

**PRAGMATIC INPUT IN NEWLY-PUBLISHED NATIONAL ENGLISH
TEXTBOOKS FOR VIETNAMESE STUDENTS**

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STATEMENT OF CANDIDATE

This thesis has not been submitted for a higher degree at any other universities or institutions. To the best of my knowledge and belief, the thesis contains no material published or written by another author except where due reference is made.

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Date: 08/10/2017

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ABSTRACT

The critical review of the relevant literature shows that there is a gap between what research in pragmatics has found and how the English language is taught and learnt in EFL classrooms. Additionally, recent research studies in EFL contexts generally and in Vietnam particularly also find that pragmatic knowledge is under-represented in EFL textbooks. Therefore, the present study was conducted to explore whether the newly-published national EFL textbook series for Vietnamese upper-secondary school students includes adequate pragmatic input to facilitate students' development of communicative competence in English as set out in the goal of the National Foreign Language Project 2020.

The results show that this series includes a low level of explicit information about pragmatics, which accounts for only 5.5 per cent of the students' books pages and does not appear at all in the teachers' books. In addition, the presentations of different pragmatic aspects including general pragmatic information, speech acts, and pragmatic tasks were found to be inadequate according to current theories of L2 pragmatics teaching. On the basis of its findings, the present study supports the need for stakeholders including teachers, textbook writers, and policy-makers to supplement this textbook series with input and tasks that can increase pragmatic knowledge.

A NOTE ON TERMINOLOGY

Three key words in the research topic requiring precise definitions to establish the parameters for the study include: Pragmatics, input, and textbook.

Pragmatics and pragmatic competence. “Pragmatics can be briefly defined as the cognitive, social, and cultural study of language and communication.

Pragmatics does not deal with language as such but with language use and the relationships between language form and language use. Obviously, using language involves cognitive processes, taking place in a social world with a variety of cultural constraints.” (Verschueren, 1994, p. 1). The term ‘pragmatics’ is extensively used in the field of second and FL acquisition and teaching with especial reference to the term ‘pragmatic competence’ which is considered as “one of the abilities subsumed by the overarching concept of communicative competence” (Rueda, 2006, p. 173).

According to Canale (1988), pragmatic competence includes “illocutionary competence, or the knowledge of the pragmatic conventions for performing acceptable language functions, and sociolinguistic competence, or knowledge of the sociolinguistic conventions for performing language functions appropriately in a given context.” (p.90).

Input and pragmatic input. “Input, in its simplest definition, is the language that a learner is exposed to.” (Gass, 2010, p. 195). As such, pragmatic input means any pragmatic information that is provided to learners, in this case, through the textbooks so that they can perform language functions appropriately in communication. In this study, explicit pragmatic input is given primary attention to due to the widely-accepted efficacy of the explicit approach of L2 pragmatics

teaching in EFL contexts. The favour of the explicit method over the implicit one will be discussed in more detail in section 4.2.2.1 of chapter 4. For the collection and analysis of pragmatic input from textbooks, it is divided into three categories, namely pragmatic components, pragmatic tasks, and metalanguage style. These three categories of pragmatic input will be defined clearly in section 4.1.4 of this thesis where the framework for textbook analysis is presented.

Textbook. “A textbook is a teaching material for the teacher and a learning material for the learner. It is one of the pivotal aspects of the total teaching and learning process. It is the ‘visible heart of any ELT program’ (Sheldon, 1988:237); ‘an almost universal element of teaching’ (Hutchinson and Torres, 1994:315); and a guide for a teacher, a memory aid for the pupils, a permanent record or measure of what has been learnt.” (Awasthi, 2006, p. 1).

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1. Statement of the problem

The growing recognition of the importance of pragmatic competence and its central place within overall language competence (Bachman, 1990 and 2000; Bachman & Palmer, 1996 and 2010), together with the appeal of bringing a focus on pragmatics into classroom (Bardovi-Harlig, 1996), has made research on pragmatics, pragmatic competence, context and culture gain momentum in the fields of ELT/EFL/EIC (English for intercultural Communication) during the last two decades (see Kasper and Rose, 2002; Vellenga, 2004; Rose, 2005; Tatsuki and Houck, 2010; Ishihara and Cohen, 2010; Taguchi, 2014 for examples). Regarding the EFL context of Vietnam, there has been a heightened interest in how pragmatic knowledge is taught and learnt (see Tran, 2004; M. T. T. Nguyen, 2007; M. T. T. Nguyen, 2011; Vu, 2017 for examples), particularly since the CLT approach became powerful in Vietnam in the late 1990s. Several research studies by Vietnamese EFL researchers (M. T. T. Nguyen, 2007; M. T. T. Nguyen, 2011; Vu, 2017) have been conducted recently to provide understanding about as well as to put emphasis on the teaching and learning of pragmatic knowledge and pragmatic competence in the EFL context of Vietnam. However, there is still a gap between what research in pragmatics has found and how the English language is taught and learnt in Vietnamese classrooms.

Being characterized by formal instructional settings as well as limited access to the target language input and opportunities for pragmatic practice, the Vietnamese EFL context, shares a generally poor reputation in terms of pragmatic learning and teaching with many other EFL contexts (see Taguchi, 2015 for a comprehensive discussion of the teaching and learning of pragmatics in EFL contexts). This is because on one hand, EFL learners in general and Vietnamese learners of English in particular lack opportunities to be immersed in the English-speaking environment to pick up pragmatic knowledge naturally; and on the other, EFL textbooks worldwide and in Vietnam, which place a great emphasis on developing linguistic competence rather than pragmatic competence, often include a paucity of pragmatic knowledge (see Vellenga, 2004; M. T. T. Nguyen and Basturkmen, 2013, Ren and Han, 2016; and Vu, 2017). As M. T. T. Nguyen (2007) concluded in her evaluation project of the English textbook series used for Vietnamese upper secondary school students since 2004, these textbooks provide insufficient information regarding when and for what purpose it is appropriate to make use of a communicative function and which expressions would be appropriate in a particular situation. Also, they often provide an unrealistic and oversimplified presentation of language use, which can be more inhibiting than helpful in developing learner's language proficiency and communicative competence.

As remarked by Hoang (2016), the chief editor of both the English textbook series investigated by M. T. T. Nguyen (2007) as mentioned above and the new English textbook series analyzed in this study, the increasing need for high-skilled and highly qualified people who can communicate confidently in foreign languages, especially in English to serve the cause of industrialization and modernization of the

country, has made it necessary for Vietnam to improve its standards of teaching, learning and use of English. Therefore, in 2008, the government signed a decision to promulgate the national project entitled “Teaching and Learning Foreign Languages in the National Education System, Period 2008-2020” (Prime Minister of Socialist Republic of Vietnam, 2008) (hereinafter referred to as the National Foreign Language Project 2020 (NFLP 2020)). With its goal of renewing the teaching and learning of foreign languages in the national education system so that “by 2020 most Vietnamese young people graduating from secondary vocational schools, colleges and universities will be able to use a foreign language confidently in their daily communication, their study and work in an integrated, multi-cultural and multi-lingual environment, making foreign languages a competitive advantage of the Vietnamese people” (Hoang, 2016, p. 12), the NFLP 2020 released the national EFL textbook series for ten years of English training from grade 3 to grade 12 of general education level to facilitate the realization of this goal. As described by the chief editor of this textbook series in all teachers’ books for upper-secondary school level,

the aim of this set of textbooks is to develop students’ listening, speaking, reading and writing skills and improve their English language knowledge with a focus on communicative competence so that when they finish upper secondary school, their English will be at level three of the Foreign Language Proficiency Framework for Vietnam (equivalent to B1 in the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages). (Hoang et al., 2016, p. iii).

Given the focus on communicative competence as set out in this aim, I am motivated to see what pragmatic information, which is often neglected in EFL textbooks (see Vellenga, 2004; M. T. T. Nguyen and Basturkmen, 2013, Ren and Han, 2016; and Vu, 2017), is incorporated in this textbook series because in order to be

communicatively competent, learners need to have pragmatic knowledge alongside organizational knowledge (see Bachman, 1990 and 2000, and Bachman and Palmer, 1996 and 2010). In other words, the main research question of this study is what pragmatic information is incorporated in this newly-published national EFL textbook series. This question is divided into five sub-questions which will be presented in full after the literature review in chapter 3.

1.2. Background of the study

Investigating pragmatic input in EFL textbooks is an essential area of research given the role of textbooks in terms of pragmatic input in EFL contexts. As language textbooks, together with their accompanying components like workbooks and teacher's manuals can, on one hand, provide teachers with important source of information in teaching, and on the other, help learners review and practice what they have learnt, as well as serve as a clear map for teachers and learners to follow (T. C. Nguyen, 2015), they become an indispensable part of any language teaching and learning curriculum. In an EFL context like Vietnam, as learners do not have opportunities to be exposed to the target language environment where they can notice and obtain pragmatic input, as well as to engage in interaction with native speakers so as to practice the input and develop control over it, textbooks become the main and perhaps only source of pragmatic input that learners receive and the basis for the practice of language use that occurs both inside and outside the classroom (M. T. T. Nguyen, 2011).

It is the crucial role that textbooks play in providing input to EFL learners that encourage ELT researchers to carry out evaluations of in-use English textbooks to

check its compatibility with the curriculum, the aims of the teaching program, and the needs of the students given that before being used for a language program, textbooks have been professionally designed or selected, and carefully evaluated (M. T. T. Nguyen, 2011). Such evaluations are significant as their results can inform stakeholders (policy-makers, textbook writers, and teachers) of how to supplement textbooks for a better teaching and learning outcome, as well as provide them with ideas and evidences for more satisfying and useful future textbooks. Therefore, there have been many research studies to date analyzing pragmatic knowledge in various ESL and EFL textbooks. Typical works include those of Vellenga (2004), M. T. T. Nguyen (2011), and Ren and Han (2016); however, all of them put emphasis on the treatment of speech acts in textbooks. Moreover, there has not been any research which takes into account the analysis of pragmatic tasks in EFL textbooks given that the practice of pragmatic knowledge is essential in its acquisition. Therefore, the present study aims to fill in this gap by investigating the inclusion of different aspects of pragmatics - pragmatic components (including explicit general pragmatic information and topicalized speech acts), pragmatic tasks, and metalanguage style - in this new textbook series. The detailed definitions and classifications of pragmatic components, pragmatic tasks, and metalanguage style under the investigation of this study are presented in chapter 4.

1.3. Aims and scope of the research

As mentioned in section 1.1, the main aim of this study is to see whether the new textbook series is designed with the inclusion of pragmatics as mentioned above to facilitate students in their communicative competence development.

In this study, I chose to take into account the set of textbooks at upper-secondary school level. This consists of 18 textbook items altogether since for each grade (i.e. Grade 10, Grade 11, and Grade 12), there are two students' books, two workbooks, and two teacher's manuals. The rationale for choosing this series to study instead of those for other levels is to see whether the English textbooks at the final stage of general education could provide students with adequate pragmatic knowledge to be able to express themselves properly in everyday topics as set out in the goal of the NFLP 2020 (see Socialist Republic of Vietnam (SRV), 2008). Also, it is hoped that the chosen series could serve as a sample of the whole English textbook series for Vietnamese students from grade 3 to grade 12 across the country so that the findings from this study about pragmatic input could set out some implications for the whole series.

1.4. Significance of the research

Given the ultimate goal that the NFLP 2020 sets for Vietnamese upper-secondary school graduates, and their need to communicate properly in English, this study is significant in a number of ways. On one hand, this study will help the textbook authors and policy-makers know what should be done to supplement the textbooks so that the NFLP 2020 can be more successful. On the other, it will provide Vietnamese English teachers with food for thought to prepare their teaching and lesson plans so that the teaching and learning goal can be reached. As the textbook is a key component in most language programs, especially in an EFL context like Vietnam (M. T. T. Nguyen, 2011), it needs to be professionally designed so that it can align exactly with the teaching and learning goal. In the case when the textbook is

found to create difficulties for teachers and learners to achieve their goal, there should be supplementary guides from textbook writers and policy-makers for teachers and learners to go well towards their goals before new editions appear.

As there have not been any studies which evaluate this new textbook series in particular nor any research which focuses on the inclusion of different aspects of pragmatics in EFL textbooks in general, the present study could both serve as an evaluation means of this new textbook series in terms of pragmatic input and fill in the gap of the literature.

1.5. Organization of the study

This thesis consists of six chapters. Chapter 1 introduces the research topic, background of the study, its aims and scope, and its significance. Chapter 2 provides the theoretical background of the study, in which important theories related to this study are discussed. Chapter 3 reviews related literature on pragmatic input in textbooks in ESL/EFL contexts and in Vietnam, together with English textbook evaluation in Vietnam. Gaps in the literature are identified and the research questions of the study are developed. Chapter 4 describes and justifies the methodological approach used in this study. Details of the framework for textbook analysis, data collection, data analysis, and the issues of validity and reliability are also provided. Chapter 5 identifies and discusses the findings emerging from the data analysis process with reference to each of the research questions. Chapter 6 summarizes the key findings, sets out the implications of these findings, and acknowledges the limitation of this study.

CHAPTER 2

THEORETICAL CONCEPTS AND BACKGROUND KNOWLEDGE

The theoretical background of this study includes the discussion of: 1) basic concepts and scope of pragmatics, 2) speech act theory and its research studies about Vietnamese EFL learners, 3) social and cultural issues in pragmatics – the case of Vietnamese and English pragmatics, and 4) other well-established theories in the teaching and learning of pragmatics and evaluation of textbooks. These theoretical perspectives are to provide the foundation for the current study and its analysis of collected data.

2.1. Basic concepts and scope of pragmatics

As can be seen from the chosen definition of pragmatics on page 5, the field of pragmatics entails the study of language use, and of language form in relation to language use, together with the study of the context within which an interaction occurs in compliance with conventional, culturally and socially acceptable rules. In other words, at the micro level, pragmatics encompasses the study of speech acts, which focuses on how people carry out specific social functions like apologizing, complaining, making requests, refusing things/invitations, complimenting, or thanking (see Mey, 1993; Ishihara and Cohen, 2010). However, at the macro level, pragmatics includes broader matters like reference, presupposition, discourse structure, and conversational principles (Ishihara and Cohen, 2010), in which such aspects as politeness, appropriacy, formality, register, and cultural knowledge are studied in a

host of social and cultural contexts. As this research attempts to investigate the inclusion of different aspects of pragmatics in EFL textbooks, it takes into account both of these scopes of pragmatics. Therefore, in what follows, speech act theory, and social and cultural issues are discussed.

2.2. Speech act theory and research studies involving Vietnamese EFL learners

Speech act, which was first termed by Austin (1962), is one of the fundamental notions in the study of pragmatics (Blum-Kulka, 1989). If Austin (1962) deliberately defined speech act into three different meaning layers, including: 1) locutionary act (which is the actual words uttered), illocutionary act (which is what the speaker means by those words), and perlocutionary act (which refers to the outcomes, or effects achieved by saying something), Celce-Murcia and Olshtain (2000) simply defined speech act as “social actions performed via utterances” (p. 24). According to these two authors, language is not only a vehicle to exchange thoughts and ideas as we often use utterances in order to perform social actions or functions. For example, if a teacher in a traditional classroom tells a student, “I will have to inform your parents about your behavior,” s/he may want to perform a threatening act with this statement. Likewise, the utterance, “You look great today” said by one friend to another does not only serve as a description but functions mainly as a compliment and as such fulfils a social function (Celce-Murcia & Olshtain, 2000). This definition is in line with Searle’s (1969) and Levinson’s (1983) argument that the term “speech act” is used only to refer to the illocutionary act, that is, what is meant by the speaker. In regard to instructed pragmatics, Thomas (1996) argued that in

teaching speech acts, teachers only need to help students distinguish between sentence meaning and speaker meaning, that is, between locution and illocution.

According to Searle (1969), speech acts can be classified according to how they affect the social interaction between speakers and hearers into five different types as follows:

Table 1. Five Types of Speech Acts

Type of speech acts	Definition	Example
Table	Speech acts that bring changes through sentences. The direction of fit is both “words to world” and “world to words” as the actual expression of the declaration brings about a change in terms of reality.	declaring/ appointing/ judging (“We find the defendant not guilty!”)
2. Representatives	Speech acts that commit the speaker to the truth of the expressed proposition.	Informing/ asserting/ predicting/ stating (“Today, tomatoes can be grown in the desert.”)
3. Expressives	Speech acts that express one’s psychological state, feelings or attitudes about the proposition expressed.	Apologizing/ complaining/ complimenting/ congratulating

4. Directives	Speech acts that are attempts by the speaker to get the hearer to do something. Inherently, these are face-threatening acts toward the hearer since they usually impose on the hearer.	Commanding/ Ordering/ Requesting
5. Commissives	Speech acts that enable speakers to commit themselves to future actions. These are speech acts whereby the speaker takes on or refuses some responsibility or task. Therefore, these are face-threatening to the speaker, or imposing on the speaker.	Promising/ Refusing

Among these five types of speech acts, it has been argued that expressives are the most important speech acts for learners of a second or a foreign language (Celce-Murica & Olshtain, 2000). This may be justified, as they tend to occur more commonly in situations involving face threat. Besides, directives, which are face-threatening acts toward the hearer, and commissives, which are face-threatening acts toward the speaker are noteworthy issues in speech acts that teachers need to sensitize learners to.

In the EFL context of Vietnam, there have been some research studies which draw both teachers' and learners' attention to the pragmatic gaps between Vietnamese

learners of English and native speakers of English in terms of the strategies used to perform these speech acts.

With regard to the speech act of criticisms, one of the face-damaging acts of the expressives, a big gap was observed between Vietnamese adult learners of Australian English and native Australians in the use of syntactic modifiers which include the use of the past tense with present time reference like “I thought you missed out something”, and the use of possibility modal verbs like *may / might / would / could* to mitigate their criticisms in an academic setting (M. T. T. Nguyen, 2008). Specifically, her study found that on the whole, Vietnamese learners tended to mitigate their criticisms significantly less frequently than Australian native speakers did, which shows their inability to reduce the potential disruptive effects of their criticisms so as to achieve politeness in communication.

She also observed that in the cases when Vietnamese learners did modify their criticisms, they made use of such Appealers as “Is that right?”, “Right?”, “Yeah?”, and “OK?” instead of using Syntactic modifiers as the native speakers did. This reflects the learners’ limited L2 linguistic competence, and also their lack of L2 socio-pragmatic knowledge, as well as the influence of their L1 as Vietnamese is the language that employs semantic rather than formal means to mark modality.

It can be said that her findings have provided valuable evidence and suggestions for the teaching of English to Vietnamese learners with the implications that the teaching of forms to the learners should be more pragmatically oriented. Thus, the learners can know that modal structures and the past tense can be used for modification besides their primary function of expressing ability/possibility and past

events. Learners should also be sensitized towards how to be polite when communicating in English in a specific circumstance.

Similarly, research into the speech act of refusals, one of the face-threatening acts of the commissives, also provided necessary information for English teachers to ponder on when she found that the possible reason for Vietnamese employees' frequent use of the strategy of regret to refuse their English-speaking bosses whereas they would opt for other strategies when refusing in their mother tongue is that the common English pattern they learnt in the language classroom is "I'm sorry, but ..."

(Tran, 2013).

In conclusion, the findings of these studies suggest that EFL learners should be provided with a "pragmatic toolbox" (Vellenga, 2004, p. 8) so that they are able to communicate properly in the target language.

2.3. Social and cultural issues in pragmatics – the case of Vietnamese and English pragmatics

As remarked by Ishihara and Cohen (2010), in order to be pragmatically appropriate in the L2 culture, learners need to be aware of "social norms for when speech acts are likely to be performed, cultural reasoning as to why they are performed that way, and knowledge about the consequences of utterances in that particular culture." (p. 14). As different cultures have different social norms which have strong impacts on the concepts of politeness, formality, and appropriacy, it is essential that learners are provided with social and cultural knowledge about the speech community. In other words, when teaching English pragmatics to Vietnamese

learners, it is essential that learners are made aware of major differences between Vietnamese and English pragmatics.

The English language and the Vietnamese language belong to two contrasting cultural backgrounds - the Anglo culture and the Asian-Confucian culture (Pham, 2008). While the former is normally characterized by rational, equal, and clear-cut communication style, the latter shifts to an emotional (intuitive), hierarchical, and vague one (T. B. Hoang, 2013). Hence, it is indispensable for textbooks to raise teachers' and learners' awareness of the existent differences so that students can avoid breakdowns in real-world communication.

In order to elucidate the major differences between Vietnamese and English Pragmatics, the notion of **politeness** and the degree of **directness**, which relate to the underlying reasons for the interlocutor's choosing one form over another to express what s/he means (Thomas, 1996), are briefly compared with regard to the English and Vietnamese cultures.

In terms of **politeness**, Celce-Murcia and Olshtain (2000) stated that in order to ensure and promote social harmony in communication, all speech communities develop rules and ways to improve and accommodate communicative acts. These rules and ways in communication shape the subfield of politeness in Pragmatics which deals with perceptions, expectations, and conventional realizations of communicative strategies which enhance social harmony. Therefore, it can be said that politeness is a universal concept (Brown and Levinson, 1978, 1987); however, how to be polite can differ across cultures (Pham, 2008).

In Anglo English-speaking cultures, how to be polite was discussed by Lakoff (1973, 1975, 1990) with the three rules of 'Don't impose', 'Give options', and 'Make

A feel good' (A is the person that one is communicating with). Besides, Brown and Levinson (1978, 1987) emphasized that to achieve politeness in communication, interlocutors need to pay attention to the role of positive face which involves attending to and respecting the other's self-image and the role of negative face which involves reducing the degree of imposition of speech acts when imposition does have to occur.

These theories can be considered as basic assumptions that people follow to obtain politeness when interacting with one another; however, as Celce-Murcia and Olshtain (2000) suggested, these assumptions need to be reinterpreted when applied to other cultures as they are based on English-speaking cultures. In addition, researchers on Asian politeness have also shown that the above assumptions about politeness of the Western world emphasize strategic politeness which reflects a paramount concern for individual rights whereas in many Asian Confucian cultures, politeness often signals a concern for duty, which means what is owed to the groups instead of what is owed to the individuals (e.g., Matsumoto, 1989; Ide, 1989; Gu, 1990; Mao, 1994; Byon, 2006). According to Pham (2008), Vietnamese politeness has five main characteristics: 1) politeness has moral connotations; 2) politeness insists on the acting out of speech; 3) politeness is harmony-oriented; 4) politeness is to show consideration for others; and 5) politeness is hierarchical. It can be seen that the third and fourth characteristics are similar to the notion of politeness of Westerners in the sense that they share the purpose of politeness in interactions, that is, to enhance social harmony, and the 'Make the hearer feel good' rule of Lakoff (1973, 1975, 1990) as mentioned above.

However, differences can be seen in the characteristics 1, 2, and 5. The first characteristics of Vietnamese politeness is the link between one's morality and one's linguistic expression of politeness, which is manifested at least in three major aspects, including: sincerity in emotional expressions, modest self-expression, and deferential speech. The first aspect can be seen in the expressions of compliments, apologies, and invitations of Vietnamese people. Since the people tend to avoid insincere expressions when these expressions do not reflect their true feelings or emotions, they do not show extensive use of compliments, especially those containing strong positive adjectives and many superlatives such as 'super', 'brilliant', or 'fantastic' like native English speakers. Instead, they pay compliments much less frequently, and use less extreme adjectives like 'nice' or 'good'. Similarly, Vietnamese people do not use such expressions of regret as 'I'm sorry' or of thanking as 'thank you' as extensively as native English speakers do. They only say sorry when they need to apologize or say thanks when they need to show their gratitude (Pham, 2008, 2012 & 2014).

The second aspect, which is modesty, can be seen in Vietnamese people's tendency to reject or deflect compliments, that is, to shift the praised credit to other people, God, luck, or fate rather than accept them (Nguyen, 1990; Pham, 2002 & 2012; Vu, 1997). Meanwhile, compliments are much more frequently accepted by Westerners (Rong Chen, 1993; Fong, 1998; Henderson, 1996; Holmes, 1988a; 1988b).

The third aspect of showing deference for others of Vietnamese people can be seen in their interactions with non-intimates, where significant numbers of linguistic forms are used to show respect. Newly acquainted people tend to upgrade the term they use to address each other. For instance, older people may use polite terms like *anh* (brother) / *chị* (sister), which are normally used to refer to seniors, to address

younger people on their first meeting. Therefore, Vietnamese people often feel embarrassed and even uneasy to address native English speakers who are older or in a higher position with their first names, or vice versa, to be addressed by their first names by a younger or lower positioned English speakers (Vu, 2017).

The second characteristics of insistence on the acting out of speech can be seen in Vietnamese people's use of high level of directness in suggestions or offers made for the benefit of the hearer (Vu, 1997), and in apologies with strong suggestions for compensation (Nguyen, 2003). For example, instead of saying "Could I help you?", Vietnamese tend to make more direct offers such as "Let me help you.", or "I can help you.". As explained by Pham (2008), directness in this case is perceived to be more polite by Vietnamese people because it demonstrates the offerer's enthusiasm and sincerity in the acting out of his / her speech. In this sense, Vietnamese politeness shows a contrast to Western theories of politeness (e.g., Blum-Kulka, 1987; Brown & Levinson, 1987), which claim a link between indirectness and politeness.

The last characteristic of Vietnamese politeness is the "hierarchical politeness" (Pham, 2008, p. 100), which emphasizes the role of the interlocutors. This characteristics explains why it is polite in Vietnamese to ask about another's age at the very beginning of a conversation for the purpose of defining the role of each interactant. The role-sensitivity in Vietnamese politeness is demonstrated in its complex set of address terms, where one is addressed according to one's role in each specific situation (Hy, 1990).

With regard to **directness**, T. B. Hoang (2013) remarked that Vietnamese belongs to a high-context cultural group which values hierarchical factors such as age,

social status, kinships, and relationship instead of individuality as it can be in Anglo-culture. Vietnamese people highly appreciate careful and deliberate utterances, and thus prefer indirectness to directness, with the exception of the direct suggestions, offers and apologies to insist on the acting out of the speech as mentioned above. Typical examples of indirectness in Vietnamese can be observed in studying speech acts like apology, gratitude, complaint, refusal, compliment, and so on in Vietnamese communication. For instance, Vietnamese people are in the habit of not accepting an invitation or a compliment at the first offer for the sake of modesty. This, in its turn, often prevents Vietnamese learners of English from producing the appropriate responses to an invitation or compliment in English. Due to the transfer of L1 pragmatics, they may reply “No. That’s OK.” and “No. I don’t think so.” to such an invitation as “Would you like something to drink?” and a compliment as “Your English is very good.” respectively.

The preference for the indirect communication style of Vietnamese people is also affirmed by Pham (2008) when she explained that Vietnam is one of the countries which bear the impact of Confucianism, under which the indirect mode of communication is preferred to maintain mutual harmony which is the central basic value of Asian Confucian cultures. It is generally known that the notion of indirectness exists in all languages and culture (Katriel, 1986); however, it should be noted that this notion is more elaborated in Asian-Confucian cultural countries like Vietnam (Okabe, 1987; Pham, 2008). One typical example that Pham (2008) took to illustrate the elaborated indirectness in Vietnamese is that if an indirect American way of asking the hearer to close the door may be “The door is open”, its equivalent in Asian-Confucian countries like Japan and Vietnam is “It is somehow cold today”. The

underlying reason for this vague request is the speaker's wish to reduce the imposition on the hearer and maintain the mutual harmony even if the hearer does not carry out the speaker's request. This high level of ambiguity is also referred to as “ý tại ngôn ngoại (sense is out of speech - the real meaning of an utterance exists outside its linguistic manifestation)” (Pham, 2008, p. 81).

In short, the differences in the notion of politeness and the degree of directness in English and Vietnamese cultures are the two most salient issues in this regard that Vietnamese learners need to be informed of when learning English pragmatics.

2.4. Other well-established theories in the teaching and learning of pragmatics, and evaluation of textbooks

2.4.1. The teaching and learning of pragmatics.

Regarding the teaching and learning of pragmatics, empirical research shows the role of pragmatic input and instruction in learners' acquisition and development of pragmatic knowledge and competence (see Takimoto, 2009; M. T. T. Nguyen et al., 2012; M. T. T. Nguyen and Basturkmen, 2013; M. T. T. Nguyen et al., 2015 for more information). Researchers have found that when pragmatics instruction is not offered, opportunity for acquiring pragmatic competence is reduced and that second or foreign language learners who do not receive formal instruction in pragmatics differ significantly from native speakers in their pragmatic production and comprehension (Kasper, 2001; Kasper and Rose, 2002; Rose, 2005). As learners do not automatically acquire the pragmatic norms of the target language/culture (Thomas, 1996), teachers need to play an active role in teaching pragmatic features to learners. While pragmalinguistic norms are no more difficult to teach than syntax or lexis,

sociopragmatic aspects can be more challenging for teachers to teach because adopting a different systems of values is obviously harder than adopting a new approach to the study of language (Thomas, 1996). However, teachers are not alone in making their missions possible because they have textbooks to serve as a guideline for their practices (Hutchinson & Torres, 1994) and updates from research in the field to enable them to better adapt textbooks for better teaching practices.

2.4.2. Evaluation of textbooks: approaches and criteria for textbook evaluation.

As mentioned earlier in section 1.2, textbook evaluation is of great significance given the benefits of its result. In order to carry out an evaluation, evaluators need to decide on which approaches and criteria for textbook evaluation to take. In terms of approaches, evaluators could evaluate textbooks on four main aspects: 1) the internal content of the textbook, 2) the aims and approaches, 3) the supporting sources, and 4) the physical appearance (see Ellis, 1997; Tomlinson, 2003; McGrath, 2002; Littlejohn, 1998 and 2011). In each aspect, evaluators can choose from the available checklists for their evaluation (see also Ellis, 1997; Tomlinson, 2003; McGrath, 2002; Littlejohn, 1998 and 2011), or they can select their own criteria to reflect their priorities of their own specific teaching and learning contexts.

In this study, the first approach was taken with a focus on pragmatic input, and the criteria for evaluation were adapted from available checklists which will be described in detail in chapter 4.

2.5. Concluding remarks

This chapter has briefly discussed the basic theories in pragmatics and textbook evaluation as grounding for the present study. In the following chapter, research studies on pragmatic input in textbooks in ESL/EFL contexts generally, and in Vietnam particularly, and on English textbook evaluation in Vietnam are reviewed to position it.

CHAPTER 3

LITERATURE REVIEW: PRAGMATIC INPUT IN TEXTBOOKS AND TEXTBOOK EVALUATION

This chapter reviews the relevant research literature on pragmatic input in textbooks (in ESL/EFL contexts and in Vietnam) and on English textbook evaluation in Vietnam, so as to build the foundation for the research questions posed by the present study.

The selected literature for reviewing are research studies or journal articles which share a close research focus with the present study and are published in reputable academic journals, or as PhD theses and research projects. These studies are presented starting from the broader context of ESL/EFL and moving to the specific context of Vietnam.

3.1. Research on pragmatic input in textbooks: (ESL/EFL contexts and in Vietnam)

3.1.1. Research on pragmatic input in textbooks in ESL/EFL contexts.

Divergence between linguistic proficiency and pragmatic competence among Vietnamese EFL learners particularly and worldwide ESL/EFL learners generally has been a major concern for teachers and researchers in the fields of pragmatics and English language teaching (M. T. T. Nguyen, 2007; Yuan, 2012; Limberg, 2016; etc.). This is because L2 classrooms have placed a great emphasis on developing linguistic rather than pragmatic competence (M. T. T. Nguyen and Basturkmen, 2013).

Moreover, pragmatic components have often been judged to be treated inadequately in L2 textbooks and course materials (M. T. T. Nguyen, 2011; Vellenga, 2004) given that if no formal instruction is provided, it can “generally take at least 10 years in a second-language context (as opposed to a foreign-language context) to be able to use the language in a pragmatically nativelike manner.” (Ishihara and Cohen, 2010, p. 76). Consequently, learners often have to experience awkward situations when they show very different uses of pragmatic norms from the native speakers of the target language and also between themselves (see M. T. T. Nguyen, 2007 for more discussion).

According to Ishihara and Cohen (2010), the reasons for the pragmatic error in learners can be one or a combination of the following causes: 1) ¹Negative transfer of pragmatic norms; 2) Limited L2 grammatical ability; 3) Overgeneralization of perceived L2 pragmatic norms; 4) Effect of instruction or instructional materials; and 5) ²Resistance to using perceived L2 pragmatic norms. Among these five causes, the first one is one manifestation of pragmatic transfer and the fifth one is one type of pragmatic divergence. In monolingual EFL contexts, the influence of L1 pragmatics on L2 pragmatics is inevitable, which may lead to pragmatic divergence or resistance. However, these problems can be controlled if instruction and instructional materials are effective.

¹ Pragmatic transfer is the influence of one set of pragmatic knowledge in one language upon another (see Bou Franch, 1998 for more discussion).

² The notion of pragmatic divergence derives from the phenomenon that speakers/writers may choose to diverge from perceived L2 norms (instead of making an effort to adjust to the perceived speech patterns of the listeners/reader) in order to maintain their distinctive in-group identities, and to accentuate their linguistic differences with an intention to isolate themselves from other language groups (see Ishihara and Cohen, 2010 for more discussion).

Empirical studies (for example Ifantidou, 2013; Lenchuk and Ahmed, 2013) have demonstrated the efficacy of explicit instruction on pragmatics and pragmatically formulated lesson plans to facilitate learners to achieve pragmatic competence in communication. Nevertheless, a lack of instructional materials to assist teachers in their teaching of pragmatic competence to learners is observable even in ESL contexts where learners have more opportunities for noticing and obtaining pragmatic input, as well as for practicing the input in the target language environment (Lenchuk and Ahmed, 2013). In fact, the limited resources available to assist teachers in their teaching of this competence in classrooms, given the importance of the inclusion of pragmatic competence in the curriculum, are acknowledged in documents such as ³The Canadian Language Benchmarks (CCLB, 2012). A number of researchers have attempted to find out what pragmatic information is included in ESL/EFL textbooks “given the undeniable role of textbooks in language teaching programs” (Khodadady and Shayesteh, 2016, p. 608). A list of recent studies in this area include those of Siddiqie (2011), Khodadady and Shayesteh (2016), Khojasteh and Kafipour (2012), Aksoyalp and Toprak (2015), Vaezi et al. (2014), and Limberg (2016). However, these studies were focused in two areas only: speech acts and cultural knowledge. Given the relationship of these studies to the research topic of this thesis, a brief discussion of three representative studies of Vaezi et al. (2014), Limberg (2016), and Khodadady and Shayesteh (2016) is provided.

Vaezi et al. (2014) carried out a comparative study of speech acts in EFL textbooks written by native and non-native speakers, namely the *New Interchange*

³ The Canadian Language Benchmarks is the set of language proficiency descriptors used to guide the teaching and assessment of ESL learners in Canada.

series – the international textbook series, and the *Right Path to English* – the locally-made textbook series. By collecting and analyzing the dialogue sections included in these two series based on Searle's (1969) model of classifying speech acts, the authors found that the content of most dialogues in the local textbooks seem to differ from the type of language used by native speakers despite the need for authentic materials to enhance learners' linguistic and pragmatic competence in EFL teaching situations. Specifically, the findings indicated that the types of structures used in *Right Path to English* were "more polite" (Vaezi et al., 2014, p. 171) compared to those in *New Interchange*, and that indirect speech acts used in the latter outnumbered those used in the former. This was considered to be due to the impact of the national culture which values indirectness and politeness. Also, it was found that the dialogues of the latter were generally shorter than those of the former; that is, the dialogues used in these two series were different in the number of utterance included in each turn, namely 277 versus 225 utterances in 172 turns in *New Interchange* versus *Right Path to English* respectively. It can be said that the results of this study provide interesting points to be considered by those involved in textbook writing and syllabus designing. In choosing or developing textbooks, textbook writers and other related stakeholders should be aware of research findings in order to obtain materials that are authentic for learners so that they can successfully acquire communicative competence generally and pragmatic competence particularly.

In line with Vaezi et al. (2014), Limberg (2016) examined how German EFL textbooks provide input on the speech act of apologies for secondary school students. Following Barron's (2007) and Ogiermann's (2010) studies on request presentation

and on politeness and speech acts in EFL textbooks for German students, Limberg (2016) sought to find out:

- 1) the kind of pragmatic input that German EFL textbooks offer for learners on apologies compared to empirical research findings;
- 2) the kind of tasks and exercises to develop the speech act competence of apologizing, and
- 3) what methods and techniques of teaching pragmatics proposed in research literature are implemented in German EFL textbooks.

This research is valuable given that apologising is a ubiquitous and routinized pragmatic speech act which is important to master for learners, who may easily find themselves in situations in which their linguistic or otherwise behaviors caused an offense, violates a socio-cultural norm or simply does not meet others' expectations.

By analyzing three EFL textbook series including *Camden Town*, *Green Line*, and *English G 21*, each of which consists of six textbooks for German EFL students at secondary schools from Year 5 to 10, the author was able to obtain the following major findings:

- 1) apologies for being late or for not hearing or understanding are rather rare in these textbooks. The author notes that this conflicts with the findings of Deutshmann (2003) in his analysis of apologies in present-day English. Deutshmann (2003) found that apologies for not hearing and understanding are the most frequent (31.6%), and those for lack of consideration caused by interruptions, not paying attention or being late are the second most frequent (15.5%);

2) representation of apology input in all 18 textbooks in the form of explicit expressions only includes (*to be +*) *sorry* with the frequency of 165 times, and *excuse me* 49 times, without the frequent use of such interjections as ‘oh’, ‘well’, or ‘erm’;

3) apology input steadily decreases from Year 5 to 10;

4) these textbooks hardly offer any productive and reflective tasks to help learners notice form-function relations and situational constraints of target language use and compare these with their mother tongue.

It is interesting and crucial that Limberg’s (2016) research displayed the contrast between apology input from EFL textbooks and natural apologies from real-life communication, as well as showed the limited and oversimplified input and tasks from these textbooks. This calls for more application of research outcomes of pragmatics into EFL textbooks, and more teachers’ creative use of the textbooks.

On the whole, the studies of Vaezi et al. (2014) and Limberg (2016) shed light on the discrepancies between speech acts presented and practiced in EFL textbooks and those performed by native speakers or in real life, and highlight the question of textbook adaption for teachers and supplementary guidelines for textbook writers and policy-makers.

Taking a different aspect of pragmatics, Khodadady and Shayesteh (2016) evaluated a number of recently published English textbooks, namely *World English*, *Top Notch*, and *American English File* to investigate the cultural load, as well as to what extent the EIL (English as an international language) paradigm had been framed within the textbooks. Basing on Kachru’s (1992) division of inner, outer, and expanding circles, the overall results of this study revealed that the references of these textbooks to the inner circle countries and native speakers of English surpass the outer

and expanding circles countries despite their claim to address the needs of language learners anywhere in the world.

In summary, all of the three studies shed light on the problems that some ELT textbooks possess in terms of different aspects of pragmatics. However, all these studies can be criticized because they only focused on and were restricted to a certain aspect of pragmatics. This tendency in the research highlights the need for more comprehensive studies which investigate a wider range of aspects.

Regarding the broader examination of pragmatic contents from ESL/EFL textbooks, there have not been many studies conducted, except for the work of Vellenga (2004), and Ren and Han (2016). While the former author's work covers the pragmatic evaluation of both ESL and EFL textbooks in a wide context of North America and over the world, the latter's focuses on pragmatics in Chinese EFL oral textbooks. Despite the different settings of the two studies, they both reach the conclusion that pragmatic knowledge is under-represented in their investigated textbooks. The detailed findings of these studies are presented as follows.

Seeking to assess the quantity and quality of pragmatic contents included in ESL and EFL textbooks, Vellenga (2004) conducted a qualitative and quantitative study of 4 EFL books of integrated skills and 4 ESL books of grammar used in North America and worldwide for intermediate to upper-intermediate university-aged adults students. By analyzing in detail the use of metalanguage, explicit treatment of speech acts, and meta-pragmatic information including discussions of register, illocutionary force, politeness, appropriacy and usage, she found that

1) in both types of textbooks, pragmatic information accounted for merely a small portion of text with the mean of 20.4% for EFL textbooks and 5.1% for ESL

ones given that any information related to culture, context, illocutionary force, politeness, appropriacy and/or register appeared in the textbooks was counted as pragmatic information;

2) the metalanguage used in the textbooks provided neither a pragmatically appropriate source of linguistic input in terms of the sentence types used nor explicit metapragmatic information that would help learners acquire pragmatic competence;

3) the treatment of speech acts was pragmatically inadequate due to the lack of contextual information or explicit metapragmatic discussion; also, ESL textbooks failed to provide students with information of different grammatical forms to perform a speech act;

4) the range of speech acts presented in the textbooks was quite limited (between 3 and 20 unique speech acts), and the distribution of speech acts types across the textbooks was not patterned nor based on frequency of speech act occurrence in natural language;

5) teacher's manuals also failed to provide implicit or explicit discussion of speech acts, formality, politeness, and other pragmatic information; and

6) interviewed teachers were found to use the textbooks as the majority of input.

Adopting Vellenga's (2004) methods, Ren and Han (2016) conducted a similar investigation into 10 Chinese EFL oral textbooks published from 2009 to 2013 for university students at intermediate level. The authors obtained similar findings to Vellenga's (2004) study that pragmatic information also accounted for a small portion of the text in the textbooks, being restricted to 17.09 per cent of the textbooks pages on average, that the speech acts were presented in the textbooks without any

metapragmatic explanation, and that the range of speech acts was also limited. In addition, they were able to extend Vellenga's work to obtain other new findings:

1) there were significant differences in the amount of pragmatic information the textbooks included (Among the 10 examined textbooks, there were two which did not include any pragmatic information while there were three which contained more than one-third of the pages with some pragmatic information);

2) likewise, there was variation in speech acts among the textbooks, which indicated that there was no guiding principle regarding the presentation of speech acts in ELT materials development;

3) there were some textbooks in the study which offered some metapragmatic information by arranging linguistic expressions for speech acts according to the degree of formality; however, there was no explanation for the difference nor instruction on the factors influencing the formality of various expressions or on the variables affecting the politeness of each expression, such as social status, social distance, and the imposition of speech acts;

4) compared with the textbooks in Vellenga's (2004) study, the textbooks analyzed in this study showed improvements in providing students with several linguistic choices to convey intentional illocutionary force;

5) pragmatic convention is treated as a homogeneous entity in the textbooks given that macro-social factors such as region, age, and gender can affect intralingual pragmatic conventions across various English varieties. These findings show that pragmatic input in ESL/EFL textbooks in different contexts possesses similar problems.

In short, these two studies show serious problems in ESL/EFL textbooks regarding pragmatic input which obviously hinder student's development of communicative competence. Most importantly, Vellenga (2004) was able to set up a framework for researchers with the same research interest in evaluation of pragmatic information in ESL/EFL textbooks to follow while Ren & Han (2016) showed that a replication of Vellenga's (2004) study could bring about new interesting findings in their own context.

3.1.2. Research on pragmatic input in textbooks in Vietnam.

With regard to the EFL context of Vietnam, there has been a great deal of research whose foci are on speech acts and on the teaching and learning of speech acts among Vietnamese EFL learners, as well as on other sociopragmatic aspects such as politeness and directness in the case of Vietnamese EFL learners (see Tran, 2004; M. T. T. Nguyen, 2007; Pham, 2008; Hoang, 2013, etc. for examples). Nevertheless, the investigation into the teaching and learning of pragmatics in general, and into pragmatic input in textbooks in particular has received little attention. To the author's knowledge, there have been only 2 studies by Vu (2017) and ⁴M. T. T. Nguyen (2011) which are about pragmatic teaching at tertiary levels in Vietnam, and the evaluation of the Vietnamese EFL textbooks at upper-secondary schools respectively. The detail of Vu's (2017) study (which is his doctoral dissertation) is presented below and that of M. T. T. Nguyen (2011) is saved for the next section, in which all English textbook evaluations in Vietnam are reviewed.

⁴ M. T. T. Nguyen's (2011) work concerns the series preceding the ones investigated by this study.

Seeking to know about teachers' perceptions of pragmatics, their pragmatic teaching, and pragmatic components presented in textbooks and the curriculum at tertiary level in Vietnam, Vu (2017) conducted his study at a medium-sized public university in Central Highlands of Vietnam, which provides English instruction to both English majors and non-English majors. The fact that tertiary students are considered to be those who need English-using skills urgently given that their pragmatic knowledge has been far below society's and their own expectations motivated the author to conduct his research to shed light on the 'panorama' of pragmatic teaching in Vietnam.

Vu collected data from 29 Vietnamese lecturers of English who completed the questionnaires adapted from Ji (2007) and Kachru (1992) with 23 closed-ended questions for quantitative data analysis of teachers' perceptions of pragmatics and their pragmatic teaching and three open-ended questions for qualitative data. Six out of these 29 participants were then invited to participate in individual semi-structured interviews, each of which lasted 40 minutes, and four out of these 29 participants were invited to participate in a focus group discussion.

In addition, he also observed three 150-minute classes of the three participants, alongside analyzing the pragmatic components from the in-use textbook which were the *Face2face Pre-Intermediate Students' book* (Redston & Cunningham, 2005) and its Workbook (Tims, Redston, & Cunningham, 2005) and from the curriculum set by the Vietnamese MOET and the investigated university.

Through these instruments, the author found that teachers' understanding of pragmatic knowledge and its teaching varied across each individual teacher, which largely depends on linguistic and instructional experience, and that there was very

little pragmatic information presented in the textbook. To make matters worse, he found that teachers relied mostly on textbooks to teach pragmatics, and thus encountered difficulties in teaching it because of their lack of pragmatic competence, as well as L2 pragmatics teaching methodologies.

On the whole, this is a comprehensive study as it does not only examine pragmatics from teachers' perspective, but also from textbooks and curricular content. The data are collected from different instruments and are triangulated to enhance the validity of the findings. Also, the author offers detailed and thorough theoretical backgrounds in terms of both literature and research methodology in the field of pragmatics and English Language Teaching in the world as well as in EFL contexts, which can serve as a source of knowledge for EFL teachers and new researchers.

However, regarding the two goals of his research which are to shine light on the 'panorama' of pragmatic teaching in Vietnam and to examine the relationship between teachers' understanding of pragmatic knowledge and their teaching of this knowledge to student, it seems that the author may not have fully achieved them. On one hand, the number of 29 participants from one university is not enough to make generalizations to bring about a panorama as stated in his research; on the other, he reported a result that "the way teachers taught pragmatics knowledge was influenced by how they learned pragmatics and their perceptions of pragmatics" (Vu, 2017, p. 2), which is already quite widely-accepted in the literature of teacher cognition (see Borg, 2015). In addition, his results of textbook analysis was somewhat lacking in detail. Even though he adopted and developed quite an effective framework to evaluate a wide range of pragmatics including: pragmatic information (general pragmatic information, metalanguage style, speech acts, cultural knowledge), and pragmatic

tasks, he simply reported that only pragmatic information was analyzed because his selected textbooks contained limited pragmatic tasks. His failure in obtaining information about pragmatic tasks from the textbook may be due to his unelaborate definitions of each category and its sub-categories in his adapted framework for textbook analysis.

3.2. English textbook evaluation in Vietnam

Due to the crucial function of textbooks in English Language Teaching in Vietnam as mentioned above, in-use textbooks are often evaluated to make sure their suitability for the objectives of the curriculum as well as teachers' and learners' needs (Rea-Dickens and Germaine, 1994; Tomlinson, 2003). So far in Vietnam, there have been four textbook-evaluation studies: Dang and Seals (2016), C. T. Nguyen (2015), and M. T. T. Nguyen (2007 and 2011). These studies focus on English textbooks at primary schools, the English textbook for Grade 6 (*English 6*), English textbooks at upper-secondary schools (the series preceding the ones investigated by this study) with regard to communicative language teaching approach, and the development of intercultural pragmatic competence respectively. They are described and evaluated below.

Aiming at examining the issue of incorporating sociolinguistic aspects of language and culture into the current primary English textbooks under the NFLP 2020 in Vietnam, Dang and Seals (2016) carried out an investigation into the book series *Tieng Anh 3-4-5* (English textbooks for Grades 3, 4, and 5) with a focus on four main sociolinguistic aspects: teaching approach, bilingualism, language variations, and intercultural communication. The authors reported that the textbook design succeeds

quite well in adopting a communicative language teaching approach; however, English variations and cross-cultural knowledge are still limited in the textbook design, which can be seen through the teaching of pronunciation and spelling with the dominant norms of British English, the lack of diversity and authenticity in the recordings of the accompanying CDs, as well as the lack of experiential cultural activities in the textbooks.

Also, it was found that there is some confusion over whether bilingualism or double monolingualism is encouraged by the textbook writers. The authors noticed that even though in the teachers' books, the writers stated that a mixture of Vietnamese and English can be used to facilitate pupils' learning, the English textbooks and teachers' books themselves are all in English, which indicates the application of the double monolingualism norms in the design and use of the textbook. Through their findings, the authors called for the collaboration of English teachers, textbook writers, and policymakers to improve the quality of primary English textbooks in Vietnam generally and to introduce intercultural and multilingual aspects into English primary classes particularly.

Given the novelty of this textbook series and that these are the first official textbooks for primary school pupils in Vietnam, this evaluation is timely, and thus valuable as it facilitates the better adaption of the textbooks into the primary school English curriculum so that the expectation of the Vietnamese government in implementing these new textbook series, which is "to develop the English proficiency of Vietnamese learners from an early age and to help Vietnam keep up with other nations in economic and political areas" (Nguyen, 2011, as cited in Dang and Seals, 2016, p. 3) can be met. However, their published article could be enhanced if they

provided readers with more information about their research methodologies. By reporting which methods and/or frameworks they employed to evaluate the textbooks to yield the above findings, the authors could have added more depth and credibility to their study.

Also with an interest in Vietnamese EFL textbook evaluation, T. C. Nguyen (2015) conducted an evaluation of the English textbook set used for the 6th graders during the same period of time from 2004 to 2013 in Vietnam with regard to the context of secondary schools in the Mekong Delta Provinces of Vietnam. He carried out both a theoretical evaluation which was based on his experience, expertise, and textbook evaluation literature and an empirical evaluation based on his data collected from 22 teachers and 313 pupils from eight schools in four provinces in the Mekong Delta with the use of questionnaires, semi-structured interviews, documents and classroom observation. Through these evaluations, he reported that the textbook suits the teaching and learning context and culture, gives much help to both teachers and pupils, and receives positive responses from teachers and pupils. Besides, he also suggested improving the textbook by creating more varied types of activities, adding free practice activities after the controlled ones to help pupils practice speaking and writing creatively, and supplementing the textbook with language material from different resources which need to be made available and better in both physical appearance and quality.

Despite the strengths that the author stated about the book, it has to be noted that by the time he submitted his evaluation, a new book which was intended by MOET to replace his evaluated book had already been piloted across Vietnam since

2013. As such, his positive comments about the suitability and helpfulness of the book need to be considered in the light of this decision.

Moreover, in his evaluation thesis, even though the author provided useful discussion of textbook evaluation theories, clear research methodology adoption, and good comparison between the evaluated textbook with the *New Headway Beginners* (published by Oxford University Press in 2002), there appeared to be some inconsistencies in his findings. On one hand, he praised the book as being very helpful to teachers and pupils, but on the other, he was critical of the process by which it had been designed, reporting that the findings indicated textbook writers should carry out learner needs analysis before writing textbooks to ensure their matching with learners' needs.

What is of foremost importance to the present study is the project under the sponsorship of the RELC SEAMEO of Singapore conducted by M. T. T. Nguyen (2007) to evaluate the English textbooks used for upper-secondary school students. This importance is because of the focus on pragmatics and the adoption of the communicative language teaching approach. The research set out to evaluate the quality of the books regarding the ultimate goal of the curriculum which is to develop the learners' communicative competence as well as the shift of teaching methodology from the grammar-translation method to the communicative language teaching approach.

By analyzing the textbooks closely with the use of the modified checklist of Cunningsworth (1995), together with investigating a survey into teachers' opinions about the quality and practicality of the textbooks, and a thirty-minute telephone interview with one of the textbook authors to understand the underlying philosophy of

language teaching and materials development, M. T. T. Nguyen (2007) identified the strengths and weaknesses of the textbook series which are summarized in the following table. Aspects of the analysis that are relevant to pragmatics are indicated in bold type.

Table 2. Reported Strengths and Weaknesses of M. T. T. Nguyen's (2017) Investigated Textbook Series

Strengths	Weaknesses	
	The teaching of language skills	The teaching of language elements
1. A clear organizational structure, which can be very helpful for teachers in conducting their lessons and students in managing self-study	1. Reading: - Lack of variety of text types, which may cause boredom to students and fail to prepare them for real world reading; - Reading for specific information and detailed understanding are mostly focused. Reading for gist and guessing meaning in context are not appropriately dealt with although these are both mentioned in the syllabus	1. Grammar: - The teaching of grammar is the most problematic part in the books. Grammar is taught in isolation, without pragmatic focus. All 27 communicative functions are taught and practiced out of context and without meta-pragmatic information. - Different grammatical points are sometimes crammed into one unit.

	<p>and the book map of each book;</p> <p>- Serious limitations are seen in comprehension questions which are mostly factual, and in word guessing activities which lack provided contexts for students to guess out the words.</p>	
2. An adequate number of review units	<p>2. Speaking:</p> <p>- Speaking activities are quasi-communicative, which offer no chance for genuine exchange of information or opinions. This contradicts the claimed methodology of the books, which is “communicative” and “task-based”;</p> <p>- Also, the designed activities do not reflect the</p>	<p>2. Pronunciation:</p> <p>- Phonology is taught non-communicatively. Sounds are taught and practiced mechanically via repetition drilling. No communicative tasks for students to practice them in connected, natural discourse.</p>

<hr/> <p>nature of communicative interaction in respect of structure of discourse in interactions.</p> <hr/>		
<p>3. The adequate covering of all four language skills as well as the integration of skills at the pre and post stages</p>	<p>3. Listening: - Absence of listening for gist and important micro- skills like deducing / inferring meaning from context; - Factual and straightforward comprehension questions</p>	<p>3. Vocabulary: - Even though the teaching of vocabulary is adequate, many of the activities whose aims are to help students deal with unknown words and using dictionaries are not properly designed.</p>
<p>4. Good teaching of vocabulary: Vocabulary is both taught in meaningful contexts and further consolidated in form-focused exercises</p>	<p>4. Writing: - Writing activities are product-oriented. No explicit emphasis on the process of planning, drafting, revision, and editing; - Lack of adequate and effective scaffolding for students;</p> <hr/>	

- Many writing activities

**do not specify the
readership and the
purpose for writing.**

- Lack of free writing
activities given that the
goal of teaching writing in
CLT is to enable learners
to become independent
and effective writers;

5. Adequate

representation of
communicative functions
in terms of range and
recurring times

As can be seen in this table, the 2004-2013 English textbook series for upper-secondary school students in Vietnam showed limitations in terms of pragmatics, which prevented teachers and learners from achieving the ultimate goal of improving students' English communication ability. Even though they were better than their previous counterparts, they were evaluated as not corresponding with current theories of second language acquisition and communicative language teaching.

M. T. T. Nguyen's (2007) analysis of the textbooks gave textbook writers and teachers valuable comments and implications about the proper picture of the

communication-oriented textbooks. However, despite the effectiveness of the textbook analysis component of the project (detailed above), there were some methodological limitations affecting the outcomes of the teacher surveys.

Unlike other textbook evaluation researchers (Vu, 2017; and C. T. Nguyen, 2015) who employed lengthy and detailed questionnaires to ask about teachers' beliefs and/or ideas, M. T. T. Nguyen (2007) used only five open-ended questions in her self-designed questionnaire survey in Vietnamese to ask 250 Vietnamese EFL teachers to comment on the general strengths and weaknesses of the textbook series in comparison with the previous series without any focus on the communicative characteristics of the textbooks per se (see M. T. T. Nguyen, 2007, p. 66). This could be why her collected data from this instrument failed to fully support the findings in her textbook analysis. Hence, no meaningful connection between the two parts of the study could be made. In addition, as she did not provide an appendix for the interview questionnaire as she did for the survey questionnaire, readers also have only vague ideas about what she asked during her textbook author's interview which was conducted with one author in 30 minutes.

In addition to this evaluation research project, M. T. T. Nguyen (2011) also dedicated an article discussing the integration of intercultural pragmatic competence into the same textbook series. Basing it on her above research project, the author reported in this article that the textbooks did not constitute an accurate and adequate source of pragmatic information and argued for the need to provide realistic pragmatic models that are necessarily accompanied by adequate explanation of rules of use in order to facilitate learners' development of pragmatic competence in the target language. She also called for "immediate attention from textbook developers and

teachers, particularly those working in the EFL context given that their learners have relatively limited access to authentic input and rely almost solely on textbooks for language learning” (M. T. T. Nguyen, 2011, p. 27) to integrate pragmatics into Vietnamese EFL textbooks particularly and worldwide ESL/EFL textbooks generally.

3.3. Concluding remarks

The above literature review shows a small but growing body of research on pragmatics in ESL/EFL textbooks and teaching curricula from 2004 to date. To varying degrees, all of this research has contributed to our understanding of the extent to which pragmatics is included in ESL/EFL textbooks and it supports the argument for the inclusion of pragmatics in the teaching curricula and in textbooks in ESL/EFL contexts generally and in the Vietnamese EFL context particularly. More importantly, it reveals that there is still a research gap in the literature and a need to conduct a research study not only into some aspects of pragmatics but how pragmatic information as a whole is included in EFL textbooks, especially in the newly published Vietnamese EFL textbooks under the NFLP 2020. As remarked by Khodadady and Shayesteh (2016), “given the undeniable role of textbooks in language teaching programs, attempts must be made to boost their quality. One of the best way could be via a scrupulous evaluation” (p. 608).

Given this crucial need, the present study is conducted to bridge the gap in the literature, and to serve as an evaluation of the new English textbook series for Vietnamese upper-secondary school students with a focus on pragmatic input.

On the information available, no previous study takes into account pragmatic input from this new series, despite the significance of such research not only to Vietnamese EFL teachers and learners but also to the textbook writers and policy makers of the country.

3.4. Research questions

Informed by the above literature and need, this study aims at finding out what kind of pragmatic information is included in the current EFL textbooks for upper-secondary school students in Vietnam. In this regard, it addresses the following five specific research questions:

1. What kind of general pragmatic information is included in the textbooks?
2. How many topicalized speech acts are included in the textbooks? How are these speech acts distributed and presented? What kind of contextual and meta-pragmatic information accompanies these speech acts?
3. Do the textbooks provide students with information about English-Vietnamese pragmatic differences in selecting and performing speech acts?
4. What kinds of pragmatic tasks are included in the textbooks?
5. To what extent, does the metalanguage used in the textbooks provide a pragmatically appropriate source of linguistic input and explicit meta-pragmatic information?

CHAPTER 4

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

This chapter describes in detail the research approach and design, as well as the methods of data collection and analysis best suited to investigate the research questions set out in Chapter 3 of this thesis. Specifically, it starts with a brief discussion of content analysis - which is the major methodology employed in the present study. This is followed by a review on research studies in which content analysis is involved. The purpose of this review is to provide the foundation for both the present study and the establishment of the framework for pragmatic content analysis to be used in this study. It then continues with the methodological design of the present study, in which the framework for textbook analysis of pragmatic input is described in detail. Subsequently, it presents information about the processes of data collection and data analysis, as well as the issues of validity and reliability of the study before ending with some concluding remarks.

4.1. Research approach and method

In order to address the research questions posed by the present study, a qualitative and quantitative approach and the method of content analysis are chosen as the methodological design of the study. In what follows, the definitions and strengths of content analysis are presented.

4.1.1. Definition of content analysis.

In some very first general textbooks about content analysis, it was defined as an objective, systematic, and quantitative method of describing the content of texts (see the comprehensive review by Franzosi, 2008). According to these early developers of content analysis, it was a general term for “methodologies that code text

into categories and then count the frequencies of occurrences within each category.” (Ahuvia, 2001, p. 183). By this definition, content analysis was restricted to a quantitative approach only. In addition, since content analysis deals mostly with written symbols and texts, early developers did also “exclude pragmatics from the concerns of content analysis.” (Franzosi, 2008, p. xxvi).

However, when the pioneers of content analysis attempted to expand their technique beyond explicit message content, issues of pragmatics in content analysis were addressed to embrace interpretations of latent content (connotative meanings). This brought about a new term in content analysis, which is ‘interpretive content analysis’, a method for the interpretations of latent content and other more complex tasks (Ahuvia, 2001).

Likewise, a qualitative approach to content analysis was adopted for 1) the preliminary reading of communications materials for purposes of hypothesis formation and the discovery of new relationships; 2) an impressionistic procedure for making observations about content characteristics; 3) dichotomous attributes (i.e., attributes which can be predicated only as belonging or not belonging to an object); and 4) a “flexible” procedure for making content-descriptive observations, or “coding” judgments (George, 1959, as cited in Franzosi, 2008). In other words, qualitative content analysis expands beyond mere word counts to include meaningful inferences and conclusion from data.

After more than three decades since the first textbook about content analysis was published by Berelson (1952), Weber (1985) generated the following full definition of content analysis as a research methodology in social sciences without any exclusions of different domains of linguistics nor research approaches:

Content analysis is a research methodology that utilizes a set of procedures to make valid inferences from text. These inferences are about the sender(s) of message, the message itself, or the audience of the message. (p. 9).

Being a method which has the longest history as a method of text analysis among the empirical methods of social research (Herkner, 1974; Holsti, 1968; Silbermann, 1974; Titscher et al., 2000, as cited in Vu, 2017), content analysis holds the strength of providing objective data as it is an unobtrusive method which does not involve participants in a study (Neuman, 2003).

More discussion about the advantages of content analysis is presented below.

4.1.2. Strengths of content analysis as a research method in social sciences.

According to Weber (1985), content analysis holds several advantages over other data-generating and analysis techniques as its procedures “operate directly upon text or transcripts of human communications” (p. 10). As such, this method is suitable for research whose purpose is to make “inferences by systematically and objectively identifying specified characteristics within text” (Stone et al., 1966, as cited in Franzosi, 2008, p. xxx).

Also, Webb et al. (1966) remarked:

Compared with techniques such as interviews, content analysis yields unobtrusive measures in which neither the sender nor the receiver of the message is aware that it is being analyzed. Hence there is little danger that the act of measurement itself will act as a force for change that confounds the data. (as cited in Weber, 1985, p. 10).

This is the reason why content analysis is considered as “a research technique for making replicable and valid inferences from data to their context” (Krippendorff, 1980, as cited in Franzosi, 2008, p. xxx). The truth of Krippendorff’s statement can be

seen in the research studies of Vellenga (2004) and Ren and Han (2016) as discussed earlier in chapter 3, in which the latter employed the former's framework of content analysis to analyze the textbooks in Chinese EFL context and brought about new outcomes.

In the following section, some research studies in Culture and Pragmatics in English Language Teaching textbooks which involve the use of content analysis as a research method are mentioned to support the present study, and then to establish the framework which is used for the process of data collection and analysis of this study.

4.1.3. Some content-analytic studies in Culture and Pragmatics in English Language Teaching textbooks: data collection and analysis.

Within the studies of ELT textbooks, the method of content analysis has been used to investigate various research issues such as: the frequency and type of collocation, multiple intelligences principles, vocabulary items, etc. (see Shahrokhi and Moradmand, 2014; Razmjoo and Jozaghi, 2010; Hamigloglu and Karllova, 2009 for examples). However, the aspects of culture and pragmatics in ELT textbooks seem to be examined almost exclusively with the use of the content analysis method. For instance, the proportion and kinds of intercultural contents in Bangladeshi ELT textbooks were analyzed by Siddiqie (2011); cultural and linguistic imperialism and the EIL movement in Iranian ELT textbooks were investigated by Khodadady and Shayesteh (2016); the presentation of local and international culture in current international ELT textbooks was questioned by Shin, Eslami, and Chen (2017); how Politeness Theory is applied to the teaching of Imperative Mood in Brazilian ELT textbooks was examined by Aldrovandi (2014); and pragmatic components in

ESL/EFL textbooks were scrutinized by Vellenga (2004), M. T. T. Nguyen (2011), Ren and Han (2016), and Vu (2017) as mentioned previously in chapter 3.

The widespread application of the content analysis method in these studies of cultural and pragmatic aspects attests to its usefulness. Regarding the adoption of this method in this study, it is deemed the most suitable method to employ as the main data to collect and analyse in this study are explicit pragmatic information presented in the textbooks. This method allows the collected data to be analysed both quantitatively and qualitatively with the use of the framework for textbook analysis adapted from Vellenga (2004) and Vu (2017).

Since the present study focuses on the analysis of pragmatic input in textbooks, a review of how content analysis was employed in similar studies by Vellenga (2004), M. T. T. Nguyen (2011), Ren and Han (2016), and Vu (2017) which were previously discussed in chapter 3 is presented below.

In her qualitative and quantitative content analysis of pragmatic information in eight ESL/EFL textbooks, Vellenga (2004) divided pragmatic information into 4 main categories, namely, general pragmatic information (including politeness, appropriacy, formality, register, culture), metalanguage style (the use of different sentence types when introducing topical units, particular linguistic forms, usage information, or student instructions, and the use of the personal pronouns ‘I’ or ‘We’), speech acts, and meta-pragmatic description of speech acts. The counts and descriptions of these different kinds of pragmatic information were obtained through performing a page-by-page analysis of the eight books.

From this division, it is clear that her study put an emphasis on speech acts, which accounted for half of the weight of the classification scale. However, she was

successful in establishing a clear framework for other researchers with the same interest to follow. In fact, Ren and Han (2016) borrowed her approach in their study of ten Chinese oral EFL textbooks with the addition of the category of intralingual pragmatic variation found in different English varieties, and still with “special attention to the treatment of speech acts in ELT textbooks” (Ren and Han, 2016, p. 425).

Regarding the EFL context of Vietnam, M. T. T. Nguyen (2011) conducted a qualitative analysis and evaluation of the pragmatic information in the textbook series used during the period of 2004 – 2013 for Vietnamese upper-secondary school students also with a focus on speech acts. In her study, she classified pragmatic information into three categories for analysis: 1) the range and distribution of the speech acts included in the books, 2) the linguistic presentations of these speech acts, and 3) the type of contextual and meta-pragmatic information accompanying these presentations. It can be seen that Nguyen’s (2011) classification system is narrower and even more speech-acts focused than Vellenga’s (2004).

Also in the EFL context of Vietnam, Vu (2017) carried out a quantitative and qualitative analysis of the pragmatic components in the EFL textbook used to teach non-English majoring students at one public university in Vietnam - the *Face2face Pre-Intermediate Students’ book*, together with its accompanying workbook and teachers’ book. In this study, he adopted Vellenga’s (2004) classification of pragmatic information and Kachru’s (1992) classification of English users into three circles, namely the ‘inner circle’ (including those who are native speakers of English from such countries as the United Kingdom, Australia, Canada, New Zealand, South Africa, and the United States, the ‘outer circle’ (including speakers of English as a second

language from such countries as Hong Kong, India, and Singapore), and the ‘expanding circle’ (including speakers of English as a foreign language from such countries as Germany, Hungary, Poland, China, and Japan) (see Kachru, 1992 for more discussion).

This author divided pragmatic content into pragmatic information and pragmatic tasks. The pragmatic information followed Vellenga’s (2004) classification with the replacement of meta-pragmatic description of speech acts by cultural knowledge, which was coded into two categories only, that is, cultures of speakers of English as a native language and cultures of speakers of ESL, EFL, ELF. The author remarked that cultural knowledge was under general pragmatic information according to Vellenga’s (2004) model but was treated as a category in his analysis because one aim of his study was to highlight the role of culture in language learning and teaching. As for pragmatic tasks, these included pragmatically oriented tasks and culture-oriented tasks. The author did not provide a definition of either of these terms.

Vu (2017) developed a wider and more comprehensive framework to analyze pragmatic information in ELT textbooks with the addition of the category of ‘pragmatic tasks’. This category is essential in the evaluation of pragmatic input in ELT textbooks because on one hand, it is also a source of pragmatic input for classroom language learners; and on the other, it is a means for learners to reinforce their pragmatic knowledge if included in the books. Unfortunately, he was not able to investigate further as the textbook under consideration contained limited pragmatic tasks, which failed to provide enough data for analysis. Actually, in his thesis, he reported that the number of pragmatic tasks found in the textbook was too small for analysis; therefore, only pragmatic contents was analyzed.

In summary, the studies of Vellenga (2004), M. T. T. Nguyen (2011), Ren and Han (2016), and Vu (2017), dealing with a comparable set of data to the one in this study, helped to provide a foundation for the methodological design. This will be presented in the following section.

4.1.4. Quantitative and qualitative content analysis – the methodological design of the present study.

In order to find out the answers to the research questions stated in chapter 3, the present study adopted both quantitative and qualitative approaches of the content analysis method to determine the quantity and quality of pragmatic input included in the textbooks. The notion of ‘quality’ will be explained in section 4.3.

A framework for textbook analysis was adapted from Vellenga’s (2004) classification of pragmatic information and Vu’s (2017) adapted framework of Vellenga (2004) and Kachru (1992). The rationale for this choice is the effectiveness of Vellenga’s (2004) checklist as mentioned in chapter 3 and section 4.1.3 of this chapter, and the expansion of Vu’s (2017) in including pragmatic tasks into the examination of pragmatic information in textbooks. In this combined framework, **pragmatic input** consists of **pragmatic components**, **pragmatic tasks**, and **metalanguage style**.

Pragmatic components are divided into two categories, namely **general pragmatic information**, and **speech acts**. The first category, i.e. **general pragmatic information**, includes five sub-categories: **politeness**, **appropriacy**, **formality**, **register**, and **cultural knowledge**. The term ‘cultural knowledge’ of Vu’s (2017)

model is used in the present study rather than the term ‘culture’ of Vellenga’s (2004) because it is more closely aligned with the third research question.

In this study, **politeness** is considered to relate to any information from the textbooks which provides learners with knowledge of how to choose levels of English politeness that are appropriate to the context in English. This could be some simple instructions of how to soften a command or how to use hedges to mitigate criticisms, etc. In the same vein, **appropriacy** relates to any knowledge from the textbooks which informs learners of whether or not a form is appropriate to be used in a certain context or genre. **Formality** includes knowledge about context and choices of ‘formal’ and ‘informal’ forms while **register** covers knowledge of stylistic variation like different usage in written and spoken language. As for **cultural knowledge**, any information related to the knowledge of English and Vietnamese cultures in communication are classified into this sub-category.

The second category, **speech acts**, was investigated in terms of **explicit mentioning** (that is, the explicit naming of speech acts in terms of their functions, such as: agreement, disagreement, opinions, advice, etc.) and **meta-pragmatic description** (any commentary on usage or contextual references of speech acts from the textbooks is placed under this sub-category).

As for **pragmatic tasks**, those activities or exercises from the textbooks that provide opportunities for pragmalinguistic practice are placed under the category of **pragmatically-oriented tasks** (for example, “Read the following phrases and sentences. Write A if it expresses an agreement and write D if it expresses a disagreement. Add two more expressions / sentences ...”) whereas those relating to the practice of English and Vietnamese cultural norms are listed under the category of

culture-oriented tasks (for example, “Work in pairs. One will be a Vietnamese, and one will be an Anglo-cultural friend. Practice giving and replying to compliments ...”).

Information on **metalinguage style** was also examined in this study regarding the sentence types (declarative, imperative, interrogative) used in the explanation of linguistic knowledge and in the instruction of each activity in the textbooks, as well as the metapragmatic information such as interlocutor status, cultural information, usage notes, and other relevant contextual information. In this study, **metalinguage style** was divided into four sub-categories according to its four types of functions:

Description (explicit explanation about how to construct a particular form, typically accompanied by example sentences, for example “Tag questions consist of a statement and a tag – Example: You don’t like coffee, do you?”); **Instruction** (language that gives usage or topical information about a particular form, for example “Tag questions are often used to ask for confirmation. They have similar meanings to ‘Is that right?’ or ‘Do you agree?’”); **Introduction** (language elements that prepare students for an activity by focusing their attention on a particular topic or theme, for instance “When you are sick, do you go to doctor?”); and **Task-related** (explicit information on how to perform the practice activity, for example “Choose three problems and talk about them like this.”) (Vellenga, 2004). For this category, only the text used to preface activities and explain grammatical points in the students’ books was chosen for analysis. Text within examples, exercises and reading passages (except those related to pragmatic or cultural norms) was ignored.

This framework for the content analysis of the textbooks with the focus on pragmatic input is summarily presented in the table below.

Table 3. Framework for Textbook Analysis (Adapted from Vellenga (2004) and Vu (2017))

Pragmatic input		
Pragmatic components	Pragmatic tasks	Metalanguage style
General pragmatic information	Pragmatically –	Description
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Politeness - Appropriacy - Formality - Register - Cultural knowledge 	oriented tasks	
Speech acts	Cultural – oriented	Instruction
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Explicitly mentioned - Metapragmatic descriptions 	tasks	
		Introduction
		Task-related

4.2. Data collection

4.2.1. Data sources.

As mentioned in chapter 1, the new series of EFL textbooks which are official for Vietnamese upper-secondary school students across the country under the NFLP 2020 of the government were examined in the present study for pragmatic input. The accompanying CDs which include the audio for the listening activities and recordings

of the reading passages were not considered separately because all transcripts of the recordings were provided in the students' books.

These textbooks were written by Vietnamese authors with the collaboration of one native English author, and published by the Educational Publishing House of Vietnam and Pearson Education. As stated in the teacher's manuals of *English 10 – Volumes 1-2*, *English 11 – Volumes 1-2*, and *English 12 – Volumes 1-2*, “when finishing upper secondary school, students will achieve level three of the Vietnamese Foreign Language Competence Framework (equivalent to B1 in the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages)” (Hoang et al., 2016, p. iii). As such, the approximate level of these textbooks is from beginner (A1) for *English 10* through elementary English (A2) for *English 11* to intermediate English (B1) for *English 12*. These textbooks focus on developing students' communicative competence and follow “the systematic, cyclical and theme-based curriculum approved by the Ministry of Education and Training” (Hoang et al., 2016, p. iii). By completing this textbook series, students

Can understand the main points of clear standard input on familiar matters regularly encountered in work, school, leisure, etc. Can deal with most situations likely to arise whilst travelling in an area where the language is spoken. Can produce simple, connected text on topics which are familiar or of personal interest. Can describe experiences and events, dreams and hopes and ambitions and briefly give reasons and explanations for opinions and plans. (Hoang, 2016, p. 14).

Each students' book consists of five topic-based units and two review units.

Each of the teaching units is comprised of six sections:

- Getting started;

- Language (which includes three sub-sections: Vocabulary, Pronunciation, and Grammar);
- Skills (which includes four sub-sections: Reading, Speaking, Listening, and Writing;
- Communication and culture;
- Looking back;
- Project.

The workbook is for mirroring and reinforcing the content of the students' book, and "it offers further practice of the language and skills taught in class, and four additional tests for students' self-assessment" (Hoang et al., 2016, p. iv). The teachers' book is for giving full procedural notes for teaching different parts of each unit and suggestions for the teaching techniques for teachers to use in their own teaching contexts, and for providing the answer keys to the exercises in the students' book and the audio scripts (Hoang et al., 2016).

It has to be noted that these textbooks are written for students from the age of 16 to 18, whose pragmatic competence already develop naturally in L1. However, it can be said that their English pragmatic knowledge is generally quite limited due to the lack of exposure to English-speaking environments and to the way English is taught in the EFL context of Vietnam (in which a great emphasis has been placed on developing linguistic rather than pragmatic competence (M. T. T. Nguyen , 2013). Nevertheless, given the objectives of this textbook series as mentioned earlier in this section, it is necessary that students are provided with English pragmatic information through textbooks and teachers. In fact, as reported by the chief editor of this textbook series, the design of both this series and its pilot curriculum was based on "the principles of communicative language teaching in combination with a consideration

of the social and cultural realities of Vietnam, using selectively and creatively the insights of several curricula of English as a second/foreign language of countries in the region and in the world” (Hoang, 2016, p.13). As such, it is believed that the textbooks and the teaching curriculum must have been designed with attention to pragmatic information alongside linguistic features even though the terms ‘pragmatics, and ‘pragmatic competence’ are not explicitly articulated in the objectives of the textbooks and the curriculum.

The following section describes in details which information from the students’ books, workbooks, and teachers’ books of the series was extracted for analysis in this study.

4.2.2. Data extraction from textbooks.

4.2.2.1. The selection of explicit pragmatic input.

As mentioned earlier in this study in A note on terminology on page 12, only pragmatic input that is explicitly presented in the textbooks is collected for data analysis. Although it is undeniable that students can learn, to some extent, pragmatic features of the target language implicitly through example conversations, illustrations of grammatical rules, etc. in the textbooks, it has been reported that learners who received explicit pragmatic instruction outperformed those under implicit measures in terms of both fluency and quality of target features such as request forms, criticisms, hedging, etc. in a bulk of research findings from as early as 1994 to 2013 in ESL and EFL contexts by Cohen and Tarone (1994), Wishnoff (2000), da Silva (2003), Eslami-Rasekh et al. (2004), Eslami and Eslami-Rasekh (2008), Halenko and Jones (2011), Tan and Farashaiyan (2012), Nguyen et al. (2012), Usó-Juan (2013), and Alcón-Soler and Guzman-Pitarch (2013). Given that EFL students mainly rely on

teacher's instruction to acquire knowledge in the target language and on the setting of classrooms to practice their knowledge, it is believed that explicit approach can be "a facilitative tool to develop pragmatic competence in a foreign language" (Rueda, 2006, p. 169), in which all target features are made salient and presented directly to them (see Taguchi, 2015). This is the reason why only explicitly articulated information related to pragmatics in the textbooks is selected for data analysis in this study. However, all of the dialogues in the Getting Started sections in all students' books are also analysed to see what implicit pragmatic information present in the textbooks can be highlighted to students by teachers (see Appendix C).

4.2.2.2. Extraction of explicit pragmatic input from textbooks.

Given the majority of teaching and learning time spent on students' books, as well as the main source of input that students' books offer to students, they are considered the primary source of data for this study. As such, a page-by-page analysis was performed over the students' books to investigate the quantity and quality of pragmatic content included; in other words, the analysis of the students' books was to bring about information of how much and what kind of pragmatic knowledge was included in the textbooks.

Workbooks, with their function of mirroring and reinforcing the content of the students' books by providing students with more practice exercises, were examined for the quantity and quality of pragmatic tasks included.

Also, teachers' books were examined to determine how textbook authors guided the use of the students' books in the classroom, and to cross-reference with the students' books for pragmatic contents.

4.2.3. Extracted data placement.

The extracted data were placed into the framework for textbook analysis (see Table 3) in the following order.

First, a pilot study of the first units of all of the students' books was carried out to see whether the aforementioned framework would cover all pragmatic input found, that is; whether all the information related to pragmatics included in the books could be placed into the categories and their sub-categories of the framework. When it was concluded that all pragmatic input collected from the initial sample could be appropriately placed into each category and sub-category of the framework, further categorisation of all pragmatic data from the whole textbook series into the framework was conducted (see Appendix E for more details about the pilot study and its results).

After the pilot study, all of the textbooks were analyzed by the researcher, with all instances of pragmatic input being first identified and coded. (An instance is an item of explicit information related to pragmatics found in the textbook. For example, the section of "Do you know...? We use *should* and *shouldn't* to give our opinions about something or advice to someone." (*English 11 – Volume 1*, p. 9) is counted as one instance and put in the sub-category of Explicit mentioned of Speech acts.

The collected data were checked three times by the researcher to establish intra-rater reliability, and the coding of the students' books was checked twice by a PhD degree holder in Linguistics from the University of Queensland, Australia in order to establish interrater reliability. This means that the student's textbooks were

scrutinized five times altogether in order to assure all pragmatic input in the textbooks were detected and analyzed in a pragmatically appropriate way, as well as to ensure the accuracy of the researcher's detection and analysis. The rationale behind these activities was to enhance the validity and reliability of the present study, which is discussed in the next section.

The data collected from the textbooks were recorded and organized into categories and sub-categories set out in the framework on a Microsoft Excel workbook for qualitative and quantitative analysis.

4.3. Data analysis

4.3.1. Data analysis procedure.

The collected data were analysed through the following stages:

- Step 1: All collected data were counted to yield the total amount of pragmatic input included in the textbook series, as well as the percentage of each category and sub-category of pragmatic input in this study.
- Step 2: The collected data in each category and its sub-categories were analyzed qualitatively with regard to the findings and discussions from similar previous studies of Vellenga (2004), M. T. T. Nguyen (2007 and 2011), Ren and Han (2016), and Vu (2017) and to current L2 pragmatics theories to shed light on the quality of the pragmatic information identified from the textbooks. In examining the pragmatic tasks collected from the students' books and workbooks, Bloom's Revised Taxonomy by Anderson et al. (2001) and Ishihara and Cohen's (2010) example of pragmatic tasks were used to analyse the quality and nature of this kind of tasks in this textbook series.

4.3.2. Rationale for the adoptions of Bloom's Revised Taxonomy by Anderson et al. (2001) and Ishihara and Cohen's (2010) example of pragmatic tasks for pragmatic tasks analysis.

In analysing the collected pragmatic tasks, first of all, Bloom's Revised Taxonomy by Anderson et al. (2001) with the six cognitive categories including: Remember, Understand, Apply, Evaluate, and Create (see Appendix A) is used to see what kind of cognitive process that students are required to do these tasks. The reason behind this adoption lies in the belief that "students are increasingly likely to make connections between and among elements of knowledge when activities are used that involve more complex processes such as Analyse, Evaluate, and Create." (Anderson et al., 2001, p. 235). As such, it is believed that if students have to use more complex cognitive processes such as Analyze, Evaluate, and Create to complete the pragmatic tasks identified from the textbooks, they are more likely to master the taught knowledge.

Meanwhile, Ishihara and Cohen's (2010) example of pragmatic tasks (see Appendix B) is used to compare the nature of the pragmatic tasks found from the textbooks with the one specifically designed for enhancing awareness of pragmatic behaviour. Even though Ishihara and Cohen's (2010) example is a hands-on activity which is "intended for enhancing teachers' (and their students') pragmatic awareness and reflective teaching" (Ishihara and Cohen, 2010, p. xi), it is deemed that this kind of activity could also be helpful for learners at B1 level under teacher's instructions, for the following reasons. As Rueda (2006) emphasized, the adoption of the communicative approach requires the focus on the functional abilities in the target with the final purpose of understanding and producing language that is appropriate to

communicative situations in accordance with specific parameters. As such, regardless of students' current level of language proficiency, they need to be informed of pragmatic features of the target language if the ultimate goal of the curriculum is to develop their communicative competence. Therefore, this example of pragmatic tasks by Ishihara and Cohen (2010) with crucial notions of pragmatics (formality, directness, politeness, status, level of acquaintance, and the stakes⁵), clear objectives and step-by-step instructions for each activity is used in this study to demonstrate to teacher readers about a typical pragmatic tasks and to provide them with food for thoughts to adapt the pragmatic tasks from the textbooks in a pragmatics-oriented way.

4.4. Validity and reliability

The quality of a research design is related to the validity and reliability of its data or findings (Lewis, 2004). In content analysis “validity is the extent to which a measuring procedure represents the intended, and only the intended, concept. In thinking about validity, we ask the question, “Are we measuring what we want to measure?”” (Neuendorf, 2002, p. 112). In other words, validity refers to whether the researcher is examining what s/he claims to be examining (Arksey and Knight, 1999). The validity of the study was enhanced by the use of the aforementioned previously established framework to fully examine the pragmatic content included in the textbook series and through the scrutiny of the researchers.

⁵ The use of metalanguage, namely technical or semi-technical terminology like these to analyse or describe language is considered significant in L2 teaching and learning as it enables students to understand more about the target language (see Hu, 2010).

As for reliability, in content analysis, it “is the extent to which a measuring procedure yields the same results on repeated trials. The notion relevant to content analysis is that a measure is not valuable if it can be conducted only once or only by one particular person.” (Neuendorf, 2002, p. 112). Therefore, all of the students’ books in this study were coded three times and checked twice as reported in section 4.2.3 with 100% intrarater reliability and the percentage of interrater agreement averaging 95%. The small number of differences in the analysis were easily resolved by re-examining the situations.

Moreover, reliability is concerned with whether the findings would be consistent if another study, using the same or similar methods or instruments, was implemented (Lewis and Richie, 2004). Because of this, specific information about the research methodology, as well as the research processes including piloting, data collection, and data analysis was provided in the current study to increase the comparability of the findings with those that may arise from future studies.

4.5. Concluding remarks

This chapter has outlined the research methodology and described the processes of piloting, data collection, and data analysis in detail. The framework for pragmatic contents analysis of the textbooks was adapted from Vellenga’s (2004) and Vu’s (2017) models. The steps taken to ensure validity and reliability of the study have also been described.

CHAPTER 5

RESEARCH FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

This chapter presents and discusses the results of the whole study. It is divided into five sections to report quantitative findings of pragmatic input included in the textbook series, and then to quantitatively and qualitatively cover the four domains of the research questions; that is, *general pragmatic information* – i.e. the inclusion of explicit information regarding politeness, appropriacy, formality, register, and cultural knowledge -, *speech act treatment*, *pragmatic tasks*, and *metalanguage style*.

5.1. Percentage of pragmatic input included and its distribution in this textbook series

Before providing answers to the specific research questions, it is necessary to report the percentage of pragmatic input included in this textbook series to shed light on the extent to which explicit pragmatic information is included in this series. A page-by-page analysis of all students' books and teachers' books was conducted and the number of pages that contain explicit information about pragmatic components and pragmatic tasks (see Table 3) were counted.

The analysis of all students' books revealed that explicit pragmatic information only accounts for a very small portion of text in these textbooks, present on only 5.5 per cent of the textbook pages. Across 380 pages of the content of all students' books, there are only 21 pages which contain explicit pragmatic information. Compared to previous textbooks investigated by Vellenga (2004), Ren and Han (2016), and Vu (2017), this textbook series includes the lowest amount of pragmatic

information. All these three prior studies revealed that on average pragmatic information accounts for 20.4 per cent, 17.09 per cent, and 19.28 per cent respectively of the textbook pages: about four times as much as in the students' books of this series.

Due to the limited amount of explicit pragmatic information from the students' books, it was decided that all conversations in the students' books should be analyzed to see what implicit pragmatic information is included. Accordingly, all conversations from the *Getting Started* section in all students' books were analyzed in terms of context of the conversation, participants and their relationships, purpose of the interaction, and pragmatic information that could be highlighted from each conversation by the researcher. 10 per cent of her analysis of these conversations was checked by her supervisor with the percentage of interrater agreement averaging 90%.

The analysis of a total of 30 conversations shows that all of the conversations are designed to take place in informal settings between or among interlocutors whose relationships are of close distance. It can be seen that both the informality and the themes of these conversations between friends, family members, teachers and students, or customers and agents are aligned with the description of the targeted level B1 in the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR, 2001). However, these conversations would be more beneficial to students if there was a section after each conversation highlighting such implicit pragmatic information as context of each conversation, the relationship of its participants, the features of the language use, and so on. Given the importance of such highlighting, the results of the analysis of all conversations was presented in Appendix C to demonstrate how it is possible to provide teachers with detailed pragmatic information from the

conversations to include in their teaching so that students are informed of pragmatic issues when carrying out real-life conversations.

Regarding the teachers' books with their role of guiding the use of the students' books in the classroom, a page-by-page analysis of all teachers' books revealed no additional pragmatic information. Even though in the introduction of each teachers' book, it is stated that the teachers' books also provide "additional language and cultural notes" (Hoang et al., 2016, p. iii), there are no "notes" about pragmatic information. In fact, the additional notes in the teachers' books are all about vocabulary and background information to some cultural topics in the students' books such as: family life, gender equality, music, world heritage sites in Vietnam, etc..

Below are some examples to illustrate the additional notes in the teachers' books.

Table 4. Examples of Additional Language and Cultural Notes in the Teachers' Books

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(English 10 –Volume 1, Teachers' book, p. 34T)

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(English 10 – Volume 1, Teachers' book, p. 31T)

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(English 10 – Volume 1, Teachers' book, p. 29T)

The factual nature of these examples indicate how the importance of pragmatic information has been underestimated in this textbook series. While cultural information such as the song *Happy birthday to you* or music such as *Dangdut*, which can be easily googled, still appears in these notes, more helpful pragmatic information which requires academic explanation and guidance from experts is simply excluded from the teachers' books. Therefore, in the next sections, the findings for reporting

and discussing in this study are only from the students' books and the workbooks (for the case of pragmatic tasks) of this textbook series.

5.2. General pragmatic information – the inclusion of politeness, appropriacy, formality, register, and cultural knowledge

Research question 1: What kind of general pragmatic information is included in the textbooks?

The page-by-page analysis of all students' books did not reveal much more information of this category than was found in the initial analysis of the pilot study (see Appendix D). Specifically, no explicit information about appropriacy, register, or cultural knowledge could be found. Even though there is a section called *Communication and Culture* in every unit of the students' books, it does not refer to any information about culture in communication. Instead, it discusses other aspects of culture such as family life, gender equality, music, world heritage sites in Vietnam, as mentioned in section 5.1. Likewise, there is extremely limited information about the other two sub-categories of general pragmatic information, in which there is only one instance referring to politeness, and four instances about formality. These instances are presented in the following table.

Table 5. Detected General Pragmatic Information from the Students' Books

Politeness

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Related general pragmatic information appears in a vague sentence
“The fall-rise intonation sounds friendlier and more polite”.

(English 11 – Volume 2, p. 60)

Formality

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The “Note” about the formality of participle clauses is useful.

(English 11 – Volume 2, p. 9)




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This kind of questions is useful as it raises student's awareness of different levels of formality in different genres.

(English 10 – Volume 1, p. 44)

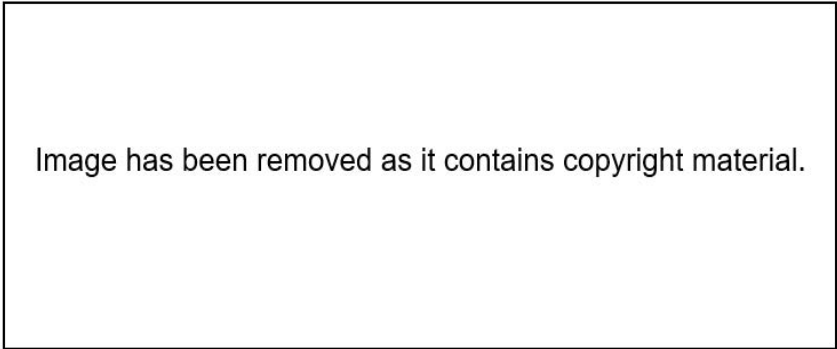


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It is good to mention that the subjunctive is used in formal contexts at the very beginning of its instruction. However, more examples of “formal contexts” are needed since “written English” is not always formal in the case of writing letters to friends, etc.

(English 12 – Volume 1, p. 22)

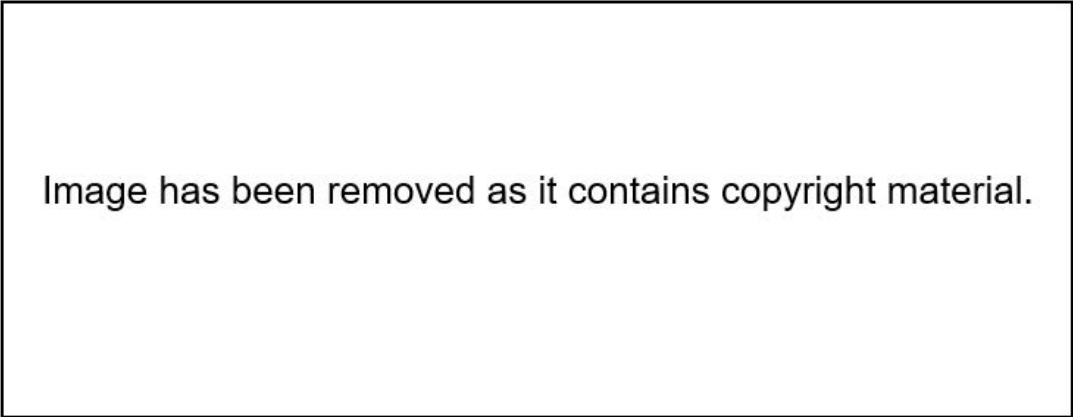


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Similarly, examples of “informal contexts” are needed.

(English 12 – Volume 2, p. 49)

Before discussing these instances qualitatively, it has to be reiterated that adopting Vellenga’s (2004) classification of pragmatic information (see section 4.1.4), the researcher also followed her procedure of collecting data from textbooks, in which any knowledge from the textbooks which has some certain relation to pragmatic information as defined in chapter 4 was collected for analysis. This explains why the first instance in the table was collected and coded as politeness even though it carries limited value in guiding students about how to be appropriately polite when communicating in English. For example, this piece of instruction only provides

students with a vague idea that it is “friendlier and more polite” to use the fall-rise intonation without any further explanations or comparisons.

Compared to the case of politeness, those instructions relating to formality seem clearer with the explicit expressions of which grammatical points are formal or informal. Such instructions are both important and helpful as they inform students of which structures to be used in formal or informal contexts and in spoken or written language. However, even when students know the subjunctive is formal and phrasal verbs are informal through these instructions, the concept of *formality* is not yet made clear to them. Instead of just merely stating which one is formal or informal, there could have been instructions on the factors influencing the formality or on the variables affecting the politeness such as social status, social distance, etc. when teaching grammatical points and linguistic expressions to students.

On the whole, this textbook series gives very little explicit information about politeness, appropriacy, formality, register, and cultural knowledge given the importance of these kinds of general pragmatic information in communication between people of different cultures like the Anglo culture and the Asian-Confucian culture of Vietnam (see section 2.3).

5.3. Speech act treatment

This section presents the answers to the third and fourth research questions, which concerns the range and presentation of topicalized speech acts in the textbook series and how they are presented.

Research question 2: How many topicalized speech acts are included in the textbooks? How are these speech acts distributed and presented? What

kind of contextual and meta-pragmatic information accompanies these speech acts?

Research question 3: Do the textbooks provide students with information about English-Vietnamese pragmatic differences in selecting and performing these speech acts?

Before reporting and discussing the findings about speech acts included in this textbook series, it has to be reiterated that only explicitly mentioned speech acts in all students' books were collected for analysis. In other words, only speech acts that are presented in the textbooks with clearly articulated linguistic forms and functions were included in this study under the title of topicalized speech acts. The reason for applying this criterion lies in the purpose of the above research questions, which aims at finding out how speech acts are explicitly taught in this textbook series. This means that utterances from dialogues presented in the textbooks, which could be a source of model speech acts for students to acquire implicitly, were excluded from this section; however, they were examined in the analysis of conversations as mentioned in section 5.1.

The page-by-page analysis of all students' books shows that the number of explicitly topicalised speech acts was limited. In total, the six students' books presented 14 topicalized speech acts, with an average of 2.3 speech acts per book, reflecting a limited range of speech acts among these textbooks. The range and distribution of speech acts in the textbook series under inquiry is shown in the table below.

Table 6. Range and Distribution of Speech Acts Presented in the Students' Books

Type of speech	English	English	English	English	English	English
acts	10,	10,	11,	11,	12,	12,
	Volume	Volume	Volume	Volume	Volume	Volume
	1	2	1	2	1	2
(Dis-)agreement		x				
(Expressives)						
Opinion			x x			
(Expressives)						
Advice			x x			
(Directives:						
when asking for						
advice and						
Expressives:						
when giving						
advice						
Obligation			x			
(Directives)						
Complaint			x			
(Expressives)						
Surprise or				x		
Doubt						
(Expressives)						

Promise	x					
(Commissives)						
Offer	x					
(Commissives)						
Request	x					
(Directives)						
Refusal	x					
(Commissives)						
Prediction	x					
(Representatives)						
Plan and intention	x					
(Commissives)						
Comment or judgement			x			
(Declaratives)						
Suggestion				X		
(Directives)						
Total	6	1	5	2	0	0

Note. The speech acts of opinion and advice are mentioned twice in *English 11, Volume 1*.

As can be seen from this table, the distribution of speech acts per volume is not even across the series. While topicalized speech acts could be found sporadically distributed in volumes 1 and 2 of English 10 and English 11, none of these could be seen in either volume of English 12. This non-patterned distribution of speech acts

suggests the absence of a guiding principle regarding the allocation of speech acts to each level of English teaching in this textbook series. However, the speech acts included in this series are quite diverse with regard to Searle's (1969) classification of speech acts (see Table 1). Even though all five types of speech acts can be seen in this series with the highest frequency of expressives, no information about their descriptions and their differences can be found in the textbooks. Therefore, this wide range of speech act does not seem to be meaningful for students' learning of English pragmatics.

Another way in which the presentation of speech acts in this textbook series is limited is that no kind of contextual and meta-pragmatic information is seen to accompany the speech acts let alone information about the differences between English and Vietnamese pragmatics in selecting and performing these speech acts. As mentioned previously in chapter 2, these kinds of information are of great importance in helping students to notice the gap between L1 and L2 pragmatics, and to communicate properly in English. As Vellenga (2004) remarked:

Because each speech act could be performed using a variety of different linguistic forms that vary greatly in terms of illocutionary force, this lack of information puts learners, particularly EFL learners with little target language exposure, at a disadvantage in terms of acquiring pragmatic competence. (p. 9).

In the six students' books analyzed, speech acts were explicitly mentioned in the following ways:

- 1) in a summary box entitled *Do you know ...?* which is for summarizing the grammar points and provides examples,
- 2) in the boxes entitled *Helpful expressions* and *Useful language for* (e.g. making

suggestions) which are for providing students with relevant words and/or structures to carry a practice task of speaking, and

3) in the grammar section.

No matter which section covers the knowledge of speech acts, it only mentions or models speech acts without any commentary on usage or contextual references.

The following table displays how speech acts are presented in the students' books.

Table 7. The Presentation of Speech Acts in the Students' Books

No.	Instances of explicitly mentioned speech acts
-----	---

1

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The functions of “should”, “shouldn’t”, “ought to”, “ought not to”, “must”, and “have to” are taught. However, it is quite problematic here when negatives of must and have to are not mentioned given their completely difference in meanings. In addition, the explanation about the difference between must and have to is potentially misleading.

(English 11 – Volume 1, p. 9)

2

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The description and instruction of echo question is clear and sufficient.

(English 11 – Volume 2, p. 8)

3

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Once again, it is the teaching of the functions of a structure.

(English 11 – Volume 1, p. 33)




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No explanations about the differences in connotations of the provided expressions.

(English 11 – Volume 1, p. 12)

5

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Once again, there are no usage notes for each provided expression regarding the different meanings of each expression and its level of politeness. Obviously, these expressions are not interchangeable in different situations when students make suggestions to their peers and friends or to those of higher social status and more power. Providing 'useful expressions' to students in this way may make them misunderstand that these expressions of making suggestions are all the same regardless of to whom and in what situation this speech act is made.

(English 11 – Volume 2, p. 36)

6

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This instance is also listed as a kind of “pragmatic tasks”.

(*English 10 – Volume 2*, p. 10)

7

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This is the teaching of different functions of “will” and “be going to”. The “Note” seems potentially misleading because the predictions with “will” have

a subtle difference in meaning from the one with “be going to” according to traditional grammar.

(*English 10 – Volume 1*, p. 17)

As can be seen from this table, speech acts are mostly presented in the section labelled “Do you know ...?” where 4 out of 7 instances of this sub-category were found. The other 3 instances were detected from activities of the speaking skill, and there is one instance found in a section focused on grammar.

It is clear in all of the four instances from *Do you know ...?* and in the 7th instance from the grammar section that the function of a grammatical form is taught rather than focusing on the ways to perform a speech act. In other words, the knowledge related to speech acts just appears in the textbooks for the sake of the teaching of the meaning and use of a grammatical form. In fact, in the introduction of each teachers’ book in this series, it is stated that “it is advisable that the three aspects of a new language point – form, meaning and use – are paid due attention to.” (Hoang et al., 2016, p. v). However, it can be seen that in the teaching of each new grammatical point in this textbook series, the knowledge of meaning and use is only provided to a limited degree. Take instance 5 for example. Even though different linguistic forms of making suggestions are taught, students are not provided with any information about the different meaning and use of each form.

Furthermore, this ‘form, meaning and use’ teaching method was also criticized by Vellenga (2004) as it fails to help students acquire target language pragmatic competence:

If students are provided with a one-to-one correspondence between language forms and functions, they are not able to develop a pragmatic toolbox with which to make choices about language and convey intentional illocutionary force. (Vellenga, 2004, p. 8).

In the instances within the speaking activities, more linguistic forms are provided; however, there are no explanations about the differences among these structures in terms of illocutionary force.

Moreover, an analysis of the linguistic presentations of all of the above collected instances tended to show that not all of these presentations seemed to match the reality of language use in functional language teaching discourse or in naturally occurring data by native speakers. The first representative example was the Figure explanation about the use of *must* and *have to* in instance 1, which gives an incomplete picture of usage when stating that “*Must* expresses obligation imposed by the speaker while *have to* expresses external obligation.” (*English 11* students’ book, p. 9) with the examples of a teacher telling a student and a student telling parents about what the teacher said. It is common to see in both authentic and functional language teaching discourse that both *must* and *have to* can be used to express an obligation imposed by the speaker or by others. The major difference is that while the positive forms of these two verbs are very similar in meaning, the negative forms are completely different. (see <https://learnenglishteens.britishcouncil.org/grammar-vocabulary/grammar-videos/have-must-should-obligation-advice>). Besides, the case of the example in instance 4 to illustrate the use of the expressions for complaints was also found problematic in comparison with discourse by native speakers in natural settings. As can be seen in this instance, the responses of student A to the complaints of students B are pieces of advice, which should be sympathetic words or words of

understanding and shared anger in native speakers' conversations in this situation. According to Jacobs (1989) when discussing the illocutionary force and felicity conditions for the act of complaining, a complaint is made to “express dissatisfaction and to obtain some sort of acknowledgement from the addressee, to receive “sympathy or shared indignation”, or to obtain” some sort of remedial offering from the offender” (Jacobs, 1989, p. 352). As such, the advice from student A as responses to student B's complaints seems to be against what can be expected in naturally occurring conversations. In this situation, the addressee could have indicated his/her sympathy or shared anger in order for the example conversation to sound more natural. This criticism is in line with those of M. T. T. Nguyen (2011) and of many other researchers (Bardovi-Harlig, 2001; Grant and Starks, 2001; Wong, 2002; Vellenga, 2004 for examples) about the fact that English textbooks failed to provide classroom learners with naturally occurring data.

In a nutshell, all of the above analysis and discussion in this section including limited range and unsystematic distribution of speech acts, lack of accompanying contextual and metapragmatic information, as well as problematic presentations of speech acts together with some linguistic errors tended to indicate that the treatment of speech acts in this textbook series is in need of improvement.

5.4. Pragmatic tasks

Research question 4: What kinds of pragmatic tasks are included in the textbooks?

5.4.1. Pragmatic tasks from students' books.

The examination of all students' books resulted in 18 tasks which had some identifiable relationship to pragmatics: (2 culture-oriented tasks and 16 pragmatically-oriented tasks with potential to develop pragmatic knowledge), accounting for 1.6% of the total number of tasks included in all students' books. This finding is similar to Vu's (2017), in which there were almost no pragmatic tasks in the examined textbook.

All instances of tasks potentially classifiable as pragmatic identified in the students' books are presented in the following table. Some of these proved to be problematic, as will be discussed below.

Table 8. The Presentation of Pragmatic Tasks in the Students' Books

No.	Instances of pragmatically-oriented tasks
1	

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A recognizing task

(*English 10 – Volume 2*, p. 10)




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An understanding task

(*English 10 – Volume 2*, p. 10)

3

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An applying task

(English 10 – Volume 2, p. 10)

4

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A recognizing task

(English 11 – Volume 1, p. 7)



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A recognizing task

(*English 11 – Volume 1*, p. 12)

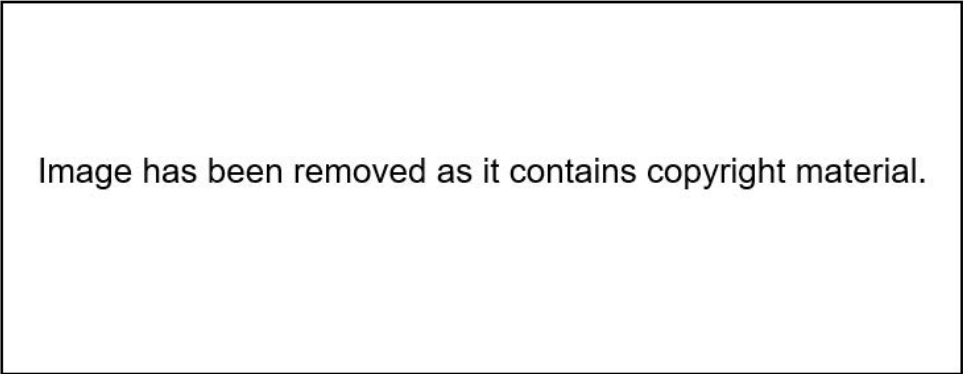


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An applying task

(English 11 – Volume 1, p. 12)

7

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An applying task

(English 11 – Volume 1, p. 14)

8

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A recognizing task

(English 10 – Volume 1, p. 18)

9

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A recognizing task

(*English 10 – Volume 1*, p. 18)

10

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An understanding task

(*English 10 – Volume 1*, p. 18)

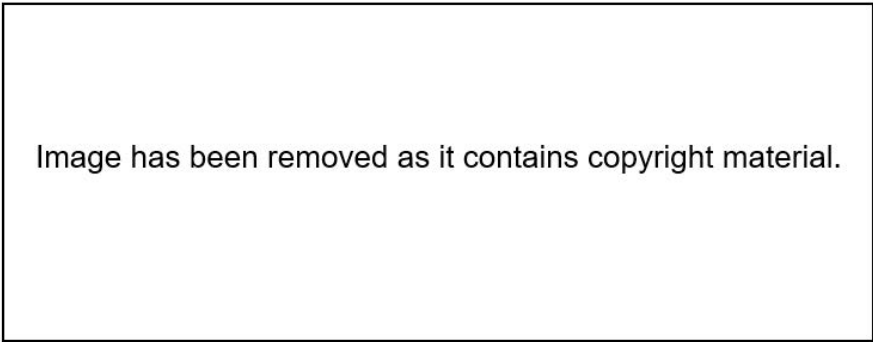


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An applying task

(English 10 – Volume 1, p. 22)




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An applying task

(English 10 – Volume 1, p. 22)

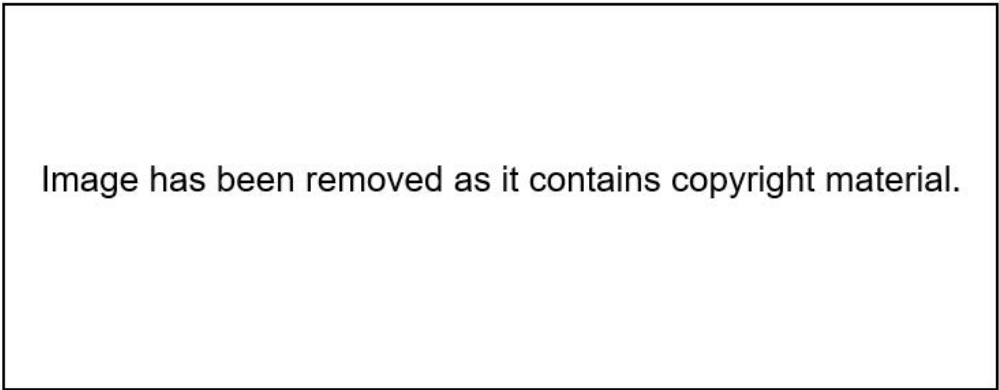


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An understanding task

(*English 11 – Volume 1*, p. 37)

14

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An applying task

(English 11 – Volume 1, p. 37)

15

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An applying task

(English 11 – Volume 1, p. 44)

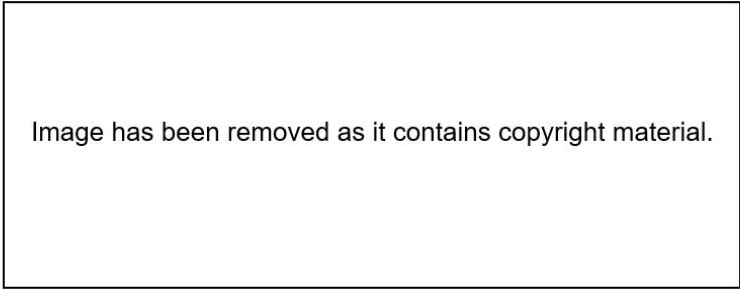
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An applying task

(English 11 – Volume 1, p. 45)

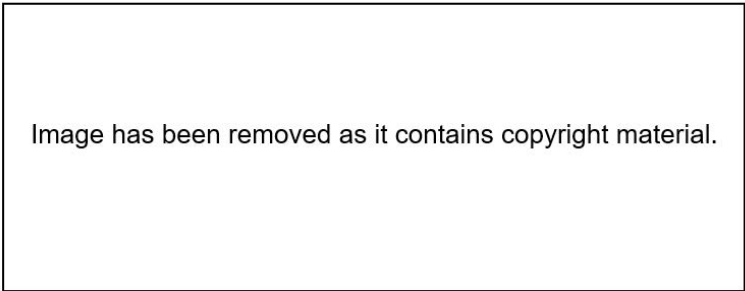
No.	Instances of culture-oriented tasks
-----	-------------------------------------

17



An applying task

(English 10 – Volume 2, p. 37)

18

An applying task

(English 10 – Volume 2, p. 37)

As can be seen in the definition and example of each cognitive process in Bloom's Revised Taxonomy in Appendix A, a task is considered a remembering exercise when it requires students to recognize or recall the taught knowledge. Take instance 9 for example. In this task, after students are taught about the differences between 'will' and 'be going to', they are asked to do the correct-or-wrong task. As such, students are required to be able to recognize the correct use of these two verbs. Similarly, a task is called an applying task when it requires students to carry out or use the taught knowledge in a given situation. At this point, it is necessary to distinguish an applying task from a creative one. By its definition, a creative task is the one which requires students to use or reorganize the taught knowledge into a new pattern or structure. As such, none of the tasks presented in table 8 reach the level of a creative task as defined in Bloom's Revised Taxonomy as they only require students to use the taught knowledge and the provided language in the same situation as in the illustrated example. See instances 6, 7, and 11 for examples.

Therefore, it can be said that all of these supposedly pragmatic tasks focus on one of the first three categories of cognitive processes in Bloom's Revised Taxonomy, namely *Remember*, *Understand*, and *Apply*. While more than half of the tasks are for applying the taught pragmatic knowledge in a given situation in spoken or written language (see task numbers 3, 6, 7, 11, 12, 14, 15, 16, 17, and 18 in this table), the other less than half are for both remembering the taught knowledge in the form of recognizing it (see task numbers 1, 4, 5, 8, and 9) and understanding its meanings (see task numbers 2, 10 and 13). As such, there are no tasks approaching the higher categories of cognitive process like analyzing, evaluating, or creating. This could be a considered a limitation of this textbook series since at this level, students are expected

to be able to complete tasks which require higher level of thinking such as analyzing or evaluating (e.g. “Listen to a dialogue and guess who is speaking. What is their relationship? What is the level of formality of the situation? Why do you think so?”; “Look at your classmate’s work and give feedback using the given rubric. How would the listener most likely understand your classmate’s intention?” (Ishihara and Cohen, 2010, p. 260)). Doing such tasks does not only enable students to obtain deeper understanding of the taught knowledge but also help them to better their thinking skills. As Bereiter and Scardamalia (2005) remarked,

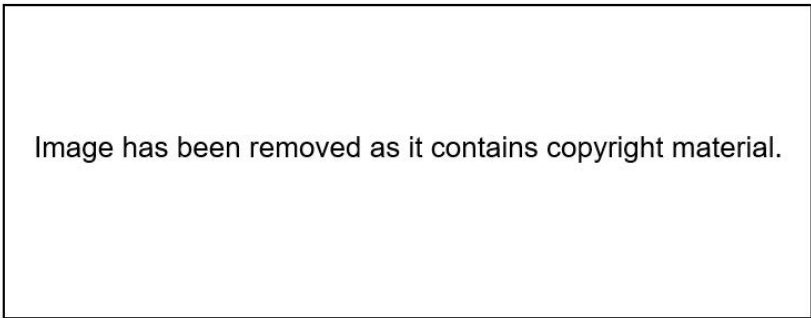
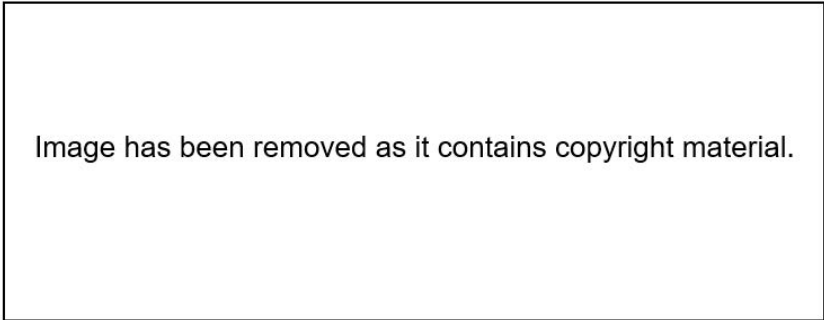
The higher levels of the taxonomy – Comprehension, Application, Analysis, Synthesis, and Evaluation – were conceived of as “intellectual abilities and skills.” They constituted the person’s capacity to operate on the contents of the mental filing cabinet. Contents of the filing cabinet might go out of date and need to be changed, but the intellectual abilities and skills would continue to serve the person throughout life. Accordingly, they were the objectives of most long-range significance of education (p. 676).

5.4.2. Pragmatic tasks from workbooks.

As previously stated in section 4.2.2 of chapter 4, all workbooks, with their typical function of providing students with practice exercises, were examined for the quantity and quality of pragmatic tasks included. A page-by-page analysis of all workbooks in this series identified 15 possible pragmatic tasks (0 culture-oriented tasks) in the form of 15 exercises for practicing pragmatic knowledge, which only accounts for 3.12 per cent of all exercises in the workbooks.

All instances of such tasks detected from the workbooks are presented in the following table.

Table 9. The Presentation of Pragmatic Tasks in the Workbooks

No.	Pragmatically-oriented tasks
1	
2	<p>An applying task</p> <p><i>(English 10 – Volume 1, p. 11)</i></p>
	

An applying task

(English 10 – Volume 2, p. 19)

3

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A recognizing task

(English 10 – Volume 1, p. 37)

4

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An applying task

(English 11 – Volume 1, p. 10)

5

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An applying task

(English 11 – Volume 1, p. 17)

6

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An applying task

(English 11 – Volume 1, p. 23)

7

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An applying task

(English 11 – Volume 1, p. 25)

8

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An applying task

(English 11 – Volume 1, p. 32)

9

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An applying task

(English 11 – Volume 1, p. 32)

10

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An applying task

(English 11 – Volume 1, p. 33)

11

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An applying task

(*English 11 – Volume 2*, p. 15)

12

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An applying task

(*English 11 – Volume 2*, p. 15)

13

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An applying task

(English 11 – Volume 2, p. 26)

14

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An applying task

(English 12 – Volume 1, p. 31)

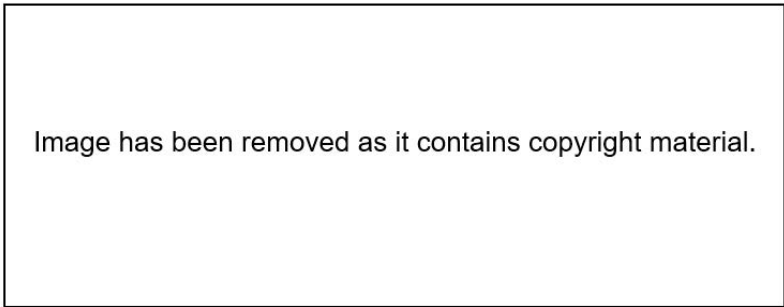


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An applying task

(English 12 – Volume 2, p. 32)

As can be seen from these data, 14 out of 15 tasks identified from the workbooks belong to the third category of cognitive process in Bloom's taxonomy, in which students are asked to apply the taught knowledge to make a conversation or write a letter. As such, there is only one simple task which merely checks students' remembrance of the taught knowledge at the level of recognizing it. This finding differentiates itself with that from the students' books. While the tasks from the students' books focus on all of the first three levels of cognitive process including *Remember*, *Understand*, and *Apply* as discussed above, those from the workbooks focus solely on the *Apply* level.

This is not necessarily a disadvantage. Given the function of the workbooks of reinforcing the content of the students' books (see section 4.2.2), it is reasonable to shift to higher-cognitive-level tasks in the workbooks. As tasks with remembering and understanding goals are quite simple to students at high school level, there is no need to maintain these kinds of tasks in workbooks for further practice. Instead, tasks

which require even higher cognitive levels like analyzing or evaluating are more encouraged.

5.4.3. More discussion of pragmatic tasks with regard to Ishihara and Cohen's (2010) example.

Compared to Ishihara and Cohen's (2010) example of pragmatic tasks (see Appendix B), it can be seen that none of the ones identified from this textbook series follow the procedure of activities or include any similar activity with the modelled pragmatic task. This is because the pragmatic task in Ishihara and Cohen (2010) is specially designed to enhance pragmatic knowledge while the so-called pragmatic tasks from the textbooks are designed for students to practice some language functions and speaking skill only. Given the focus on developing students' communicative competence of this textbook series, it is of high priority that similar pragmatic tasks to Ishihara and Cohen's (2010) example are included, or that current pragmatic tasks in the books are adapted to provide helpful input and practice.

Despite the limitations discussed so far, it has to be recognized that these tasks are designed in a very learner-friendly way, in which in all identified tasks, students are well-scaffolded with previous similar activities, given information and ideas, or useful expressions to complete the tasks. These preparations are of great importance, given student's low English proficiency at this level.

5.5. Metalinguage style

In this context, metalinguage refers to the English used procedurally in the textbook, i.e. not intended as an explicit language model, but nevertheless a source of indirect input. It includes task instructions, descriptions, etc. directed to the student.

Research question 5: To what extent, does the metalanguage used in the textbooks provide a pragmatically appropriate source of linguistic input and explicit meta-pragmatic information?

According to Vellenga (2004), metalanguage in textbooks can be an important source of input and model of language use for learners, especially in EFL situations. Therefore, in this study, the four types of metalanguage including *Description*, *Instruction*, *Introduction*, and *Task-related* (see section 4.1.4 for full definitions) were examined in terms of the sentence types used in each sub-category, and of explicit metapragmatic information such as interlocutor status, cultural information, usage notes and other relevant contextual information for learners to participate in each activity of the students' books (see section 4.1.4).

Before reporting the findings of this study under these two purposes of examining metalanguage style used in the students' books, it is useful to look at the relative proportion of the four types.

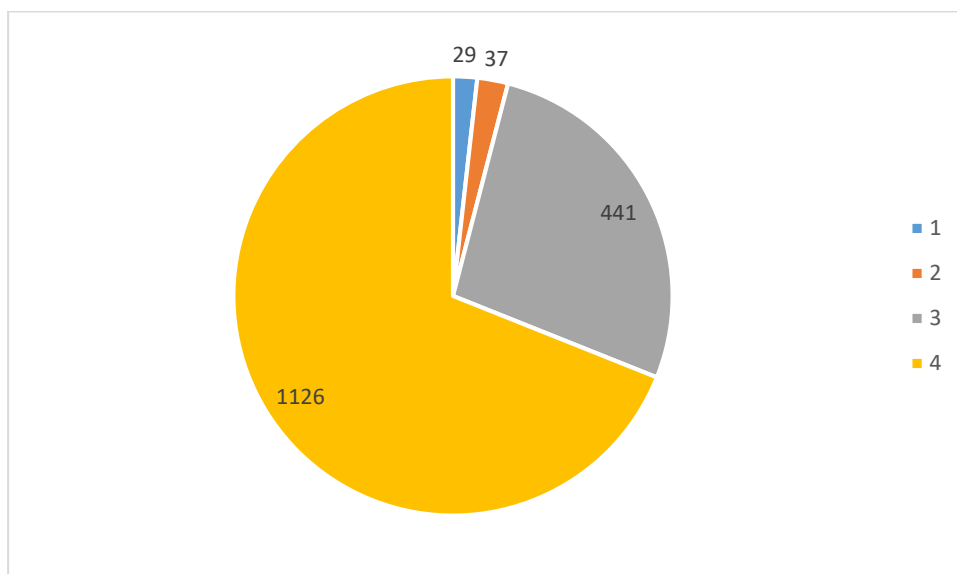


Figure 1. Number of metalinguistic texts from the students' books (Note. 1.

Description; 2. Instruction; 3. Introduction; 4. Task-related)

As can be seen from this pie chart, approximately three-quarters of the amount of metalinguistic information detected from the students' books was Task-related, i.e. the instruction to carry out each activity, leaving nearly the remaining one-quarter to Introduction (the language elements that focus learners' attention on a particular topic or theme). Meanwhile, metalinguistic texts involving Description (explanation about form constructions) and Instruction (usage notes about grammatical forms) only accounted for a very small percentage of extracted metalanguage from the students' books, namely 1.78% and 2.27% respectively.

Regarding the sentence types used in these four sub-categories of metalanguage, it was found that while only declarative sentences are used the texts of Descriptions and Instructions, questions and imperative sentences characterized those of Introduction and Task-related with dominance of noun phrases forming the

Introduction. The detailed statistics of sentence types used in the metalanguage of the students' books is presented in the below table.

Table 10. Percentage of Sentence Types Used in Metalanguage

Types of Metalanguage	Declarative sentences	Imperative sentences	Questions	Noun Phrases
Description	100%			
Instruction	100%			
Introduction		34%	15.6%	50.3%
Task-related		93.4%	6.6%	

In this textbook series, all of the *description* of grammatical structures and *instruction* about their usage are realized as declarative sentences. Take the following descriptions and instructions for example.

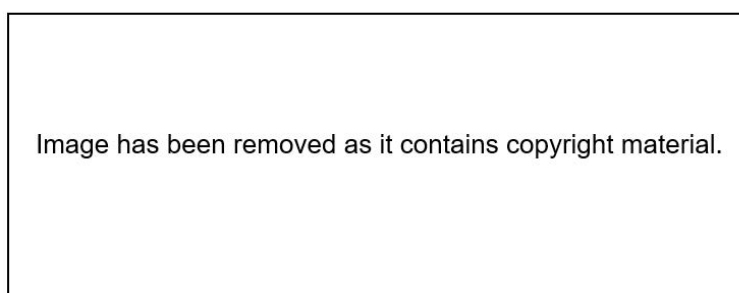


Figure 2. Example of sentence-type use in descriptions and instructions

As information from the *description* and *instruction* is all descriptive, it is understandable and reasonable to see the single use of declarative sentences in these two sub-categories of metalanguage style.

If Vellenga (2004) criticized the metalanguage style of her analyzed textbooks on “the relative absence of pronominal reference” (p. 6) like *we*, *you*, and *your* as well as the vague meaning of *you*, it was found that these are not the case of this textbook series. As can be seen from the above examples, the three pronouns – *we*, *you*, and *your* - are used naturally in all descriptions and instructions with clear reference to the students with the use of *you* and *your*. In the case of the pronoun *we*, it is easily understood that it refers to the teachers and the students in classroom settings.

With regard to the *task-related*, the sentence types used in this major sub-category of metalinguistic information in this textbook series were also found reasonable. Even though only a very small number of questions was found in this sub-category, making imperative sentences primarily used, this is not a point for criticism (see Vellenga, 2004 for her criticisms on the imperative directives used in her analyzed textbooks). Given that the language used in *task-related* is to give directions to students to carry out an activity in the book, the primary utility of imperative sentences is considered to be suitable in this sub-category. With the occasional use of questions in this sub-category, together with the presence of questions used in the *introduction*, which often precedes the *task-related*, it is believed that this would not create the misapprehension among students that only imperatives sentences can be used to accomplish directives, as criticized by Grant and Starks (2001) and Vellenga (2004).

Also, the appropriate use of noun phrases to briefly introduce the topic of each set of activities in the books was also noticed. Take the following set of activities for example.

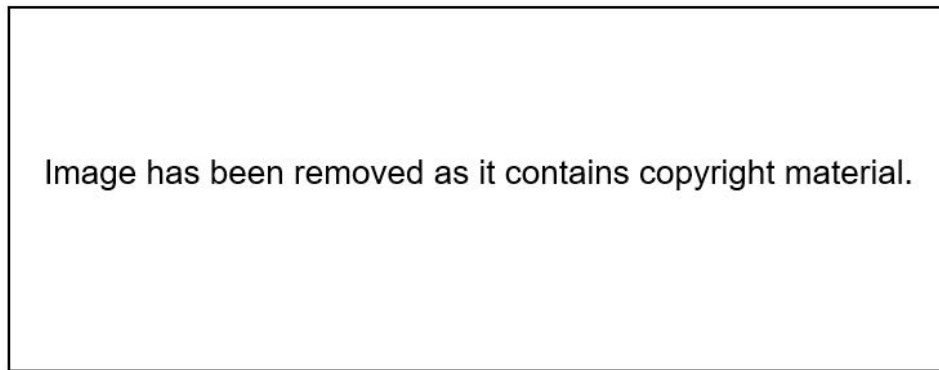


Figure 3. Example of noun phrase use in introduction

It can be seen from this example that the use of noun phrases, imperative sentences, and questions is completely justified in the *introduction* throughout this textbook series. Therefore, it could be concluded that the sentence types used in the metalanguage of this textbook series can provide students with a pragmatically appropriate source of linguistic input given the appropriate use of each sentence type to convey the illocutionary force in each sub-category of metalinguistic style as discussed above.

However, the examination of explicit metapragmatic information included in the metalinguistic information of this textbook series did not point to an equally satisfying outcome. The analysis of all of the four sub-categories of metalinguistic style revealed that no information about interlocutor status, cultural information, usage notes and other relevant contextual information could be found in the Description, Instruction, and Introduction. Even in the *instruction* where detailed information about the usage of grammatical structures taught in the books is expected, only general functions of the structures were found (e.g. “You can use reported speech to repeat what people have previously said” (*English 10 – Volume 2*, p. 40); “Conditional sentences Type 1 are used to talk about present or future activities or events that are real or very probable” (*English 10 – Volume 2*, p. 50). Similarly, no information about the contexts of the conversations, and the cultures of the interlocutors is mentioned in the *introduction* and *task-related* to guide students to participate in each activity of the books. In this regard, this finding was consistent with Vellenga’s (2004) observation that the metalanguage in the EFL textbooks failed to serve its important function as a source of explicit metapragmatic information for learners.

However, in the sub-category of Task-related, the roles of the interlocutors are well-defined with such words as: “work in pairs”, “your partner”, “your friend”, “an English teenager”, “the food specialist” (see Table 7 for example).

In summary, the examination of the language used in the explanation of linguistic knowledge and in the instruction of each activity in all students’ books of this textbook series revealed that the metalanguage style of this series could serve as a source of input and model of language use for learners. However, it failed to complete its second important function as a source of implicit metapragmatic information for learners due to the lack of information about interlocutor status, cultural information, usage notes and other relevant contextual information as discussed above. This is another shortcoming of this textbook series that it would be useful to address.

5.6. Concluding remarks

This chapter has presented and discussed the findings of pragmatics input from the textbook series currently in-use in Vietnam for upper-secondary school students under the NFLP 2020. The summary of findings and their implications for ELT in Vietnam at this level are presented in the next chapter.

CHAPTER 6

CONCLUSION AND IMPLICATIONS

This chapter summarises the key findings of the study, draws out the pedagogical implications for teachers, textbook writers and policy makers, outlines recommendations for further research, and acknowledges the limitation of this study.

6.1. Summary of key findings

With the primary objective of investigating how pragmatic information is incorporated in the national EFL textbook series for Vietnamese upper-secondary school students which was designed and written with a focus on communicative competence under the NFLP 2020, this study has obtained the following key findings.

First of all, this English textbooks series shows a low level of explicit information about pragmatics, which accounts for only 5.5 per cent of the students' books pages and is totally neglected in the teachers' books. In terms of the quality of the pragmatic information included, it was noted that there is no information about *appropriacy*, *register*, and *cultural knowledge*. Even though politeness and formality receive some attention in the textbooks, they are just mentioned by their names five times in all students' books without any explanations. In addition, the treatment of speech acts in this textbook series also lack accompanying contextual and metapragmatic information. There is a limited range of speech acts, and they are distributed unsystematically throughout the textbooks. Also, the linguistic presentations of speech acts was analysed to be unrealistic and limited in the number

of different language forms to perform a language function. Furthermore, the pragmatic tasks identified from the students' books and the workbooks are not oriented towards increasing pragmatic or intercultural competence. Instead, they are designed for students to practice the language functions and speaking skill only. Besides, the metalanguage used in this textbook series does not include any explicit metapragmatic information; however, regarding its use of different sentence types, the analysis suggested that the metalanguage in this series could provide a pragmatically appropriate source of linguistic input for students.

6.2. Pedagogical implications for teachers, textbook writers and policy makers

The findings of this study have identified a mismatch between the ultimate goal of both this textbook series and the NFLP 2020 of developing students' communicative competence and the paucity of explicit input about pragmatics in this textbook series. As communicative competence requires both organizational competence and pragmatic competence (see Bachman, 1990 and 2000, and Bachman and Palmer, 1996 and 2010), it is essential that stakeholders including teachers, textbooks writers, and policy makers find out ways to supplement this textbooks series with input and tasks that can increase pragmatic knowledge.

With regard to teachers' side, the findings from this study indicate that they should play an active role in incorporating pragmatic knowledge into their daily teaching practices. One feasible way is to look at the implicit pragmatic information in each conversation in the *Getting Started* section which initiates each unit and make it explicit to students. As this section only contains a conversation followed by three

to four short activities to check students' comprehension without any metapragmatic information about the conversation, it would be both interesting and helpful to include pragmatic information into the lesson plans for it. All *Getting Started* conversations from this textbook series were analysed in terms of context of the conversation, participants and their relationships, purpose of the interaction, and pragmatic information that could be highlighted from each conversation. The result of this analysis (see Appendix C) is aimed to provide teachers with detailed pragmatic information to include in their teaching so that students are informed of pragmatic issues when carrying out real-life conversations.

As for textbook writers and policy makers in Vietnam, it is necessary that they are aware of the shortcomings of this textbook series in terms of pragmatics so that they could have plans for supplementing it. One possible solution is to design a supplementary guideline to the teachers' books, which provides teachers of pragmatic information and how to incorporate it into each section of the students' books. The above-mentioned analysis could be one example of this kind of supplementary guideline, in which teachers are shown in detail how to incorporate pragmatics into the teaching of the *Getting Started* section.

Also, the findings of this study provide implications for EFL textbook writers in general. The analysis of different aspects of pragmatics including general pragmatic information, speech act treatment, pragmatic tasks, and metalanguage style in chapter 5 helps shed light on a future pragmatically appropriate EFL textbook.

6.3. Implications for further research

As this study only investigated the pragmatics input of the textbook series for upper-secondary school students, it is a good idea that similar studies are conducted on the textbook series for primary and lower-secondary school students which were also published under the NFLP 2020 as a continuous series of English textbooks for Vietnamese students from grade 3 to grade 12. Besides, the overall evaluations of these sets of textbooks to see whether all sections and activities in each book have been designed properly under the light of CLT approach, whether they match the students' needs as well as the goal of the teaching and learning, and whether they are aligned with the curriculum set by the Vietnamese Ministry of Education and Training are recommended. Also, it is important to research into the training of English teachers in Vietnam to see whether pragmatics and its teaching interventions are included in the curriculum for Vietnamese English trainee teachers.

6.4. Limitations

The main limitation in this study is the adoption of the research method of content analysis as the only method of data collection and analysis. Even though this method was sufficient to address the research questions and gain understanding of this newly-published national textbook series in terms of pragmatic input, had the scope permitted, it would be possible to gain deeper insights with the addition of other methods such as: questionnaires, interviews, or a focus group of teachers' opinions of these textbooks.

6.5. Concluding remarks

The two most salient findings of this study are the paucity of pragmatics input in terms of the quantity of pragmatic knowledge and the inadequate presentations of different pragmatic aspects including general pragmatic information, speech acts, and pragmatic tasks in terms of the quality of pragmatic knowledge. In light of the pedagogical implications to emerge from these findings, suggestions for all stakeholders encompassing teachers, textbook writers, and policy makers were provided. As pragmatic knowledge is an indispensable component of communicative competence, it is important that these suggestions are implemented for the success of both the English teaching and learning of Vietnamese teachers and students and the NFLP 2020 of the Vietnamese government.

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APPENDICES

Appendix A. Bloom's Revised Taxonomy (Anderson et al., 2001, p. 31)

Appendix A removed from Open Access version as it may contain copyright content.

Appendix B. An example of pragmatic tasks (Ishihara and Cohen, 2010, pp. 17-20)

Appendix B removed from Open Access version as it may contain copyright content.

Appendix C. Dialogue analysis for incorporating pragmatics into the textbooks

Dialogue number and source	Context	Participants	Purpose	Pragmatic information to be highlighted
1. (<i>English 10 – volume 1, p. 6</i>)	A phone talk to a home phone number - an informal setting	Nam and Uncle Long – a rather close relationship (Uncle Long could be a friend of Nam's father)	The purpose of the call is for inviting Nam's father out for a game of tennis, but then navigating to talk about household chores in each family.	- Nam's answering that his father can't go out with Uncle Long could be a FTA, in which he uses the hesitation pragmatic markers (<i>well</i> , and <i>I'm afraid</i> to signal a refusal) - The form of address is quite similar to Vietnamese addressing way, in which Nam addresses his father's friend by a kinship term (Uncle)
2. (<i>English 10 – volume 1, p. 16</i>)	A chitchat between two friends – a very informal setting	Nam and Scott – two friends belonging to a football team	They are talking about the health benefit of apples.	- This dialogue is featured by short answers which can be only one word (<i>yeah?</i> ; <i>Exactly!</i>) and interjections (<i>Wow!</i>)
3. (<i>English 10 – volume 1, p. 26</i>)	A chitchat among three friends – a very informal setting	Mai, Anna, and Nam – who can be classmates	They are sharing information about a famous young pop star.	- This dialogue is characterised by tag questions with <i>right?</i> and expressions of surprise like <i>Incredible!</i>
4. (<i>English 10 – volume 1, p. 38</i>)	A conversation between two friends – an informal setting	Quan and Hieu – who can be classmates	They are talking about Hieu's volunteer work.	- This dialogue is featured by giving comments to your friend's work like <i>It sounds interesting</i> ; <i>Your job is very</i>

				<i>meaningful.</i>
5. (English 10 – volume 1, p. 48)	A conversation between a son and his Dad at home	Phong and his father – this is a very close relationship but with the father's having a higher status than his son.	They are talking about a reward for Phong's passing his English test.	- The kinship terms in addressing each other is worth noting, in which Phong addresses his father by Dad, and his father addresses him by his name. This is both similar and difference in Vietnamese culture, in which a father often addresses his children by <i>son</i> or <i>daughter</i> .
6. (English 10 – volume 2, p. 6)	A discussion on a class project – an academic setting	3 classmates with equal social status and rather close distance	They are discussing their class project about Equal Opportunities in Education, in which they show agreements and disagreements.	This dialogue highlights how to perform agreements and disagreements to peers, in which disagreements is FTAs and the students need to mitigate this speech act by using <i>I'm afraid</i> .
7. (English 10 – volume 2, p. 16)	A conversation between 2 students at school or in a library	Maria and Kevin with equal social status and rather close distance	They are talking about Kevin's school assignment about the similarities and differences between a traditional Vietnamese wedding and a modern one.	One highlight from this dialogue is how to give feedback to peers' information like <i>Sounds better.</i> / <i>Sounds good.</i> / <i>That's interesting.</i> / <i>That's true.</i>
8. (English 10 – volume 2, p. 26)	An asking-for-opinion conversation among three friends at school	They have equal social status and rather close distance	They are talking about the usefulness of smartphones, laptops, and tablets for learning for a class	One highlight from this dialogue is how to give one's own opinions to peers' questions like <i>Definitely!</i> / <i>Oh, yeah?</i> / <i>That's true.</i> / <i>Amazing!</i> / <i>Yes. I</i>

			discussion.	<i>agree.</i>
9. <i>(English 10 – volume 2, p. 38)</i>	A conversation at home between Nam and his father	The interlocutors have a very close relationship but the father has higher social status and more powerful than his son.	Nam is asking for his father's advice about his writing on environmental impact.	- One highlight of this dialogue is the more powerful person can use the imperative to make a suggestion or give advice. - Another highlight is the difference between the English and Vietnamese cultures in thanking. In Vietnamese, a son does not say <i>Dad, thanks for your help!</i> , and a Dad doesn't response <i>OK. Good luck, Nam!</i>
10. <i>(English 10 – volume 2, p. 48)</i>	A conversation in a travel agency – an informal context	The customer, Mr. Collins and the travel agent with distant relationship	This is an information-exchange conversation, in which the customer is asking for information about a trip to Australia while the travel agent is providing information and asking about the customer's specific interest about the trip.	This is a kind of commercial conversations in which one is serving and one is being served, so it is featured by polite greetings and saying like <i>What can I do for you?; I suggest ...</i>
11. <i>(English 11 – volume 1, p. 7)</i>	A conversation between two friends about their families – an informal context	Sam and Ann can be friends or classmates	They are talking about their family types – extended versus nuclear family and their related issues	One highlight from this dialogue is the use of some pragmatic markers like <i>you see, well, so</i> in informal conversations, and the use of a

			like generation gap and conflicts.	declarative sentence with raising voice to make a question for confirming or clarifying information.
12. <i>(English 11 – volume 1, p. 19)</i>	A conversation between 2 family members at home	Mai and her grandma – very close distance but Mai has lower social status than her grandma	Mai's grandma is warning her against getting involved in a romantic relationship at her age.	- This dialogue is characterised with some FTAs, in which the superior is giving advice about not to do something to the inferior with the use of <i>you shouldn't ... / I think ... / I'm afraid ... / I hope ...</i> - Ways of addressing should also be noted, in which Mai addresses her grandma by Granny (the same in Vietnamese).
13. <i>(English 11 – volume 1, p. 31)</i>	A chitchat between 2 friends / classmates	Mai and Lan – quite close distance and equal social status	They are talking about Mai's close friend.	One highlight from this dialogue is how to make compliments and to show agreements to friends.
14. <i>(English 11 – volume 1, p. 47)</i>	A talk among three friends in the library	Mai, Maria and Kevin – rather close distance and equal social status	They are talking about Christmas gifts for secondary students with disabilities.	- One highlight can be how to ask for clarification among friends. Eg. Cognitive impairments? - How to make compliments. Eg. Great idea! What a meaningful gift!
15. <i>(English 11 – volume 1, p. 59)</i>	A conversation at home between 2 family members	Bao Thy and her Dad – very close distance but Thy has lower social	They are talking about ASEAN and the ASEAN Charter, in	- One highlight from this dialogue is the compliments made by parents to children or by

		status than her Dad	which Thy tries to answer her Dad's questions like in a quiz.	teachers to students. Eg. <i>Correct.</i> / <i>Well done.</i> / <i>Good job.</i>
16. (<i>English 11 – volume 2, p. 7</i>)	A small talk in classroom	A teacher and three students – rather close distance but the teacher has higher social status than the students	They are talking about their presentation on global warming.	- One highlight could be turn-taking in conversation with more than two persons. In this conversation, each interlocutor has equal turns, so no one is dominating the talk. - Also, it highlights how to make compliments and show agreements.
17. (<i>English 11 – volume 2, p. 7</i>)	A conversation at school setting	3 friends: Phong, Kevin and Maria	They are talking about further education.	- One highlight from this dialogue is how to keep the conversation going by asking questions and adding further ideas.
18. (<i>English 11 – volume 2, p. 7</i>)	A chitchat in an informal setting	between 2 friends – one native Vietnamese and one foreigner	They are talking about a city tour.	One highlight from this dialogue is asking for recommendations and making suggestions in informal language.
19. (<i>English 11 – volume 2, p. 47</i>)	A conversation in classroom	3 classmates – equal social status and rather close distance	They are discussing their group presentation about their city in the year 2050.	This dialogue features how to start a discussion and how to keep the conversation going by giving comments suggest new ideas.
20. (<i>English 11 – volume 2, p. 59</i>)	A chitchat in an informal setting	2 friends – Kim and Max	They are talking about a TV health show that Kim missed.	- One highlight from this dialogue is how to report the third person's speech. So ways of addressing and reporting verbs are

				important. Here, the third person is referred to as Dr Quan together with the use of such verbs as: <i>said, claimed, advised, ...</i>
21. <i>(English 12 – volume 1, p. 7)</i>	An academic conversation in an informal setting	2 friends and classmates – Hung and Quang	They are talking about 3 famous people: Steve Jobs, Michael Jackson and Christine Ha.	One highlight of this dialogue is how to open a dialogue and close it by making comments, asking questions and making good wishes to each other.
22. <i>(English 12 – volume 1, p. 18)</i>	An academic conversation in an informal setting	2 classmates – Nam and Lan	They are discussing the plan for their presentation on urbanisation.	- One highlight from this dialogue is the use of the pragmatic marker <i>well</i> as a time filler. - Also, it features how to show and ask for friends' opinions and express agreements, as well as how to make suggestions.
23. <i>(English 12 – volume 1, p. 31)</i>	A chitchat among friends on the street in their neighbourhood	3 friends – Kevin, Mai and Maria - equal social status and quite close distance	They are talking about Mai and Maria's Go Green Campaign.	One highlight is the use of the negative question to show an expectation of supports or agreements and the use of echo question to confirm information.
24. <i>(English 12 – volume 1, p. 46)</i>	A chitchat in a cafe	2 friends – Lan and Nam	They are talking about the use of mobile devices and the Internet.	This dialogue highlights how to refer to the third person in an informal context. Eg. <i>Remember Minh?</i> ; <i>Did you mean Minh's grandpa can read</i>

				<i>online newspapers?</i> , as well as how to express personal idea.
25. (English 12 – volume 1, p. 59)	An academic conversation in classroom	A teacher and 3 students – with the teacher having a higher social status than the students	They are talking about the students' essays about cultural identity.	This dialogue highlights how to make a question to a person with higher social status like the teacher. Eg. <i>I'm not quite sure about how people express their cultural identity; I wonder why people need to protect their cultural identity.</i>
26. (English 12 – volume 2, p. 7)	A conversation at home	A father and 2 children – very close distance but with the father having higher social status than his children	The father is telling his children about a new wildlife park.	- This dialogue features how to talk about future activities with <i>will</i> . - Other functions like invitations with <i>Would you like ...?</i> , agreeing with <i>Sounds good.</i> ; <i>Sure.</i> ; <i>The more the merrier.</i> can also be highlighted.
27. (English 12 – volume 2, p. 18)	A chitchat in an informal setting	2 friends	They are talking about the film A.I. on cable TV.	This dialogue features two functions: telling a story, and reacting and asking for more details by giving comments like: <i>Sounds unbelievable!</i> ; <i>That's terrible!</i> ; <i>Poor David!</i>
28. (English 12 – volume 2, p. 30)	A chitchat in an informal setting	2 friends	They are talking about preparations for job applications.	Two highlights from this dialogue are greeting between friends and discussion of job seeking.

29. (English 12 – volume 2, p. 47)	A chitchat in an informal setting	2 friends	Mai and Jim are talking about their options after finishing secondary school. They both attend the same school, despite being different nationalities	- The dialogue starts with a greeting sequence, and features the role changing, in which Mai asks questions and Jim gives answers, and then Mai describes plans and Jim gives advice. - This dialogue highlights the use of some pragmatic markers (<i>oh</i> , <i>hmm...</i>) other than <i>well</i> – which appears in all of the conversations in this textbook series. - Also, it features how to open and end the conversation with greetings and best wishes to each other.
30. (English 12 – volume 2, p. 58)	A conversation at home: At grandparents’ house	2 family members – Angela and her grandpa	They are talking about keep learning through life.	- This dialogue features how to express an apology in a respectful way to someone who is close to the speaker but has higher social status than the speaker, as well as how to accept an apology. - Other highlights include: form of address (Angela and Grandpa), pragmatic discourse marker <i>well</i> , and formulae <i>Sounds</i>

nice.

Appendix D. Results of the pilot study

The quantitative result of the pilot study accomplishing from the page-by-page analysis of 6 initial units of all students' books in the textbook series as stated in section 4.3 can be summarized in the following table.

Table 11. Quantity of Pragmatic Input Detected from the Initial Units of the Students' Books

Pragmatic input: 301 instances		
Pragmatic components: 5 instances	Pragmatic tasks: 07 instances	Metalanguage style: 289 instances
General pragmatic information: 01 instance	Pragmatically – oriented tasks: 07 instances	Description: 4 instances
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Politeness: 0 - Appropriacy: 0 - Formality: 01 instance - Register: 0 - Cultural knowledge: 0 		
Speech acts: 4 instances	Cultural – oriented tasks: 0	Instruction: 9 instances
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Explicitly mentioned: 4 instances - Metapragmatic descriptions: 0 		
		Introduction: 85

	instances
	Task-related: 191
	instances

As can be seen from this table, there was no information in the category of culture-oriented tasks in these 6 units. Likewise, there was almost no general pragmatic information found in these 6 units. Among 68 pages under analysis, there was only one sentence from unit 6 of *English 11 – Volume 2* which referred to formality. This information was provided in a footnote to the description of the perfect participle: “**Note:** We tend not to use participle clauses so much in speech since they can be rather formal.” (*English 11 – Volume 2*, p. 9).

However, a number of explicitly mentioned speech acts could be found in these initial units including agreement and disagreement, asking for opinions, giving advice, expressing obligation and duty, showing a surprise or doubt, and complaint. Also, these speech acts were accompanied by practice tasks which were placed under the category of pragmatically-oriented tasks for further analysis. Details of the linguistic presentation patterns of the speech acts and the pragmatically-oriented tasks are discussed in the next chapter.

Somewhat problematically, there was no meta-pragmatic information of the speech acts found in these units, echoing the limitations of the EFL textbooks investigated by Vellenga (2004), M. T. T. Nguyen (2011), Ren and Han (2016), and Vu (2017).

In terms of metalanguage style, this category accounted for the vast majority of the collected pragmatic contents from these initial units, namely 96%, in which

task-related metalanguage made up 63.5%, leaving 28.2%, 3.0%, and 1.3% for introduction, instruction, and description metalanguage respectively. This limited percentage of description metalanguage does not necessarily imply the limited number of forms included in these units because forms which were supposed to be familiar to students at this level like the present simple or the present continuous only received instruction about usage or task-related metalanguage. More details and discussion about the metalanguage style used in the textbooks are presented in the next chapter.

In sum, the quantitative results of the pilot study reveals that all knowledge related to pragmatics from these 6 units could be filled into the appropriate category and sub-category of the framework.