareness of translation problems and difficulties (based on Nord's category of problems). Nguyen (2022) who discusses the function of translation maintains that translation not only involves the transfer of a message from one language to another, but it is crucial in foreign language teaching and learning. While these studies aim at improving learners' translation skills, little research sheds light on the impact of translation on language learning from the functionalist viewpoint.

In this study, translation workshops introduced to the students basic concepts in translation. Text analysis activities allowed students to discuss text type, extratextual features (author, text function, reader, medium, and place/time of communication) and intratextual features (subject matter, content, vocabulary, sentence structure, and non-verbal elements) (from Nord, 2005). The students were also introduced to foreignising and domesticating strategies (Aixelá, 1996). Foreignising strategies include keeping the ST form, translating literally, transcribing, using footnotes or a glossary, and incorporating additions and explanations (along with the ST items retained or outside the translated text). Domesticating strategies consist of omission (the ST form omitted), addition (further information added), and substitution (the ST form changed or replaced with another TT neutral form). Finally, students reflected on translation choices and checked if translations are appropriate or not.

Nguyen (2020, 2023a, 2023b) adopts the functional approach to explore the integration of consciousness-raising and the functional approach to translation in enhancing students' understanding of various aspects of the translation process. This present study which replicates Nguyen (2023a, 2023b) work particularly focuses on a detailed examination of the impact of translation, from the functionalist viewpoint, on learners' language awareness of text features and related language learning aspects. In other words, the study answers the research question: How does translation impact learners' language awareness?

3. Methods

3.1. Participants

Thirty Vietnamese female students enrolled in an introductory translation course (Translation 1) at a foreign language university in Vietnam were randomly selected for this study. Translation 1 was one of three core translation courses in the English language curriculum, designed to enhance students' language proficiency while developing their translation skills.

While some participants had no prior experience with translation courses, they had completed mandatory integrated English skills courses. These courses aimed to help students achieve a B2 (upper-intermediate) proficiency level, as defined by the Council of Europe's Language Policy Division (2009). The prerequisite courses were taken during their second year of study. During their first two years, the students had not undertaken any courses in translation. Therefore, they took part in this study as language learners who are beginner translators who largely depend on literal translation and rigidly retain the ST vocabulary and structures in the translation. Their lack of awareness about situational factors, such as the reader and medium of publication, prevents them from achieving translations that fulfil communicative functions.

In English classes, there is commonly a higher percentage of females, and the same holds for this group of participants, most of whom are women. Therefore, the impact of gender on the translation process cannot be determined.

3.2. The Research Procedure

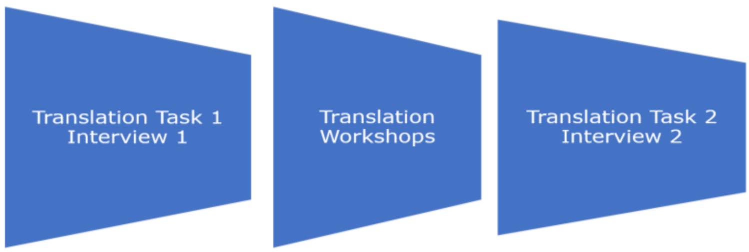
This study took place during the first week of the Translation 1 course, outside the students' regular class hours. Participation was entirely voluntary, and the students first attended a briefing session where they were informed about the study's objectives, procedures, and their right to withdraw at any time. Notably, before this study, the students had not received formal instruction on articulating their translation challenges.

In the initial phase, 30 third-year students (identified as students 1 to 30) completed Translation Task 1, which involved translating two texts while documenting any difficulties they encountered. Afterwards, 15 out of the 30 students voluntarily participated in individual interviews (Interview 1/Int. 1) to further elaborate on their translation difficulties. Before the interviews, they were given 10 minutes to review their translation task responses.

The second phase included all 30 students attending three consecutive workshops, held immediately after completing Translation Task 1. One day after the final workshop, all the participants completed Translation Task 2, which followed the same format as Translation Task 1. Finally, the students who had participated in the first round of interviews also took part in a follow-up interview (Interview 2/Int. 2) to reflect on their experiences. This research was granted ethical clearance approval by the University of Queensland, Australia (Ethical Clearance Application Number: 15-13).

Figure 1

Data Collection Procedure



3.3. Translation Workshops

Table 1

Workshop Contents

Workshops	Contents
Workshop 1	"Good" translation Workshop 1A: Introduction: What is a "good" translation Workshop 1B: Definition of translation and the role of the translator Workshop 1 C: Variety of texts
Workshop 2	Understanding texts Workshop 2A: Text analysis Workshop 2B: Text analysis II Workshop 2C: Text analysis III
Workshop 3	The notion of "accuracy Workshop 3A: Translation strategies Workshop 3B: Omissions, additions, and substitutions Workshop 3C: What is "accuracy"?

The workshops incorporated features that were not previously emphasised in translation teaching in the English program at the chosen university in Vietnam such as text analysis, translation strategies, and reflection on translation. They aimed to raise the students' awareness of the translation process by formally drawing their attention to text analysis, translation strategies, and reflections guided by functional approaches to translation.

Table 1 provides an overview of the content covered in three workshops, each lasting 150 minutes and structured into three 50-minute sessions.

Workshop 1 encouraged students to reconsider their understanding of high-quality translation. Through in-depth discussions, they reflected on their prior assumptions about translation and their general perceptions of a translator's role. The session also introduced key aspects of the profession, including the responsibilities of translators, ethical considerations, and the various types of texts they may encounter.

Workshop 2 highlighted the significance of text analysis as a fundamental step in the translation process. Students were introduced to essential textual features that require careful attention when translating. These features, along with different text types, were explained using deductive metalinguistic descriptions to strengthen their analytical skills.

Workshop 3 focused on translation strategies. Students examined published Vietnamese translations to identify the strategies applied and assessed their effectiveness. In the final session, they reflected on their understanding of translation accuracy and developed their own definitions of what constitutes a high-quality translation.

3.4. Translation Tasks

Before and after the translation workshops, students completed comparable translation tasks, each divided into two parts: Task 1a and Task 1b (before the workshops) and Task 2a and Task 2b (after the workshops). The task sheets maintained a consistent format, including a section for students to complete their translations and another for them to describe the challenges they encountered during the process.

These tasks shared several key characteristics, such as structure, permitted reference materials, time constraints, text length, translation direction (from the second language to the native language), text types, topics, complexity, linguistic features, and students' flexibility in determining the order of translation (See Table 2 below). The tasks were carefully designed to align with students' English proficiency, ensuring both comprehension and optimal performance. At the same time, maintaining consistent conditions provided a reliable framework for analyzing students' awareness of the translation process in depth.

Table 2

Texts Used in the Translation Tasks

Text features	Translation Task 1		Translation Task 2	
	Task 1a	Task 1b	Task 2a	Task 2b
Word total	67	68	60	75
Text type	Government fact sheet	Children's story	Government fact sheet	Children's story
Topic	Environment	Children's daily life	Environment	Children's daily life
TextEvaluator score	330	390	440	210
Features that might extract students' diverse strategies	Title 1a	- Personal pronoun ("He 1b") - Figures of speech	- Title 2a	- Personal pronoun ("He 2b") - Figures of speech

After completing each task, students were required to document at least five challenges they faced while translating. These reflections recorded both before and after the workshops (referred to as Writ. 1 and Writ. 2), align with Gile's perspective that such notes provide valuable insights into students' cognitive processes during translation, shedding light on both individual and shared difficulties as well as the strategies they employed (Gile, 2004, p. 2).

3.5. Interviews

In this study, interviews were essential in complementing the written comments students provided about their translation challenges. They allowed students to elaborate on their reflections and share additional insights that may not have been fully conveyed in their written responses due to time limitations or variations in English proficiency. During the interviews, students were encouraged to respond to neutral clarification questions designed to further explore the content of their written comments in the translation tasks. The questions included “What are your difficulties in translation?” or “Can you explain this translation?” to avoid any biases in research.

3.6. Data Analysis

Data analysis was based on themes related to language learning including text features, functional language use and reading comprehension. Text features include text type, extratextual features (author, text function, reader, medium, and place/time of communication) and intratextual features (subject matter, content, vocabulary, sentence structure, and non-verbal elements). In terms of functional language use, learners can mention “context” or “situation” when they discuss linguistic features. Comprehension strategies refer to the use of general reading strategies and the use of dictionaries. The increase in these features after the workshops can indicate how translation contributes to language learning.

4. Results and Discussion

4.1. Number of Text Features Raised by the Students

The workshops presented text analysis activities in which the students were encouraged to discuss text type, extratextual features (author, text function, reader, medium, and place/time of communication) and intratextual features (subject matter, content, vocabulary, sentence structure, and non-verbal elements). The total number of text features referred to by the students in Interview 2 was 94, which was more than double that of Interview 1. Before the workshops, most of the students (12 out of 15 students) referred to 2 or 3 features. Two students mentioned 4 features and 1 student referred to 6 features. After the workshops, all of the students raised more than 4 features. Four students noticed 6 features. Another 4 students referred to 7 features. Three students mentioned 8 features.

Table 3

The Number of Text Features Raised by the Students in Interviews Before and After the Workshops

Features	Interview 1	Interview 2
Text type	9	11
Author	4	9
Text function	0	6
Reader	2	15
Medium	0	1
Subject matter	4	11
Content	4	11
Vocabulary	14	15
Sentence structure	9	8
Non-verbal elements	1	7

Table 3 depicts the increase in the number of students who noticed various text features after the workshops. While minor differences were observed in comments on text type and linguistic intratextual features, more marked contrasts occurred in comments on some extratextual features and non-linguistic intratextual features. There was not much difference in the number of students who raised the topic of text type in both interviews, with 9 students in the first interview and 11 students in the second. During both of the interviews, some students described the text types using the names of specific types of text, such as “instruction”, “instructive text”, “advertisement”, “promulgation” (Task 1a and Task 2a), “picture book”, or “funny story” (Task 1b and Task 2b).

A much higher number of the students referred to the extratextual features in Interview 2. The most significant change was concerned with reader. Previously noticed by only 2 students, it was later a commonly raised concept among 15 students. Nine out of the 15 students clearly indicated who the reader was, such as “Vietnamese people in Australia” (Task 2a) and “(Vietnamese) children” (Task 2b). The number of students who talked about the author after the workshops more than doubled (9 students, compared with 4 students before the workshops). Two students referred to the “government” (Student 8, Int. 2) or “NSW government” (Student 10, Int. 2) in discussing the translation of Text 2a. Other extratextual features, including medium and text function, were only referred to after the workshops (1 and 6 student(s), respectively). One student (Student 10) mentioned the website on which the text was published. Five of the six students who commented on the text function clearly explained it. For example, some students mentioned that the purpose of the text (Text 2a) was “to persuade people to turn to natural cleaning” (Student 1, Int. 2) or “to call for the avoidance of chemicals” (Student 11, Int. 2).

In the category of intratextual features, the students referred more frequently to non-linguistic text features (non-verbal elements, subject matter, and content) than linguistic ones (vocabulary and expressions, and sentences and sentence structures). The number of students commenting on non-verbal elements rose from 1 to 7 and the figures for the students’ commenting on content and subject matter after the workshops nearly tripled the numbers before the workshops. After the workshops, some students referred to not only the pictures presented in the texts but also the capitalised word - “Eden” (Text 2a), brackets, and logo. Eleven of the students discussed the specific content after the workshops, compared with the four students who noticed it beforehand. These students talked more about what happened in the story (Text 2b) than what was written in Text 2a. For example, they described what the characters in the story were feeling and/or doing, what types of characteristics the characters displayed, or the relationships between the characters. The pattern for subject matter was similar to that of content. In the second interview, up to 10 of the 11 students who mentioned subject matter also talked about “natural cleaning” in different ways, depending on their understanding of the subject matter. For example,

> I understand that if we use safe alternative cleaning products, cleaning will be natural and fresh. (Student 2, Int. 2)

> A clean environment is also related to a better world or something like that. (Student 10, Int. 2)

There was not a considerable change in the students’ reporting about linguistic items they had difficulty with while translating. The number of students who discussed sentences and sentence structures in Interview 1 and Interview 2 were 9 and 8, respectively. The figures for vocabulary and expressions were 14 in the pre-workshop interviews and 15 in the post-workshop interviews. However, after the workshops, more students paid attention to specific sentence types with 5 students referring to relative clauses, complex sentences, and imperative sentences, while only 1 student clearly talked about complex sentences before the workshops. In the second interview, 12 students talked about specific types of vocabulary and expressions including idioms, phrasal verbs, or metaphors compared with 9 students in the first interview. The differences in the students' description of linguistic features are not significant enough to draw conclusions about improvements in the students' awareness of linguistic features. The students probably already had a strong belief that vocabulary was important in translation and that this belief did not change much after the workshops. For other features, particularly extratextual ones, they went from a low knowledge base; therefore, a more marked change was evident.

4.2. Awareness of Language and Context

Before the workshops, most of the students were mainly concerned about local linguistic features and they did not pay much attention to the context in which these linguistic features were manifested (11 out of 15 students briefly mentioned the term "context" or "situation" but they did not elaborate on what it referred to). However, after the workshops, while linguistic features remained the central focus of the students' comments, these features were examined with reference to more contextual elements. Firstly, some students demonstrated their awareness of functional language (i.e., language is appropriately used for a specific purpose). For instance, in explaining their understanding of and solution to "green cleaning" (Task 2a), Student 8 referred to the "instrumental" function of language. The student indicated that they understood the ST function and considered using appropriate (target) language to achieve certain purposes. They must have been aware of the operative function of the text.

> My difficulty was that when I did not have an idea of the text function, I would have a vague understanding and would not know how to produce an accurate translation. I could perform the translation more easily after I had recognised the text function, which was that the government encouraged people to use natural or "green" products instead of chemical products for cleaning. (Student 8, Int. 2)

Some students referred to "imaginative" functions (i.e., learners understand and create jokes, metaphors, or other figurative uses of language). For example, after the workshops, Student 2 expressed an understanding of figurative meanings of the phrase "a dead leaf blown in the wind" (Text 2b):

> That is an imaginative phrase about leaves being blown in the wind. Previously, I wasn't able to conjure the image of the soul leaving the body. The texts provided in the workshops contain pictures and illustrations that captured the imagination. Actions may stimulate one's imagination about other things...

Student 2 also demonstrated their sensitivity to figures of speech and cultural expressions. They expressed a need to interpret a term by its connotative meaning rather than simply relying on its literal or referential meaning. A number of other students demonstrated a similar awareness of figures of speech including "Eden" (Task 2a) and "bad books" (Task 2b).

> The literal meaning in that context was that "leaves fall because of blowing winds", wasn't it? Its figurative meaning should be "tâm trạng bị hồn lìa khỏi xác" [BT: the mood is like the soul leaving the body]. (Student 2, Int. 2)

Before the workshops, few students (Students 5, 6, and 10) referred to the context in general terms including "situation" and "the surrounding words and phrases". However, after the workshops many more students paid attention to the relationship between participants within the story (Text 2b) and within the broader context of text (i.e., in relation to the reader). For example, a number of students indicated the formality and politeness conveyed through the use of personal pronouns such as "you" and "he". Their understanding of this formality was due to their attention to not only the in-text context (e.g., participants in stories, Student 3) but also the situation in which the translated language was used (Student 15).

> In this text, it seemed that when the girl was talking about the boy, she seemed to be blaming him. So, I used the pronoun "nó" to refer to the boy ["nó", a Vietnamese personal pronoun often used in informal cases can be neutral or negative]. But the girl and the boy were friends. I used the first-person form of the word "nó". But I wondered whether the word "nó" was impolite in the context of friendship. "Tôi và nó" [BT: I and you], I guess. (Student 3, Int. 2)

> The readers mentioned were Vietnamese people in Australia, so I did not know whether I should use "bạn" [a form of address used among those in equal relationships], "quý vị" [addressed formally] or any other appropriate personal pronouns. In this text, I used "bạn" [the workshops did not focus on the use of Vietnamese personal pronouns]. (Student 15, Int. 2)

Furthermore, in pre-workshop interviews, only four students (Students 2, 3, 4, and 9) briefly referred to "recycling", the subject matter of Text 1a which was evident from the title "Easy recycling" (Title 1a). Student 2 expressed a lack of understanding of recycling: "I could not imagine what recycling is". However, in post-workshop interviews, many students (11 out of 15) clearly indicated their awareness or understanding of subject matter.

> I looked at the text and the picture provided implied cleaning using natural substances rather than chemical products, and cleaning involving a manual method rather than machines [Text 2a]. (Student 1, Int. 2)

> I understand that these words refer to ways of cleaning [Text 2a]. (Student 2, Int. 2)

Overall, as the result of text analysis activities which were intensively presented in Workshop 2, the students showed an increased awareness and understanding of the texts. This improvement was evidenced by the increased number of text features commented on by each student and the increased number of students referring to the types of features. While most of the students raised only 2 to 3 features before the workshops, the majority (11 students) elaborated on between 6 and 8 features in their second interviews. Furthermore, many features (particularly the extratextual features) were noticed more commonly by the students after the workshops. Of the extratextual features, the reader was referred to the most frequently by the students after the workshops. Even though "author" was the second most frequently mentioned feature, not many students clearly indicated who the authors were (except for Students 8 and 10 who referred to "the government" in Task 2a). While students' noticing of text function was absent from the first interviews, it was clearly mentioned by more than one-third of the students in the second interview. Similar to the trend observed with extratextual features, non-linguistic intratextual features, including content, subject matter, and non-verbal elements were noticed more frequently by the students after the workshops. More than half of the students referred to the extratextual features and the non-linguistic intratextual features after the workshops, compared with less than one-third of the students who did so before the workshops. The students seemed to have a better understanding of the contexts of the ST and contextualised meanings within the ST.

In fact, students' new awareness of some sociolinguistic aspects of language or functional language use was revealed after the workshops, which was not evident before the workshops. Sociolinguistic aspects which form part of sociolinguistic competence and communicative competence are concerned with the appropriate use of language in various contexts (Canale & Swain, 1980). The students' awareness of these aspects was revealed in comments about "instrumental" functions (e.g., operative function of text) and "imaginative" functions (e.g., relevant to figures of speech).

Furthermore, in post-workshop interviews, the students demonstrated an awareness of elements of communicative language use as found in Bachman's (1990) description of a language learning activity (assessment, planning, and execution). In language learning, learners should understand the social contexts in which communication takes place, including who the participants are and what the communicative purpose is. Despite the differences between translating and language learning, it is reasonable to assume that such demonstrations would benefit the students' language reception and production in the future. This aligns with House's (2008) use of translation in foreign language classes to improve learners' "receptive and productive aspects of communicative competence" (p. 147). The findings about the students' awareness of language use also provide empirical evidence for the similarities of communicative competence and translation competence posited by Carreres (2014), Carreres & Noriega-Sánchez (2011) and Colina (2002).

The students' enhanced awareness of language use after the workshops corresponded with their increased awareness of extratextual features as incorporated into the workshop activities. Károly (2014) who has also introduced Nord's text analysis and functional approaches to translation in an undergraduate English program in Hungary also reports that text analysis enhances students' attention to the relationship between a text and its social and cultural context. Therefore, text analysis activities in the workshops may have contributed to the students' improved awareness of communicative contexts of texts and communicative language use, which also affected their enhanced ability to comprehend texts as shown in the next section.

4.3. Reading Comprehension

Table 4

The Students' Reading Comprehension Strategies Mentioned in Interviews before and after the Workshops

Comprehension Strategies	Interview 1	Interview 2
Use of general reading strategies	4	11
Use of dictionary	12	6

Comprehension strategies refer to two types of the following strategies: the use of general reading strategies and the use of dictionaries.

4.3.1. Use of general reading strategies

Before the workshops, the students rarely reported general reading strategies for comprehension. General reading strategies included rereading the whole text, considering surrounding words, phrases, and sentences and relating to text features (e.g., pictures and text structure) and translation briefs. Only Student 3 reported having to reread the story to grasp the meanings of words and phrases. Students 5, 6, and 10 considered the context described in general terms and/or considered the surrounding words, phrases, and sentences to infer the meanings of words. Student 6 referred to the picture in the text as an aid to understanding the words.

After the workshops, a number of the students (11 students) diversified their reported comprehension strategies and referred to more text features which had assisted their comprehension. Firstly, Students 3 and 7 said that they needed to perform multiple readings in order to understand the meanings of words and phrases. Secondly, Students 1, 2, 6, 9, 10, and 14 focused on a variety of features of texts including non-verbal elements, content and subject matter in understanding the "deeper meaning" of texts. Student 1, for instance, explained that the picture enabled her to understand the subject matter of the text: "I looked at the text [Task

2a] and the picture provided implied cleaning using natural substances rather than chemical products, and cleaning involving a manual method rather than machines" (Student 1, Int. 2). Student 10 referred to the content of Text 2b:

> I gradually guessed what was missing in this sentence "I did something in the yard" ... The boy was miserable because he would not let anybody talk to him. (Student 10, Int. 2)

Some students also paid attention to the role of the text structure in understanding the content and context of the text (Students 3, 4, 5, 9, and 13). They rationalised that decision by explaining that only reading the extracts of the text or the story shown in the brackets did not enable them to properly understand the text. Students 3 and 4 mentioned that when they did not have access to the whole texts, they did not have a general idea of the story (Text 2b). This indicated the students' attention to the macrostructure (i.e., chapter) of the text rather than only focusing on words, phrases, and sentences.

> Because I only read a small section of the text in brackets rather than the whole story, I did not have an overview of the story. (Student 3, Int. 2)

> I only read part of the story, so I found it hard to understand the overall context or content of the story. (Student 4, Int. 2)

Student 7 raised many features at the same time from multiple reading to referring to non-verbal elements.

> At first, when I had a quick look at it, I thought it meant "dọn dẹp một cách xanh" [BT: cleaning in a green way]. But when I read more closely and considered the circumstance, pictures, context, and the environmental protection, I translated into "dọn dẹp một cách xanh sạch đẹp" [BT: cleaning in a green clean and nice way]. (Student 7, Int. 2)

Finally, Student 9 referred to the translation brief in their comprehension of word meanings. They reported having to "reread the requirement(s) of the task" and that using that strategy made it easier to understand and translate the text.

> After attending the three workshops, I understand that when we have difficulty with the comprehension of meanings, we can look at the pictures and reread the task requirement(s). So, I did not have much difficulty with this text. (Student 9, Int. 2)

When students made a good use of general reading strategies and consideration of the general context, they might not have had to check dictionaries for vocabulary comprehension as illustrated below.

4.3.2. Use of dictionary

The students used their dictionaries to find the meanings of unfamiliar words or aid in comprehending vocabulary and sentences more frequently before the workshops, with 12 students reporting the use of this strategy compared with only six students after the workshops. Before the workshops, two students (7 and 9) explained that they needed dictionaries because of their lack of vocabulary.

> As my knowledge of vocabulary is still limited, I needed to consult the dictionary for some strange, specialised words that I could not understand. (Student 9, Int. 1)

After the workshops, some students still emphasised the role of dictionaries in word comprehension. But they were more aware of the need to improve their vocabulary to reduce their dependence on dictionaries.

> I could not understand the word until I checked it in the dictionary... I think I should improve my vocabulary to reduce my dependence on dictionaries. (Student 1, Int. 2)

In dealing with comprehension problems, the students were less dependent on dictionary use after the workshops. Instead, they tried to improve their comprehension in several ways, from multiple readings, paying attention to the text structure and taking into account the translation briefs. They also considered the non-linguistic features of the text, such as non-verbal elements, content, and subject matter.

Generally, before the workshops, most of the students (12 of 15 students interviewed) said that they had to check the dictionary to understand ST words and phrases; however, after the workshops, only 6 students referred to this strategy. The reason for this reduction in reporting of dictionary use for ST comprehension might be partly linked with their new attention to various text features that assisted their ST comprehension. After the workshops, the students read the ST for gist by paying attention to non-verbal features including, text structure, subject matter, pictures and brackets and/or the interaction of these features. For instance, Students 3 and 4 were concerned that their understanding of the content of the story would be affected by their access to sections of the story rather than the whole text (Task 2b). After the workshops, the students extended their adoption of comprehension strategies to those that were not covered in the workshops. The increased use of general reading strategies demonstrated the students' top-down approach in comprehending the ST (they saw texts as a whole rather than strings of isolated words and sentences). Obviously, text analysis activities and other translation tasks in the workshops may have contributed to the students' text comprehension or their receptive language skill development.

5. Conclusion

The study presents the impact of translation on English language learning in an English program in a Vietnamese university. After short translation workshops, the participating students became more aware of the contextualised meanings of linguistic items and recognised the importance of extratextual features during both ST comprehension. They began to analyse the ST as a whole, considering its non-linguistic extratextual and intratextual features rather than focusing on isolated lexical ST items. In fact, students' awareness of communicative aspects was generally enhanced. They also tended to adopt comprehension strategies, particularly general reading skills more frequently.

Language and translation learning should be driven by a common communicative view of language and translation, and the two should be mutually informative. Students will be then less focused on the idea of language as a linguistic code than they are now. The results of this study have demonstrated that translation can enhance students' sociolinguistic awareness of language. In addition, it seems beneficial to discuss with teachers of English the possible incorporation of text analysis in teaching English skills (e.g., reading) in order to assist students' English learning. It also seems beneficial to discuss with lecturers of English the possible incorporation of elements of the translation process such as text analysis in teaching English skills (e.g., reading) in order to assist students' English learning. Generally, GTM in its revised version informed by the functionalists in translation can be encouraged in Vietnam and other similar contexts where translation holds its values. Future studies are needed to yield more evidence to the potential use of translation in language teaching at different levels.

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ENHANCING MOTIVATION IN EFL TEACHING: INSIGHTS FROM VIETNAMESE UNIVERSITY EFL TEACHERS

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Abstract: This study explores the role of teacher motivation in the context of English education reforms in Vietnam, where reforms have traditionally emphasised language proficiency, teacher training, and pedagogical skills. Drawing on data from 74 EFL (English as a foreign language) teachers across 14 universities in Vietnam, along with 30 in-depth interviews, the study identifies institutional strategies that may support teachers' motivation. The findings highlight five key areas for improvement: professional development, curriculum and teaching reforms, leadership and management practices, workload management, and the provision of benefits and incentives. The study offers context-specific recommendations to support a more motivated and dedicated teaching workforce.

Keywords: teacher motivation, EFL teaching, Vietnamese higher education, leadership and management

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NÂNG CAO ĐỘNG LỰC GIẢNG DẠY TIẾNG ANH: Ý KIẾN CỦA GIẢNG VIÊN TIẾNG ANH TẠI MỘT SỐ TRƯỜNG ĐẠI HỌC Ở VIỆT NAM

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Tóm tắt: Những nghiên cứu về động lực giảng dạy tiếng Anh của giáo viên thường tập trung vào việc cải thiện trình độ ngoại ngữ, chương trình đạo tạo giáo viên và kĩ năng giảng dạy. Nghiên cứu này khám phá vai trò thường bị bỏ qua trong các nghiên cứu trước đây về động lực dạy tiếng Anh của giáo viên. Bằng cách thu thập dữ liệu từ 74 giảng viên tiếng Anh thuộc 14 trường đại học ở Việt Nam, cùng với 30 cuộc phỏng vấn, nghiên cứu này đề xuất những chiến lược hiệu quả để nâng cao động lực giảng dạy tiếng Anh cho giảng viên đại học ở Việt Nam. Kết quả nghiên cứu đã chỉ ra rằng giảng viên ưu tiên cải thiện năm lĩnh vực chính: phát triển chuyên môn, cải cách phương pháp và chương trình giảng dạy, lãnh đạo và quản lí, cải thiện khối lượng công việc và cải thiện phúc lợi cho giảng viên. Nghiên cứu cũng đưa ra những khuyến nghị thiết thực nhằm nâng cao động lực và sự nhiệt huyết của giảng viên, góp phần vào sự thành công trong việc triển khai các phương pháp giảng dạy sáng tạo.

Từ khóa: động lực của giảng viên, giảng dạy tiếng Anh như một ngoại ngữ, giáo dục đại học Việt Nam, lãnh đạo và quản lí

1. Introduction

Over the past two decades, language teachers' motivation has attracted an increasing interest from researchers and educators around the world (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2021). Research on English teachers' motivation has been dominant in the field (see Hayes, 2008; Kim et al., 2014; Pennington, 1991; Sugino, 2010b). Much of the existing literature has examined the vital role of English language teachers' motivation to students' motivation and performance, instructional quality, and teachers' job satisfaction (Bernaus et al., 2009; Kassabgy et al., 2001; Mifsud, 2011; Pourtoussi et al., 2018). Various attempts have been made to identify factors that increase or thwart teachers' motivation for English language teaching (Heckhausen, 1991; Hettiarachchi, 2013; Kassabgy et al., 2001; Öztürk, 2015; Pennington, 1995; Pourtoussi et al., 2018; Sugino, 2010a). However, the impacts of these findings on practices are still limited (Hiver et al., 2018). English language teachers' actual needs in teaching and strategies to have teachers' motivation sustained and improved have received little attention in the literature.

Despite these contributions, less research has focused specifically on what institutional measures teachers themselves believe would support their motivation, particularly in the context of Vietnamese higher education. As English language teaching at the higher education level has always been the emphasis of the Vietnamese government and the Ministry of Education and Training (MOET), reforms in English language education have been implemented to improve the English language proficiency of both English as a foreign language (EFL) teachers and students in the tertiary sector (Ngo, 2019; Tran et al., 2020). However, persistent challenges in English language teaching and learning remain, which might deter EFL teachers from effective teaching (Hoang, 2010; Nguyen, 2017; Nguyen, 2018). This study aims to identify institutional strategies and measures that can enhance the motivation of Vietnamese university EFL teachers, based on their perspectives and experiences. The following research question will be answered in the current study, "What do Vietnamese university EFL teachers believe their institutions can do to enhance their motivation for English language teaching?".

2. Research on Language Teachers' Motivation

Identifying teachers' sources of motivation and demotivation has been the focus of many studies in both the educational mainstream and in the English language teacher motivation research (Lauermann, 2017; Teymour & Karim, 2021). The major work examining teachers' motivation and satisfaction was conducted by Pennington and colleagues (Pennington, 1991, 1995; Pennington & Ho, 1995; Pennington & Riley, 1991). In 1991, the researcher conducted two studies to investigate the extent to which English as a second language (ESL) teachers felt satisfied with their profession. Findings of the first study showed that *moral values* and *social services* were the two most crucial factors of teachers' motivation. Less important factors were creativity, achievement, and ability of utilisation.

In the second study, Pennington and Riley (1991) employed the Job Descriptive Index questionnaire (covering five facets: *pay, promotion, co-workers, supervision,* and *the nature of the work*) and an additional general job satisfaction measurement to examine ESL teachers' job satisfaction. Findings showed that teachers felt satisfied with their jobs in general (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011). However, teachers' satisfaction with the five facets of teaching varied. Co-workers and the nature of the work were the highest rated, and promotion and pay were the lowest rated (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011).

Subsequently, various studies have been carried out to identify English language teachers' sources of motivation and demotivation in different educational settings, for example, the United States (Doyle & Kim, 1999; Kassabgy et al., 2001), South Korea (Doyle & Kim, 1999), Egypt (Kassabgy et al., 2001), Greece (Gheralis-Roussos, 2003), Saudi Arabia (Shoaib, 2004), Nigeria (Christopher, 2012), Sri Lanka (Hettiarachchi, 2013), China (Kim et al., 2014; Ma, 2012), Jordan (Dweik & Awajan, 2013), New Zealand (Yau, 2010), Turkey (Öztürk, 2015; Tasçi, 2019), Thailand (Hayes, 2008), Japan (Kim et al., 2014; Sugino, 2010a, 2010b), and Iran (Pourtoussi et al., 2018; Yaghoubinejad et al., 2017).

Factors affecting English language teachers' motivation can be categorised into three groups: student-related factors, collegial factors, and institutional factors. Students have been recognised as an important source of English language teachers' intrinsic motivation and job satisfaction (Pourtoussi et al., 2018). Students-related factors included students' attitudes towards English language learning (Doyle & Kim, 1999; Gheralis-Roussos, 2003; Hettiarachchi, 2013; Tran & Moskovsky, 2022), participation in lessons (Doyle & Kim, 1999; Gheralis-Roussos, 2003; Hettiarachchi, 2013), performance (Gheralis-Roussos, 2003; Hettiarachchi, 2013; Pourtoussi et al., 2018), levels of motivation and learning effort (Öztürk, 2015; Pourtoussi et al., 2018), and student-teacher relationships (Gheralis-Roussos, 2003; Hettiarachchi, 2013). Collegial factors encompassed workplace relationships, and co-workers' behaviours and attitudes towards joint tasks (Heckhausen, 1991; Hettiarachchi, 2013; Kassabgy et al., 2001; Öztürk, 2015; Pennington, 1995; Pourtoussi et al., 2018; Sugino, 2010a). Institutional factors are regarded as external or contextual conditions of teaching. They can have impact on both the intrinsic and extrinsic motivation of English language teachers. Institutional factors encompass salary and benefits, promotion, recognition and rewards, support of teachers' autonomy, suitable and fair distribution of workload, opportunities for professional development, positive working climate, efficient and effective administration, availability of teaching facilities and resources (Dweik & Awajan, 2013; Gheralis-Roussos, 2003; Kassabgy et al., 2001; Öztürk, 2015; Pennington, 1995; Pourtoussi et al., 2018; Tran, 2023).

3. The Study

3.1. English Language Teaching and Learning in Vietnam

Improving the quality of the English language education has always been given top priority of the Vietnamese government for socio-economic development (Bui & Nguyen, 2016; Hayden & Thiep, 2010; Manh et al., 2017; Nguyen, 2019). In 2008, MOET launched the National Foreign Language Project 2020 with a budget of approximately five billion USD to enhance English language proficiency of Vietnamese students at all levels (Prime Minister, 2008). Under the project, new and compulsory English programs have been implemented, English has been used as a medium of instruction for other subjects, such as mathematics, physics, and chemistry, and the Common European Framework of Reference (CEFR) has been employed to assess the language proficiency of students and English language teachers (Prime Minister, 2008). In-service English language teachers at all levels nationwide were provided opportunities to participate in intensive training programs to address the issues of English language instructional quality (Ngo, 2019; Nguyen, 2017).

Regardless of these remarkable attempts, there exist several challenges that Vietnamese university English language teachers are currently facing. For example, low levels of students' motivation and English language proficiency, large class sizes, irrelevant teaching resources, mismatch between curriculum requirements and students' needs, inadequate of language teacher preparation, lack of systematic training and professional development programs, low salaries, poor teaching conditions, and heavy workloads (Bui & Nguyen, 2016; Le et al., 2017; Le, 2015, 2020; Ngo, 2019; Nguyen, 2017; Nguyen et al., 2020; Nguyen & Phung, 2015; L. T. Tran et al., 2020; Trinh & Mai, 2018). These constraints together can threaten teachers' motivation and commitment to English language teaching (Han & Yin, 2016; Sugino, 2010a).

3.2. Methods

This study forms part of a larger research project on Vietnamese university EFL teachers' motivation, which adopted Self-Determination Theory (SDT) as its theoretical framework. However, the current paper focuses specifically on teachers' suggestions regarding what institutions can do to support their motivation, rather than directly analysing intrinsic or extrinsic motivation. Data used in this paper were collected through a survey (open-ended questions) and interviews. The survey was completed by 104 Vietnamese university EFL teachers. The open-ended question about suggested measures to improve university EFL teachers' motivation was answered by 74 teachers. The response rate for this question was 71.15%. Semi-structured interviews with 30 teachers were undertaken to provide insights into teachers' responses.

3.3. Participants

Three-fourths of the survey respondents were female (74.3%). More than half of them were between 31 and 40 years old (51.4%). Nearly one fifth of the respondents fell into the category between 20 and 30 years old (24.3%). Only a small number of respondents was older than 51 (9.5%). The vast majority of respondents were lecturers at the time they participated in the study (81.1%). Senior lecturers accounted for 12.2% and five respondents were indicated as visiting lecturers (6.8%). More than half of the respondents were working in the private sectors (51.4%). The length of English language teaching (ELT) of the survey respondents ranged from less than a year to 40 years. Respondents whose ELT experience was less than 5 years constituted 16.2%. The number of respondents with 6 to 10 years of ELT experience was the same as those with 11 to 20 years (35.1%). The number of respondents with more than 20 years of ELT experience was small (12.2%). A summary of the characteristics of interviewees is provided in Appendix A.

3.4. Data Collection and Analysis

The research project was conducted in 14 universities across Vietnam. Five universities are located in the North, one university is in the Central, and seven universities are in the South of Vietnam. Ethics approval for this study was obtained from the institution where the author is based. The researcher also obtained approval for conducting research from leaders of the participating universities. An invitation email included a participant information sheet and a link to the online survey was sent to EFL teachers at these universities. For those who wanted to participate in the research project but were unable to access the online survey, a paper survey was delivered to them.

At the end of the survey, teachers were invited to participate in a follow-up interview. Teachers who were interested to participate were asked to provide their contact details before they submitted their responses. The researchers contacted these teachers and scheduled times and venues for interviews. Interviews were conducted in Vietnamese – the mother tongue of the participants and the researcher. All interviews were audio-recorded and transcribed verbatim. To enhance the credibility and trustworthiness of the qualitative data, several validation strategies were employed. After the interviews were transcribed verbatim, the transcripts were sent back to the respective interviewees via email for review. This member-checking process allowed participants to verify the accuracy of the transcription and confirm that their views were accurately represented. Interviewees were also given the opportunity to clarify their responses, add further details, or provide additional reflections if needed. This process helped ensure that the data authentically captured teachers' perspectives and minimized the risk of misinterpretation. In addition, peer debriefing with colleagues familiar with qualitative research was conducted during the data analysis phase to discuss emerging themes and ensure consistency in coding and interpretation.

Teachers' responses to the open-ended survey question and interview transcriptions were imported to NVivo software. Thematic analysis was used to analyse and interpret data (Braun & Clarke, 2006; Brenner, 2012). The qualitative data analysis procedure in the current study involved three phases: preparation, coding and analysis, and interpretation and display. A coding scheme was developed to identify themes and sub-themes related to the measures suggested by teachers in the survey. The researcher used the coding scheme to code interview transcripts. Interview data were used to provide details of teachers' needs and suggested measures to sustain and improve teachers' motivation. To protect privacy and confidentiality, the researcher used respondent codes for survey respondents and pseudonyms for interview teachers.

4. Results

4.1. Teacher Professional Development

More than half of the survey participants (n = 41) agreed that providing teachers more opportunities to participate in professional development and training programs would improve their enthusiasm and motivation for EFL teaching. Various forms of professional development activities were suggested by teachers. These included long or short-term training courses (n = 27), conferences or seminars (n = 23), qualification programs (n = 9), observation visits to other national and foreign institutions (n = 16), and English language teaching competitions or festivals (n = 7). Teachers also noted that by participating in these activities, they could improve their English language competence (n = 11) and their English language teaching skills (n = 32). Some surveyed teachers (n = 18) expressed that they would like to have opportunities to collaborate and work with native English speakers, and study abroad. As one rural teacher said:

> MOET and institutions should organise more seminars and conferences with the participation of native English teachers and educators. So, we [teachers] could exchange our knowledge and teaching experience with them. To me, these opportunities are invaluable because we can learn many interesting things from them [native speakers] and apply that knowledge in our teaching. (Chi)

Professional development courses and programs provided by MOET are often organised in major cities. This poses difficulty for teachers working in rural and remote institutions. A teacher from a private metropolitan institution suggested that the times and venues of these activities should be flexible to reduce geographical barriers and promote equity in teachers' professional growth:

> Not everyone in my faculty can participate in the training courses provided by MOET. So, I think these kinds of opportunities should be accessible to every teacher. Also, MOET should consider the venues of training programs and workshops. For example, rather than organising a course or workshop in a city or province that requires some teachers to travel long distances, MOET can distribute these sessions in different regions. The first one can be organised in a Northern city or province, so teachers from the North can participate and teachers from the Central and South don't need to travel so far. Then they can move to the Central and South areas to have that course or workshop organised there. (Tuan)

Apart from the quantity of teachers' professional development opportunities, teachers suggested that the quality of these activities should be taken into consideration. Some interviewed teachers (n = 5) noted that the content of professional development activities should meet their interests and demands. Ngat, who had more than 9 years of English language teaching experience, commented on the workshops she had participated in the past:

> These workshops didn't teach us [teachers] practical teaching skills. They only showed us theories in English language teaching. I found these workshops too boring and theoretically oriented. What I needed and expected was learning new teaching skills that I could apply in my classes and attract my students to my lessons.

On the other hand, a small number of surveyed teachers (n = 9) stated that institutions should support professional growth for teachers by providing them with funding and grants which teachers could use to cover the registration fee of training courses and programs. A public rural teacher described her financial difficulties:

> If I attend a workshop organised by the private sector, I have to pay the workshop fee. How can I cover that fee with my low salary? So, I decide not to attend, which means that I miss an opportunity to access updated and innovative teaching methodologies. (Tung)

4.2. English Language Teaching and Curriculum

Reforms to English language teaching and curriculum were noted by a third of the surveyed teachers (n = 25). Numerous strategies and recommendations were provided by teachers, including: avoiding reducing English teaching hours in the curriculum (n = 9), reducing large class sizes (n = 11), teaching students communicative skills rather than focusing on grammar (n = 4), and designing the English language curriculum to match students' interests as well as employees' requirements (n = 7). All of these recommendations aimed to improve students' interest in and motivation for English language learning. These changes would make English language teaching easier and more effective. A rural teacher commented:

> MOET has high expectations for teachers that teachers do their best to ensure that students can communicate fluently in English after graduation. However, they [MOET] don't investigate English language learning. Students' English competence should reach a certain standard before they are allowed to enter the university. So, we [teachers] don't need to teach them from ABC. Effective English language teaching at lower levels of education will decrease relatively higher education teachers' difficulties in teaching English. (Tung)

4.3. Facilities and Teaching Resources

A small number of surveyed teachers (n = 13) stated that the physical environment played an important role in facilitating teachers' motivation and performance. Classrooms should be upgraded and equipped with air conditioners, high-quality sound systems, and projectors. Some teachers (n = 6) recommended that institutions should help teachers get access to English language teaching and learning apps, teaching resources, and education supplies. Gam, who had been working for a public rural institution for more than 18 years, described her difficulties when teaching in poor conditions, "I have a burning ambition to design attractive lessons and interesting activities for my students. But we have nothing but desks, chairs and a blackboard".

4.4. Leadership and Management Improvement

Eleven teachers who responded to the survey wanted reform of leadership. Among those, five teachers hoped that their leaders would develop more effective management skills. Then, they could provide teachers with clear and consistent instructions (P45 and P67). Three teachers noted that good leaders would assign and assess work effectively (P15), encourage teachers to improve their teaching competence (P8), and connect and build positive relationships among teachers in the faculty (P71). Hang, who had been teaching English as a foreign language at a private metropolitan institution for more than 8 years, recommended that the leader of the faculty/department should show flexibility:

> My boss is sometimes so strict and harsh that teachers in my faculty feel discouraged and demotivated. Some colleagues told me that the strict management style hindered them from devoting themselves to teaching as well as the development of the faculty.

Another teacher from a private metropolitan institution commented that strict and inflexible management style could hurt teachers' feelings and demotivate them:

> We have rigid principles and regulations imposed upon us at the institutional level. I feel this is unfair because there are some unreasonable regulations. I am aware that these principles and regulations are in general use, and everyone should follow them. However, there's no rule or regulation without an exception. The leader should pay more attention to teachers' feelings and reactions rather than just focus on implementing the regulations and principles. (Nhi)

Four surveyed teachers said that giving teachers more autonomy could enhance teachers' positive attitudes and motivation. Teacher autonomy can be seen as teachers' freedom to make decisions about their teaching (P72 and P66), teachers' freedom to raise their voices in joint tasks (P52), and teachers' involvement in the faculty decision-making process (P17). Talking about teachers' autonomy, Oanh, whose ELT experience was more than 17 years, stated:

> I think there should be a change in the leadership and management that teachers should be given

> more autonomy. When it comes to faculty meetings, no one dares to raise their voice. Instead, we hang our heads and try to listen to every word of the dean. I feel like there is no democracy at all. I do not offend the senior leader. But I think that junior teachers should be given a chance to express their ideas and opinions. It is extremely bad and uncomfortable that junior teachers can't raise their voice. I can see that they always keep silent. They might feel that their efforts and dedication are assessed and recognised equally.

Two interviewed teachers expressed their dissatisfaction with the assessment of teacher performance. There should be more carefully designed institutional policies for assessing teachers' performance:

> There should be clear public regulations about rewards and punishments. That is, when teachers reach targets or standards of teaching performance, they will be given rewards equivalent to their efforts and dedication. By doing this, teachers will feel that they are cared and respected. Teachers will be more motivated to dedicate themselves to teaching. (Gam)

> There should be accurate criteria to assess teachers' performance. Every institution has their assessment criteria, but we should not apply the same set of criteria for all departments and divisions. I hope that my institution and department will be more flexible in designing and implementing these criteria that assess teachers' performance. (Vu)

4.5. Workload Reduction

A quarter of the surveyed teachers (n = 18) suggested that reducing workload would relatively enhance teachers' good feelings and motivation for EFL teaching. These teachers agreed that heavy workloads, tight teaching schedules, and long teaching hours left them exhausted and demotivated. Six teachers expressed concerns about excessive duties outside teaching including paperwork, meetings, and extra-curricular activities. By reducing teaching hours and the volume of non-teaching tasks, teachers could spend more time on the quality of their lesson as well as their professional development.

> I'm teaching 450 hours per year. It's overwhelming to me. Apart from teaching, I'm required to be involved in other tasks, for example marking, developing course outlines, developing final exams, and organising faculty events. I feel exhausted and tired. I always feel like I'm running out of energy. I have no spare time for professional development. (Men)

4.6. Teachers' Benefits and Incentives

More than a third of surveyed teachers (n = 28) said that teachers' performance could be improved by increasing salaries and incentives. The majority of interviewed teachers agreed that their salaries were insufficient (n = 24). One teacher commented: "teachers' salaries are even lower than a manual handling job pays" (Thuy). Other teachers (n = 8) mentioned that they worked on a secondary job or taught English outside their institutions to earn extra money. Lien, who had been teaching English for more than 10 years at a rural public institution, shared her thoughts:

> To keep teachers motivated, MOET and other institutions should ensure that teachers can make ends meet. As far as I know, both metropolitan and rural teachers' salaries can't cover their essential goods and services. Our benefits and incentives are too poor. Even some teachers have to take on part-time jobs to support their families. With that low payment, it's pretty hard to encourage teachers to dedicate themselves to teaching.

Teachers also felt unfairly treated when they worked hard but received less than what they deserved. A rural teacher described her frustration:

> [...] At least, the payment should be equal to our efforts and dedication. We're paid 60,000 VND

> (~ 2.64 USD[1]) for one teaching hour. While the construction worker salary is 200,000 VND (~8.79 USD) per working hour. I can join other professions that pay me more, but I choose to stay in teaching because I love this job. However, I have a deep need for fairness. I want my effort and dedication to be recognised fairly. (My)

5. Discussion

The current study explored the perspectives of Vietnamese university EFL teachers on institutional measures that could support their motivation in English language teaching. Data were collected from a survey and semi-structured interviews. Teachers' suggested measures focused on six aspects of the English language teaching, including teacher professional development, reforms to English language teaching and curriculum, leadership and management improvement, workload reduction, and increasing teachers' salary.

In line with previous studies on factors motivating language teachers (Öztürk, 2015; Pourtoussi et al., 2018), teachers in the current study reported a strong need for continuous learning opportunities. They emphasised that professional development played a vital role in improving the quality of their instruction. However, providing EFL teachers with professional learning opportunities is not sufficient to enhance their motivation. Evidence of the current study showed that Vietnamese educators should focus on the variety and quality of continuous training and professional development programs. These programs should be constructed and organised in different forms and accessible to teachers regardless of their sector (public or private sectors), teaching title, and geographic location. In addition, teachers' needs, and interests should also be taken into consideration when designing professional development programs. This finding is in line with previous findings (Borko, 2004; Darling-Hammond et al., 2009; Matherson & Windle, 2017; Penuel et al., 2007) that teachers want to participate in professional development programs that they find engaging and relevant so "they do not feel they have wasted their time" (Matherson & Windle, 2017, p. 30). Participating in ineffective and irrelevant programs can lower teachers' sense of competence (Bautista & Wong, 2019; Bolliger et al., 2014). Also, universities should provide English teachers with grants or funding to support their participation and commitment to professional learning programs.

Reforms to English language teaching and curriculum have always been the emphasis of the Vietnamese Government and MOET (Nguyen, 2017). Various efforts and significant investment have been made to "deliver a comprehensive reform to the foreign language teaching and learning in the public sector and implement new and innovative foreign language programs at all levels of the education system" (Prime Minister, 2008, p. 1). However, there have been no significant changes in the quality of the English language teaching and learning at the higher education level in Vietnam (Tran, 2019). Teachers in the current study experienced the same issues with their college before reforms occurred, for example irrelevant curriculum, mismatch between learning content and students' needs, and large class size (see Bock, 2000; Kam, 2002; Le, 2007). These constraints not only caused teachers challenges in teaching but also threatened their sense of competence. Findings of the current study suggested that future English language teaching and learning reforms should involve teachers' voices and expectations in the process. It is also important for policy makers and instructional coordinators to ensure the alignment between the English language teaching curricula, assessment, students' learning capacity standards, and learning outcomes at all levels of the education system.

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[1] The exchange rate in 2018 when the data was collected.

Reform of leadership at the higher education level was one of the main concerns of teachers in the current study. Teachers' issues related to higher education leadership and management styles reported in the current study reflect the influence of collectivist cultures, Confucian philosophy, and characteristics of the Soviet leadership system on the 'high-power distance' and 'top-down' approach and management of Vietnamese higher education (Hallinger & Truong, 2014; Nguyen et al., 2017; Tran, 2012). For example, strict and inflexible management styles, lack of teachers' autonomy, lack of teachers' involvement in the decision-making process, and the inadequacy of the current teaching performance assessment. These factors have been found to significantly demotivate EFL teachers and diminish their efforts in English language teaching. Empowering teachers, involving teachers in curriculum development and decision-making processes, and developing an effective performance evaluation system can be possible solutions.

Heavy workload with tight teaching schedules, multi-course teaching, large-class sizes, and extra-curricular duties have been major concerns of teachers around the world (Dinham & Scott, 2000; Doyle & Kim, 1999; Griva et al., 2012; Sahito & Vaisanen, 2020; Wang et al., 2009), including Vietnamese teachers (Nguyen et al., 2016; Tran, 2017; Tran et al., 2020). Excessive workload was found to reduce energy and took away their enthusiasm for and pleasure in teaching (Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2015). Teachers' well-being was affected by excessive workload, consequently, teachers put reduced focus and effort into their work (Hiver et al., 2018). The current study suggests that maintaining a reasonable workload for English language teachers is important for the quality of English language teaching and learning, as well as for teachers' well-being.

The majority of suggestions made by teachers in the current study were linked to the intrinsic values and quality of the English language teaching and learning at higher education in Vietnam. The last suggestion was related to teachers' extrinsic motivation, that is increasing teachers' salaries and incentives. Research on motivation suggests that giving material benefits is not a good way to improve motivation and it can hamper the development of intrinsic motivation (Deci et al., 1999). Findings of the current study did not support this argument. Teachers reported that their salary was not sufficient to support themselves and their family, and this resulted in a sense of job insecurity and dissatisfaction (Christopher, 2012; Crookes, 1997; Doyle & Kim, 1999; Kassabgy et al., 2001; Pennington, 1995). Some teachers chose to work in a secondary job to reduce financial pressures. However, this solution might drain teachers' energy and enthusiasm for teaching at their universities (Ballou, 1995). Working a second job or teaching English outside the university can also impair teachers' physical and mental health, as well as reduce the time and effort invested in lesson preparation and professional development (Tran, 2013). The study argues that higher educational policy makers must ensure teachers' financial security before working on other strategies to improve teachers' motivation for English language teaching.

6. Conclusion

The study provides Vietnamese higher education leaders and policy makers an insight into EFL teachers' needs and expectations. Despite the small sample size, the current study offers practical suggestions on how English language teaching conditions can be improved to keep teachers staying motivated and committed to the teaching profession. Findings of the current study suggested that it is important for Vietnamese higher education policy makers to consider and involve teachers' voices and opinions in the policy-making process. Further work needs to be done to uncover potential aspects of English language teaching that need to be improved to sustain and maintain Vietnamese university EFL teachers' motivation. There might be a difference in needs and expectations between teachers who work in metropolitan areas and teachers who work in rural areas. Future work should focus on examining working conditions and motivation of university EFL teachers who work and live in rural and remote areas in Vietnam.

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Appendix A

Demographic Information of Interviewees

Interviewees	Gender*	ELT experience (years)	Geographical location		Institution	
			Metropolitan	Provincial	Public	Private
Thoa	F	10	X		X	
Thuy	F	8	X		X	
Tung	M	12		X	X	
Vu	M	6	X			X
Tuan	M	14	X			X
Bich	F	15		X	X	
Cam	F	22	X			X
Hoang	M	21		X	X	
Hoai	F	16		X	X	
Hong	F	20	X			X
Ngat	F	9	X			X
My	F	16		X	X	
Gam	F	18		X	X	
Nga	F	9		X	X	
Nam	M	4		X	X	
Yen	F	2	X			X
Ha	F	7	X			X
Doan	F	16		X	X	
Chi	F	16		X	X	
Men	F	24	X			X
Hai	F	5	X			X
Tien	F	20	X			X
Viet	M	18		X		X
Vo	M	10	X		X	
Ly	F	37	X			X
Lien	F	10		X	X	
Oanh	F	14	X			X
Hang	F	8	X			X
Nhi	F	8	X		X	
Giang	F	12		X	X	

**Note. F: Female M: Male*

Appendix B

Open-ended questions and interview questions

Open-ended question: Name any measures that could be taken by your institution to improve your positive attitudes and good feelings about teaching English as a Foreign Language and clarify these below.

Interview question: What do you think your institution or department/faculty could do to better support EFL teachers' motivation?

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THE TEACHER WITHIN: SHAPING PRESERVICE TEACHER IDENTITY THROUGH PRIVATE TUTORING

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Abstract: Research into teacher identity is not novel, but the influences of private tutoring on the formation of teacher identity among pre-service teachers have not been extensively investigated, particularly in the context of Vietnam. This study, therefore, aimed to examine how private tutoring helped to shape and reshape the identity of pre-service teachers majoring in language education, their motivations to participate in private tutoring, and the challenges that they might encounter. The implications of this study were to better understand teacher identity of pre-service teachers so that higher education institutions might improve their practicum, internship programs and pedagogical practice. Thirteen semi-structured interviews were conducted with thirteen fourth-year students majoring in language teaching education at a university in Vietnam. The findings revealed that students chose to join private tutoring for hands-on experience in a realistic teaching approach, finances, and internship record as their graduation requirement. Additionally, most of the interviewees perceived the lack of practical experience, management of students' behaviour, and pressure from parents as their major challenges. Through private tutoring, their teacher identity was fostered and reshaped. Some recommendations for offsetting insufficient training in higher education for pre-service teachers, and further research directions were also put forward.

Keywords: private tutoring, teacher motivation, pre-service teachers, teacher identity, qualitative research.

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“NGƯỜI THẦY” BÊN TRONG: HÌNH THÀNH BẢN SẮC GIÁO VIÊN CỦA SINH VIÊN SƯ PHẠM THÔNG QUA HOẠT ĐỘNG DẠY THÊM

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Tóm tắt: Nghiên cứu về bản sắc giáo viên không phải là một đề tài mới, nhưng những ảnh hưởng của hoạt động dạy thêm đến việc hình thành bản sắc giáo viên đối với sinh viên sư phạm vẫn chưa được nghiên cứu sâu, đặc biệt trong bối cảnh Việt Nam. Do vậy, nghiên cứu này được thực hiện nhằm tìm hiểu về hoạt động dạy thêm đã giúp hình thành và định hình lại bản sắc giáo viên của sinh viên sư phạm chuyên ngành giảng dạy ngoại ngữ như thế nào, động lực dạy thêm và những khó khăn mà sinh viên gặp phải. Nghiên cứu này giúp hiểu rõ hơn về bản sắc giáo viên của sinh viên sư phạm, từ đó đưa ra góc nhìn giúp các trường đại học có thể điều chỉnh chương trình thực tập và phương pháp giảng dạy. 13 cuộc phỏng vấn bán cấu trúc đã được tiến hành với 13 sinh viên năm cuối tại một trường đại học ở Việt Nam. Kết quả cho thấy sinh viên có xu hướng tham gia hoạt động dạy thêm vì nhu cầu tài chính, để trau dồi kinh nghiệm với phương pháp giảng dạy thực tế, và hoàn thiện hồ sơ thực tập - một trong những yêu cầu để tốt nghiệp. Hầu hết những người tham gia phỏng vấn đều cho rằng bản thân thiếu kinh nghiệm thực tiễn, thiếu kỹ năng quản lý hành vi học sinh và chịu áp lực từ phía phụ huynh. Hơn nữa, thông qua hoạt động dạy thêm, bản sắc giáo viên của sinh viên sư phạm đã được nuôi dưỡng và định hình lại. Một số đề xuất nhằm điều chỉnh chương trình đào tạo trong giáo dục đại học cho sinh viên sư phạm, và hướng nghiên cứu tương lai cũng đã được nêu trong nghiên cứu này.

Từ khóa: dạy thêm, động lực giáo viên, sinh viên sư phạm, bản sắc giáo viên, nghiên cứu định tính

1. Introduction

Professional identity is defined as “the various meanings someone can attach to oneself or the meanings attributed to oneself by others” (Beijaard, 2004, p. 282), and this has been a focus of academic research for decades. It includes how a person views their own professional skills, obligations, and interpersonal connections (Adams et al., 2006). According to Khoi and Long (2021), identity is the result of personal personality, upbringing, learning and work experiences and many other socio-cultural factors, such as social interactions, ethical and professional standards and regulations. Flores and Day (2006) contend that pre-service teachers have an emerging professional identity in the educational context that is influenced by their perceptions of teachers, preconceived notions about successful teaching, and implicit pedagogical theories. Individual experiences with schools, teachers, and the teacher-student interactions also have an impact on these factors. In the context of foreign language education, it is essential to understand who teachers are and what identities they have, from which teacher training programs and classroom practices could be adjusted and improved (Nguyen, 2024a).

While private tutoring has existed since ancient times (Antalffy, 2020) and has been widely studied for its effects on learners, its impact on educators, particularly pre-service teachers, has been largely overlooked. Global studies on professional identity have largely concentrated on in-service teachers, research exploring how private tutoring influences pre-service teacher identity remains scarce. This gap is especially evident in Vietnam, where existing research has focused primarily on the economic implications (Nguyen, 2021; Nguyen et al., 2020; Dang, 2013), educational disparities caused by private tutoring (Nguyen et al., 2021), and the professional concerns of in-service teachers (Nguyen et al., 2025). The growing number of pre-service teachers involved in private tutoring calls for a closer examination of its impact on their professional identity formation. These aspiring teachers differ significantly from their in-service colleagues because they have not yet cemented their professional identities and are actively developing their teaching outlooks. Investigating how tutoring contributes to this journey offers a unique viewpoint on an under-explored aspect of teacher preparation - one that promises insights beyond the typical focus on the economic effects or impact of private tutoring on student learning. This study aims to: (i) explore the motivations and challenges behind pre-service teachers' engagement in private tutoring activity; (ii) delve into the formation of pre-service teacher identity through the lens of private tutoring; and (iii) propose some suggestions to tap into private tutoring as an activity to support teacher education. To achieve the aims above, the research is conducted to answer these questions: (i) What are the motivations to participate in private tutoring among pre-service language teachers and the challenges they may face? (ii) How do pre-service language teachers negotiate and reconstruct their professional identity through private tutoring?

2. Literature Review

2.1. Teacher Identity as a Constant Negotiation of Values and Experiences

The concept of teacher identity is often described as a process of becoming (Lave & Wenger, 1991) and as "the self-image that teachers create through their experiences and interactions in the profession" (Beijaard et al., 2004, p. 113). This covers their opinions on education, learning, and their function in the classroom. Over time, individual, social, and cultural influences continuously shape and reshape the identity of teachers, making it an ongoing process of negotiation rather than a fixed state. Hence, teacher identity is a product of the constant negotiation of socially constructed beliefs and self-dispositions (Nguyen, 2024b). According to Flores and Day (2006), it is a process that evolves as a result of social interactions and adjustments to new customs. Their research suggests that professional identity is not static; it develops over time, influenced by past experiences, training, and the social and institutional environments people navigate. This viewpoint frames identity formation as an ongoing negotiation between personal beliefs and institutional expectations. For individuals training to be teachers, this journey often starts with seeing themselves mainly as students. As they move through their program, they progressively adopt a teacher's mindset. Britzman (2003) and Clarke (2008) describe this transformation as "learning to teach", an identity negotiation frequently marked by clashes between idealized notions of teaching and the practicalities of the classroom. However, this negotiation is not always straightforward, as Izadinia (2015) notes, pre-service teachers often wrestle with competing demands from university courses, classroom realities, and their own developing beliefs about education.

Getting involved in private tutoring often marks a significant beginning for a teaching career. It provides pre-service teachers with their initial hands-on experience interacting with students individually within a real learning environment. This allows them to gain essential practical insights that bridge the gap between academic knowledge and teaching reality. In this role, they start grappling with the intricacies of classroom management, adapting to diverse student needs, and growing into their position as educators. Instead of merely adopting a set identity, Beauchamp and Thomas (2009) point out that these experiences allow pre-service teachers to actively construct and negotiate their unique teaching persona.

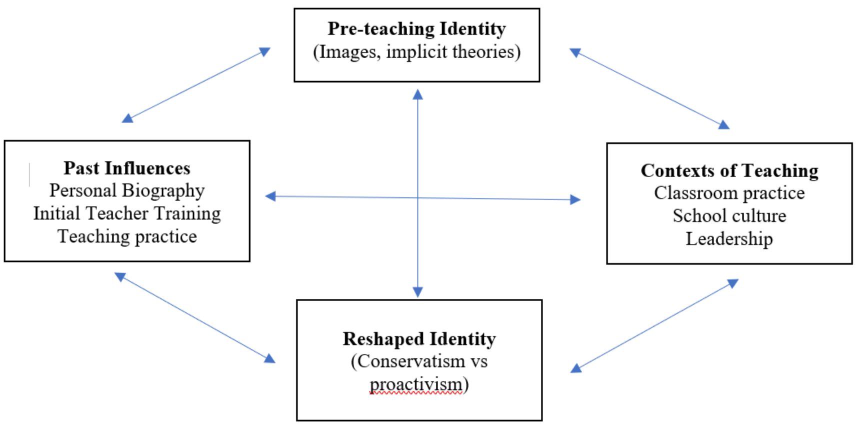
2.2. The Conceptual Framework of Teacher Identity

Flores and Day (2006) drew attention to the complex interplay between tutors' personal histories and the specific contexts they work within, such as the language centers and students' homes, examined in this research. Their framework emphasizes that teacher identity is not static; rather, it is dynamically shaped by both an individual's own background and the external conditions imposed by institutions. Teachers operating within collaborative environments tend to foster and display more positive attitudes towards teaching. Pre-service teachers in this study initially demonstrated a strong sense of personal identities as they embarked on their teaching journeys. They were seniors in a university teacher training program. However, as these individuals gained practical experience through tutoring and teaching, they ran into institutional hurdles that challenged their developing professional identities. The way they navigated this identity negotiation, which is a process involving both the deconstruction and reconstruction of their professional selves over time (see Fig. 1), was shaped by the combined influence of their previous schooling, teacher preparation programs, and early workplace cultures. This finding aligns well with Beijaard et al. (2004), who emphasize that teacher identity is not fixed or uniform, but rather evolves continuously through interactions with diverse sociocultural influences.

Teachers' views of themselves and their behaviour, as well as the way they change their professional identities, are significantly influenced by their personal biographies. However, personal identity alone is insufficient in shaping teaching beliefs; rather, it interacts with external factors such as institutional expectations, pedagogical training, and real-world teaching experiences (Izadinia, 2015). Furthermore, the work environment played a pivotal role in reshaping their teaching philosophies, either promoting or hindering their professional development and the (re)formation of their identities. Goodson and Cole (1994) and Williams et al. (2001) emphasize places that encourage self-regulation about practice, teamwork, and ongoing learning. This contrasts with unsupportive environments, which could hinder how pre-service teachers in this study developed their teaching ideas and professional selves.

Figure 1

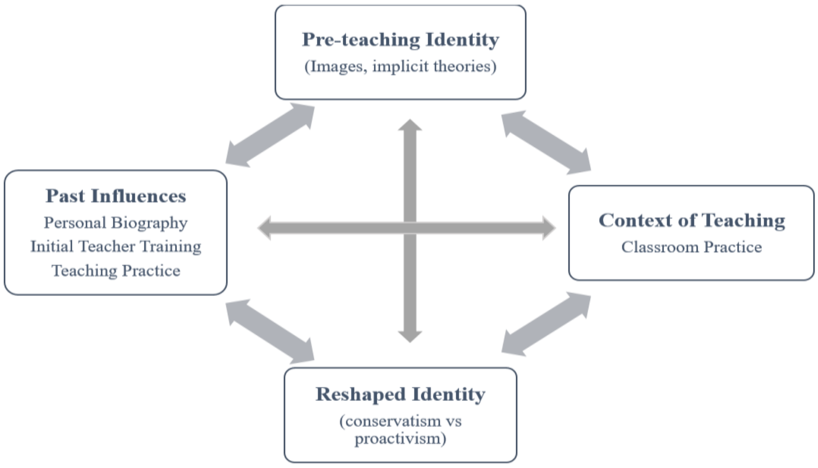
Key Mediating Influences on the Formation of Teacher Identity (Flores & Day, 2006, p. 230)



Flores and Day's approach was initially designed for in-service teachers, but in this study, it is applied to pre-service teachers. There are similarities between pre-service teachers who have been in private tutoring for at least 18 months and in-service teachers. Since pre-service teachers have not yet worked in formal school settings, they lack direct interactions with school culture and leadership. These factors are not expected to influence the identity formation of pre-service teachers and were therefore excluded from the scope of this research (see Fig. 2).

Figure 2

The Adapted Conceptual Framework of Key Mediating Influences on the Formation of Teacher Identity (Adapted from Flores and Day (2006))



2.3. Private Tutoring in Vietnam

Known widely as "shadow education" since Stevenson and Baker (1992) coined the term (further elaborated by Bray, 1999), private supplementary tutoring is greatly impacted by the structure and requirements of mainstream education. Its forms are diverse, encompassing one-on-one instruction, small home-based or after-school groups, online tutoring, and programs run by tutorial centres (Bray, 2011). Despite being a private arrangement, private tutoring is closely intertwined with formal schooling, often reinforcing and even exacerbating existing educational inequalities (Bray, 2011). Private tutoring is common in both industrialized and developing nations, and its use has been growing over the past few years. Driven by exam pressures, private tutoring has become normalized within educational systems (Bray, 2007). In Vietnam, private tutoring manifests in various forms, facilitated by parents, teachers, schools, or private tutoring centres (Dang, 2013). The practice is deeply ingrained in Vietnamese educational culture, driven by high-stakes examinations and societal expectations regarding academic success (Nguyen et al., 2020). According to a 2014 survey by Youth Newspaper in Vietnam, most parents arranged additional lessons for their children at teachers' homes (39%), followed by private training centres (16.3%), schools (14.1%), and least commonly at home (13.5%). In the context of this study, the private tutoring provided by pre-service teachers predominantly takes place at students' homes and language centres.

3. Methodology

Using semi-structured interviews as the technique for gathering data, the study used a descriptive research design. Semi-structured interviews, according to Sharp (2003), use open-ended questions and prompts intended to elicit thorough answers on participants' experiences, perceptions, feelings, and knowledge. The qualitative nature of these interviews provided rich, detailed insights into the participants' perspectives (Krefting, 1991; Denzin & Lincoln, 2008). This approach is particularly effective for exploring complex, subjective phenomena such as emotions, attitudes, and behaviours, which are difficult to quantify (Creswell, 2009). Participants were assured of complete confidentiality to encourage candid responses. The interview questions were structured to be open-ended and non-leading, ensuring that responses were shaped by participants' own perspectives rather than the interviewer's expectations. Furthermore, the interviews were conducted in familiar and comfortable environments to minimize external pressures (Creswell, 2007). A descriptive design was selected as it allows for an accurate account of characteristics of a particular individual or a group, thereby discovering new meaning (Dulock, 1993). In the context of pre-service teacher education, a descriptive design allows for a thorough, realistic investigation of how participants use private tutoring to create and negotiate their professional identities. A qualitative narrative approach further facilitated this by allowing for a deep analysis of identity development, giving participants ample opportunity to expand on their experiences. Creswell (2007) points out that this narrative-centred approach improves the quality of the data by allowing participants to freely express their emotions and experiences without being restricted by time constraints.

Participants were senior students majoring in teacher education from a language department at a university specializing in foreign language teacher training. Each participant was required to accumulate at least 18 months of experience as a private tutor, considered sufficient to provide meaningful insights into the early stages of teacher identity formation. The purpose of this study is not to generalize to a broader population, but to explore and gain insights into the practice of private tutoring among preservice teachers. Thus, convenience sampling can ensure the reliability of research findings. Thirteen participants were invited to the interviews after being informed about the study's objectives and procedures with written consent. Confidentiality was maintained through pseudonyms, and participants were assured their information would remain secure.

Table 1

Demographics of participants

No.	Name (pseudonym)	Private tutoring duration (years)	Gender	Modes of private tutoring
1	Nguyen Lan	3.5	Female	Home-based, Language centre, Online
2	Hong Loan	2	Female	Home-based, Language centre, Online
3	Linh Nguyen	2	Female	Home-based, Online
4	Minh Thao	1.5	Female	Home-based, Online
5	Nguyet Anh	2	Female	Home-based, Language centre, Online
6	Thu Thuy	2.5	Female	Home-based, Language centre, Online
7	Tuan Anh	3	Male	Home-based, Language centre, Online
8	Hoang Nhan	1.5	Female	Home-based, Online

9	Thai Giang	1.5	Female	Home-based, Online
10	Minh Hue	3	Female	Home-based, Language centre, Online
11	Van Luc	4	Male	Home-based, Language centre, Online
12	Thu Trang	3	Female	Home-based, Language centre, Online
13	Thanh Binh	3.5	Female	Home-based, Language centre, Online

Face-to-face interviews formed the primary method of data collection, with participants also agreeing to follow-up sessions for additional clarification. The interviews, conducted in Vietnamese to ensure accuracy and comfort, were digitally recorded for analysis. The semi-structured, open-ended questions employed in the interviews were designed in alignment with the framework of Flores and Day's (2006) about teacher identity construction. Two pilot interviews were conducted to refine the interview questions. This process allowed us to evaluate the clarity of the questions, and uncover ambiguities, leading to necessary adjustments before conducting full-scale interviews (Gudmundsdottir & Brock-Utne, 2010).

The interview recordings were transcribed verbatim and then translated into English. A thematic analysis approach was applied to systematically identify patterns in the data. Researchers carefully examined the transcripts to identify recurring themes and key ideas related to participants' motivations, challenges, and the impact of their experiences, training, and tutoring on teacher identity development. A detailed list of the themes and sub-themes, along with quotes from participants, was created in a separate document when recurring themes were found throughout the transcripts.

4. Findings

4.1. Motivations for Participating in Private Tutoring

Every participant emphasized that they mostly used the money they received from private tutoring to pay for their recreational and educational costs. This result supports Chui's findings (2016) that the broad acceptance of private supplemental tuition is mostly driven by financial considerations. For instance, Nhan emphasized her family's financial difficulties, stating that earning her own income was essential to avoid being a burden: "*I need to earn my own money, so I don't become a burden on my family*."

The second key motivation for engaging in private tutoring was the lack of practical teaching experience. During micro-teaching sessions, students frequently practiced with classmates whose language skills were far different from those of real students, creating situations that were not representative of actual classroom environments. Private tutoring, therefore, offered an invaluable opportunity to teach real students in authentic settings, allowing the application of pedagogical techniques in a more realistic context. Binh explained: "*In micro-teaching, the learners may not have been her students but her classmates or colleagues, whose language proficiency levels are different from the real learners. As a result, what happens in micro-teaching lessons may not exactly reflect reality.*"

The third motivation was tied to the graduation requirements for pre-service teachers. As a requirement in the undergraduate program, students must complete a mandatory six-month teaching internship. All participants voiced concerns about graduating on time and viewed private tutoring as a practical way to meet internship requirements quickly. Thao expressed her anxiety about this: "*The internship portfolio is a mandatory factor that accounts for 20 points. And if I don't complete it, I can't graduate with a good degree.*"

4.2. Challenges of Working as a Private Tutor

Pre-service teachers frequently identify a lack of teaching skills (pedagogy) as their main difficulty in private tutoring, often leaving them feeling unprepared and perplexed. This highlights the importance of pedagogy, which Subedi (2018) emphasizes as essential for tutoring, requiring tutors to have the required abilities, routines, and dispositions to teach effectively. However, due to the limited practical application of their academic training, these novice teachers often feel overwhelmed, lacking clear guidance on how to address specific student needs or select appropriate teaching methods. For instance, Lan shared how her initial tutoring experiences forced her to rethink her approach to classroom management: "*At first, I thought being strict was the key, but I soon realized that fostering engagement and allowing students to express themselves made my lessons more effective.*"

Another common difficulty identified by participants was a perception of being underpaid, which was commonly linked to the difficulties in negotiating reasonable wages for their tutoring services. This feeling aligns with research from Nguyen et al. (2021), which documents similar difficulties faced by university student tutors when trying to negotiate payment terms with families or language centers. Nhan shared her frustrations: "*In some classes, parents have quite high requirements, such as students with no basic background knowledge or those taking entrance exams to specialised schools, but the wages they offer are not commensurate with what parents expect…*"

Handling disruptive student behaviour is another major challenge for pre-service teachers. Trang recounted a particularly troubling incident: "*He [the student] was a disaster. He cursed and physically assaulted the teacher [my friend].*" Research by Doyle (2006) and Wangdi and Namgyel (2022) defines disruptive behaviour as any actions that interfere with planned lesson activities. These include disruptive behaviours in the classroom, inattention, disinterest, and disregard for directions (Lauth & Naumann, 2009, as cited in Kaymak & Demir, 2012). According to Shamnadh (2019), ill-handled responses to student misconduct might exacerbate the problem and compromise learning objectives.

Another significant challenge for pre-service teachers serving as tutors is pressure from family expectations. Parents frequently have high expectations for their children's grades, the instruction provided, homework habits, and overall conduct. While Rosenblatt & Peled (2002) confirm that parental engagement is essential for academic achievement, private tutors may find it too difficult to meet these high standards, particularly for pre-service teachers who may lack extensive experience. Minh Thao described her struggle with managing these expectations: "*The biggest difficulty is psychological pressure from parents, as some tend to expect too much of their child's academic performance and demand too much from the private tutor.*"

4.3. Negotiations in the Formation of Teacher Identity through Private Tutoring

4.3.1. Past Experiences about the Image of an Ideal Teacher

Professional Knowledge

Gradually, pre-service teachers moved beyond the traditional role of merely imparting information, and started to see themselves as facilitators of learning as well as subject matter experts. Hoa shared an insightful observation from her experience: *"I realized that students are more engaged when teachers not only possess strong subject knowledge but also know how to* *explain concepts in an accessible and relatable way. Simply knowing the material is not enough - how we communicate it makes all the difference.*” According to Beijaard et al. (2004), as teachers’ professional knowledge grows, their ability to integrate beliefs into teaching practices becomes stronger, reinforcing identity formation. Tuan Anh recounted his personal growth: “*When I first started tutoring, I was quite nervous and worried. However, the knowledge I have acquired and my ability to answer all the students’ questions related to the subject have made me much more confident.*”

Personal Qualities

Teachers who exhibit personal qualities like a growth mindset, humour, resilience, cultural competence, and passion for their work often achieve greater classroom success and leave a stronger positive mark on students. Luc shared his perspective: “*My ideal role model is someone who has personal characteristics that leave an impression in the hearts of students.*” Research by Mesler et al. (2021) highlights the significance of a growth mindset—the conviction that ability is developed via effort — showing such teachers effectively foster this mindset in their students. Collectively, these personal traits are highly influential in both shaping a teacher's professional identity and affecting their students' achievements.

Teachers’ Pedagogical Skills

Building a strong identity as a teacher was linked, in the interviewees' view, to being versatile in the classroom. This meant using a variety of teaching strategies and making good use of technology. They found this approach helped students engage more and understand concepts more deeply. Interestingly, this adaptability did not just improve their teaching effectiveness. It also helped the teachers clarify and express their own teaching philosophies, which further reinforced their professional identity. Trang noted how her teachers’ dynamic approaches influenced her perception of effective teaching: “*Our teachers often apply technology in teaching, and they change teaching methods constantly so that we do not feel bored during the lessons.*”

4.3.2. Negotiations of the Ideal Teacher Image and Teacher Identity

Teacher Education

The research results suggested that teacher education programs are vital for equipping aspiring educators to navigate diversity effectively by assisting future teachers to deal with diversity in the classroom by helping them identify and overcome their own prejudices and promoting a more tolerant attitude toward different classrooms. Hue elaborated on how these programs help students transition from theory to practice: “*In the third year, students start to familiarise themselves with subjects and knowledge related to pedagogy. They begin to apply theoretical knowledge more frequently, even in micro-teaching sessions, to gain a clearer understanding of what a real classroom setting would be like*.” Study by Loughran (2013) have shown that such programs significantly shape the beliefs and attitudes of pre-service teachers toward the teaching profession

Accumulation of Experience from Private Tutoring

Tutoring activities provided participants with practical knowledge that often surpassed what they acquired through formal university education. Most pre-service teachers identified communication and the ability to share learning orientations with students as the first essential skills they developed through private tutoring, followed by effectively imparting subject knowledge. The experience gained from private tutoring significantly influenced their appreciation for personalized and student-centred instruction. Binh shared a moment that shaped her mindset: “*Children involved in activities throughout the lesson were very excited… I will find ways to praise my student and create more chances for him to win the next game. … Immediately, he regained his enthusiasm and paid more attention to learning.*” Hence, private tutoring plays a dual role, both skill-building and identity-shaping through hands-on, adaptive teaching.

Knowledge Gained from Instructors and Co-workers

The interactions pre-service teachers built during their educational journey have a significant impact on their professional development and the perspectives they adopt. Othman & Kiely (2016) emphasize that interactions with lecturers, students, and peers particularly affect their image of the teaching profession. For instance, in order to assist pre-service teachers in gaining a comprehensive understanding of teaching, lecturers in higher education institutions frequently share their knowledge and experiences. "*She [my teacher] is also extremely fair in giving comments and assessments of each student's performance, thereby helping students significantly improve both subject knowledge and practice*," said Lan. Also, peer learning plays a crucial role in shaping pedagogical development and improving their beliefs and methods of instruction, as illustrated in the Vietnamese saying "*Học thầy không tày học bạn*" (loosely translated as “*Better learn from your friends than your teachers*”).

4.3.3. Reconstructed Teacher Identity under the Influences of Private Tutoring

Teacher’s Roles

Tutoring experiences have significantly transformed pre-service teachers' ideas about the 'ideal teacher' and reshaped their understanding of a teacher's classroom function. While many initially viewed the teacher primarily as an authoritative figure, their tutoring work prompted a change in this perspective. They now often imagine a teacher as someone who empowers learners by cultivating an environment where students feel appreciated and are encouraged to voice their opinions. Binh shared: *“Previously, I thought a teacher’s role was mainly about delivering knowledge and ensuring students understood the material. However, through my tutoring experience, I realized that being a teacher also means being a mentor and a motivator. I learned that students engage more when they feel heard and supported...”*

Career Orientation

Private tutoring offers pre-service teachers an opportunity to sharpen their professional ambitions and actively direct their future in the teaching profession. Regardless of whether individual participants preferred working in language centres or public schools, every one of them expressed a clear commitment to pursuing a teaching career. This dedication aligns with findings from Zhan et al. (2013), whose research indicate that instructors engaging in private tutoring often gained confidence in their teaching skills and were more likely to perceive themselves as successful educators. Binh shared: *“After four years attending my university, together with participation in private tutoring, I find myself suitable for the teaching profession.”*

5. Discussion

5.1. Private Tutoring as a Way of Offsetting Insufficient Training in Higher Education

Through private tutoring, pre-service teachers acquired practical experience, earned personal income, and added valuable elements to their internship records – the benefits consistent with findings reported by Torres-Cladera et al. (2021), and Bilsland & Nagy (2015). These advantages offer more than just a supplement to their formal professional training; they also crucially help bridge the significant gap between theoretical concepts learned in coursework and the practical expectations of real-world teaching. Pre-service teachers frequently feel inadequate and unprepared as a result of this misalignment (Flores & Day, 2006; Izadinia, 2015). While theoretical knowledge and microteaching sessions are part of teacher preparation programs, they rarely capture the unpredictable and multifaceted nature of real classroom teaching. In addition to offering pre-service teachers useful insights into lesson design, classroom management, and the development of interpersonal skills, private tutoring provided a space for professional self-reflection and identity exploration. This notion is supported by Beauchamp and Thomas (2009), who argue that teacher identity formation is dynamic and shaped by both structured training and practical engagements. As they taught real students, participants revisited and reshaped their ideal teacher image based on authentic classroom experiences.

Tutoring was a great way for pre-service teachers to actually use what they learned in theory. This fits Kolb's (1984) idea that we learn best by doing things and thinking about them afterward. They were able to perceive the connection between their university coursework and actual teaching after receiving this practical experience. Mufidah (2019) notes it also improved their ability of setting goals, trying out teaching ideas, and working with experienced teachers. Tutoring allows pre-service teachers to do exactly that – try different ways of teaching, see what worked, think it over, and adjust based on how students responded right away. Also, pre-service teachers highlighted the significance of interpersonal skills, including social engagement, cultural sensitivity, and leadership. These competencies are critical for teachers, as they contribute to student motivation, classroom inclusivity, and overall learning outcomes (Guerriero, 2017). These competencies became crucial as they dealt with behavioural issues, parental pressure, and performance expectations. However, tutoring experiences also exposed them to other external constraints, such as negotiating wages, handling unrealistic parental expectations, and dealing with difficult student behaviour, all of which were seldom ever covered in their formal training programs. These findings are consistent with the concerns raised by Slomp et al. (2014), who argue that teacher education must incorporate real-world engagement opportunities to effectively prepare pre-service teachers for professional challenges. Private tutoring, on the other hand, increased their self-efficacy and professional autonomy and self-efficacy while fostering their resilience, adaptability, and problem-solving skills - critical attributes for success in the teaching profession.

Pre-service teachers can enhance their pedagogical knowledge, reflective practices and instructional adaptability by combining their formal teacher education with real-world tutoring experience. Their professional development is supported, their teaching skills are encouraged, and they are more equipped to assist their students. This blended approach of formal education and experiential learning contributes to a well-rounded preparation process, ensuring that pre-service teachers enter the profession with both theoretical knowledge and practical competence (Darling-Hammond, 2006). In the end, this dual approach prepares them for more successful career planning and effective teaching practices (Slomp et al., 2014). This result aligns with the notion that developing a teacher identity is an ongoing journey shaped by formal training, hands-on work, and self-initiated learning (Beauchamp & Thomas, 2009). Wenger's (1998) work further highlights that professional identities take shape within "communities of practice," settings where learning is fundamentally both social and rooted in experience. Private tutoring, seen through this lens, functions as such a community, offering pre-service teachers a practical context to reflect on their actions, navigate various teaching difficulties, and actively build their professional selves.

5.2. Negotiation and Reconstruction of Pre-Service Teacher Identity through Private Tutoring

Many respondents pointed to their high school foreign language teachers as key role models, individuals who likely shaped their conception of the "ideal teacher" during their own schooling. This early image of an ideal teacher plays a substantial role in how their professional identity develops later. The prominence of these high school figures as models probably stems from adolescence being a crucial formative period when young people often start appreciating and wanting to imitate inspiring individuals (Verhoeven et al., 2019). Furthermore, pre-service teachers reported that their experiences interacting with students both within and outside of the classroom had changed their perception of the ideal educator. According to Izadinia (2015), these observations highlight the value of mentors and teacher educators in helping aspiring educators develop their teaching identities and methods.

During their undergraduate studies, pre-service teachers experienced significant attitude shifts regarding teaching. They appreciated institutional support but often desired enhanced career development assistance, acknowledging the vital role instructors played in their journey (Slomp et al., 2014). This focus on relationships resonates with the OECD's observation (2005) that interpersonal dynamics within the pedagogical environment strongly influence pre-service teachers' ideologies, just as direct involvement fosters deeper understanding ("enlightenment"). Practical elements like practicum and micro-teaching clearly served as key identity shapers within this environment, especially during the pivotal final year when students prepared for work, defined their ideal teacher image, and planned their path towards achieving it.

The transforming impact of university lecturers in helping pre-service teachers rebuild their identities was highlighted by the participants in this study. Observing how lecturers engaged with students and imparted knowledge allowed them to gain a significant deal of knowledge about effective teaching techniques. Many pre-service teachers emphasized the critical value of self-directed learning and adaptation, particularly insights gained through peer collaboration and trial-and-error during tutoring, while formal mentorship was thought to be advantageous. This emphasis on active engagement resonates strongly with Gee's (2000) work, which points out that identity formation is not a passive process but an active negotiation between external structures (like guidance from mentors) and personal agency. Further demonstrating the complex nature of identity development, this active negotiation takes place in conjunction with influences like lecturers offering their professional knowledge.

Instead of passively acquiring a teacher identity through their coursework, pre-service teachers actively reconstructed their professional personas through real-world teaching experiences such as tutoring. Frequently, the unpredictability encountered in tutoring situations forced them to rethink fundamental teaching assumptions and adopt more adaptable, student-focused methods that went beyond their formal training. This active rebuilding underscores the complexity of identity formation, where structured learning environments and unstructured practical experiences interplay in shaping a professional sense of self. It highlights that teacher identity development is fundamentally a dynamic and cyclical process.

5.3. Teacher Identity Formation: Insights and Transformation

The results of this research underscore that teacher identity is not static; instead, it is a fluid and developing entity. This evolution appears driven by experiences encountered in both formal university programs (representing structured academic learning) and practical settings like private tutoring (representing real-world teaching experiences), reflecting theoretical perspectives from Beijaard et al. (2004) and Wenger (1998). Pre-service teachers' perceptions of teaching duties changed as they approached professional practice, influenced by their ideal teachers and previous encounters with role models. This study identified three key attributes of the ideal teacher: professional experience, personal traits, and instructional skills. Although previous studies (Arnon & Reichel, 2007) highlight the critical significance of individual characteristics and subject-matter knowledge, our study supports Vokatis and Zhang (2016) in emphasizing the vital role of pedagogical abilities and creative teaching strategies. Boonen et al. (2014) emphasize the necessity of ongoing pedagogical skill development during private tutoring to increase student outcomes. In contrast to controlled classroom settings in university-based training, tutoring requires pre-service teachers to independently manage learning environments, navigate diverse student needs, and adapt their teaching strategies. Additionally, career planning is a continuous process in which demands from the external labour market are frequently subordinated to personal fulfilment (Alexander et al., 2019). This iterative process of identity refinement aligns with the argument of Beijaard et al. (2004), in which teacher identity is shaped through ongoing interactions between past experiences, present challenges, and future aspirations. Many participants in this study initially viewed private tutoring as a temporary occupation but later recognized its value in preparing them for long-term teaching careers.

This study found out that pre-service teachers frequently lacked structured institutional guidance when engaging in tutoring, requiring them to rely on peer networks and self-directed learning to refine their teaching strategies. This implies that teacher preparation programs should consider incorporating organized mentoring or hands-on learning experiences beyond microteaching to bridge this gap (Loughran, 2013). Pre-service teachers are better prepared to handle the complex demands of the teaching profession by combining a structured university education with real-world tutoring experiences. This helps them develop the resilience, instructional adaptability, and reflective practice that are necessary for long-term success in their profession (Schutz et al., 2018). Kelchtermans (2009) emphasizes that professional identity formation is a continuous negotiation between personal experiences and institutional expectations. Pre-service teachers, while developing their pedagogical approaches through tutoring, must reconcile these experiences with the theoretical knowledge acquired in teacher education programs. This ongoing interplay is crucial in establishing a coherent teacher identity. Britzman (2003) and Clarke (2008) describe identity negotiation as “learning to teach”, a process often marked by conflicts between idealistic ideas of teaching and the realities of classroom practice. Through tutoring, pre-service teachers actively navigate these challenges, refining their instructional strategies and reconstructing their professional identity.

6. Conclusion

This study employed a qualitative research method supported by Flores and Day’s (2006) conceptual framework of teacher identity. Through a detailed analysis of semi-structured interviews with thirteen pre-service teachers, the research identified three primary motivations for engaging in private tutoring: financial needs, practical teaching experience, and internship fulfilment. Participants expressed dissatisfaction with their university’s professional training programs, which they perceived as overly theoretical, often disconnected from the realities of classroom teaching. The findings reveal some potential shortcomings in the pedagogical training programs offered by teacher education institutions, particularly in addressing learners’ practical needs. When it came to the development of teacher identities, pre-service teachers' experiences with private tutoring led them to rethink their ideal teaching images, emphasizing three key components: pedagogical abilities, professional knowledge, and personal traits. Participants' attitudes and views of teacher identity underwent substantial changes during their academic journey, especially through informal teaching experiences. By fostering identity discovery and in-the-moment reflection, tutoring offered students opportunities for linking theory and practice. By providing insights different from those found in typical teacher education pathways, this study adds to the expanding conversation by illuminating the ways in which private tutoring functions as an early, informal place for identity construction.

This study remains several limitations in spite of its contributions. Researchers were unable to observe participants in their regular teaching activities due to time and financial resources. Furthermore, the small sample size of thirteen pre-service instructors limits the generalizability of the findings. In order to provide a more comprehensive understanding of teacher identity construction, future study should expand the sample size and incorporate additional qualitative and quantitative methods, such as surveys, classroom observations, reflective diaries, teacher feedback and longitudinal tracking of identity development.

Teachers and lecturers can learn more about how teaching identities are influenced by private tutoring, which could result in better teacher education programs. In order to give pre-service teachers better opportunities for professional development, institutions might think about acknowledging private tutoring as an organized part of their training and incorporating it into the formal curriculum. As a result, teacher training institutes may better prepare pre-service teachers for the challenges of the classroom and ensure they enter the profession with a well-rounded and practical foundation that values both formal instruction and experiential learning.

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APPROACHING ENGLISH AND VIETNAMESE LINGUISTIC LANDSCAPES FROM THE PERSPECTIVE OF CULTURAL CONCEPTUALIZATION

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Abstract: With the rise of globalization, English has developed numerous varieties in the communities it has entered and remained in. The native languages in these communities have also evolved due to prolonged interaction with English. This transformation goes beyond the surface manifestations and occurs in deeper levels, known as cultural conceptualizations. Thus, assessing cultural and social interactions within a linguistic landscape should consider not only the number of classified language groups but also the cultural conceptualization contacts evident in linguistic manifestations. Drawing from the cultural conceptualization systems encoded in American English and Vietnamese public signage, as generalized from previous studies, several key similarities and differences between the two speech communities are identified. These findings provide a criteria foundation for evaluating and classifying linguistic landscapes in Vietnam. Accordingly, public signage is categorized into four groups from a cultural conceptualization perspective: culturally native signage, culturally foreign signage, culturally hybrid signage, and culturally equivalent signage. Preliminary research results from the linguistic landscapes in Vietnam indicate an increasing presence of native English signage. Some English items also show signs of incorporating Vietnamese cultural conceptualizations, forming a variety known as Vietnamese English. Additionally, while Vietnamese public signage retains typical usage habits, it also integrates elements of the English cultural conceptualization system. The research findings and implications can significantly enhance the understanding, learning, and use of English and Vietnamese within Vietnam's linguistic landscapes.

Keywords: linguistic landscape, public signage language, cultural conceptualization

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TIẾP CẬN CẢNH QUAN NGÔN NGỮ TIẾNG ANH VÀ TIẾNG VIỆT TỪ GÓC ĐỘ Ý NIỆM HÓA VĂN HÓA

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Tóm tắt: Với quá trình toàn cầu hóa, tiếng Anh đã phát triển thành nhiều biến thể tại các cộng đồng mà nó đã đi qua và ở lại. Các ngôn ngữ bản địa trong các cộng đồng này cũng đã có nhiều biến đổi do sự tương tác lâu dài với tiếng Anh. Sự biến đổi này vượt ra ngoài các biểu hiện bề mặt và xảy ra ở các cấp độ sâu hơn của các ý niệm hóa văn hóa. Do đó, việc đánh giá các tương tác văn hóa và xã hội trong cảnh quan ngôn ngữ không nên chỉ dừng lại ở số lượng các nhóm ngôn ngữ được phân loại mà còn phải được xem xét thêm ở các ý niệm hóa văn hóa tiềm tàng trong các biểu hiện ngôn ngữ. Dựa trên các hệ thống ý niệm hóa văn hóa được mã hóa trong ngôn ngữ của các loại biển công cộng tiếng Anh Mỹ và tiếng Việt từ các nghiên cứu trước đây, một số điểm tương đồng và khác biệt chính giữa hai cộng đồng ngôn ngữ được xác định. Những phát hiện này cung cấp một số đặc điểm cơ sở cho việc đánh giá và phân loại cảnh quan ngôn ngữ ở Việt Nam theo bốn nhóm ý niệm hóa văn hóa: văn hóa bản địa, văn hóa ngoại lai, văn hóa hỗn hợp và văn hóa tương đồng. Kết quả khảo sát sơ bộ từ các cảnh quan ngôn ngữ ở Việt Nam cho thấy sự hiện diện ngày càng tăng của các loại biển công cộng tiếng Anh bản địa. Một số đối tượng tiếng Anh cũng có dấu hiệu mã hóa một phần hay toàn bộ các ý niệm hóa văn hóa tiếng Việt (Vietnamese English). Ngoài ra, kết quả khảo sát cũng cho thấy các đối tượng tiếng Việt vẫn lưu giữ những thói quen sử dụng điển hình nhưng đồng thời có nhiều dấu hiệu tiếp thu các ý niệm hóa văn hóa tiếng Anh. Các kết quả nghiên cứu có thể tăng cường đáng kể sự hiểu biết, học tập và sử dụng hiệu quả tiếng Anh và tiếng Việt trong các cảnh quan ngôn ngữ tại Việt Nam.

Từ khóa: cảnh quan ngôn ngữ, các loại biển công cộng, ý niệm hóa văn hóa

1. Introduction

Public signage plays an important role in creating civilization and efficiency when being used as a tool for accessing public services and facilities. English and Vietnamese-English bilingual public signage also contributes to the development and desire for peaceful and comprehensive exchange and cooperation of Vietnam on an international scale. However, this environment of cultural contact between English and Vietnamese also leads to some problems related to the language use. Specifically, the current use of English public signage in Vietnam is reported to have many errors in spelling, grammar, semantics, and expression structure caused by direct transcoding from Vietnamese into English (Nguyen et al., 2017; Nguyen, 2018). In addition to the negative interference of the source language (Vietnamese) to the application of English, the Vietnamese language has undergone some changes due to contact with English. For example, many Vietnamese signs for ‘toilets’ are replaced with *WC*, *Restroom*, or *Toilet*; many store signs use *Shop* instead of its Vietnamese equivalents; some Vietnamese expressions are imported from a very common usage in English such as *Cám ơn bạn không xả rác* ‘Thank you for not littering’, and *Bún Bò Mệ Mui từ 1935* ‘Mama Mui’s beef noodles since 1935’. Accordingly, language interaction not only occurs with the phenomena of code switching, code mixing, and syntax borrowing, but also includes the phenomenon of pragmatic borrowing by importing new expression structures and the potential to interpret them so that new communicative effects are created for the same purpose of speaking. Therefore, the study of cultural contact in the language of public signage (and language in general) should not only cover the surface form expressions but also consider the interaction and transformation of cultural conceptualizations taking place in the perception of speech communities. This type of interaction belongs to what Cultural Linguistics calls "cultural cognition", a form of perception that connects the members and their community, underpinning the understanding of linguistic characteristics as experiences that can be shared, applied, and restructured (Sharifian, 2017).

The language of public signage is the main object of linguistic landscape. In general, research in this approach mainly sees English as a manifestation of integration and development in a geographical area due to the social needs of interacting with tourists, customers, and partners from many parts of the world. However, from the perspective of Cultural Linguistics, the above approach is not satisfactory since English is only a coding tool that can encode different systems of cultural conceptualization between different speech communities, forming many English varieties (i.e., World Englishes). Hence, to affirm the presence of indigenous or foreign cultures, it is necessary to consider from the basis of cultural cognition with cultural conceptualizations entrenched in the use of English in a certain region. As a result, studies of English and Vietnamese linguistic landscapes at the level of cultural conceptualization can focus on the following aspects: (i) the English linguistic landscape in Vietnam reflects the cultural conceptualizations of native English or Vietnamese communities; (ii) the Vietnamese linguistic landscape in Vietnam reflects the cultural conceptualizations of the indigenous culture (i.e., Vietnamese community) or has signs encoded from the native English cultural conceptualizations; and (iii) how the phenomenon of blending cultural conceptualization is manifested in the linguistic landscapes. The above approaches can be taken based on qualitative data to indicate existing phenomena and quantitative data to indicate the level of cultural contact, thereby having a scientific ground to assess the level of cultural preservation and integration of a speech community. The research questions include:

(1) What are the cultural conceptualizations reflected in the English and Vietnamese linguistic landscapes in indigenous communities? How are they similar and different?

(2) To what extent do the English and Vietnamese linguistic landscapes in Vietnam reflect the cultural conceptualization systems of native English and Vietnamese?

The article will first clarify the definitions and approaches of linguistic landscape and establish the theoretical framework of cultural conceptualization in addressing the problems of linguistic, cultural, and social interaction of a linguistic landscape. Subsequently, the collection and processing of linguistic materials from the English and Vietnamese linguistic landscapes of native communities will be described by qualitative and quantitative analyses. The research results include statistics of the linguistic landscapes in Vietnam according to cultural conceptualization groups with several evaluations and discussions. Finally, the article outlines some cultural proposals for the application and study of linguistic landscapes in Vietnam.

2. Literature Review

2.1. Linguistic Landscape

Research in the field of linguistic landscape focuses on studying language in written form in public spaces, often in contexts with multilingual phenomena. Landry and Bourhis (1997, p. 25) pioneered this field by defining linguistic landscape as the visibility and salience of language on public signage in a certain territory. They also argued that the linguistic landscape of a place performs two basic functions, including informational function that identifies linguistic features in performing general communicative purposes, and symbolic function that clarifies the linguistic expressions in affirming the importance, position, power, and personal or community identities of the languages in the contact. In fact, rather than being distinct, these two functions continuously interact, mutually supporting and influencing one another, that is, linguistic characteristics are the basis for understanding the level of contact and position between languages, whereas the characteristics of power between the languages serve as a basis for explaining linguistic expressions when performing different communicative and social acts. For example, Gorter (2007, p. 4) argued that the presence of English in the linguistic landscape in Rome may have affected the widespread acceptance and use of the language when it was spoken to each other in Rome as well as in Italy; or Dixson (2015, p. 25) also believed that experiencing and learning from the linguistic landscape might help children improve their language awareness and thereby might have effective language acquisition solutions to second languages. Then the acquired languages, in turn, will embark on their exposure and competition with indigenous languages, which eventually leads to different linguistic positions.

Cenoz and Gorter (2006) are considered pioneers in approaching the linguistic landscape as a methodology for multicultural contexts. Scholars in this proposition mainly rely on the number and distribution of different languages used on public signage for assessing the level of cultural integration, interaction, and diversity as well as the level of preference for indigenous languages and cultures. For example, Akindele (2011), Thongtong (2016), and Zimny (2017) based on the high frequency of English in the linguistic landscape compared to the native languages to confirm the level of economy and tourism development in the research sites. However, the penetration and dominance of English in the linguistic landscape has raised some concerns as local identities are perceived to be in danger of being eliminated or assimilated for economic integration and globalization (see Whiting, 2008; Ruzaitė, 2008; Aristova, 2016). To solve this problem, some localities have adopted language preservation policies, or more extremely, to completely limit the introduction of foreign languages and cultures. For instance, Tabajunda (2018) explored 406 signs in public spaces of De La Salle University, Philippines and showed that English prevailed but had no suppression or dominance over the indigenous language (i.e., Filipino) thanks to the language preservation policies of the country; or a study by Inya (2019) on 58 religious signs in Ado Ekiti of Nigeria showed that while English gained a strong pervasiveness, the indigenous Yoruba language had always been preferred in areas with a conservative religious culture.

In the context of Vietnam, Phan and Starks (2019) studied language interaction in public places of long-established districts in Hanoi. The research clarified the impact of mainstream and unorthodox language policies on the use of monolingual, multilingual, and mixed language signage. The results of the study showed that the investigated area had very diverse linguistic expressions (6 languages) with Vietnamese signs occupying a dominant position over English ones. In addition, Vietnamese-English bilingual signs were the most popular compared to other multilingual signs. It was believed to be a consequence of educational policies and economic development strategies in Vietnam with English being encouraged to be researched and used in many fields, especially in tourism and commercial contexts, yet required to be limited to a certain extent when there is direct contact with Vietnamese.

In summary, linguistic landscape studies often assess the level of social and cultural interaction at the semiotic level. Specifically, the approach favors observation, statistics, and analyses of the languages in a public space as well as their code-switching and code-mixing expressions. The results of the approach include quantitative data that show the distribution of these languages and their interaction rates through the varied numbers in expressions of bilingualism, language switching, and language mixing. However, this approach cannot fully cover conceptual interactions since language is only a tool to encode cultural conceptualizations. Through the process of linguistic and social interaction, indigenous languages can encode some cultural conceptualizations from other speech communities, and vice versa, foreign languages can be used as a tool to encode cultural conceptualizations in a particular indigenous speech community. Therefore, the approach of Cultural Linguistics will contribute to explaining the problems related to cultural interaction of a linguistic landscape at the conceptual level, making the study of these objects more comprehensive.

2.2. Cultural Linguistics and Cultural Conceptualizations

According to Sharifian (2017, p. 2), the theoretical framework of Cultural Linguistics consists of two central concepts, i.e., "cultural cognition" and "cultural conceptualization", which are built on the foundations of many other fields such as cognitive psychology, complexity science, distributed cognition, and anthropology. Cultural cognition is a multidisciplinary concept related to a type of cognition that is beyond the level of human perception; that is, it exists objectively, naturally, and dynamically in an interactive world where humans are the main subjects who both influence and at the same time get influenced by cultural cognition in thinking, behavior, and language. Cultural cognition encompasses the properties of activation, uneven distribution, and dynamics; and can be analyzed as a CAS (a complex adaptive system) with emergent, nested, and open characteristics. For example, in Vietnamese cultural cognition, people often say *Thượng lộ bình an* 'on road safely' as a goodbye to someone beginning a journey; therefore, a road sign reading *X chúc quý khách thượng lộ bình an* 'X wishes you on road safely' will be widely interpreted among the Vietnamese as 'this is the ending point of X's territory' (i.e., enactive property). Nevertheless, such interpretation is not equally shared with every Vietnamese since one with less common knowledge and experience might perceive it as a reminder of driving carefully (i.e., unevenly distributed property). Over the time, the expression *Thượng lộ bình an* is also frequently used to say goodbye to the dead so the road sign might often replace it with *X tạm biệt quý khách, hẹn gặp lại* 'X saying goodbye to you, see you again' (i.e., dynamic property). In general, the perception of *Thượng lộ bình an* in the use of public signage language is emergent from the Vietnamese interactions although it can be understood differently from one individual to another as nested in many other contexts. Such perceptions are not static but rather continuously open to new negotiations and changes over time and space.

Cultural conceptualization is the process of forming a cultural concept due to conceptualizations constantly changing between different cognitive fields with different attention stimuli belonging to different communities and finally encoded in different language systems. Therefore, it can be said that cultural conceptualizations are also products of cultural cognition. Sharifian (2011, 2015, 2017) affirmed that many aspects of language structure and language use are formed based on cultural conceptualizations and thus reflect cultural conceptualizations; but at the same time, language is an environment for cultural cognition to be structured and restructured through human language interaction, thereby creating the development of cultural conceptualizations. To explore the connection between language and culture, or between linguistic features and cultural conceptualizations, Sharifian (2014, 2017) suggests using analytical tools such as cultural schema, cultural category, and cultural metaphor. A cultural schema is a concise representation of knowledge related to a particular domain that has not been thoroughly addressed. Thus, cultural schemas act as cultural frames or scripts for practicing and analyzing comprehensive meanings grounded in cultural cognition and expressed through the lexical system. For example, the act of 'greeting' associated with the polite cultural schema in Vietnamese is often related to the food schema (e.g., Vietnamese people when seeing each other around mealtime often say *Anh/Chị đã dùng cơm chưa?* 'Have you eaten yet?' or *Cậu đã ăn gì chưa?* 'Have you eaten anything? as a way to say hello). In different speech communities, cultural categories often include prototypes that vary in quantity, semantics, and pragmatic meanings due to diverse systems of cultural conceptualizations. For instance, in Vietnamese, the father's younger sister is called *cô* and the mother's younger sister is called *dì*, while these in English are all collectively referred to as *aunt*. Cultural metaphors are essentially conceptual metaphors that arise from communal elements and are shared among members through traditional experiences and customs. To illustrate, HEAVEN AS A JUDGE OF ETHICS is a cultural metaphor in Vietnamese (e.g., *Trời sẽ không tha người bất nghĩa* 'Heaven will not spare the unrighteous,' or *Ăn ở ác coi chừng bị trời đánh* 'Living evilly, watch out for heaven strikes'). By employing these tools, the cultural conceptualizations encoded in a language can be studied through the structures (schemas), contents (categories), and modes (metaphors) of linguistic expressions.

In summary, each speech community has different cultural cognition, forming different systems of cultural conceptualization, and therefore the cultural schemas, cultural categories, and cultural metaphors associated with each speech community are also very diverse. From the above understanding, I hypothesize that the cultural conceptualizations encoded in the language of public signage also have a notable variation of cultural schemas, categories, and metaphors between speech communities. The following section will present the data collection and analysis process of public signage language to have a conceptual basis for the observation and evaluation of these objects at the level of cultural conceptualization.

3. Research Methodology

3.1. Design of the Study

This is a mixed-method study with a view to categorizing English and Vietnamese public signage in Vietnam based on the two cultural conceptualization systems. Therefore, the study is first intrinsically qualitative with data of various cultural conceptualizations entrenched in public signage language collected from the native speech communities. The data is then analyzed and compared to find the similarities and differences between the speech communities so that the criteria for the categorizing process of the cultural conceptualization contact can be constructed. After that, the study will move to the quantitative stage with the data of public signage in the linguistic landscape of Vietnam. Such data will be classified and counted in percentage to provide some evaluation on the distribution and contact of native English and Vietnamese cultural conceptualizations in the contexts of Vietnam.

3.2. Scope of the Study and Data Collection

The focus objects include signs for directing, warning, compelling (together often referred to as "public signs") and advertising (or "commercial signs"). The English public signage analyzed is limited to examples from the United States because American English is a major international language with significant influence on the education and economy of many countries, including Vietnam. The Vietnamese public signage analyzed is restricted to examples within Vietnam. Since cultural cognition and conceptualizations vary, different linguistic expressions tend to be created and perceived. However, this study examines public signage language at a systematic level, emphasizing the most general features and disregarding some variations due to regional, group, or individual differences.

To achieve the research objectives, this study draws on findings from Pham (2021a, 2021b, 2024a, 2024b) regarding cultural conceptualizations in public signage. These studies analyzed over 800 public signs and 1,748 commercial signs in American English (collected from various states across the U.S.), and 945 public signs and 1,585 commercial signs in Vietnamese (gathered from various districts and cities in Vietnam, primarily Ho Chi Minh City and Hanoi). In addition, a research of 400 English public signs and 400 English commercial signs randomly collected in major cities of Vietnam was also conducted to investigate the distribution and contact of cultural conceptualizations *(see Appendix for details of investigated places, years, and sources)*. The cultural conceptualizations embedded in the language of these signs were identified through pragmatic cultural schemas (reflecting common usage structures), cultural categories (reflecting common contents), and cultural metaphors (reflecting common cognitive models) with a double-check by two other professionals in the field.

3.3. Data Analysis

Approaching a linguistic landscape at the level of cultural conceptualization can be adopted by classifying linguistic expressions according to the groups of cultural conceptualization they encode. There are four possible groups as follows:

(1) Group of culturally native public signage (encoding typical cultural conceptualizations of a speech community, e.g., American English signage and native Vietnamese signage),

(2) Group of culturally foreign public signage (encoding typical cultural conceptualizations of other speech communities, e.g., Vietnamese English reflecting Vietnamese cultures, and Vietnamese reflecting American English cultural values),

(3) Group of culturally hybrid public signage (encoding many different cultural conceptualization systems at the same time, e.g., American English-Vietnamese cultural conceptualizations entrenched in the same signage),

(4) Group of culturally equivalent public signage (encoding conceptualizations that are common in many different cultures, e.g., similar between American English and Vietnamese).

The classification groups mentioned above are only approximate, given that cultural conceptualizations and cultural cognition are inherently enactive, distributed, and constantly evolving (Sharifian, 2017). Consequently, the ways in which language is used and understood within a speech community are continuously shifting across time and space. Over time, certain indigenous cultural conceptualizations may gain global recognition, while others introduced from different cultures can be assimilated and eventually regarded as native. Nonetheless, initial studies conducted at specific points in time may still reveal a general pattern of cultural interaction within particular regions (for instance, the interplay between English and Vietnamese cultural conceptualizations in Vietnam’s linguistic landscape).

4. Findings and Discussion

4.1. Classification of Linguistic Landscapes Based on Cultural Conceptualization Systems

4.1.1. Culturally Native Public Signage

The collection of English and Vietnamese public signage believed to represent indigenous culture consists of items that convey distinct cultural conceptualizations rooted in each speech community's way of thinking. These conceptualizations clearly reflect the underlying thought patterns, psychological traits, historical backgrounds, traditions, and social influences that shape how public signage language is used and understood. The results of Pham's studies on American English and Vietnamese objects show some typical cultural conceptualizations as briefly presented in Table 1 below.

Table 1

Indigenous Cultural Conceptualizations in American English and Vietnamese Public Signage (collected from Pham, 2021a, 2021b, 2024a, 2024b)

	Cultural Conceptualizations	**American English**	**Vietnamese**
1	Indigenous places, names, symbols, things, and phenomena [Cultural categories & metaphors]	e.g., *California, Jason, Phoenix, Cedar, Snow*	e.g., *Hanoi, Sơn* 'mountain', *Nón lá* 'leaf hat,' *Cây me* 'tamarind tree,' *Triều cường* 'tidal wave'
2	Things identified with a typical functional or object focus [Cultural schema]	e.g., *Restroom, Coatroom, Locker Room*	e.g., *Nhà vệ sinh* 'house of hygiene,' *Quầy gửi đồ* 'bag keeping counter,' *Phòng thay đồ* 'changing room'
3	The state of the object [Cultural schema]	Less attached to objects (e.g., *Sold out, Reserved*)	Always attached to an object (e.g., *Hết vé* 'tickets sold out,')
4	Fixed structure with the current location [Cultural schema]	*X stops here*	*X tại đây* 'X here'/ *Ở đây có X* 'here is X'
5	Marking a residential area territory [Cultural schema]	e.g., *X Begin, X End*	e.g., *Lối vào X* 'Entrance X,' *X Lối ra* 'X Exit'
6	Marking the ending point of a region territory [Cultural schema]	Notice of departure (e.g., *You are now leaving X*) (Picture 1)	Safety wishes (e.g., *Chúc quý khách thượng lộ bình an* 'wish you on road safely') (Picture 2)
7	Priority objects [Cultural schema & categories]	Mentioned collectively or exclusively (e.g., *Courtesy Seat, Priority Seating/ Lane, Staff only*)	Specifically mentioned (e.g., *Ghế ưu tiên: người già, người bị thương, phụ nữ có thai, trẻ nhỏ* 'priority seats: the elderly, the injured, pregnant women, young children')
8	Traffic accident warning [Cultural schema]	Safely driving request and mention of the deceased (e.g., *Drive carefully, in memory of X*)	Safely driving request and mention of accident history (e.g., *Chú ý quan sát, Tuyến đường thường hay xảy ra tai nạn giao thông* 'watch carefully, accidents often occur on this road')
9	Compelling [Cultural schema]	Requests, thanks, and announcements (e.g., *Please X, Please do not X, Thank you for not X-ing, No X-ing, No X*)	Orders and prohibitions (e.g., *Không X* 'don't X,' *Không được X* 'do not X,' *Cấm X* 'prohibit X')
10	Typical contents on	e.g., *Panhandling, Bad*	e.g., *Đề phòng trộm cắp* 'beware of

	prompting signs [Cultural categories]	*weather, Wildlife, Suspension, Tow, Prosecution, Use of firearms*	theft,' *Tai nạn đuối nước* 'drowning accidents,' *Nguy hiểm chết người* 'deadly dangers,' *Thú dữ* 'angry animals'
11	Typical contents on commercial signs [Cultural categories & metaphors]	Diversity of customers in terms of gender/ age/ occupation/class, house size, local origin, father category, organic category, dollar store concept, business establishment time (*since/est.*)	Target customers include male & female groups (*nam nữ*), students (*sinh viên*), common people (*bình dân*), middle-aged (*trung niên*), mother and child (*mẹ và bé*), supermarket/paradise/world scale, international/export/ import/ homemade/ official origin, kinship category +name/ ordinal number, signature object category, proper name, preferential starting prices (*0 VND, 0%*).

The sets of cultural conceptualizations can be used as a basis for assessing the cultural origins of an English or Vietnamese signage expression when these languages are considered as a coding tool. Accordingly, when a sign is operated and received with the typical pragmatic structures, cognitive models, and contents as stated in Table 1, it can be considered as "culturally native (American) English signage" or "culturally native Vietnamese signage" with the differences compared. Hu (2016) advocates that these are the most natural "cultural labels" of a speech community, whereas Kecskes (2010, 2014) calls them "formulaic language". The terms all refer to the characteristic linguistic expressions of a certain pragmatic unit shared among members of a speech community and therefore, regarded as a cultural marker for the ability to identify and integrate with native speakers.

Picture 1

Territory End Sign in the US, "Leaving Kansas, Come Again"

Picture 2

Territory End Sign in Vietnam, "Wish You on Road Safely"

4.1.2. Culturally Foreign Public Signage

The group of culturally foreign public signage includes linguistic objects belonging to one community but encoding cultural conceptualizations from other speech communities. For example, Vietnamese cases such as *Cám ơn bạn đã không hút thuốc* 'Thank you for not smoking,' and *Bún bò mệ Mui từ 1935* 'Mama Mui's beef noodles since 1935' (Picture 4) and *Bếp của Boon* 'Boon's kitchen' are linguistic expressions that show signs of borrowing the typical cultural schemas of English objects. The above conceptualization phenomena are not many, but they are the driving force for the Vietnamese language as well as its cultural conceptualization system to be expanded, restructured, and developed day by day.

Similarly, English public signage when used in the Vietnamese community also reflects the Vietnamese cultural conceptualizations. Some practical cases are *Caution! Danger of death* (mentioning casualties as warning), *Please give priority to the elderly*, *handicapped*, *pregnant and baby stroller* (listing all the priority objects), *Never use mobile phone* (using commands or orders), *Lotus Mart* and *The Rice Restaurant* (Picture 3, mentioning the Vietnamese cultural symbol flower and plant), *Nice silk, tailor-made within 24 hours, men & women* (mentioning the fixed structure of 'men-women' to indicate the whole customers), *Madam Cuc 127 Hotel* (using personal pronouns to indicate the business owner), *We sell coffee here* (emphasizing the business with the current location), *Three sisters* (using the kinship categories with the category of number), or *The Tree Coffee* (relating to the characteristic object of the shop). The above-mentioned ways of using English to encode Vietnamese cultural conceptualizations are often criticized for "word-by-word translation" and not taking the focus of native English as the root (i.e., encoding English cultural conceptualizations). However, if considered from the perspective of cultural selection and maintenance, this approach will help preserve and reflect Vietnamese identity at the international scale (i.e., Vietnamese English).

Picture 3

English Signs Encoding Vietnamese Cultural Categories, "Lotus Mart", "The Rice"

Picture 4

Vietnamese Signs Encoding (American) English Cultural Schemas

4.1.3. Culturally Hybrid Public Signage

The group of culturally hybrid public signage consists of signs that display a blend of different cultural conceptualization systems—in this case, American English and Vietnamese. For instance, the sign *No gathering for vending* employs the typical English structure *No X-ing* while referring to culturally specific practices in Vietnam. In commercial signage, a common pattern involves combining a Vietnamese proper name with a product or service (e.g., *Bong Shop, Dung Cafe, Cuong Mobile, Ms. Kim Massage*), reflecting Vietnamese cultural identity but using an English syntactic format where the agent or identity precedes the product or service. Unlike the common English possessive construction (e.g., *Penelope's Boutique, Tony's Breakfast*), these Vietnamese signs typically omit the possessive marker, resulting in new hybrid forms that merge both English and Vietnamese cultural conceptualizations. Additional examples of such cultural blending include combinations like Vietnamese identity + since + year (e.g., *BBQ Cô Lệ since 2011, Cơm tấm Nguyễn Văn Cừ since 1989*), Vietnamese identity + house (e.g., *Saigon House, Vietnam House Restaurant*), or Vietnamese identity + possessive form (e.g., *Binh's Siam hair salon, Linh's furniture*). These examples showcase the fusion of Vietnamese elements with features from English commercial signage, such as establishment year, naming structures, and expressions of ownership (see Pictures 5 & 6).

Kecskes (2014) describes the interaction between cultural schemas as "intercultural pragmatics". This concept goes beyond the mixing of morphological or syntactic elements, focusing instead on how language is used to express varied meanings and cultural understandings. According to Fludernik (1998, p. 13), such a hybrid form is not just a simple fusion of components but acts as a 'third space' - a dynamic platform where elements interact and simultaneously influence the development of their hybrid identity. Therefore, when English and Vietnamese cultural conceptualizations are used together in culturally hybrid signage, they contribute to a shared cultural environment in which meanings, experiences, and linguistic expressions from both systems are constantly negotiated and transformed, ultimately reshaping the cultural conceptualizations involved.

Picture 5

Vietnamese Identity (Cơm Tấm Nguyễn Văn Cừ) Combined with English Cultural Schema (Since 1989)

Picture 6

Vietnamese Identity (Hằng) Combined with English Cultural Schema (Góc Của – 'S Corner), 'Hằng's Corner'

4.1.4. Culturally Equivalent Public Signage

The group of culturally equivalent public signage encode concepts with little significant differentiation in cognition between cultures. Accordingly, the structure of expression may be different, but in terms of semantics and pragmatics, they are quite similar. These objects are often fixed terms, phrases, and structures that are used frequently and become familiar in multilingual contexts with little error, confusion, or "culture shock." Therefore, the larger the number of such objects, the more advantages in accessing and applying other languages. Some similar cultural conceptualizations between American English and Vietnamese from previous research results can be summarized as shown in Table 2 below.

Table 2

Similar Cultural Conceptualizations in American English and Vietnamese Public Signage (collected from Pham, 2021a, 2021b, 2024a, 2024b)

	Cultural conceptualizations	American English	Vietnamese
1	Things, phenomena, and actions that are perceived equally [Cultural categories & metaphors]	e.g., *Bus station, Green Life Market, Sorry for the inconvenience*	e.g., *Trạm xe buýt, Bách hóa xanh, Xin lỗi vì sự bất tiện này*
2	Instructions for use, contact, and movement [Cultural schema]	e.g., *Pull out, Use the call button*	e.g., *Kéo ra, Ấn nút gọi*
3	Courtesy requests [Cultural schema]	e.g., *Please X, Please do not X*	e.g., *Vui lòng/Đề nghị X, Vui lòng không X*
4	Issuing orders for life-threatening and environmentally damaging behaviors [Cultural schema]	e.g., *Do not X, X not allowed*	e.g., *Không X, Không được X*
5	Prohibition for acts of violating the law and threatening order and security [Cultural schema]	e.g., *X prohibited*	e.g., *Cấm X*
6	Commitments to trust, health and quality [Cultural categories & metaphors]	Categories of morality, love, health safety, royalty, extreme, promotion, and positivism	

4.2. Assessment of Cultural Conceptualization Contact in Linguistic Landscapes

Linguistic landscape research at the conceptual level does not stop at analyzing and classifying cultural conceptualization groups but is necessarily going on with an investigation of the distribution of these groups based on quantitative data to better clarify the level of cultural contact in a geographical territory. The following sections will illustrate this research approach with some general quantitative findings based on the number of English and Vietnamese signs collected in the contexts of Vietnam.

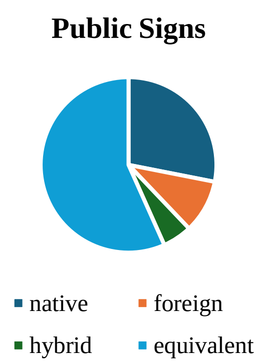
4.2.1. Cultural Contact in English Public Signage of Vietnam

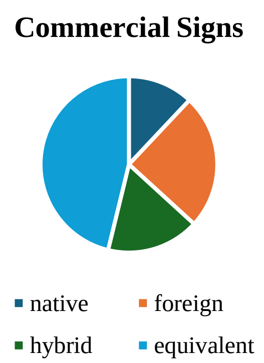
Table 3 and the charts below illustrate the statistics of English as an international language to encode a variety of different cultural conceptualization systems. Specifically, the group of public signage that is supposedly like native (American) English in many typical conceptual aspects such as cultural schemas, categories, and metaphors accounts for only about 27% in the group of public signs and 12% in the group of commercial signs. English in contexts of Vietnam also has many signs of borrowing or blending with the Vietnamese cultural conceptualization system, most clearly manifested in the commercial sign group (about 25% and 17%, respectively), while these phenomena in the public sign group have a lower level (about 10% and 5.5%, respectively). However, the English public signage generally has a high similarity in terms of cultural conceptualizations (about 52%) compared with Vietnamese, demonstrating a balance in the selection of objects whose expressions create the same effects on the members of both speech communities. The results are in line with Phan and Starks' study (2019), reflecting some practical effects on the linguistic landscape from Vietnam's educational and economic policies which promote the research and use of English in various fields, particularly tourism and commerce, yet there is some controlling requirement to its use when it directly interacts with Vietnamese.

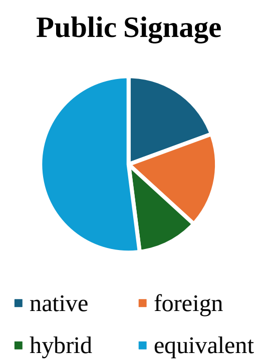
Table 3

Statistics of English Public Signage in Vietnam by Cultural Conceptualization Groups

	English public signage encoding cultural conceptualizations									
	Native (English)		**Foreign** (Vietnamese)		**Hybrid** (E-V)		**Equivalent** (E-V)		**Total**	
	n	**%**	**n**	**%**	**n**	**%**	**N**	**%**	**N**	**%**
Public signs	107	**26.8**	40	**10.0**	22	**5.5**	231	**57.7**	400	**100**
Commercial signs	48	**12.0**	99	**24.8**	68	**17.0**	185	**46.2**	400	**100**
Total	155	**19.4**	139	**17.4**	90	**11.2**	416	**52.0**	800	**100**







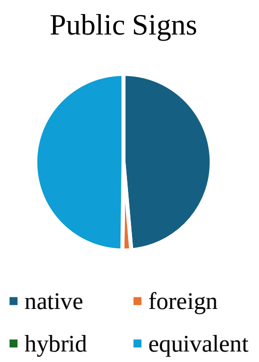
4.2.2. Cultural Contact in Vietnamese Public Signage of Vietnam

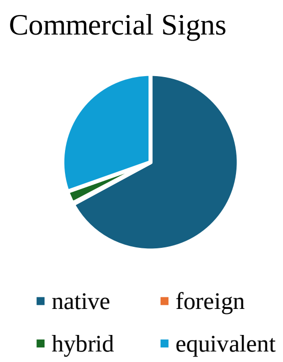
Table 4 and charts below show that indigenous Vietnamese cultural conceptualizations generally dominate the Vietnamese linguistic landscape in Vietnam (about 60%) and are more frequent in commercial sign group (about 67%) than in public sign group (nearly 50%). This indicates that indigenous culture is still being preserved at a high level. The results also show that there are many significant cultural similarities in the application and reception of Vietnamese public signage compared to English. The level of cultural similarity is higher in the group of public signs (nearly 50%) than in the group of commercial signs (about 30%). This can be seen as a favorable condition for the transfer of public signage language from Vietnamese to English while ensuring the same effects at the international scale. In addition, the data shows that a small part of Vietnamese public signage in Vietnam borrows from English cultural conceptualizations, especially the public signs (1.6%), while the group of commercial signs often has more culturally hybrid conceptualizations (2.3%). The effects of English on the use of other languages in the constant contact have also been reported in many previous studies. For example, Thongtong (2016) identified various phenomena such as transliterations, lexical blends, homophones, personifications, speech acts, and politeness strategies in the public signage language of Chiang Mai, Thailand, influenced by English due to cultural exchange. Similarly, ALHyari and Hamdan (2019) examined the linguistic features of commercial signs in Salt, Jordan, and discovered that Arabic signage included transliterations from English, with modifications to fit the native phoneme system.

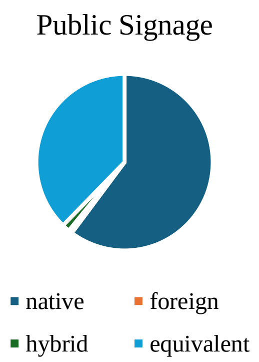
Table 4

Statistics of Vietnamese Public Signage in Vietnam by Cultural Conceptualization Groups

	Vietnamese public signage encoding cultural conceptualizations								**Total**	
	Native (Vietnamese)		**Foreign** (English)		**Hybrid** (V-E)		**Equivalent** (V-E)			
	n	**%**	**n**	**%**	**N**	**%**	**n**	**%**	**N**	**%**
Public signs	459	**48.6**	15	**1.6**	0	**0**	471	**49.8**	945	**100**
Commercial signs	1,064	**67.1**	3	**0.2**	36	**2.3**	482	**30.4**	1,585	**100**
Total	1,523	**60.2**	18	**0.7**	36	**1.4**	953	**37.7**	2,530	**100**







5. Conclusion

Along with the development of economic integration, cultural exchange, and cross-border trade, English has more and more varieties in the communities it has traveled through and stayed in. The native languages in these speech communities also have certain changes caused by long-term interaction with English. This transformation does not stop at the linguistic expressions but also takes place at the depths of concepts (i.e., cultural conceptualizations), such as the way in which new meanings are formed and received that are unprecedented in the system of a speech community. Therefore, the assessment of cultural and social interaction of a linguistic landscape should not only be conducted at the number of classified language groups but also be further considered in the cultural conceptualization contact instantiated in linguistic manifestations. Based on the cultural conceptualization systems encoded in (American) English and Vietnamese public signage generalized from the results of previous studies, typical similarities and differences between the two speech communities were identified as a characteristic ground for evaluating and classifying the linguistic landscapes in Vietnam. Accordingly, there are four groups of public signage that are approached from the perspective of cultural conceptualization, including: culturally native signage, culturally foreign signage, culturally hybrid signage, and culturally equivalent signage.

Preliminary research results from the actual situations of the linguistic landscapes in Vietnam show that native English objects in Vietnam appear with increasing frequency, almost completely applying the common cultural conceptualizations in native English. Meanwhile, a significant part of these English objects shows signs of encoding all or part of Vietnamese cultural conceptualizations, forming the Vietnamese English variety. In addition, the Vietnamese public signage still retains typical usage habits but at the same time absorbs the contents, structures, and modes of expressions from the English cultural conceptualization system. However, the above foreign factors in the application and reception of the public signage language in Vietnam are still quite limited in both number and level of distribution and dynamics. In general, English and Vietnamese public signage in Vietnam still have many cultural similarities that serve as a foundation for a favorable language transition between these two speech communities.

An understanding of different systems of cultural conceptualization can help English and Vietnamese speakers choose to create or translate the language of public signage for the purposes of cultural preservation or integration. To be specific, the use of English can be updated and expanded when encoding Vietnamese cultural conceptualizations; and vice versa, Vietnamese also can develop new applications when encoding the cultural conceptualizations of the native English language (or from other speech communities' cultural conceptualizations that have been encoded in English). Finally, language users can improve their meta-cultural competence with the ability to adapt, exchange, learn, and interpret these cultural conceptualizations through approaching and studying the linguistic landscape, which is believed to be the most accessible authentic input (Landry & Bourhis, 1997; Gorter, 2006), especially English in the form of a variety to reflect the local cultural conceptualizations as a result of globalization (Sharifian, 2017).

Despite achieving certain goals, this study still has some limitations. For example, the study of linguistic landscapes at the conceptual level is illustrated by the limited number of English language materials collected in Vietnam; besides, the overall linguistic data has not yet reached the typical characteristics of the linguistic landscape in a particular place, but instead scattered from many parts of Vietnam. Therefore, the research results only reflect a certain degree of distribution and variation of different cultural conceptualization systems on a general scale. Future research in this approach should be applied to specific international tourist destinations in Vietnam to have more appropriately localized strategies for cultural conservation or integration in the language use.

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Appendix

Statistics of English and Vietnamese Public Signage

Statistics of American English public signs:
https://docs.google.com/spreadsheets/d/1od-c1lJh65RcrRH1-bi--uZ6tuMUQENm

Statistics of American English commercial signs:
https://docs.google.com/spreadsheets/d/18VZCsu1R3_Pl000oOQlN3AO0VFQfJq-k

Statistics of Vietnamese public signs:
https://docs.google.com/spreadsheets/d/1CZDjQ6EaNGX6ZuZ3w2cSB460M9fF5HrY

Statistics of Vietnamese commercial signs:
https://docs.google.com/spreadsheets/d/1y8Y6FnXBEQQpA-Bo_-loepYHdqNsYWyQ

Statistics of English public signage in Vietnam:
https://docs.google.com/spreadsheets/d/1l252YkadlmP9QssaBBy7g6lbbhqo8h9e

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SOME HIGHLIGHTS IN THE U.S. FOREIGN POLICY IN THE MIDDLE EAST UNDER PRESIDENT JOE BIDEN (2021-2024)

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Abstract: U.S. foreign policy has undergone many adjustments under President Joe Biden (2021-2024), especially in the volatile context of the Middle East. This article analyzes the prominent issues in U.S. foreign policy towards the Middle East under President Joe Biden (from 2021 to 2024). In the context of the world and the region facing diverse challenges from security to human rights, U.S. policy has shifted from traditional military strategies to new forms such as multilateral dialogue, strengthening the security network, curbing the influence of China and Russia, and making cooperative efforts to solve problems in the region. The article applies international relations research methods, as well as analytical synthesis and evaluation methods, system structure methods, and forecasting techniques. In addition to assessing the prominent issues, the article also forecasts new adjustments in U.S. foreign policy towards the Middle East in the upcoming term of President Donald Trump.

Keywords: U.S. foreign policy, Middle East, Joe Biden, Donald Trump

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MỘT SỐ VẤN ĐỀ NỔI BẬT TRONG CHÍNH SÁCH ĐỐI NGOẠI CỦA MỸ TẠI KHU VỰC TRUNG ĐÔNG DƯỚI THỜI TỔNG THỐNG JOE BIDEN (2021-2024)

Hoàng Thị Mai Phương

Phòng Khoa học công nghệ và Hợp tác phát triển, Trường Đại học Ngoại ngữ, Đại học Quốc gia Hà Nội, Số 2 Phạm Văn Đồng, Cầu Giấy, Hà Nội, Việt Nam

Nhận bài ngày 16 tháng 01 năm 2025
Chỉnh sửa ngày 21 tháng 4 năm 2025; Chấp nhận đăng ngày 13 tháng 5 năm 2025

Tóm tắt: Chính sách đối ngoại của Mỹ đã trải qua nhiều điều chỉnh trong dưới thời Tổng thống Joe Biden (2021-2024), đặc biệt là trong bối cảnh đầy biến động của khu vực Trung Đông. Bài viết này[*] phân tích những vấn đề nổi bật trong chính sách đối ngoại của Mỹ đối với khu vực Trung Đông dưới thời Tổng thống Joe Biden (từ năm 2021 cho đến 2024). Trong bối cảnh thế giới và khu vực đang đối mặt với những thách thức đa dạng từ an ninh đến nhân quyền, chính sách của Mỹ đã chuyển đổi từ những chiến lược quân sự truyền thống sang những hình thức mới như đối thoại đa phương, tăng cường mạng lưới an ninh, kiềm chế ảnh hưởng của Trung Quốc và Nga, nỗ lực hợp tác giải quyết vấn đề tại khu vực. Bài viết sử dụng các phương pháp nghiên cứu quan hệ quốc tế, cũng như các phương pháp tổng hợp phân tích và đánh giá, phương pháp cấu trúc hệ thống và phương pháp dự báo. Bên cạnh việc đánh giá những vấn đề nổi bật, bài viết cũng dự báo những điều chỉnh mới trong chính sách đối ngoại của Mỹ tại Trung Đông trong nhiệm kỳ sắp tới của Tổng thống Donald Trump.

Từ khóa: chính sách đối ngoại của Mỹ, Trung Đông, Joe Biden, Donald Trump

1. Introduction

The U.S. presidential election on November 3, 2020 marked the victory of the Democratic candidate, Joe Biden, opening a term that would last until 2024. This is an opportunity for the U.S. to not only heal internal rifts but also review the foreign policies that have been implemented. An effective foreign policy requires a balance between domestic and international demands. U.S. policy towards the Middle East "has maintained remarkable consistency across administrations, with the exception of Donald Trump, since the region's energy resources began to be exploited and especially since the U.S. assumed a global leadership role" (Mezran & Varvelli, 2019, p. 15). The U.S. has always sought to use arms sales to enhance the capabilities of its partners to advance key regional security interests, including counterterrorism, ensuring uninterrupted oil flows, protecting Israel's security, and containing Iran (Congressional Research Service, 2020, p. 4). Some argue that the core tenet of Washington's Middle East policy has now shifted to a focus on containing Iran, despite the destabilizing effects of this policy on the region (Parsi, 2021, p. 3).

From the beginning of his term, Joe Biden was expected to pursue a foreign policy based on a long-term national interest model, demonstrating continuity across Republican and Democratic administrations since World War II to 2016 (AlHakim, 2021; Hoang, 2024). Biden chose to adjust his foreign policy with the desire to return to institutional diplomacy, pursue a

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cooperative approach to solving global problems, and strengthen cooperation with close allies in many important areas. This study will seek answers to two main questions: (1) What are the highlights of Joe Biden's foreign policy towards the Middle East in the 2021-2024 period? (2) How has this impacted the region?

2. Efforts to Maintain the U.S. Role and Strengthen the Security Network in the Middle East Region

The Biden administration continues to prioritize a strategic reorientation to the Indo-Pacific region to counter China, which is identified as the “top challenge” in the U.S. National Defense Strategy 2022 (The White House, 2022).

Reducing the military presence in the Middle East is a part of this strategy, however, the U.S. still strives to maintain important factors to ensure regional stability. Although the number of U.S. military personnel in the region decreased to about 45,400 by 2023 but the U.S. still maintains major bases in Qatar, Kuwait, and Bahrain, and deploys advanced missile defense systems to protect its allies from threats from Iran and non-state actors such as Hezbollah and the Houthis (Byman & Moller, 2023). For the US, the reduction of its military does not mean the U.S. is giving up its influence. Instead, the US has shifted its focus to providing military assistance, defense technology, and advanced defense systems to allies such as Saudi Arabia, Israel, and the Gulf states. This strategy not only helps the U.S. maintain its leadership role but also frees up resources to deal with challenges from China and Russia.

Strengthening the regional security network was one of the important pillars of U.S. foreign policy in the Middle East under President Joe Biden. The Biden administration has been working to build a multinational security network, with the goal of maintaining regional stability and reducing the U.S. military burden. This is especially important in the context of the U.S. strategic reorientation to the Indo-Pacific region and dealing with China. In fact, until now, Iran continues to be one of the biggest threats to Middle East security and U.S. strategic interests (The White House, 2022). Iran has not only accelerated its nuclear program but also expanded its influence through support for militant groups such as Hezbollah in Lebanon, the Houthis in Yemen, and militias in Iraq and Syria. These groups created instability and undermined the role of U.S. allies in the region, raising the risk of a full-blown conflict. In response, the Biden administration has focused on containing Iran through a combination of diplomatic and military deterrence. Efforts to revive the Iran Nuclear Deal (JCPOA) were a key part of this strategy, although it has encountered many obstacles both within the U.S. and pressure from partners such as Israel. In addition, U.S. policy during this period also focused on multilateral dialogue and cooperation, attempting to restore alliances that had been damaged during Donald Trump’s term. These efforts were made to rebuild alliances and strengthen partnerships with regional and international actors, including traditional allies such as Saudi Arabia and partners such as Qatar (Samantha, 2023). This policy included re-engaging with international institutions and promoting multilateral cooperation on issues such as security, economics, and human rights.

In addition, the U.S. also recognized the importance of fostering a strong regional alliance network to ease its security burden. The Biden administration has worked to build cooperative relationships between Israel and Arab countries, notably promoting the normalization of relations between Israel and Saudi Arabia (AlAlkim, 2022). The U.S. hoped that this would be not only a strategic move but also open up the opportunity to build a collective security structure where allied countries could protect themselves from common threats such as Iran. However, this process was not easy as the Israeli-Palestinian tension remained a major obstacle. The Biden administration has focused on persuading Saudi Arabia - a leading country in the Muslim world - to normalize relations with Israel. To achieve this goal, the U.S. has made two important commitments: (1) Mutual Defense Treaty, ensuring Saudi Arabia's safety against threats from Iran, and (2) Nuclear cooperation, including support for the construction of a nuclear fuel cycle in Saudi Arabia. However, the Israel-Hamas conflict in the Gaza Strip erupted when Hamas attacked Israel in October 2023, and Israel's controversial policies, such as expanding settlements in the West Bank, created great pressure from Arab public opinion, causing Saudi Arabia to pause plans to normalize relations with Israel. Not only that, Israel's lack of commitment to the two-state solution has also made its Arab partners cautious. So far, although no final agreement has been reached, the process has strengthened U.S. leadership in the Middle East and reduced direct military pressure. However, the Biden administration needs to adjust its strategy to balance security interests and regional public pressure. In the face of increasingly fierce great power competition, the Middle East remains an important part of U.S. foreign policy. The Biden administration, despite many challenges, remains steadfast in its balancing act of reducing its military presence, maintaining influence, and responding to changing threats in the region. The future of this policy will depend on the U.S. ability to flexibly adjust its strategy, as well as its ability to coordinate with partners to build a more stable and sustainable Middle East.

3. Dealing with the Influence of China and Russia

The strategic vacuum left by the U.S. has created opportunities for China and Russia to expand their presence in the Middle East through economic and military cooperation.

Over the years, China has made significant strides in its development, expanding its strategic space and establishing itself as a regional and international power. From 2021 to 2023, China strengthened its economic ties with the region, with trade volume increasing tenfold over the past two decades (Hoang, 2024). China has been increasing its influence over the Gulf countries through technology and energy projects, with contracts with Huawei and energy infrastructure projects in Saudi Arabia and the UAE being prominent examples. This country has been investing heavily in the region, with a total investment of at least $123 billion, especially in Arab countries and the Middle East. China's Belt and Road Initiative (BRI) is a major driver of its growing influence in the region. In 2021, the Middle East and Africa received 38% of China's total BRI investment, up from 8% in 2020. Its investment in the region grown rapidly, with a 360% increase between 2020 and 2021 and a 116% increase in construction activity (Nedopil, 2022). So far, China has been making efforts to take advantage of positive relationships with the Gulf countries, Israel and Iran. Each of these relationships has brought great value to Chinese investment projects, while opening up opportunities for cooperation and common development in many different areas. Notably, in March 2023, China was the mediator, successfully promoting the normalization of relations between Saudi Arabia and Iran. This is also a testament to China's growing influence and prestige in the region.

As for Russia, by 2019, Russia had gradually become an important and influential negotiator in resolving disagreements and conflicts in the Middle East. The official visit on October 14, 2019 of Russian President V. Putin to Saudi Arabia and the UAE marked a new and stronger step in the development of cooperation between Russia and these countries. In addition, Russia has also strengthened multilateral relations and cooperation with many other countries such as Türkiye, Iran, Iraq, and Egypt, to promote peace, stability, and common development in the region. In 2021, Russia also facilitated Syria's entry into the Arab League and reintegration into the regional community.

The growing influence of China and Russia in the Middle East not only threatens economic interests but also erodes the long-term strategic role of the United States in the region. The steps of China and Russia have impacted three main aspects of U.S. interests: (1) *The decline of its monopoly position in technology and energy*: China's expansion of technology and infrastructure projects - through its Belt and Road Initiative (BRI) - has prompted Gulf states to begin diversifying their strategic partnerships away from the United States, undermining America's traditional role as a major energy partner, especially as the United States seeks to reduce its dependence on Middle Eastern oil. Losing its privileged position in the energy market reduces America's influence in regulating global oil prices - a key lever in its foreign policy; (*2) Challenges to America's diplomatic and security role*: China's success in facilitating reconciliation between Saudi Arabia and Iran is a major blow to the traditional role of the United States as a mediator in the region. This is not only a symbol of diplomatic prestige but also sets a precedent for Middle Eastern countries to look to China as a partner to balance the United States, especially on sensitive issues such as the Sunni-Shiite confrontation or regional security initiatives. Similarly, Russia, with its growing role in Syria, Libya, and its relations with Iran, Turkey, and Egypt, has established itself as an indispensable player in peace processes and conflict management. This complicates the United States' efforts to maintain a regional order shaped by the United States; *(3) The fragmentation of traditional U.S. alliances:* Faced with pressure from alternatives from China and Russia, many of America's regional allies - especially the Gulf states - have pursued a strategy of "multilateralization" of their foreign relations. This has weakened the cohesion of the US-GCC security alliance axis and reduced the U.S. ability to mobilize consensus on key issues such as sanctioning Iran, stabilizing Syria, or combating regional terrorism.

Faced with that situation, the U.S. has implemented many policies to reduce the growing influence of China and Russia in the region. The U.S. has forced the UAE to remove Huawei equipment from important projects, while providing clean energy and technology alternatives to its regional allies. At the same time, the U.S. has imposed sanctions on Russia (due to the Russia-Ukraine conflict) to limit Russia's ability to expand its influence in the region. Although the U.S. has maintained its leadership in the security field in the Middle East to date, the growing economic and technological presence of China and Russia continues to be a long-term challenge to U.S. influence in the Middle East.

4. Efforts to Solve Regional Problems

The Biden administration has prioritized diplomacy to resolve conflicts like the Gaza war and Iran's nuclear program, but with limited success.

4.1. The Israel-Palestine Conflict and the Two-State Solution

Under Biden, the U.S. has attempted to revive peace talks and reaffirmed its commitment to the solution. However, major obstacles remain, including Israeli settlement expansion, internal divisions among Palestinian factions, and instability in the Gaza Strip.

The two-state solution has long been seen as one of the most viable approaches to resolving the Israeli-Palestinian conflict. The Biden government focused on diplomacy as a main tool to deal with the Gaza conflict. These efforts revolved around short-term goals such as ceasefire and humanitarian support, and towards long-term goals such as two-state solution.

The U.S. has actively participated in ceasefire efforts through negotiations with regional and international partners like Qatar and Egypt. Thanks to the intermediary of the U.S., in November 2023, a temporary the ceasefire agreement was achieved, allowing more than 100 Israeli and Palestinian hostages. In May 2024, President Biden announced a three-stage plan to link ceasefire with Gaza rebuilding and promote the two-state solution. However, this plan faced opposition from both Israel and Hamas, leading to incomplete implementation. In addition, the U.S. has led international efforts to provide humanitarian aid, including food, drinking water, and medicine for the people of Gaza. Typically, the U.S. built a temporary wharf on the Gaza coast to transfer aid, but this project was interrupted due to war conditions. The U.S. has called on Gulf and European countries to fund Gaza reconstruction programs. However, these countries required guarantees that the aid would not fall into Hamas. Despite significant efforts, the U.S. policy for the Gaza War still faces many major challenges. Israel's Netanyahu government maintains a tough stance, refuses to make large concessions to Palestine, and enhances the expansion of settlements in the West Bank. On the other hand, Hamas takes advantage of the conflict to strengthen the political position, while the Palestinian government in the West is considered weak and has lost the trust of the people.

Saudi Arabia's aim for normalization of relations with Israel also shows a complex geopolitical problem, where economic, security and religious engines are interwoven. Mohammed bin Salman (MBS), with a strategic vision, is aware that cooperation with Israel can bring important benefits, from technology transfer, economic investment to defense modernization and effective support for the goal of diversifying the economy in Vision 2030. However, the special role of Saudi Arabia in the Islamic world, with the responsibility to protect the two most sacred holy lands, puts the country under great pressure in maintaining Palestine support. Normalization of relationships without guaranteeing any meaning to Palestinian can threaten the legitimacy of the regime and raise strong opposition in the public and the Arab world. Hamas's attack on October 7 emphasized not only the deep tension in the Israeli-Palestinian conflict, but also a clear effort to break the mediation process between Israel and Arab countries. In this context, Iran emerged as an important factor, using the Palestine card to increase its influence in the region and weaken the efforts of Saudi Arabia. This increased the risk of Riyadh when walking on the path of normalizing relations with Israel. In this situation, the Biden government faced a challenging task: both promoting the regional mediation process, while ensuring the security benefits of Saudi Arabia and not eroding the Palestinian rights. This balance is not only the key to stable maintenance in the Middle East but also a decisive factor for the prestige and leadership of the U.S. in this turbulent area.

4.2. Iran Nuclear Agreement

The relationship with Iran is one of Biden's policies in the Middle East. The Biden government sought to restore the nuclear agreement (JCPOA) to curb Iran's nuclear program. However, the negotiation process faced many difficulties, including objections from Israel and the Gulf allies, along with tense escalating moves from Iran.

Earlier, the Trump administration withdrew from JCPOA in 2018 on the grounds of concerns about the effectiveness and activities in the region of Iran. However, Biden expressed his commitment to diplomacy and multilateralism, considering JCPOA as a potential framework to resolve Iran's nuclear program and reduce stress. Since taking office, the Biden government has participated in indirect negotiations with Iran in Vienna to negotiate the possibility of returning to JCPOA (Cook & Indodyk, 2022). These discussions aim to find the way for both the U.S. and Iran to fulfill their obligations as agreed. The goal is to achieve a solution accepted by the parties to solve concerns about Iran's nuclear program and provide measures to mitigate sanctions on Iran. By re-joining JCPOA, the Biden administration also sought to restore diplomatic channels with Iran and create the foundation for the next negotiations on other regional issues. On the side of Iran, under the leadership of President Ebrahim Raisi, the country also applied a tough stance in negotiations, requiring the U.S. to remove all sanctions and provide legal guarantees. The reason was that the U.S. would not withdraw the agreement in the future. At the same time, Tehran also wanted a mechanism to verify the removal of sanctions before re-making nuclear commitments increase uranium enrichment to a high level and expand the nuclear program as a strategy of pressure on the negotiating parties. Tehran also sought to strengthen relations with U.S. rivals like Russia and China to reduce dependence on the West, complicating U.S. diplomatic efforts.

However, the negotiations are very complicated and there are still significant challenges in achieving a comprehensive agreement to satisfy all stakeholders, especially Saudi and Israel, the U.S. long-term ally in the area. Saudi Arabia was cautious with JCPOA and expressed concern about its effectiveness in restraining Iran’s nuclear ambition. Saudi Arabia has long considered Iran as a rival in the region and concerned about Iran's instability activities in the Middle East. The U.S. return to JCPOA will also create tensions between the U.S. and Saudi Arabia, especially Saudi Arabia and Israel, which is the U.S. ally in the Iranian issue. Israel is a country with a resolute stance against JCPOA, considering it a direct threat to national security (AlAlkim, 2022). The administration of Prime Minister Benjamin Netanyahu (2021-2023) and later the successor governments repeatedly criticized the agreement, said that JCPOA was not strong enough to prevent Iran’s nuclear ambition. Israel has concerned that JCPOA only limited Iran's nuclear program in the short term without resolving military activities and supported Iran's armed groups in the area like Hezbollah and Houthi. Israel put pressure on parliamentarians in the U.S. Congress to prevent the restoration of JCPOA (Hoang, 2024). This caused the Biden government to adjust the strategy, balance the maintenance of relations with the Israeli Allies and achieve diplomatic goals. On the other hand, American politics has been deeply polarized on JCPOA. The recovery of the agreement has encountered strong opposition from Republicans and a number of Democratic Party members (AlAlkim, 2022). The Republican Party considers JCPOA as a weak agreement, saying that the removal of sanctions will create conditions for Iran to increase its instability activities.

Facing that situation, the Biden government reviewed alternatives, as a temporary agreement to freeze Iran’s nuclear activities in exchange for sanctions. However, both Iran and its opposition in the U.S. did not accept this plan. The effort to restore JCPOA from President Joe Biden had encountered many complex obstacles from Israel, U.S. political internal politics, and Iran’s tough stance. Despite significant diplomatic efforts, political and strategic factors have slowed down this process. In order to reach an agreement, the U.S. needs to adjust the strategy, including building trust, strengthening cooperation with international partners, and balancing security and political benefits. However, the current situation shows that the ability to reach a comprehensive JCPOA agreement is still far away.

4.3. The War in Syria, Yemen

The U.S. policy under President Joe Biden for prolonged conflicts in Syria and Yemen reflected the change from the direct military intervention approach to a diplomatic and humanitarian priority. The Biden government focused on three main goals: reducing stress, reducing the humanitarian crisis, and curbing the influence of rival forces like Iran and Russia.

The Syrian conflict was seen as a double crisis: both a civil war with the intervention of external factors and an international war against terrorism (AlAlkim, 2022). Immediately after coming to power, President Biden launched Syrian airstrikes. The U.S. air strike on February 26th, 2021 was aimed at one of the most powerful Iranian militia forces in the Middle East, called Kateeeb Hezbollah, or Hezbollah Brigade (Al Jazeera, 2023). This force was a branch of the popular mobilization group with the majority of members of the Iraqi militia. The first action showed that Joe Biden's tough approach for the purpose of deterring Iran in the process of the U.S. took steps to resume the JCPOA agreement. Later, in June 2021, the U.S. also decided to attack arms operating and storage facilities at two locations in Syria and one location in Iraq. After the area near the Syrian military base was occupied by U.S. soldiers who were stationed in the Rocket series, on August 23rd, 2022, President Joe Biden ordered an airstrike against Iran-backed groups in Syria (Monshiri & Dorraj, 2023). The aforementioned U.S. move also took place in the context of Iran's announcement that it would give up some claims in exchange for the revival of the JCPOA agreement. From the beginning, the U.S. hesitated to bring troops into Syria, which would cause the U.S. to be bogged down as in the war in Afghanistan. Therefore, the role of Americans in Syria has certain limits. However, the U.S. did not withdraw from Syria with the calculations related to the localities and restrained the role of Russia and Iran, China here. The U.S. presence in Syria was to defeat IS. However, although IS was defeated, the U.S. still has many challenges in Syria from Russia, Iran, the President of Assad and Turkey - a U.S. NATO ally. The U.S. retained about 900 soldiers in northeastern Syria to support Syrian Democratic Forces in the fight against ISIS (Katulis et al., 2024). This presence aimed to prevent the revival of terrorism and protect the oil fields in the area. The Biden government continued to apply sanctions against the Assad government through the Caesar Act, in order to limit the financial resources to the Syrian government and put pressure to promote the peace process. The U.S. policy in Syria under Biden was mainly more preventive than thorough resolution. Although the U.S. maintained its military presence and continued to put pressure on the Assad government, the peace process was still stagnant, and the humanitarian crisis showed no signs of reduction. The situation in Syria is increasingly complicated and becomes deadlocked when the parties have not been able to offer a harmonious solution for all. The U.S. is still one side in this crisis and the competition between the U.S. and Russia in Syria still exists (Hoang, 2024). This dilemma of the U.S. in Syria is also a typical feature of the current U.S. situation in the Middle East.

The war in Yemen began in 2015 between the international government of Yemen, backed by Saudi Arabia, and Houthi forces, supported by Iran (Kelsey et al, 2021). This is considered one of the most serious humanitarian crises in the world, with millions of people facing hunger and epidemic. Immediately after taking office, Biden announced that the U.S. would not support Saudi Arabia's attacking activities in Yemen, including providing weapons and intelligence support (Katulis, 2023). This marked an important change compared to the Trump administration's policy. Biden appointed Tim Lenderking as the U.S. Special Envoy for Yemen, focusing on diplomatic efforts to achieve a comprehensive ceasefire (Katulis, 2023). However, the Houthi forces continued to carry out missile and drone attacks on Saudi Arabia and the UAE, causing regional tensions. Besides, even though they are fighting the Houthis, Saudi Arabia and the UAE still have conflicts over strategic goals in Yemen, making peace efforts difficult. Thus, it can be seen that Biden's policy in Yemen has achieved some progress, including reducing the intensity of the conflict and promoting humanitarian aid. However, sustainable peace has not been achieved, as the warring parties continue to pursue their own interests.

4.4. Relations With Allies in the Region

First of all, it is important to recognize that the U.S. remains one of the most influential powers in the Middle East, with strategic alliances with countries such as Israel and Saudi Arabia. The Biden administration has continued to maintain security commitments and military support for Israel, clearly demonstrated through troop deployments and military aid (Hoang, 2024). This is not only to protect U.S. interests in the region but also to maintain the U.S. position in the confrontation with terrorist forces and hostile countries such as Iran.

However, Biden's approach has also faced criticism and challenges (AlAlkim, 2022). His foreign policy is aimed at not only protecting U.S. interests but also promoting democratic values and human rights. This has led to tensions with regional allies, especially Saudi Arabia. Recently, Joe Biden has made adjustments to strengthen relations with allied countries here, especially Israel and Saudi Arabia. President Biden's trip to the Middle East to consolidate the important role of the U.S. has resolved many diplomatic issues as well as opened up prospects for economic, scientific and technological cooperation for all parties and achieved certain results in "warming up" relations with key allies, expanding cooperation with countries in the region (Katulis et al., 2024). However, it should be frankly admitted that, currently, the U.S. focuses its foreign policy on the Indo-Pacific, so its resources with the Middle East have decreased significantly. The competition between China and Russia here has also partly caused Middle Eastern countries to have certain choices and adjustments in their policies towards the U.S., so it seems that the Middle East is increasingly moving away from the U.S.

The U.S. faces a lack of trust from Iran and suspicion from its Arab allies. America's oil-centered involvement in the Middle East is becoming less strategically important as the U.S. aims to become the leading exporter of oil and gas. Recent adjustments in U.S. foreign policy have led countries in the Middle East to share the perception that it is difficult for the U.S. to fulfill its commitments to the region. Israel and Arab countries, including Saudi Arabia and the UAE, are also finding that current U.S. policies are not strong enough to prevent threats from Iran.

4.5. Humanitarian Issues in the Region

The humanitarian issue in the Middle East is one of the most serious challenges in U.S. foreign policy under President Joe Biden (Samantha, 2023). The Biden administration has attempted to put humanitarian issues at the center of its strategy, but its results have been limited by complex conflicts and political challenges.

The U.S. is the largest donor of humanitarian aid in Syria, with billions of dollars provided through international organizations such as the United Nations and the Red Cross (Katulis et al., 2024). In Yemen, the Biden administration has committed more than $1 billion in humanitarian aid to Yemen, including food, water, and medical assistance. In Gaza, after the 2023 Gaza war, the U.S. has provided hundreds of millions of dollars to rebuild infrastructure and provide humanitarian aid to the people of Gaza. The U.S. has coordinated with the United Nations to extend resolutions allowing cross-border aid from Türkiye into opposition-held areas, despite opposition from Russia. The U.S. has called on Saudi Arabia and the Houthis to open aid routes, especially in blockaded areas. The Biden administration has increased the refugee admissions quota to 125,000 people per year, partly for refugees from the Middle East, to address conflict-related displacement. The U.S. funds United Nations programs such as the World Food Programme (WFP) and the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR) (Katulis et al., 2024). Therefore, humanitarian issues in the Middle East have been a priority for U.S. foreign policy under Joe Biden, with a focus on aid, diplomacy, and refugee assistance. While significant progress has been made, major challenges such as protracted conflicts, lack of funding, and obstruction from rival forces continue to undermine the effectiveness of these efforts. To achieve lasting results, the U.S. must strengthen international cooperation, address the root causes of conflicts, and maintain a high level of commitment to humanitarian assistance.

5. Assessing the Impact of Biden's Foreign Policy in the Middle East and Forecasting

President Joe Biden’s foreign policy in the Middle East has had profound implications, both regionally and internationally.

On a regional scale, by prioritizing diplomacy and reducing the direct military presence, the Biden administration has maintained some stability in traditional alliances while encouraging regional leadership from countries like Saudi Arabia. However, long-standing tensions, particularly the Israeli-Palestinian conflict and Iran’s nuclear program, remain unresolved. This leaves the regional security landscape fragile, with many potential risks that could spark a crisis.

Biden’s “diplomacy first” policy has created space for Middle Eastern countries - especially Saudi Arabia and the UAE - to take a more proactive role in leading reconciliation initiatives and shaping the regional order. This policy reflects a shift from the U.S. “direct management” model to soft coordination through regional partners, thereby maintaining minimal stability without deep military intervention. Although Biden has pledged to strengthen alliances with Israel, Saudi Arabia, and the Gulf states, several steps - such as criticizing human rights, withdrawing defensive weapons from Saudi Arabia in 2021, or hesitating to respond to Iran - have shaken strategic trust between the US and its allies. Typically, Saudi Arabia’s temporary move towards China and Russia in the fields of oil, defense, and technology, or Israel’s opposition to the U.S. renegotiation of the nuclear deal with Iran, shows strategic divisions even among key allies.

The Biden administration has yet to find a breakthrough solution for hot spots such as the Israel-Palestine conflict and Iran's nuclear program. Thus, Biden's caution helps avoid falling into a “military quagmire”, but is not strong enough to create a strategic breakthrough, leaving the regional security situation still fraught with many risks.

On a global scale, the U.S. strategic pivot to the Indo-Pacific region to counter China has marked a major shift in geopolitics. However, this shift has also created a power vacuum in the Middle East, opening the way for Russia and China to increase their influence through economic, energy, and security cooperation initiatives. This not only challenges the traditional role of the U.S. in the region but also complicates an already unstable balance of power. Besides, Biden's policy tries to combine the protection of geopolitical interests (security stability, control of oil, protection of Israel) with democratic values and human rights. However, this combination creates contradictions in U.S. actions. Despite some progress in reducing tensions and promoting security cooperation, Biden’s policy still faces the difficult task of balancing strategic interests with national values. The ability to maintain U.S. presence and credibility in the Middle East will depend on its ability to coordinate effectively with regional partners to ensure long-term stability while not undermining its global standing in the context of increasingly fierce great power competition.

Now, with the re-election of Donald Trump, based on the results left by the Biden administration as well as how Trump implemented foreign policy in the previous term regarding the Middle East region, U.S. foreign policy in the Middle East may have new adjustments as follows:

- First, Trump can continue to pursue an "America First" agenda that focuses on economic gains, reduces long-term military commitments, and pushes for symbolic deals that strengthen Washington's position. One of the top priorities could be expanding the Abraham Accords, particularly with the goal of normalizing relations between Israel and Saudi Arabia. Although this move promises to generate significant strategic and economic benefits, the lack of significant concessions to Palestine could expose the process to many obstacles from both within and outside the region.

- Second, a tough policy toward Iran will continue to be a key feature of Trump's second term. A revival of the "maximum pressure" strategy through economic sanctions and diplomatic isolation is likely to be prioritized to curb Tehran's nuclear program and reduce its regional influence. However, this policy also carries the risk of escalating the conflict, especially as Iran maintains support for militant groups such as Hezbollah and the Houthis, and continues to expand its influence in hotspots such as Iraq, Syria, and Yemen.

- Third, militarily, Trump can continue the trend of reducing direct presence in the Middle East, to save defense costs and reallocate resources to priorities in dealing with China in the Indo-Pacific region. In this context, the U.S. can promote cooperation with regional allies such as Saudi Arabia, Israel, and the UAE, expecting them to take on a larger role in maintaining regional security. However, this downsizing also risks creating a power vacuum, allowing other powers such as Russia and China to increase their influence.

- Fourth, in terms of economic interests, Trump is likely to focus on bilateral trade and energy deals, promoting arms exports and strengthening energy cooperation to stabilize oil prices. At the same time, he may increase pressure on Gulf states to limit cooperation with China, especially in sensitive areas such as technology and strategic infrastructure. However, this could also complicate U.S. relations with European allies, which have traditionally taken a softer approach to Iran and supported multilateral trade.

- Overall, with his new term beginning in January 2025, Trump's Middle East policy will continue to focus on pragmatic goals that emphasize short-term U.S. interests but may increase instability in the long term. Unresolved conflicts, great power competition, and the risk of humanitarian crises will continue to pose major challenges to this policy. Trump's success or failure in a second term will depend on his ability to balance U.S. strategic interests with the need for long-term stability in the region.

6. Conclusion

U.S. foreign policy in the Middle East under President Joe Biden reflects a balancing act between diplomacy and strategy, with a focus on reducing military presence, promoting regional cooperation, and addressing humanitarian challenges. The Biden administration has made some progress, in promoting normalization of relations between Israel and Arab states, strengthening regional security networks, and reducing tensions in hotspots such as Yemen and Syria. However, persistent challenges, such as the Israeli-Palestinian conflict, Iran's nuclear program, and the growing influence of major powers, such as China and Russia, continue to complicate the situation in the region. On the international stage, the strategic shift to the Indo-Pacific region has emphasized the U.S. geopolitical priorities, but has also left a power vacuum in the Middle East, creating opportunities for rivals to increase their presence. Although Biden's policy maintains U.S. leadership on security and humanitarian issues, limiting direct involvement in key conflicts prevents the U.S. from addressing the root causes of instability.

The future of U.S. foreign policy in the Middle East, which will most likely be under

President Trump, will depend on the ability to balance strategic interests and national values in a volatile regional context. To achieve long-term stability, the U.S. must continue to work closely with regional partners and develop comprehensive solutions to protracted conflicts and humanitarian crises. These efforts will not only shape the Middle East landscape but also profoundly affect the U.S. global role and position in the decades to come.

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TEACHERS' EXPERIENCES AND PERCEPTIONS OF USING CHATGPT IN WRITING INSTRUCTION

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Abstract: While several studies have explored teachers' experiences and perceptions of using ChatGPT in English as a foreign language teaching, little research has examined its role in French writing instruction. This study aims to investigate how French teachers at high schools and universities in Vietnam utilise ChatGPT for teaching essay writing, as well as its perceived benefits and challenges. Quantitative data were collected through an online 42-item questionnaire completed by 53 teachers who used ChatGPT in essay writing courses. Descriptive statistical analysis using SPSS 26 reveals that the most common applications of ChatGPT before lessons included generating outlines, creating essay samples, and finding reading materials. During lesson implementation, teachers primarily encouraged students to avoid excessive reliance on ChatGPT when writing their essays while allowing them to use it for generating outlines. In assessment, the most reported practices involved integrating writing tasks into ChatGPT prompts, correcting errors the AI failed to detect, and requiring students to revise their essays based on ChatGPT's feedback. However, the findings indicate that ChatGPT was rarely used for generating grammar and vocabulary exercises or creating essay topics. Teachers also tended to avoid using ChatGPT for grading or requiring students to analyse ChatGPT's feedback. Teachers recognised its benefits, such as saving time in lesson preparation, providing instant feedback, and facilitating students' access to reading materials, but expressed concerns about risks related to academic dishonesty and the inaccuracy of ChatGPT-generated feedback. To enhance the effective use of ChatGPT in writing instruction, professional training is necessary, particularly in prompt engineering and AI-supported grammar and vocabulary instruction.

Keywords: writing instruction, teachers' perceptions, using ChatGPT, ChatGPT's benefits, ChatGPT's challenges

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KINH NGHIỆM VÀ NHẬN THỨC CỦA GIÁO VIÊN VỀ VIỆC SỬ DỤNG CHATGPT TRONG DẠY VIẾT

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Tóm tắt: Mặc dù đã có một vài nghiên cứu tiến hành khảo sát kinh nghiệm và nhận thức của giáo viên về việc sử dụng ChatGPT trong giảng dạy tiếng Anh, vẫn còn ít nghiên cứu tập trung vào vai trò của ChatGPT trong dạy viết tiếng Pháp. Nghiên cứu này nhằm tìm hiểu cách giáo viên tiếng Pháp sử dụng ChatGPT trong dạy viết luận, cũng như nhận thức của giáo viên về những lợi ích và thách thức của trí tuệ nhân tạo (AI). 53 giáo viên có kinh nghiệm sử dụng ChatGPT trong dạy viết luận đã trả lời bảng hỏi trực tuyến gồm 42 câu hỏi. Phân tích thống kê mô tả bằng SPSS 26 cho thấy ChatGPT thường được dùng để tạo dàn ý bài luận, soạn thảo bài mẫu và tìm kiếm tài liệu đọc khi soạn bài. Trong quá trình giảng dạy, giáo viên nhắc học sinh không dùng ChatGPT để viết bài hộ nhưng cho phép sử dụng để xây dựng dàn ý. Khi chữa bài viết, giáo viên thường tích hợp đề bài vào trong câu lệnh, chỉnh sửa lỗi mà AI không phát hiện được, và yêu cầu học sinh sửa bài dựa trên phản hồi của ChatGPT. Tuy nhiên, ChatGPT ít được dùng để tạo bài tập ngữ pháp, từ vựng hoặc chấm điểm bài luận. Giáo viên đánh giá cao ChatGPT vì giúp tiết kiệm thời gian chuẩn bị bài giảng, cung cấp phản hồi nhanh chóng và hỗ trợ tìm kiếm tài liệu. Tuy nhiên, họ cũng bày tỏ lo ngại về gian lận học thuật và tính chính xác của phản hồi do AI tạo ra. Để sử dụng hiệu quả ChatGPT trong dạy viết, nghiên cứu khuyến nghị cần tổ chức tập huấn chuyên môn, đặc biệt là trong việc tạo câu lệnh chính xác và ứng dụng AI để soạn bài tập ngữ pháp và từ vựng.

Từ khóa: dạy viết, nhận thức của giáo viên, sử dụng ChatGPT, lợi thế của ChatGPT, hạn chế của ChatGPT

1. Introduction

The rapid development of artificial intelligence (AI), a recurring topic in the press (Nguyen, 2024), has led to significant transformations in education, particularly in language teaching. Among the AI-powered tools, ChatGPT has gained substantial attention for its ability to generate human-like text, assist in lesson planning, facilitate classroom interaction, and provide automated assessment (Barrot, 2023; Baskara, 2023; Fokides & Peristeraki, 2024). As language teachers increasingly explore the integration of AI into their instructional practices, it is crucial to understand their uses and perceptions of ChatGPT's potential benefits and challenges.

Many studies about writing instruction have pointed out that ChatGPT can significantly reduce teachers' workload by assisting in content creation, generating diverse lesson ideas, and providing instant feedback to students (Elsayary, 2023; Fang et al., 2023; Nugroho et al., 2024; Su et al., 2023; Wu et al., 2023). It also has the potential to personalise learning by adapting responses to individual student needs (Kasneci et al., 2023; Kavak et al., 2024). However, critics caution against potential drawbacks, for example: students' misuse of ChatGPT for assignments, ethical concerns related to plagiarism, and the risk of AI replacing essential cognitive skills such as critical thinking and problem-solving (Elsayary, 2023; Iqbal et al., 2022;

Nguyen T. T. H., 2023; Nguyen T. C., 2023). Understanding Vietnamese teachers' perspectives is, therefore, vital for integrating ChatGPT effectively into language education in our country.

Given this context, this study aims to investigate teachers' experiences and perceptions of ChatGPT in French writing instruction in Vietnam, focusing on three key aspects: its use in lesson planning, classroom implementation, and assessment. The article also describes the advantages and challenges teachers face when they employ ChatGPT in foreign language teaching.

2. Literature Review

2.1. Theoretical Framework

This study is grounded on two theoretical models: The Model of School Didactics (Uljens, 2004) and the Technology Acceptance Model 2 (TAM2) (Venkatesh & Davis, 2000). These frameworks provide a structured approach to understanding the way teachers interact with ChatGPT in pedagogical contexts and the factors influencing their adoption of this technology.

2.1.1. The Model of School Didactics

Uljens' Model of School Didactics (2004) presents a reflective framework for understanding pedagogical practice in three interconnected components: Planning, Realisation, and Evaluation. This model is widely used in education research to analyse instructional design and teaching methods. In this study, it serves as a lens through which teachers' use of ChatGPT in lesson planning, implementation, and assessment can be examined. Before the lesson, teachers may use ChatGPT to generate writing topics, writing outlines, sample essays, vocabulary, and grammar exercises, to find documents related to writing topics. During the lesson, teachers may incorporate ChatGPT-generated materials such as essay topics, outlines, sample texts, and language exercises into classroom activities. After the lesson, teachers may use ChatGPT for generating feedback, assessing ChatGPT's correction, grading essays, etc.

2.1.2. The Technology Acceptance Model 2 (TAM2)

TAM2 (Venkatesh & Davis, 2000) expands on the original Technology Acceptance Model (TAM) by incorporating additional factors that influence the acceptance and adoption of new technologies. The key components include:

- Perceived usefulness: The extent to which teachers believe ChatGPT enhances their teaching effectiveness.

- Perceived ease of use: The degree to which teachers find ChatGPT accessible.

- Social influence: The impact of peer and institutional attitudes on teachers' willingness to adopt ChatGPT.

- Job relevance: The degree to which teachers perceive ChatGPT as applicable to their instructional needs.

- Output quality: Teachers' assessment of the accuracy and reliability of ChatGPT-generated content.

- Result demonstrability: Teachers' ability to see tangible benefits from using ChatGPT in their teaching practices.

Our study focuses on two components: output quality and perceived usefulness of ChatGPT. The factor "Social influence" was not included in our questionnaire because the Vietnamese government and institutions show strong support for the integration of artificial intelligence in education. By applying TAM2, this study aims to identify the factors that facilitate or hinder the adoption of ChatGPT among language teachers.

2.2. Previous Studies Investigating Teachers' Perception on the Use of ChatGPT

Several recent studies have explored teachers' experiences with ChatGPT in different educational contexts.

Nguyen T. T. H (2023) explored EFL teachers' perspectives on the use of ChatGPT in writing instruction at Van Lang University. The study sought to understand how instructors integrated ChatGPT into their teaching practices, their perceptions of its benefits and challenges, and their recommendations for its effective implementation. Nguyen T. T. H. (2023) adopted a mixed-methods approach, combining quantitative and qualitative data collection. Quantitative data were gathered via an online questionnaire distributed to 20 EFL instructors who had integrated ChatGPT into their teaching, while qualitative data were obtained from structured interviews with ten selected instructors. The questionnaire contained 39 questions divided into two sections: demographic information and perceptions of ChatGPT usage in teaching writing. Structured interviews provided in-depth perspectives on the instructors' experiences, concerns, and recommendations. Statistical analyses were conducted using SPSS 26, employing descriptive statistics and Cronbach's Alpha. The questionnaire comprised 34 questions categorised into three themes: (1) instructors' experiences with ChatGPT in language teaching, (2) attitudes towards its use in writing instruction, and (3) recommendations for its implementation. Quantitative results indicated that ChatGPT was primarily used for lesson planning and generating learning materials. However, instructors showed neutrality in using it for grading student papers or creating exercises. Despite these advantages, concerns were raised about students' over-reliance on ChatGPT and issues related to academic integrity. A significant majority (75%) believed that ChatGPT positively influenced students' writing skills, grammar, and vocabulary. The qualitative findings echoed these results, with instructors who affirmed ChatGPT's usefulness in accessing diverse learning materials. They also acknowledged its potential to enhance students' engagement and reduce teachers' workload. However, concerns about students' dependency and ethical issues persisted. The study offers valuable insights into ChatGPT's role in EFL instruction, particularly in writing classes. The mixed-methods ensured a deeper comprehension. Nevertheless, limitations exist. The small sample size (20 instructors) restricted the generalizability of results. It is worth mentioning that some items in the questionnaire, as well as some results analysis were redundant. In addition, the use of ChatGPT in writing courses was not divided into 3 stages: Planning, Realisation, and Evaluation.

Nguyen T. C. (2023) examined Vietnamese university teachers' knowledge of ChatGPT, their perceived benefits of its integration, and the challenges they associated with its use. To collect empirical data, a quantitative approach was adopted. An online questionnaire (14 close-ended questions and some open-ended questions) was administered to 43 English teachers across multiple Vietnamese universities. The survey explored three key aspects: teachers' knowledge of ChatGPT, its perceived utility in teaching and assessment, and the challenges and limitations linked to its application. A simple random sampling method was employed to select participants, but SPSS was not used for data analysis. The findings indicated that 93% of participants correctly identified ChatGPT as a language model capable of text generation. However, misconceptions persisted, as 81.4% believed that ChatGPT was supported by a continuously updated database, while 41.9% mistakenly assumed that it functioned similarly to a search engine. Regarding perceived usefulness, 81.4% of teachers acknowledged that ChatGPT could be beneficial if appropriate training was provided.

Furthermore, 48.8% reported that the tool could save time in grading and providing feedback while 39.5% viewed it as a useful self-learning resource for students. Despite these potential advantages, fewer than 50% of respondents recognised ChatGPT as an effective tool for assessment or lesson planning. Nevertheless, the study also underscored several challenges associated with ChatGPT's use in language teaching. A significant proportion of teachers (65.1%) expressed concerns about its potential to facilitate academic dishonesty. 62.8% worried that the tool might lead to increased student laziness while 61.5% questioned the reliability of the information provided by ChatGPT. Moreover, several participants emphasised the necessity of mastering the art of crafting precise prompts to obtain relevant responses from ChatGPT. This study highlighted the ambivalence among Vietnamese university teachers regarding ChatGPT's integration into language education. Some acknowledged its potential to enhance teaching efficiency and student learning but others remained skeptical about its reliability and ethical implications. Moreover, this research demonstrated that misconceptions about ChatGPT persisted, indicating the need for targeted training programs. Although this study provided valuable insights, the relatively small sample size of 43 participants restricted the generalizability of the findings. Additionally, the study did not distinguish between teachers who frequently used ChatGPT and those with only superficial knowledge of the tool.

The study of Cetin et al. (2024) explored the perceptions of school principals and teachers regarding the use of ChatGPT in education. It aimed to uncover their attitudes toward AI-based tools and their views on its benefits and challenges. The research gathered data from 80 school principals and teachers selected from public primary, secondary, and high schools in Türkiye. Data collection was conducted through semi-structured interviews, and responses were analysed using qualitative content analysis techniques. Responses were categorised into themes such as efficiency, instructional benefits, time management, ethical concerns, and data reliability. The findings revealed that school principals and teachers generally had a positive perception of ChatGPT. Many respondents noted that ChatGPT could help streamline workload, assist in content creation, and support student learning through personalised feedback. However, concerns were raised about its potential to weaken students' cognitive skills, encourage academic dishonesty, and provide biased information. To mitigate these risks, participants recommended providing continuous AI literacy training for both teachers and students, ensuring that ChatGPT's data sources are regularly updated and tested for reliability, and implementing guidelines for its responsible use in educational settings. One strength of this study was it incorporated perspectives from different school levels, which enhanced the credibility of its findings. The qualitative approach allowed for an in-depth exploration of educators' experiences and concerns regarding AI integration. However, the reliance on self-reported data from interviews might introduce subjective biases, as participants' responses depend on their familiarity and prior experiences with AI.

Octavio et al. (2024) followed an exploratory single instrumental case study approach, focusing on one English as Foreign Language (EFL) teacher who integrated ChatGPT into her teaching for seven months (January–June 2023) at a private language school in Spain. Data were collected from three sources: (1) the teacher's ChatGPT chat history, documenting her prompting tasks; (2) lesson plans where ChatGPT was implemented; and (3) a semi-structured post-interview with the teacher. A qualitative thematic analysis was conducted to categorise ChatGPT's role in lesson planning, classroom implementation, and assessment. Findings indicate that ChatGPT was highly effective in lesson planning, particularly for designing structured activities, vocabulary extension, and content generation. The teacher initially relied on simple prompts but gradually refined them into a five-step strategy for more specific and pedagogically useful outputs. In-class implementation focused on interactive student engagement, real-time Q&A, vocabulary reinforcement, and guided writing exercises. For assessment, ChatGPT assisted in grading, generating language proficiency tests, and providing structured feedback. However, discrepancies were noted between ChatGPT's scoring and official Cambridge assessment models. Despite its advantages, challenges consisted of occasional inaccuracies, the need for fact-checking, and ethical concerns related to student reliance on AI. The teacher adopted strategies such as cross-referencing information with reputable sources, consulting colleagues, and training students in critical AI literacy. A key strength of this study was its in-depth examination of a real-world application of ChatGPT over an extended period (7 months). The qualitative thematic analysis provided rich insights into prompt optimisation, AI-assisted lesson planning, and pedagogical implications. Moreover, the study highlighted the importance of AI literacy in effectively integrating ChatGPT into language teaching. However, the limitation of this study was that it was based on a single case, restricting its generalizability.

3. Research Questions

Taken together, previous studies on teachers' perceptions of ChatGPT's use show that educators employ this AI-based tool in planning, realising and evaluating writing activities. They admit its benefits but are worried about its possible risks. It is important to note that most studies have been conducted in the context of EFL. Second, the majority of these studies employ qualitative research methodologies, with relatively few quantitative investigations focusing specifically on writing instruction. Third, among the quantitative studies available, the instruments used to assess ChatGPT's role in writing courses have not been developed based on established theoretical frameworks such as the Model of School Didactics (Uljens, 2004) and the Technology Acceptance Model 2 (TAM2) (Venkatesh & Davis, 2000).

Then, our study seeks to answer the following research questions:

(1) How do French teachers at high schools and universities in Vietnam use ChatGPT in essay writing instruction?

(2) What benefits do French teachers at high schools and universities in Vietnam perceive in using ChatGPT?

(3) What challenges do French teachers at high schools and universities in Vietnam identify when incorporating ChatGPT into their essay writing courses?

To explore these questions, this study relies on a questionnaire, structured around a Likert scale, examining teachers' uses and attitudes toward ChatGPT's impact. This study aims to provide a comprehensive understanding of how French teachers at high schools and universities in Vietnam make use of ChatGPT in their writing courses and how they perceive ChatGPT's benefits and challenges.

4. Research Methodology

4.1. Setting of the Study and Participants

This study was conducted in Vietnam and focused specifically on educational contexts in which essay writing is part of the French curriculum. We utilised a quantitative research design through an online survey distributed via Google Forms (see Appendix). The questionnaire was sent to three French departments in Hanoi and to all high schools for gifted children that offer French essay writing instruction. These institutions were selected because they included teachers who regularly engaged in teaching writing and were more likely to experiment with new digital tools. Only teachers who used ChatGPT to teach essay writing were invited to respond to our survey. This criterion was clearly stated in the message accompanying the Google Form link, and was further confirmed through the first question of the questionnaire. A total of 61 responses were collected; however, 8 responses were excluded from the dataset as the respondents indicated that they did not use ChatGPT in writing instruction. Consequently, the final analysis was conducted on 53 valid responses. The sample size of French teachers in Vietnam is relatively small (about 400 teachers), and the number of those who specifically teach writing and incorporate ChatGPT into their instruction is even more limited. This explains why only 53 responses were included in the final dataset.

4.2. Data Collection

The questionnaire adopted a five-point Likert scale (1 = Never, 2 = Rarely, 3 = Sometimes, 4 = Often, 5 = Always) to assess teachers' use (1 = Strongly Disagree, 2 = Disagree, 3 = Neutral, 4 = Agree, 5 = Strongly Agree) and to measure benefits and challenges of ChatGPT in writing instruction. To facilitate comprehension, the questionnaire was administered in Vietnamese. The instrument was structured into two main sections:

Section 1: Demographic information

The first section consisting of four questions a, b, c, d aims at collecting background information about the respondents. These include confirmation of their use of ChatGPT in essay writing instruction, their teaching level (high school or university), age group, and years of teaching experience.

Section 2: Teachers' Use and Perceptions of ChatGPT

The second section is divided into three parts:

Part 1: Teachers' use of ChatGPT in essay writing instruction (24 questions): This part examines how teachers integrate ChatGPT into different stages of writing instruction, including lesson preparation (e.g., generating essay topics, creating sample essays, designing grammar and vocabulary exercises) with 6 questions, in-class writing activities (e.g., allowing students to analyse ChatGPT-generated essays, using ChatGPT for outlining) with 7 questions, and assessment practices (e.g., using ChatGPT for error correction, providing feedback, grading) with 11 questions.

Part 2: Perceived benefits of ChatGPT (7 questions): This part investigates teachers' perceptions of ChatGPT's advantages in essay writing instruction, such as its ability to facilitate lesson planning, provide instant feedback, support language proficiency, and enhance student motivation.

Part 3: Challenges of using ChatGPT (11 questions): This part examines the difficulties teachers encounter when using ChatGPT, for example concerns about over-reliance, academic dishonesty, students' loss of creativity, limitations in feedback quality, and challenges related to digital literacy.

To design the survey, some inspiration was drawn from previous research (Nguyen T. T. H., 2023; Nguyen T. C., 2023) but the questionnaire was developed from the frameworks mentioned in the literature. Part 1 was structured around Uljens' Model of School Didactics (2004) - Planning, Realisation and Evaluation. Parts 2 and 3 were guided by the Technology Acceptance Model 2 (Venkatesh & Davis, 2000), particularly the dimensions of Perceived usefulness and Output quality.

4.3. Data Analysis

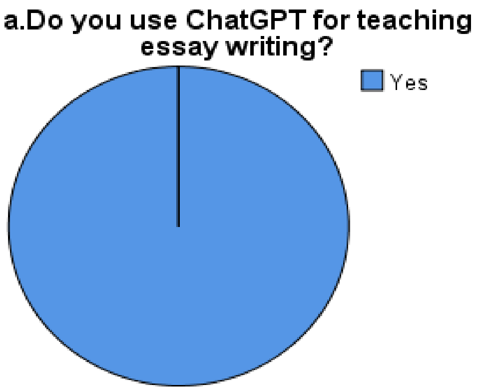
SPSS 26 was employed for data analysis. The reliability of the questionnaire was assessed using Cronbach's alpha, which indicated a strong level of internal consistency (α ranging from 0.81 to 0.9). Descriptive statistical analyses were conducted to summarise the data.

5. Results

5.1. Demographic Information on Respondents

Figure 1

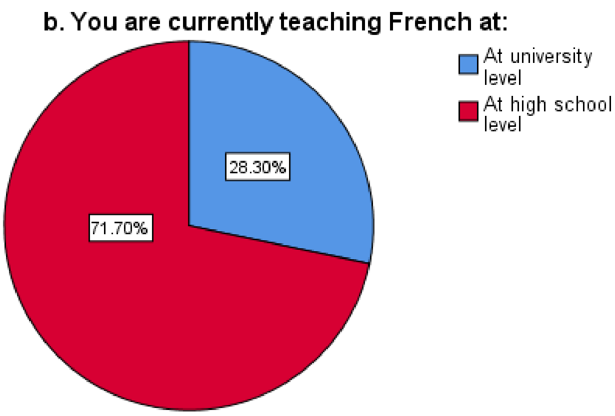
Teachers's Use of ChatGPT



As shown in Figure 1, 100% of the respondents reported using ChatGPT for teaching essay writing, as those who did not were excluded from the data.

Figure 2

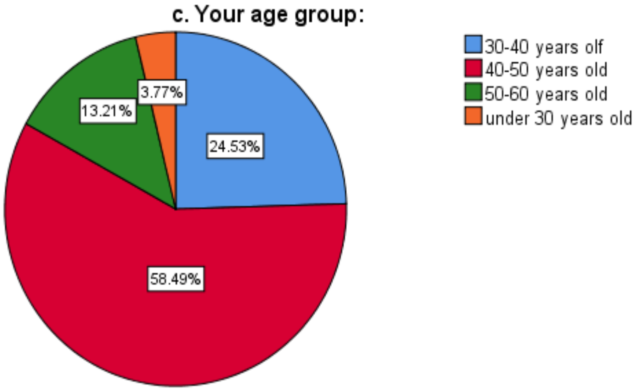
Respondents' Teaching Level



As shown in Figure 2, the majority of the participants (71.7%) have been teaching at the high school level, while 28.3% at the university level. This distribution can be explained by the fact that most French high school teachers in Vietnam work in schools for gifted pupils, where nearly all of them are required to teach essay writing to prepare students for the national exam for gifted students. In contrast, at the university level, only a limited number of teachers are in charge of writing courses.

Figure 3

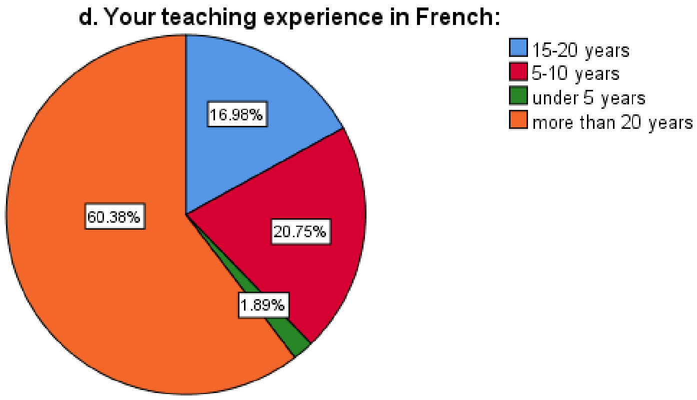
Respondents' Age Group



Regarding age distribution, more than half of the respondents (58.49%) were between 40 and 50 years old. A quarter of the participants (24.53%) were in the 30-40 age group, while teachers aged 50–60 accounted for 13.21%. Young teachers under 30 years old represented only 3,77% of the sample.

Figure 4

Respondents' Teaching Experience



As we can see in Figure 4, in terms of teaching experience, more than half of the participants (60.38%) have been teaching French for more than 20 years, while 20.75% had 5–10 years of experience. 16.98% of the respondents have been teaching for 15-20 years, and only 1.89% had less than 5 years of teaching experience. As teaching writing is a complex task, it is usually assigned to experienced teachers.

5.2. Teachers' Use of ChatGPT in Essay Writing Instruction

Table 1

Teachers' Use of ChatGPT for Lesson Preparation

	N	Min	Max	Mean	SD
4. I use ChatGPT to create essay outlines.	53	1	5	3.58	.989
2. I use ChatGPT to create essay samples.	53	1	5	3.30	1.067
3. I use ChatGPT to find reading materials that help students generate ideas for their essays.	53	1	5	3.00	1.193

	N	Min	Max	Mean	SD
1. I use ChatGPT to generate essay topics.	53	1	5	2.89	1.013
6. I use ChatGPT to generate vocabulary exercises for essay writing.	53	1	4	2.72	1.099
5. I use ChatGPT to generate exercises for practicing grammatical structures in essays.	53	1	5	2.66	1.073

Table 2

Teachers' Use of ChatGPT for Lesson Implementation

	N	Min	Max	Mean	SD
13. I instruct students not to ask ChatGPT to compose the essay for them.	53	1	5	3.49	1.589
10. I allow students to use ChatGPT to create their essay outlines.	53	1	5	3.25	.998
9. I allow students to use ChatGPT to find additional reading materials on the assigned topic.	53	1	5	2.70	1.367
8. I ask students to analyse essay samples written by ChatGPT.	53	1	4	2.64	1.145
7. I assign essay topics generated by ChatGPT to students.	53	1	5	2.45	1.153
12. I assign vocabulary exercises for essay writing generated by ChatGPT.	53	1	5	2.32	1.105
11. I assign grammar exercises for essay writing generated by ChatGPT.	53	1	5	2.26	1.211

Table 3

Teachers' Use of ChatGPT for Essay Assessment

	N	Min	Max	Mean	SD
16. I include the writing task in my ChatGPT prompts for assessment.	53	1	5	3.30	1.339
22. I focus on correcting errors that ChatGPT failed to detect in students' essays.	53	1	5	3.28	1.215
23. I ask students to rewrite their essays based on ChatGPT's feedback.	53	1	5	3.02	1.337
24. I review and corrected students' revised essays based on ChatGPT's feedback.	53	1	5	2.98	1.201
17. I include assessment criteria in my ChatGPT prompts.	53	1	5	2.94	1.406
14. I allow students to use ChatGPT to correct their essays.	53	1	5	2.94	1.322
21. I help students identify incorrect feedback made by ChatGPT and guided them in making proper revisions.	53	1	5	2.89	1.171
18. I ask ChatGPT to provide feedback on the strengths and weaknesses of students' essays.	53	1	5	2.81	1.316
15. I provide students with specific prompts to ask ChatGPT to correct their writing.	53	1	5	2.68	1.425
20. I require students to analyse ChatGPT's feedback on their writing.	53	1	5	2.62	1.289
19. I ask ChatGPT to assign a grade to the essays.	53	1	5	2.36	1.178

Tables 1, 2, and 3 illustrate how teachers integrated ChatGPT into lesson planning, lesson implementation, and assessment. All questions have a minimum value of 1 (never) and a maximum value of 5 (always), highlighting the significant variation in ChatGPT usage among teachers. This indicates that while some educators frequently engaged with ChatGPT, many of the practices mentioned in the questionnaire remained unfamiliar to certain participants. Despite this variability, the mean values range from 2.26 to 3.58, suggesting that French teachers on average made a moderate and selective use of ChatGPT in their writing classes. This pattern reflects both the diversity of individual practices and the general tendency toward active adoption of AI in the classroom.

Regarding lesson planning, the most common applications of ChatGPT included creating essay outlines (M=3.58), generating sample essays (M=3.30), and identifying reading materials to support students in generating ideas for their essays (M=3.00). During lesson implementation, teachers most frequently instructed students not to ask ChatGPT to write the essay for them (M=3.49) and allowed students to use ChatGPT for creating essay outlines (M=3.25). In terms of assessment, the most prevalent practices comprised incorporating the writing task in ChatGPT prompts (M=3.30), correcting errors that ChatGPT fails to detect in students' essays (M=3.28), and requiring students to revise their essays based on ChatGPT's feedback (M=3.02).

On the other hand, the less common uses of ChatGPT in lesson planning involved generating grammatical exercises (M=2.66), vocabulary exercises (M=2.72) and generating essay topics (M=2.89). Teachers also appeared less likely to assign grammar and vocabulary exercises generated by ChatGPT to students (M=2.26 and M=2.32) as well as to assign essay topics generated by ChatGPT to students (M=2.45). Regarding assessment, teachers did not frequently rely on ChatGPT to assign grades to essays (M=2.36), to require students to analyse ChatGPT's feedback on their writing (M=2.62).

Furthermore, the standard deviations in Table 1 are notable, ranging from 0.998 to 1.589, indicating substantial variability in responses among participants. This suggests that while some teachers actively incorporated ChatGPT into their writing instruction, others remained unfamiliar with or hesitant to integrate certain practices.

5.3. Perceived Benefits of ChatGPT in Essay Writing Instruction

Table 4

Perceived Benefits of ChatGPT in Essay Writing Instruction

	N	Min	Max	Mean	SD
26. ChatGPT saves time in lesson preparation and essay correction.	53	3	5	4.28	.690
27. ChatGPT provides instant and rapid feedback on students' essays.	53	2	5	4.08	.958
28. ChatGPT suggests ideas and reading materials that support essay writing.	53	2	5	3.85	.744
30. ChatGPT enhances students' essay writing skills.	53	3	5	3.74	.593
25. ChatGPT supports the creation of engaging and innovative essay writing materials.	53	2	5	3.70	.749
29. ChatGPT helps students improve their grammar and vocabulary proficiency.	53	2	5	3.64	.623
31. ChatGPT reduces students' fear of writing and increases their motivation.	53	2	5	3.30	.696

Table 4 presents the perceived benefits of ChatGPT in essay writing instruction. The minimum values recorded in this table are either 2 (Disagree) or 3 (Neutral), while the maximum value is consistently 5 (Strongly Agree). This indicates lower variability in participants' evaluations compared to Tables 1, 2, and 3. The mean values range from 4.28 to 3.30, suggesting a generally positive perception of ChatGPT's benefits among teachers.

Teachers highly appreciated ChatGPT for its ability to save time in lesson preparation and essay correction (M=4.28), provide instant and rapid feedback on students' essays (M=4.08), and suggest ideas and reading materials that support essay writing (M=3.85). Conversely, the aspects with the lowest mean scores included ChatGPT's ability to reduce students' fear of writing and increase their motivation (M=3.30), help students improve their grammar and vocabulary proficiency (M=3.64), and support the creation of engaging and innovative essay writing materials (M=3.70).

Furthermore, the standard deviations in Table 4 are lower than those in Tables 1, 2, and 3, ranging from 0.593 to 0.958. This suggests that participants' opinions were more consistent when assessing the benefits of ChatGPT compared to their reported practices in integrating it into writing instruction.

5.4. Challenges of Using ChatGPT in Essay Writing Instruction

Table 5

Challenges of Using ChatGPT in Essay Writing Instruction

	N	Min	Max	Mean	SD
35. Students may engage in academic dishonesty when writing essays.	53	2	5	4.25	.677
39. ChatGPT sometimes provides inaccurate or irrelevant information.	53	3	5	4.04	.649
41. Teaching materials generated by ChatGPT may lack pedagogical depth.	53	2	5	3.91	.815
40. ChatGPT cannot fully assess students' reasoning and creativity.	53	2	5	3.83	.849
34. Students may become overly dependent on ChatGPT.	53	1	5	3.66	.979
36. Students may lose their personal ideas and personal data when using ChatGPT for revisions.	53	3	5	3.64	.682
42. The grades assigned by ChatGPT for essays may sometimes be inaccurate.	53	3	5	3.64	.623
37. Students may have difficulty evaluating the quality of ChatGPT's feedback.	53	2	5	3.51	.933
38. Some students may lack the digital literacy skills to use ChatGPT effectively.	53	1	5	3.34	1.208
32. I struggle to effectively and systematically integrate ChatGPT into essay writing instruction.	53	1	5	3.15	.969
33. I may become overly dependent on ChatGPT.	53	1	5	3.02	1.047

Table 5 presents the challenges associated with using ChatGPT in essay writing instruction perceived by the participants. The minimum values range from 1 (Strongly Disagree) to 3 (Neutral), while the maximum value remains at 5 (Strongly Agree). This underlines that teachers hold diverse perspectives on the potential drawbacks of ChatGPT. The mean values range from 4.25 to 3.02, suggesting that educators expressed significant concerns regarding its negative impacts.

The most prominent disadvantages included the risk of students engaging in academic dishonesty (M=4.25), the possibility of ChatGPT generating inaccurate or irrelevant information (M=4.04), and the perception that AI-generated teaching materials may lack sufficient pedagogical depth (M=3.91). On the other hand, certain challenges were mentioned less frequently, involving the risk of teachers becoming overly dependent on ChatGPT (M=3.02), difficulties in effectively and systematically integrating ChatGPT into essay writing instruction (M=3.15), and the fact that some students may lack the digital literacy skills required to use ChatGPT efficiently (M=3.34).

The standard deviations vary from 0.623 to 1.208, which are higher than those observed in Table 4, indicating greater variability in teachers' views on ChatGPT's challenges compared to its benefits. However, these deviations remain lower than those in Tables 1, 2, and 3, where responses were more dispersed, reflecting a broader range of teaching practices related to ChatGPT integration.

6. Discussion

Recent studies explore teachers' perceptions and experiences using ChatGPT in English as foreign language but little is known about what happens in French writing classrooms. This paper aims to bring new information about this subject.

With regard to teachers' use of ChatGPT, the findings of this study indicated that its most prominent applications included generating essay outlines, creating essay samples, and identifying reading materials. These results are consistent with previous studies by Baskara (2023), Cetin et al. (2023), Kalenda et al. (2024), Nguyen T. T. H. (2023), and Octavio et al. (2024) which similarly highlighted the role of ChatGPT in developing teaching materials. During lesson implementation, teachers most frequently asked students to avoid overreliance on the tool for essay writing and allowed them to use ChatGPT for generating essay outlines. This aspect of ChatGPT usage has not been widely explored in previous research, as existing studies predominantly focused on activities before and after lessons. Thus, this study provides novel insights into the use of ChatGPT in real-time classroom interactions during essay writing lessons. In terms of assessment, teachers reported that the most common practices comprised incorporating students' writing tasks into ChatGPT prompts for analysis, correcting errors that ChatGPT failed to detect, and requiring students to revise their essays based on ChatGPT's feedback. These findings support Octavio's et al.' (2024) case study, which showed that the teacher systematically integrated ChatGPT into the assessment process by providing the chatbot with writing tasks and emphasising personalised feedback for students.

Conversely, the findings revealed that ChatGPT was less frequently used for generating grammar exercises, vocabulary exercises, and essay topics in lesson planning. This aligns with Nguyen T. T. H.'s (2023) qualitative study, in which most participants reported using ChatGPT primarily to generate essay samples and reading materials to support idea development, structure, and vocabulary acquisition. None of the teachers in that study mentioned using ChatGPT to create grammar or vocabulary exercises for writing instruction. Teachers in this study were also unlikely to assign grammar and vocabulary exercises or essay topics generated by ChatGPT to students. A possible explanation for this trend is the time constraints in writing courses, which may limit teachers' ability to incorporate supplementary exercises beyond the required writing tasks in the curriculum. Teachers primarily focus on completing textbook-based writing tasks and providing necessary corrections rather than introducing additional AI-generated exercises. Regarding assessment, teachers rarely used ChatGPT to assign grades to essays or required students to analyse ChatGPT's feedback on their writing. This finding is consistent with the studies of Nguyen T. C. (2023) and Nguyen T. T. H. (2023), demonstrating that ChatGPT is not commonly employed as an automated grading tool. It seems that teachers tend to use AI as a formative assistant rather than a summative evaluator because they do not yet trust AI's evaluative capacity, especially regarding creativity, critical thinking, or nuanced writing.

Regarding the benefits of ChatGPT, teachers highly valued its ability to save time in lesson preparation and essay correction, provide instant and rapid feedback on students' essays, and suggest ideas and reading materials that support essay writing. These findings align with those of Nguyen T. T. H. (2023), who identified ChatGPT's most significant advantage as its ability to suggest reading resources and assist in lesson planning. However, while the present study highlighted teachers' strong appreciation for time-saving aspects in grading and feedback, Nguyen T. T. H. (2023) reported a lower level of agreement on these aspects. This discrepancy may indicate that teachers were less familiar with integrating ChatGPT into assessment practices in 2023 than in 2025. In contrast, the aspects with the lowest mean scores in this study consisted of ChatGPT's ability to reduce students' fear of writing and increase their motivation, improve grammar and vocabulary proficiency, and support the creation of engaging and innovative essay writing materials. These findings are consistent with Nguyen T. T. H. (2023), who also reported low ratings for ChatGPT's effectiveness in enhancing grammar, vocabulary, and student motivation in writing performance. However, Octavio et al. (2024) presented contrasting findings, as the EFL teacher in their case study suggested that integrating ChatGPT into instruction can increase student engagement. This divergence could be explained by contextual factors, particularly the level of teacher commitment. In Octavio et al.' (2024) study, the teacher exhibited high motivation and invested significant effort in instructional strategies, which may have contributed to the increased engagement of her students.

Teachers expressed various concerns regarding the potential risks associated with integrating ChatGPT into essay writing instruction. The most significant concerns included the potential for students to engage in plagiarism, the risk of ChatGPT generating inaccurate or irrelevant information, and the perception that AI-generated teaching materials may lack sufficient pedagogical depth. These concerns are consistent with findings from Nguyen T. T. H. (2023) and Nguyen T. C. (2023), who identified academic integrity as one of the most pressing issues. Studies by Cetin et al. (2024), Octavio et al. (2024) and Zhu et al. (2023) emphasised the possible inaccuracy of information produced by ChatGPT. On the other hand, some challenges were reported less frequently, including concerns about teachers becoming overly dependent on ChatGPT, difficulties in systematically integrating the tool into essay writing instruction, and the fact that some students may lack the digital literacy skills needed to use ChatGPT effectively. These findings align with those of Nguyen T. T. H. (2023) and Kiptonui et al. (2018), who noted that teachers generally did not encounter significant technical difficulties when integrating ChatGPT into their teaching practices.

For an effective implementation of ChatGPT in writing instruction, professional training for teachers is essential, particularly in developing strategies for crafting effective prompts (Kiptonui et al., 2018; Lidén & Nilros, 2020; Nguyen T. C., 2023; Nguyen T. T. H., 2023) as well as in creating grammar et vocabulary exercises for better writing skills. Furthermore, teachers should reconsider assessment methods and adopt evaluation formats that better measure students' critical thinking skills (Nguyen T. T. H., 2023; Zhai, 2022).

Future research should further explore students' perspectives on ChatGPT's role in writing instruction (Nguyen T. T. H., 2023; Cetin et al., 2023) and investigate its actual impact on student performance (Nguyen T. C., 2023). Studies can also consider conducting comparative research between ChatGPT and other AI tools (Octavio et al., 2024).

7. Conclusion

While numerous studies have explored the role of artificial intelligence in education, the perceptions of French teachers regarding ChatGPT in writing courses remain a relatively underexplored area.

In summary, the present study has demonstrated that French teachers at high schools and universities in Vietnam primarily utilise ChatGPT for creating instructional materials, including essay outlines, essay samples, and reading resources. They permit students to use ChatGPT for generating essay outlines and locating supplementary reading materials but emphasise that AI should not be used to compose entire essays. While ChatGPT is frequently employed for providing feedback and correcting student writing, its role in grading remains limited. Teachers recognise the benefits of ChatGPT in facilitating lesson preparation, expediting essay correction, and offering immediate feedback. The tool also supports idea generation and provides additional reading materials to enhance students' writing. However, significant concerns persist, particularly regarding the risks of academic dishonesty, inaccuracies and lack of pedagogical depth in ChatGPT-generated feedback.

This study has some limitations. First, although the sample size is larger than that of other quantitative studies on writing, it remains relatively small. Secondly, the absence of a qualitative component restricts the depth of insight into teachers' nuanced perspectives.

To move forward, educational institutions should consider offering training and guidance to help teachers integrate AI tools more effectively and ethically into their teaching practices. Policymakers and school leaders are encouraged to develop clear guidelines for AI use in education that balance innovation with academic integrity.

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Appendix

Teacher Questionnaire on Using ChatGPT in Essay Writing Instruction

a. Do you use ChatGPT for teaching essay writing?

- Yes
- No

b. You are currently teaching French at:

- High school level
- University level

c. Your age group:

- Under 30 years old

- 30-40 years old
- 40-50 years old
- 50-60 years old

d. Your teaching experience in French:

- Less than 5 years
- 5-10 years
- 15-20 years
- More than 20 years

Please select one of the following five levels based on your evaluation:

1. Never 2. Rarely 3. Sometimes 4. Often 5. Always

Part 1: How Teachers Use ChatGPT in Essay Writing Instruction

1.1. Using ChatGPT for Lesson Planning

1. I use ChatGPT to generate essay topics.
2. I use ChatGPT to create essay samples.
3. I use ChatGPT to find reading materials that help students generate ideas for their essays.
4. I use ChatGPT to create essay outlines.
5. I use ChatGPT to generate exercises for practicing grammatical structures in essays.
6. I use ChatGPT to generate vocabulary exercises for essay writing.

1.2. Using ChatGPT During Essay Writing Instruction

7. I assign essay topics generated by ChatGPT to students.
8. I ask students to analyse essay samples written by ChatGPT.
9. I allow students to use ChatGPT to find additional reading materials on the assigned topic.
10. I allow students to use ChatGPT to create their essay outlines.
11. I assign grammar exercises for essay writing generated by ChatGPT.
12. I assign vocabulary exercises for essay writing generated by ChatGPT.
13. I instruct students not to ask ChatGPT to compose the essay for them.

1.3. Using ChatGPT for Essay Assessment

14. I allow students to use ChatGPT to correct their essays.

15. I provide students with specific prompts to ask ChatGPT to correct their writing.

16. I include the writing task in my ChatGPT prompts for assessment.

17. I include assessment criteria in my ChatGPT prompts.

18. I ask ChatGPT to provide feedback on the strengths and weaknesses of students' essays.

19. I ask ChatGPT to assign a grade to the essays.

20. I require students to analyse ChatGPT's feedback on their writing.

21. I help students identify incorrect feedback made by ChatGPT and guide them in making proper revisions.

22. I focus on correcting errors ChatGPT fails to detect in students' essays.

23. I ask students to rewrite their essays based on ChatGPT's feedback.

24. I review and correct students' revised essays based on ChatGPT's feedback.

Part 2: Benefits of ChatGPT in Essay Writing Instruction

25. ChatGPT supports the creation of engaging and innovative essay writing materials.

26. ChatGPT saves time in lesson preparation and essay correction.

27. ChatGPT provides instant and rapid feedback on students' essays.

28. ChatGPT suggests ideas and reading materials that support essay writing.

29. ChatGPT helps students improve their grammar and vocabulary proficiency.
30. ChatGPT enhances students' essay writing skills.
31. ChatGPT reduces students' fear of writing and increases their motivation.

Part 3: Challenges of Using ChatGPT in Essay Writing Instruction

32. I struggle to effectively and systematically integrate ChatGPT into essay writing instruction.
33. I may become overly dependent on ChatGPT.
34. Students may become overly dependent on ChatGPT.
35. Students may engage in academic dishonesty when writing essays.
36. Students may lose their personal ideas and originality when using ChatGPT for revisions.
37. Students may have difficulty evaluating the quality of ChatGPT's feedback.
38. Some students may lack the digital literacy skills to use ChatGPT effectively.
39. ChatGPT sometimes provides inaccurate or irrelevant information.
40. ChatGPT cannot fully assess students' reasoning and creativity.
41. Teaching materials generated by ChatGPT may lack pedagogical depth.
42. The grades assigned by ChatGPT for essays may sometimes be inaccurate.

THỂ LỆ GỬI BÀI

1. **Tạp chí Nghiên cứu nước ngoài** là ấn phẩm khoa học chính thức của Trường Đại học Ngoại ngữ, Đại học Quốc gia Hà Nội, kế thừa và phát triển *Chuyên san Nghiên cứu Nước ngoài* của Tạp chí Khoa học, Đại học Quốc gia Hà Nội. Tạp chí xuất bản định kỳ 06 số/năm (02 số tiếng Việt/năm và 04 số tiếng Anh/năm từ năm 2019 trở đi), công bố các công trình nghiên cứu có nội dung khoa học mới, chưa đăng và chưa được gửi đăng ở bất kỳ tạp chí nào, thuộc các lĩnh vực: *ngôn ngữ học, giáo dục ngoại ngữ/ngôn ngữ, quốc tế học hoặc các ngành khoa học xã hội và nhân văn có liên quan.*

2. Bài gửi đăng cần trích dẫn ÍT NHẤT 01 bài đã đăng trên Tạp chí Nghiên cứu nước ngoài.

3. Bài báo sẽ được gửi tới phản biện kín, vì vậy tác giả cần tránh tiết lộ danh tính trong nội dung bài một cách không cần thiết.

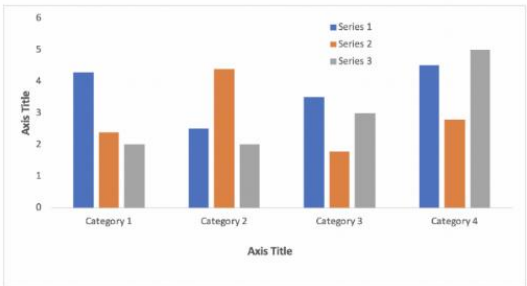
4. Bài báo có thể viết bằng tiếng Việt hoặc tiếng Anh (*tối thiểu* 10 trang/khoảng 4.000 từ đối với bài nghiên cứu và 5 trang/khoảng 2.000 từ đối với bài thông tin-trao đổi) được soạn trên máy vi tính, khổ giấy A4, cách lề trái 2,5cm, lề phải 2,5cm, trên 3,5cm, dưới 3cm, font chữ Times New Roman, cỡ chữ 12, cách dòng Single.

5. Hình ảnh, sơ đồ, biểu đồ trong bài viết phải đảm bảo rõ nét và được đánh số thứ tự theo trình tự xuất hiện trong bài viết. Nguồn của các hình ảnh, sơ đồ trong bài viết cũng phải được chỉ rõ. Tên ảnh, sơ đồ, biểu đồ trong bài viết phải được cung cấp trên ảnh, sơ đồ, biểu đồ.

Ví dụ:

Figure 1

Sample Figure Title



Note. A note describing content in the figure would appear here.

6. Bảng biểu trong bài viết được đánh số thứ tự theo trình tự xuất hiện trong bài viết. Tên bảng trong bài phải được cung cấp trên bảng. Yêu cầu bảng không có đường kẻ sọc.

Ví dụ:

Table 3

Sample Table Showing Decked Heads and P Value Note

Variable	Visual		Infrared		*F*	η
	M	*SD*	*M*	*SD*		
Row 1	3.6	.49	9.2	1.02	69.9***	.12
Row 2	2.4	.67	10.1	.08	42.7***	.23
Row 3	1.2	.78	3.6	.46	53.9***	.34
Row 4	0.8	.93	4.7	.71	21.1***	.45

***p < .01.

7. Quy cách trích dẫn: Các tài liệu, nội dung được trích dẫn trong bài báo và phần tài liệu tham khảo cần phải được **trình bày theo APA7** (vui lòng tham khảo trang web: https://apastyle.apa.org/style-grammar-guidelines hoặc hướng dẫn của Tạp chí trên trang web https://jfs.ulis.vnu.edu.vn/index.php/fs/about/submissions)

8. Bản thảo xin gửi đến website của Tạp chí tại https://jfs.ulis.vnu.edu.vn/. Tòa soạn không trả lại bản thảo nếu bài không được đăng. Tác giả chịu hoàn toàn trách nhiệm trước pháp luật về nội dung bài viết và xuất xứ tài liệu trích dẫn.

MẪU TRÌNH BÀY BỐ CỤC CỦA MỘT BÀI VIẾT

TIÊU ĐỀ BÀI BÁO

(bằng tiếng Anh và tiếng Việt, in hoa, cỡ chữ: 16,
giãn dòng: single, căn lề: giữa)

Tên tác giả (cỡ 13)*

Tên cơ quan / trường đại học (cỡ 10, in nghiêng)
Địa chỉ cơ quan / trường đại học (cỡ 10, in nghiêng)

Tóm tắt: Tóm tắt bằng tiếng Anh và tiếng Việt, không quá 250 từ, cỡ chữ: 11

Từ khóa: Không quá 5 từ, cỡ chữ: 11

Phần nội dung chính của bài báo thường bao gồm các phần sau:

1. Đặt vấn đề

2. Mục tiêu

3. Cơ sở lý thuyết

3.1. …

3.2. ….

4. Phương pháp nghiên cứu

4.1. …

4.2. …

5. Kết quả nghiên cứu

6. Thảo luận

7. Kết luận và khuyến nghị

Lời cảm ơn (nếu có)

Tài liệu tham khảo

Phụ lục (nếu có)

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* ĐT.: (Sđt của tác giả liên hệ)
Email: (Email của tác giả liên hệ)