

SOCIAL MEDIA IN LEARNING ENGLISH IN VIETNAM

---

A thesis submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the Degree

of Doctor of Philosophy in Education

in the University of Canterbury

by Think Van Le

University of Canterbury

2018

---

## Table of Contents

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS .....	vi
ABSTRACT.....	vii
List of tables.....	ix
List of figures.....	x
Chapter 1: INTRODUCTION.....	1
1.1 Rationale for the study .....	1
1.2 Aims and research questions.....	2
1.3 Research methodology .....	3
1.4 Significance of the study.....	4
1.5 Organization of the thesis .....	4
Chapter 2: LITERATURE REVIEW .....	7
2.1 Communicative language teaching .....	7
2.1.1 The communicative approach to language teaching .....	8
2.1.2 Student and teacher perspectives on communicative language teaching .....	10
2. language teaching.....	12
2.2 Student perspectives of technology in learning and teaching English .....	15
2.3 The effects of technology in online learning and teaching .....	21
2.3.1 The effects of online listening practice .....	21
2.3.2 The effects of online speaking practice.....	24
2.3.3 The effects of online writing practice .....	26
2.4 Theoretical framework.....	29
2.4.1 Willingness to communicate .....	29
2.4.2 Online disinhibition and willingness to communicate .....	34
2.4.3 Social presence.....	40
2.5 Summary .....	42
CHAPTER 3: THE TEACHING CONTEXT IN VIETNAM.....	44
3.1 English policy and development in Vietnam .....	44
3.2 Foreign languages project 2020 .....	46
3.3 Teaching and learning English in Vietnam.....	47
3.4 Technology application in teaching English in Vietnam .....	49

3.5 Description of the new textbook .....	50
3.6 Students' motivation to learn English .....	52
3.7 National exams.....	53
3.8. Chapter summary .....	53
Chapter 4: METHODOLOGY .....	55
4.1 Research design .....	55
4.2 Pilot study .....	56
4.2.1 Piloting the questionnaire for students.....	57
4.2.2 Piloting the online course.....	57
4.2.3 Insights from the pilot study .....	59
4.3 Method .....	62
4.4 Research context .....	64
4.5 The online summer course .....	72
4.5.1 Description of the summer course .....	72
4.5.2 Learning platform .....	75
4.6 Data collection tools .....	76
4.6.1 Questionnaire for students .....	76
4.6.2 Pre-course interview for students.....	77
4.6.3 Pre- and post-course tests.....	77
4.6.4 Post-course interview.....	79
4.6.5 Researcher journal.....	79
4.7 Research ethics.....	79
4.8 Data collection .....	80
4.9 Data analysis .....	83
4.9.1 Research Question 1.....	83
4.9.2 Research Question 2.....	84
4.9.3 Research Question 3.....	84
4.10 Students' participation in the online course.....	87
4.11 Summary .....	88
Chapter 5: STUDENT USES OF AND BELIEFS ABOUT TECHNOLOGY .....	90
5.1 Digital devices that students had access to or ownership of .....	90
5.2 Digital practice outside the education context .....	92
5.3 Digital tools used for educational purposes .....	94
5.4 Technology as a means of communication .....	99
5.5 Students' beliefs about digital technology .....	101
5.6 Discussion about students' uses of and beliefs about technology.....	105

5.7 Chapter summary .....	110
Chapter 6: STUDENTS' EXPERIENCES IN THE ONLINE COURSE .....	111
6.1 Perceived willingness to communicate in the class .....	111
6.2 Willingness to communicate online .....	112
6.3 Discussion about the relationship between WTC and self-presentation .....	115
6.4 Chapter summary .....	118
CHAPTER 7: THE EFFECTS OF THE ONLINE COURSE .....	119
7.1 Listening skills .....	119
7.1.1 Lack of opportunities for listening in class .....	119
7.1.3 Perceived improvement in listening skills .....	122
7.1.4 Results of online listening practice .....	123
7.1.5 Summary .....	124
7.2 Speaking skills .....	125
7.2.1 Insufficient opportunities for speaking in class .....	125
7.2.2 Students' speaking practice in the online course .....	126
7.2.3 Students' perceived progress after the online course .....	129
7.2.4 Results of online speaking practice .....	130
7.2.5 Speaking summary .....	134
7.3 Writing skills .....	134
7.3.1 Lack of writing practice in class .....	135
7.3.2 Students' writing practice in the online course .....	135
7.3.3 Perceived writing progress .....	136
7.3.4 Writing test results .....	137
7.3.5. Writing summary .....	140
7.4. Individual variation .....	140
7.4.1 Student F .....	140
7.4.2 Student K .....	143
7.4.3 Student H .....	144
7.5 Chapter summary .....	148
Chapter 8: CONCLUSION .....	150
8.1 High school students' use of technology for language learning .....	150
8.2 Willingness to communicate and self-presentation .....	151
8.3 Effects of the course .....	151
8.4. Theoretical implications .....	152
8.5 Pedagogical implications .....	153

8.5.1 Implications for language teachers.....	153
8.5.2 Implications for principals .....	154
8.5.3 Implications for textbook writers and curriculum designers.....	155
8.6 Limitations .....	155
8.7 Recommendations for further research .....	156
8.8 Concluding remarks .....	157
REFERENCES .....	159
APPENDIX 1: QUESTIONNAIRE FOR HIGH SCHOOL STUDENTS .....	172
APPENDIX 2: TRANSLATION OF QUESTIONNAIRE FOR STUDENTS .....	178
APPENDIX 3: PRE-INTERVIEW QUESTIONS FOR STUDENTS.....	184
APPENDIX 4 TRANSLATION OF PRE-INTERVIEW QUESTIONS FOR STUDENTS.....	185
APPENDIX 5: POST-COURSE INTERVIEW FOR STUDENTS.....	186
APPENDIX 6: TRANSLATION OF POST-COURSE INTERVIEW FOR STUDENTS.....	188
APPENDIX 7: UNIT 1 – TIẾNG ANH 11 TẬP 1 .....	190

## ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I would like to express my greatest gratitude to my senior supervisor, Prof. Una Cunningham for her generous, professional comments, care and socio-cognitive support throughout the thesis process. Without her guidance, I would not have completed this thesis.

I am deeply thankful to my co-supervisor, Dr. Kevin Watson for his generous support, comments and guidance. Both Assoc. Prof. Una and Dr. Kevin gave me valuable comments which shaped up my study.

I would like to express my special thanks to all the high school principals who granted me permissions to access students and teachers at their schools. I also thank students who actively responded to the questionnaire, participated in the online course and enthusiastically took all the pre-and post-course tests and interviews. Their participation contributed to the major content of the study.

I am also indebted to the Vietnamese government scholarship by which I was fully sponsored to do this current study at the University of Canterbury.

I owe thanks to Learning and Teaching Languages Lab members, especially Jean Kim and Shaista Rashid who always gave me support, companionship and insightful comments on this current study. Discussions with LATL-lab members has bettered my research knowledge and skills so that I could apply them in this study.

Finally, I thank my wife, Nhat Thi Tran, and my daughter, Thuyen Cam Le, who have encouraged and supported me during my PhD journey. I also highly appreciate my M.A. supervisor, Dr. Le Thi Anh Phuong, from Vietnam for inspiring me to start my PhD.

## ABSTRACT

Vietnamese high school graduates have low language proficiency and high school language teachers in Vietnam focus on teaching grammar, vocabulary and reading comprehension. As a result, high school students have very low language proficiency. To improve high school student English skills, the Vietnamese government launched a project called the Foreign Language Project 2020, in which guidelines were given for teachers to incorporate technology in their language teaching. However, there were no empirical data about how students used technology. In this study I examined high school students' use of and beliefs about technology, especially social media, in learning English, and then I delivered a six-week online course to investigate students' experiences. I also investigated the effects of the online course on students' engagement with language learning. The study participants were 204 *Grade 10* students for the questionnaire part. After that, seventeen students took part in the online course. The course also involved pre-course and post-course interviews and pre-and post-course tests exploring their experiences in the course as well as the effects of online learning. The results showed that many of the students used social media for both social and educational purposes. They shared materials, joined online groups for discussions, and accessed online materials for self-study outside the classroom, such as listening to videos, and participating in free and commercial online courses.

Regarding their experiences in the online environment, they showed variable degrees of willingness to communicate. For synchronous communication, students perceived that text chat was the least face-threatening channel; therefore, they were more willing to communicate in text chat than in the classroom. Students felt voice chat was more nerve-racking than text chat but less so than video chat. Video chat was reported to be the most face-threatening mode of online communication and students perceived that video chat was as face-threatening as the physical classroom environment. It is also true for asynchronous communication that students preferred voice recording to video recording.

Regarding the effects of the six-week online course, students progressed in their listening ability after the six-week online course. Most students progressed in terms of fluency and used more diverse vocabulary, but did not use more complex syntactic structures in their speaking. The post-course interview showed that students had tried to correct their pronunciation. They perceived that they had become more fluent and remembered more words

in their speaking. In terms of writing skills, students became more fluent and used more complex language in their writing, but did not advance in terms of lexical use. Students spent time looking for structures to express their ideas and they believed that they became more fluent in their writing as they practised writing a lot in the course.



## **List of tables**

<i>Table 2. 1 Summary of recent studies about students' use of technologies</i> .....	19
<i>Table 2. 2 Summary of recent studies about online disinhibition and willingness to communicate</i> .....	38
<i>Table 3. 1 The English curriculum for secondary education in Vietnam</i> .....	46
<i>Table 4. 1 Research design</i> .....	56
<i>Table 4. 2 Data collection procedure</i> .....	64
<i>Table 4. 3 Summary of participants' information</i> .....	72
<i>Table 4. 4 Activities for Unit 1 for the online summer course</i> .....	74
<i>Table 4. 5 Student participation in the online course</i> .....	88
<i>Table 5. 1 Perceived usefulness of technology for study</i> .....	101
<i>Table 5. 2 Students' attitudes towards technology</i> .....	102
<i>Table 5. 3 Students' perceptions of their technology skills</i> .....	105

## List of figures

<i>Figure 5. 1: Digital devices students possessed .....</i>	<i>90</i>
<i>Figure 5. 2: Digital devices that could connect to the internet .....</i>	<i>91</i>
<i>Figure 5. 3: Digital devices that students often used.....</i>	<i>91</i>
<i>Figure 5. 4: Digital practice outside the educational context .....</i>	<i>92</i>
<i>Figure 5. 5: Use of digital technologies for learning as part of formal study.....</i>	<i>94</i>
<i>Figure 5. 6: Use of technology for communicating with teaching staff.....</i>	<i>100</i>
<i>Figure 5. 7 Use of technologies for communicating with other students .....</i>	<i>101</i>
<i>Figure 7. 1 Comparison of pre- and post-course listening tests .....</i>	<i>124</i>
<i>Figure 7. 2 Comparison of type-token ratio in pre- and post-course speaking tests.....</i>	<i>131</i>
<i>Figure 7. 3 Comparison of mean length of utterances in pre- and post-course speaking tests .....</i>	<i>132</i>
<i>Figure 7. 4 Comparison of speech rate in pre- and post-course speaking tests.....</i>	<i>133</i>
<i>Figure 7. 5 The number of words in pre- and post-course writing tests .....</i>	<i>138</i>
<i>Figure 7. 6: Percentage of subordinate clauses in pre-and post-course writing tests .....</i>	<i>139</i>
<i>Figure 7. 7: Type/token ratio in pre- and post-course writing tests.....</i>	<i>139</i>

## Chapter 1: INTRODUCTION

### *1.1 Rationale for the study*

In 2015 there were more than 30 million active Facebook accounts in Vietnam, and each user spent 2.5 hours on average on Facebook each day (Tuoi Tre News, 2015). As well as being used for social purposes, social media has been used as a platform for students to share materials and get feedback from their peers (Hamid, Waycott, Kurnia, & Chang, 2015; Yunus & Salehi, 2012). Moreover, pedagogical materials and resources can easily be uploaded to and downloaded from social media (Canning-Wilson, 2000). Social media can be accessed anywhere at any time, and any information posted there will be delivered and notified right away, depending on the platform (Yunus & Salehi, 2012).

Vietnamese high school students lack opportunities for communicative interaction and exposure to language because Vietnamese high school teachers spend most of their time presenting grammatical structures and vocabulary when they teach English, and they believe that teaching explicit knowledge of grammar will result in communicative skills (V. C. Le, 2011; G. V. Nguyen, 2013). High school teachers present grammatical items in context-free sentences and elicit the rules from students before asking students to practise grammar drills. Then teachers ask students to write answers on the board and correct their grammatical mistakes. There is little free language production in which students have free communication with each other (G. V. Nguyen, 2013). In addition, large class sizes in high schools in Vietnam are an obstacle for teachers wanting to organize communicative activities (Hoang, 2010; G. V. Nguyen, 2014a). Furthermore, students do not have much exposure to English because it is not used outside the classroom. The only place where students can practise their language is the classroom (V. L. Nguyen, 2011b). Therefore, they do not have many opportunities for language production in authentic contexts.

As a result of explicit grammar teaching and learning, a large majority of students are far behind the language requirements set by the Foreign Languages Project 2020 (National Foreign Languages 2020 Project, 2015). Almost all high school graduates are at the elementary or pre-intermediate level while the required level for high school leavers is upper-intermediate level (H. T. Le, 2013). The Vietnamese government set up the *Foreign Language Project 2020* (National Foreign Languages 2020 Project, 2015) with the aim of improving English proficiency for both teachers and students. The Foreign Language Project set up the standard requirement for the English level that teachers and students need to achieve. Due to teachers'

low English proficiency, the Foreign Language Project 2020 has training programs to help language teachers to improve their proficiency and their methodology by applying technology and to instruct students to use technology to practise using language. The guidelines from the project requires teachers to use presentation tools, educational websites, blogs and social networks to present their lessons and to instruct students how to use ICT technologies such as computers, CD players, and sound recordings to learn the target languages (*Vietnam National Institute for Educational Sciences, 2011*). Moreover, the Vietnamese government also issued Directive 55/2008/ICT-BGDDT on applying ICT in teaching in 2008-2020. Previous work in the Vietnam context suggested that using technology in learning English helped students improve two aspects: their technology skills to work in the workplace in the future and their use of English to be more confident for communication (V. L. Nguyen, 2011b). The Foreign Language Project 2020 points out that language teachers should employ more technology to enable their students to have extensive practice outside the classroom to compensate for the time constraint in the class as well as to help students be exposed to more language input.

### *1.2 Aims and research questions*

The study attempted to address the problem that Vietnamese high school graduates are unable to speak English after 12 years of studying English in secondary education. It employed social media as a channel for students to practise their language skills outside the classroom. The study aimed to find out whether an online supplementary course could help students develop their communicative competence, especially free speaking, listening and writing and whether varying the degree of social presence in learning activities could help to raise their willingness to communicate. The study also investigated the implication of social media for teaching and learning particularly in the context of Vietnam, where English is spoken as a foreign language, and students do not have the chance to practise their language skills beyond the classroom. The purpose of the study was to create an environment to promote active learning, develop students' literacy and engage learners with online learning activities outside the classroom. The research questions that the study addressed are:

- 1) What are students' practices and beliefs about technology, especially social media, in learning English?
- 2) What are students' experiences of learning English in a six-week online course via Skype and Facebook?

3) What are the effects of the six-week online course delivered via Skype and Facebook for high school students on their language proficiency?

Quantitative and qualitative data including questionnaires, interviews, and tests was collected to address these research questions. I outline these briefly in the next section.

### *1.3 Research methodology*

The study employed both quantitative and qualitative approaches to explore the process and outcomes of learning online via closed Facebook groups as a learning platform and Skype for supplementary discussions because both quantitative and qualitative data would give a better overview of a situation (Dörnyei, 2007). The study used multiple research tools in which both quantitative and qualitative data was collected. The qualitative data explained, modified, and elaborated the quantitative data. The study started by examining which digital tools high school students in Vietnam used regularly to have a better understanding of what digital tools and for what purposes students used outside the classroom. After that, some of these students were invited to take part in a six-week communicative online course to examine whether online learning could supplement time restraint in the classroom. The course was online, and students were required to produce spontaneous language during the course to see whether they were more confident to speak in the online course. Before and after the course, they were asked to take part in interviews and tests. For Research Question 1, the questionnaire explored the number of digital tools that students used and their beliefs about technology while the pre-course interview explored how they used these tools. The qualitative data sought to explain and supplement the quantitative data. When the data about students' use of technology was collected, students participating in the online course took pre-course tests in listening, speaking and writing before they joined an online course with four asynchronous and two communicative synchronous activities a week via Skype and a closed Facebook group (see more in Section 4.5). After that the post-course interview investigated student experiences in the online course especially the relationship between willingness to communicate and their self-disclosure during the online course (Research Question 2). For Research Question 3, both pre- and post-course test results in listening, writing and speaking were collected to see whether students improved their language skills or not. The post-course interview explored how students practised using English and how they perceived their progress in their language skills. In addition, three individuals with different attendance rates were selected to describe in detail to see whether there was a causal relationship between students' progress and their participation.

#### *1.4 Significance of the study*

Investigating high school students use of and beliefs about technology (including social media) for learning English in a low tech-context such as Vietnam, adds to the growing literature of computer assisted language learning (CALL) research. Besides, the current study describes how students presented themselves and perceived their willingness to communicate if they were asked to show more social cues in the online course. It provides some insight into the effects of learning online such as voice recording, extensive online practice writing and listening which has not been well recorded in the literature.

With a clear understanding of how students use technology in studying English, teachers can encourage high school students to use more technology and incorporate digital tools in teaching English. Besides, having a detailed understanding of their students' use of technology and beliefs about technology, administrators may implement appropriate policy to encourage teachers to use more technology in teaching. In addition, the study provides a new insight about students' experiences in the online course that teachers could use as a reference when they plan to employ more technology.

Additionally, the findings provide material designers with a rich source of empirical data on student use of technology, specifically social media, within academic settings. Besides, material designers know how to create appropriate materials for digitally competent students to enhance language learning and teaching online. The results from this current study, together with other studies about the application of social media in language learning also assist educators to understand how to integrate social media into language learning. This practical research is a model for high school teachers in Vietnam to apply technology in their language teaching.

#### *1.5 Organization of the thesis*

The thesis consists of eight chapters. Chapter 1 presents the rationale for the study which identifies the focus of the study and then summarizes the research design with research questions. The chapter continues with an overview of research methodology before stating the significance of the study. The chapter ends by describing the organization of the thesis.

Chapter 2 reviews a selection of recent literature relating to the main study about students' use of and beliefs about technology, bringing together research into social presence and willingness to communicate, looking for measurable linguistic effects of extensive practice

and free language production among students for whom this is a novelty in the particular context of high schools in provincial Vietnam.

Chapter 3 presents the teaching context in Vietnam where the study was conducted to help the reader to understand the significance of the study as well as the reason why the participating students were motivated to learn online. The chapter begins by presenting language policy in Vietnam after 1975 and then it describes the current Vietnamese education system and its present language projects. The chapter ends with a description of the important high-stakes school-leaving exams which greatly affect students' motivation and attitude.

Chapter 4 provides detailed information about the research methodology used. The chapter begins with an account of a pilot study and the resulting research design. After that, the research context including description of participants is presented. The chapter continues with the content of the online course around which the data collection is centered. Rationales for teaching and learning activities in the online course are described in detail. The chapter then describes research tools through which data were collected, such as interviews before and after the course, a questionnaire, and tests before and after the course. The chapter ends by describing data analysis methods for each type of data collected.

Chapter 5 investigates students' use of and beliefs about technology. Findings based on the analysis of both quantitative data and qualitative data are presented. For the first research question, students' use of digital tools and beliefs about technology are described. The quantitative data about what kinds of digital tools and how often students used them and the qualitative data about how they used these digital tools were presented together. This is complemented by an account of students' beliefs about technology. The findings were compared with results from recent studies in other parts of the world.

Chapter 6 examines students' experiences in the online course especially the relationship between their willingness to communicate in contexts with varying social presence. Students' experiences in the communicative online English course, especially their level of willingness to communicate during the course, were related to the disinhibitory effects of the online environment.

Chapter 7 explores the effects of the online course by comparing the data from pre- and post-course tests in speaking, listening and writing as well as students' self-perceived progress. Students' actual progress in oral and written proficiency was assessed in terms of lexical

complexity, syntactic complexity and fluency. The qualitative data were employed to explain how students practised their language skills.

Chapter 8 summarizes and discusses the findings and presents the pedagogical implications for high school teachers, textbook writers and administrators who are considering creating an online environment for students to practise their language skills to overcome the time constraint in the classroom. Further research directions are suggested so that other studies might explore other aspects of the application of technology for English teaching in high schools in Vietnam.



## Chapter 2: LITERATURE REVIEW

The main aim of the study is to employ social media as a platform for students to practise their language skills to develop their communicative skills and supplement time constraint in the classroom. Therefore, this chapter reviews previous research concerning the communicative language teaching (CLT) approach, student perspectives on using technology in language learning, student perspectives on learning online and the effects of learning online. Section 2.1 gives an overview of the main features of the communicative language teaching approach, student evaluation of CLT and the effects of CLT in helping student improve their language skills to see whether CLT has been applied in teaching and learning in the world and how students react with CLT and whether CLT could help students speak English better or not. Section 2.2 presents studies of student uses of and perspectives about technology, especially social media to have an overview of how students used technology in the world to compare and contrast with that of the students in this current study. Section 2.3 examines the effects of online learning through social media on three different skills – speaking, writing and listening – to see whether online learning could result in language advancement for students. Section 2.4 continues to explore student perspectives on learning online especially their willingness to communicate and their social presence in the online learning environment, and the relationship between their willingness to communicate and the social presence experienced. The background is used as a theoretical framework to analyse students’ presentation in the online environment. The chapter ends with a summary in Section 2.5.

### *2.1 Communicative language teaching*

In the early 1970s, the communicative approach was developed by British and American applied linguists who aimed to develop language learners’ communicative skills. The main target of communicative language teaching (CLT) is to develop communicative competence which consists of knowledge of grammatical rules and sociolinguistic knowledge (Hymes, 1972). Hymes (1972) emphasized the sociolinguistic aspects of language in contrast to linguistic theory proposed by Chomsky (1965). Chomsky (1965) differentiated between competence (knowledge of the language) and performance (actual use of language). According to Chomsky, an ideal native speaker possesses a set of grammatical rules (competence) which allow them to produce grammatically correct utterances; therefore, learning language means mastering many rules to produce languages. However, Hymes (1972) points out that a child acquires the ability to produce sentences that are not only grammatically correct but also

appropriate. According to Hymes (1972), communicative competence includes the knowledge and ability to use the language in actual contexts.

### *2.1.1 The communicative approach to language teaching*

Hymes' ideas continued to be developed by other applied linguists. Canale and Swain (1980) gave a theoretical framework of communicative competence, including four sub-competencies: grammatical competence, sociolinguistic competence, discourse competence, and strategic competence. This theory of communicative competence explains that a native speaker has a grammatical ability of producing languages (grammatical competence), knows which social setting to say these sentences appropriately (socio-linguistic competence), recognizes the interrelationship between the sentences or the interrelationship of the entire text (discourse competence) and is able to use these sentences to sustain the conversation naturally such as initiation, termination, maintenance or repair (strategy competence).

According to Wilkins (1972) communicative competence could serve as a target of teaching and learning a language. Therefore, curricula were developed to achieve the communicative function. Richards and Rodgers (2001) emphasized that "the communicative approach in language teaching starts from a theory of language as communication" (p.159). According to them, CLT considers language as "a system for expression" (p. 161); therefore, its main function is "to allow interaction and communication" (p. 161). CLT is different from the grammar translation approach in which mastering the language is to have a good grammatical knowledge and learning a language is to learn all grammatical rules. With CLT, learning a language means learning to communicate effectively.

Howatt (1984) propounded that within communicative language teaching language teaching, a weak form and a strong form of CLT approach have emerged. In the former, it is assumed that a language is mastered through a systemic procedure in which one form is presented at a time. This is realized in practice with the PPP (presentation, practice and production) model where the language item is presented first, followed by a number of controlled practices before free language production. On the other hand, in the strong form of CLT, it is supposed that a learner acquires a language through engaging in authentic activities, and later on, the learner incidentally notices the language. One implementation of the strong form of CLT is 'Task-based language teaching' (TBLT) as proposed by Ellis (2003). TBLT proponents argue that language learners incidentally acquire language syntax in communication for meaningful tasks rather than learning the structural system itself. Ellis (2003) highlights that TBLT enables language learners to acquire a language by participating

in communicative activities. Samuda and Bygate (2008) described a task as “an activity which engages language use in order to achieve some non-linguistic outcome while meeting a linguistic challenge, with the overall aim of promoting language learning, through process or product or both” (p. 69).

Littlewood (1981) classified CLT activities into two main types: pre-communicative and communicative activities. Littlewood’s pre-communicative activities are equivalent to activities in the presentation and practice stage while the communicative activities are equal to those ones in the production stage in the PPP model. The pre-communicative activities are subdivided into structural activities and quasi-communicative activities. Structural activities pre-teach linguistic structures for language learners to use in their communicative activities while quasi-communicative activities are seeded with the target forms. For example, in teaching about favorite foods with ‘liking’ structure, the teacher presents the structure of yes/no questions, then gives examples of asking like and dislike questions about food. This activity is a structural activity. However, when the teacher instructs students to ask and answer about food they like and dislike using yes/no questions, this activity becomes a quasi-communicative activity because students have to use the structure they have learnt to communicate with their peers. Littlewood divides communicative activities into two sub-categories: *functional* communication activities and *social* interaction. Functional communication can be an information gap between two students; however, it does not satisfy a real communication need. For example, the teacher gives a pair of students two worksheets which have different information and asks them to ask and answer questions of each other to fill in the gap. In this case, students can use any language resources to solve the problem that the teacher assigns. Social interaction is real situations in which students must perform both functional and social roles in using the language. For example, students are asked to give directions to their home. In this case, students can use whatever language they can to guide their friends home. However, students also have to know what kind of language is appropriate for social interaction between two friends (social functions).

According to Larsen-Freeman (2003), the main features of CLT are the learner-centered approach, target language use, fluency emphasis and error-tolerance. The teacher acts as a facilitator or an organizer to help students to interact with one another. Students work in groups and pairs to discuss with each other and practise their language skills. While the teacher explains the lesson, the target language should be used whenever possible so that students have more exposure to it. CLT concentrates on fluency rather than accuracy; therefore, “errors of

forms are tolerated during fluency-based activities and are seen as a natural outcome of the development of communication skills” (Larsen-Freeman, 2003, p. 132), which means that students can make mistakes when they communicate with others provided that they can convey the message.

Communicative language teaching has been applied in many parts of the world to help students to develop communicative skills (Eroz & Akbarov, 2016; Lee, 2014; S. Liu, 2015). In Vietnam, CLT has been recommended as an approach to improve students’ communicative skills; however, its application is still limited (V. C. Le, 2011). In fact, many teachers were not actually using CLT, but they thought they were. For example, although high school teachers in Vietnam reported that they applied CLT in their language teaching, they focused heavily on explicitly explaining grammar (G. V. Nguyen, 2013). The following section will present student and teacher perspectives on CLT.

### *2.1.2 Student and teacher perspectives on communicative language teaching*

Many studies (e.g. Eroz & Akbarov, 2016; Karimi & Biria, 2017; Rahman, 2015) have examined student and teacher perspectives on a CLT approach to English teaching and the findings showed mixed attitudes towards CLT, depending on the context of learning and teaching. Karimi and Biria (2017) summarized CLT principles from other researchers (e.g. Larsen-Freeman, 2003; Richards & Rodgers, 2001) into five main principles and examined both high school teachers and students. They found that both students and teachers in eight high schools in Iran had positive attitudes towards communicative language teaching. Teachers participating in Karimi and Biria’s (2017) study strongly agreed with the five principles of CLT: that grammar could be taught indirectly; group work and pair work enable students to cooperate and communicate with each other; teachers should not correct students’ mistakes unless it caused communication breakdown; the teacher was a facilitator, and learners played an active role in communicative activities. On the other hand, students in this study were neutral in their opinions about the place and importance of grammar. Although teachers claimed to have positive attitudes towards CLT, they did not apply it much in their actual teaching practice because of time constraints, oversized classes, low student proficiency, a heavy curriculum and form-focused exams. In addition, Lee (2014) found that elementary and secondary school teachers in South Korea perceived CLT as mainly related to speaking skills. G. V. Nguyen (2013) also concluded that high school English teachers in Vietnam did not ever actually arrive at the free language production stage in the PPP (Presentation – Practice – Production) model (Criado, 2013). These teachers spent more time doing grammatical drills and preparing

students to take grammar-heavy exams. Therefore, in fact, much research done about teacher beliefs about CLT has been done with teachers who either did not really know what CLT is, or what its aims are, and who, for one reason or another, did not actually use a CLT approach. This makes any reaction their students may have had to this so-called CLT less interesting.

Student perspectives about CLT have also been studied. Eroz and Akbarov (2016) found that high school students in Bosnia were interested and engaged in communicative activities because they supposed that these activities could develop communicative competence. One of the possible explanations was that Eroz and Akbarov (2016) examined students from a western culture in which students are encouraged and accustomed to discussing and debating with their peers or teachers. In the same vein, Ngoc and Iwashita (2012) surveyed both students and teachers at a university in Vietnam about CLT. They examined student and teacher perspectives about grammar instruction, role of teachers, error correction and group work. They found that both groups expressed a preference towards CLT. With different context, students showed different opinions about CLT. Rasheed (2011) in his research at a secondary school in Bangladesh found that CLT did not work effectively in the context of Bangladesh. Although students wanted to study English with a communicative approach the exam focused on testing discrete grammar points, vocabulary and reading comprehension. Rasheed (2011) added the time constraint was another factor hindering the application of CLT and only a small number of teachers in his study applied CLT in their actual teaching practice. Similarly, Rahman (2015) found university students in Bangladesh preferred CLT to the grammar translation teaching method; however, they still wanted grammar rules to be explained in their native language in a PPP approach and expected their teacher to correct their mistakes directly in front of the class. Savignon and Wang (2003) examined Taiwanese university student experience on CLT; however, the study found that classroom practice focussed on teaching structures and students did not have a chance to learn with the CLT approach.

In addition, Rao (2002) reported that English major students at a university in China preferred non-communicative language activities because of the grammar-oriented exams, lack of motivation for communication, and rote learning habits. Similarly, Durrani (2016) explored students' attitudes towards the grammar translation method vs communicative language teaching method through a questionnaire at a tertiary institute in Pakistan. The findings showed students had positive attitudes towards both teaching methods; however, they favored the grammar translation teaching method. However, the study did not state clearly whether

students experienced both CLT and grammar translation method and failed to explore the reason why students favored more grammar translation approach. A. V. Brown (2009) found out there was a discrepancy between the attitudes of students and teachers at the University of Arizona, USA towards CLT with other languages such as German, French, or Spanish. While students preferred a grammar teaching approach due to the disconnection between teaching and testing, teachers would have liked to present grammar in communicative activities in a PPP approach. Besides, teachers were more enthusiastic about using the second language extensively than students, and students wanted teachers to correct their oral grammatical mistakes while teachers did not want to do that.

In summary, the above studies reported mixed results of student perspectives towards CLT. These studies tried to investigate students' opinion about CLT using questionnaires; however, participants in these studies might not ever have experienced a real communicative language teaching class because teachers did not carry out communicative activities. These studies did not clarify whether the participants knew about CLT or what their beliefs about CLT were. Teachers reported that they preferred the CLT approach, but they did not apply it in their classroom practice (Karimi & Biria, 2017). In addition, assessment was reported to hinder teachers from applying CLT; however, teachers in the above studies did not mention about how they assessed their students. Regarding students' opinion, while A. V. Brown (2009) and Rahman (2015) found that students were fond of CLT, especially activities in group work or pair work, they still wanted their grammatical mistakes to be corrected and grammar to be taught explicitly in their native languages. The above studies are about the application of CLT in the world; many studies about the Vietnamese context come up in Chapter 3.

### *2.1.3 Language teaching*

The section above reviews teacher and student perspectives towards CLT. However, the question has not been answered whether the CLT approach results in higher student language proficiency than the grammar teaching approach. This section presents some studies which have been conducted to investigate the effects of CLT. It is worth reviewing the result from the Bangalore project where communicative language teaching was introduced and tested. In this project, Beretta and Davies (1985) compared the outcomes of the communicative language teaching approach with the structural teaching method. The study was conducted at four secondary schools; each school had one control group studying English with structural teaching and one experimental group learning with CLT. The study employed pre-test and post-test to test structures, contextual grammar, dictation, listening, and reading. The findings

showed that the experimental groups outperformed the control groups in speaking and listening. However, there were no differences in dictation and contextualized grammar.

Similarly, Hanafiyeh (2015) also compared the effects of a communicative English language teaching approach with a grammar translation teaching approach. Sixty adult students at an English institute in Iran were divided into a control group with grammar translation teaching and an experimental group with CLT teaching. The pre-test and post-test in comprehension, vocabulary, grammar and speaking, questionnaire and interview were used to collect data. The findings showed that the experimental group achieved higher scores in comprehension, grammar, and speaking, compared to the control group, but not in vocabulary. Students also expressed their approval of the CLT approach. However, the study did not report whether contextualized grammar or discrete grammatical points were tested and how reading, and speaking were assessed during pre- and post-tests.

Likewise, Mehta (2015) investigated the effects of CLT on middle school students in Madhya Pradesh, India. Fifty Grade-8 students were recruited for the fifteen-working day intervention. Their pre-test and post-test results were compared to assess students' proficiency before and after the intervention. The findings showed that the students improved in all four language skills speaking, reading, listening and writing. Teachers also tolerated students' mistakes as the outcome of CLT. However, the study did not have a control group and, the comparison was limited to before and after the treatment of CLT approach; therefore, no comparison was made with any other approaches.

Other studies have been conducted to examine the effects of teaching grammar or separate language skills with the stronger interpretation of CLT or TBLT. Ahmed and Bidin (2016) examined the effectiveness of task-based language teaching on student writing skills in Malaysia. Participants were international students learning English before starting their tertiary education in Malaysia. Students were divided into two groups: the experimental group (n=14) with TBLT approach and the control group (n=16) with their traditional teaching method. The study used pre-test and post-test to compare student writing in terms of complexity, accuracy and fluency. The findings indicated that the experimental group outperformed the control group in terms of L2 complexity, accuracy and fluency. The study concluded that TBLT was effective in improving writing skills. However, the study did not describe the traditional teaching method that the control group received.

In the same vein, Ismaili (2013) investigated the effectiveness of TBLT on students' speaking skills. The study employed 60 students and six teachers at South East European University in Macedonia, and examined their opinions about TBLT in a questionnaire. These students were divided into two groups: an experimental group with the TBLT approach and a control group with "conventional" teaching. The study also employed pre-test and post-test in speaking to compare the result before and after using TBLT for 8 weeks. The study concluded that students in the experimental group performed better in the rubric scores that assess fluency and accuracy, compared to the control group. In addition, teachers believed that TBLT enabled students to learn because students could engage in interactions that developed communicative competence and students reported that they enjoyed the relaxed atmosphere and were motivated to learn in the TBLT class. However, the study did not clarify what conventional teaching was; therefore, it was impossible to conclude that TBLT was more effective than what method.

Regarding grammar teaching, Nazari and Tabatabaei (2016) compared the effectiveness of explicit grammar instruction, and TBLT in the teaching of second conditional sentences. Ninety Iranian students of English at a private language institute were chosen and divided into three groups: explicit grammar teaching, task-based language teaching, and the "traditional" teaching method proposed by the textbook. Traditional teaching referred to an approach where a grammatical structure was presented in an example, and then students were asked to repeat the example and do all the drills in the textbook. The teacher gave feedback by evaluating whether the answer was correct or not. On the other hand, with explicit grammar teaching, the structure patterns were given to students directly, and students were asked to memorize the structure before practising by asking and answering questions relating to the pattern. For what was referred to as task-based language teaching, grammar was indirectly introduced in communicative activities. The study employed a pre-test and post-test about the students' knowledge of how to construct conditional sentences, using multiple choice questions to compare the effects of the intervention. The findings showed that the task-based language teaching group outperformed the explicit instruction group while both these two groups scored much higher than the traditional group. The study concluded that the task-based language teaching approach, where learners actively participated in the activities and noticed the grammatical points incidentally, was more effective because learners could use the language communicatively.



However, other studies (Jaime Osorio & Insuasty, 2015; Supharatypthin, 2014) showed less effective results using CLT or TBLT. Supharatypthin (2014) investigated the effects of communicative language teaching for two skills: speaking and listening with 40 Thai students of English at a university. The study concluded that students' listening scores improved while there was not much improvement in speaking. Likewise, Jaime Osorio and Insuasty (2015) examined whether the teachers used CLT and the effects of CLT on students' language competence. Nine elementary English teachers in Columbia were observed, and the observation continued in eight classes. Students in these classes took pre- and post-tests in four language skills: speaking, reading, listening and writing and language knowledge such as grammar, vocabulary and pronunciation. Findings from the observation showed that 77% of activities were pre-communicative activities while 21% were communicative activities. The other 2% were from autonomous learning. The results from the pre-test and post-test showed that students improved slightly in their language competence; however, it was not possible to conclude that their achievement was due to applying CLT. The author explained that the possible reason for students' low progress was that most of the activities were structural or quasi-communicative activities. The study did not show the detailed scores of the pre-test and the post-test in each sub-skill but only the overall grade; therefore, it was not clear which skills or linguistic knowledge that improved.

In summary, findings from some of the above studies (Ahmed & Bidin, 2016; Beretta & Davies, 1985; Hanafiyeh, 2015; Ismaili, 2013) showed that CLT could bring better results for students in terms of language skills such as listening, speaking, reading and writing, and their motivations. However, some studies (Ahmed & Bidin, 2016; Hanafiyeh, 2015; Mehta, 2015) did not point out clearly how they assessed the students' language skills in the pre-test and the post-test. Ismaili (2013) and Ahmed and Bidin (2016) concluded that TBLT was more effective than traditional teaching methods; however, they did not describe what methods had been used in the traditional classes. Besides, Jaime Osorio and Insuasty (2015) indicated that they could not claim that CLT was effective, because teachers did not actually employ communicative activities in their teaching; therefore, the study did not answer the research question whether CLT was more effective than grammar translation class. The following section reviews student perspectives about technology in language learning and teaching.

## *2.2 Student perspectives of technology in learning and teaching English*

With the rapid development and accessibility of technology, students' use of technology has been changing so fast that a study from 2012 cannot be compared directly with

one from 2017, even in the same context. The following section reviews students' use of technology and students' beliefs about technology through time. As can be seen in Table 2.1, a number of studies (Dube & Scott, 2017; Selwyn & Gorard, 2016; Swanson & Walker, 2015) have investigated university students' use of technology and beliefs about technology in developed countries such as USA, Canada, UK or Australia. Swanson and Walker (2015) examined 235 adult college students in the USA and found that they utilized social media for both academic and non-academic purposes. The study described what kind of digital tools students used for academic and non-academic purposes and how much time they spent on each digital tool. However, the study did not explore how they used each digital tool for their study.

Strachan and Aljabali (2015) examined 11 undergraduate students' use of technology in the UK using a questionnaire. The results showed that internet, email, social and virtual learning environments were used in both formal classroom instruction and outside the classroom. Video sharing tools such as YouTube, Wiki, eBooks and document sharing were used more frequently in an informal setting. The main purposes of using technology were to communicate with other students, ask questions, share resources among students and to engage in the discussion. Selwyn and Gorard (2016) explored students' use of Wikipedia. The study used a questionnaire with 1658 students and interviewed 35 students in two universities in Australia. The study found that Wikipedia was the most common tool that students employed for their study. Other digital tools that were popular were Facebook and YouTube. These tools were used as a source of information when students wanted to clarify something. However, Y. Wang, Niiya, Mark, Reich, and Warschauer (2015) conducted a study with 48 undergraduates at a public university in the USA. The researchers used computer logging with interviews and a questionnaire to keep track of the students' use of technology. They claimed that these students were not in control of their social media usage. Although the students were very skilled in their use of technology, they had difficulty choosing appropriate websites and found authentic materials too challenging.

Recently, Dube and Scott (2017) examined students' use of technology at a university in Zimbabwe. The study employed a questionnaire with 82 students. These students showed positive attitudes towards technology, with WhatsApp, Wikipedia, and YouTube as the three most commonly used digital tools among surveyed students. These Zimbabwean students used technology to find information, download audio or video files for both educational and entertainment purposes. The study showed that students could access technology, but they were dissatisfied with the IT infrastructure, computers and Wi-Fi bandwidth on campus. Students

were also disappointed with the current traditional teaching methods without digital integration by their teachers.

As can be seen in Table 2.1, other studies (Beckman, Bennett, & Lockyer, 2014; Lu, Hao, & Jing, 2016; J. W. Richardson, Nash, & Flora, 2014) have reported secondary or high school students' use of technology. Beckman et al. (2014) examined 12 secondary school students in Australia. The study employed interviews and students' diaries about their use of technology. The study concluded that secondary school students utilised technology to communicate, or to entertain themselves. They also used technology for educational purposes, especially searching online for information to answer their teachers' questions or to support their writing; however, they employed technology for non-educational purposes more than educational purposes. Lu, Hao, & Jing (2016) surveyed 186 secondary school students in one public and one private secondary school in Hong Kong. The study found that students in Hong Kong employed technology, including social media, both inside and outside the classroom but more technology outside the classroom than inside. They tended to consume and share information on social media, rather than to create content. However, neither Beckman et al. (2014) nor Lu et al. (2016) examined what kinds of digital tools students employed or for what kinds of purposes. J. W. Richardson et al. (2014) examined upper secondary school students in Cambodia through a survey with 1,137 students. The study concluded that the more access to computers and the internet, the more positive attitudes the students had to the computers. Students who had limited exposure to computers were anxious about computers. Students were also interested in technology and believed that computers enabled them to have more opportunities to learn new skills. However, the study did not examine what kind of technologies students employed or for what purposes. In an earlier study, Fewkes and McCabe (2012) examined 63 Canadian high school students' use of Facebook through questionnaire. The study found that most students (73%) used Facebook for educational purposes such as discussing biology, chemistry, math, English reading homework on closed Facebook groups, and the study suggested applying more social media as informal teaching tools.

However, other earlier studies showed that students used digital tools for social purposes. Hew and Cheung (2012) surveyed 83 high school students in Singapore and found that students used Facebook primarily for non-educational purposes. In particular, Facebook was used to maintain relationships with existing known friends such as former or current schoolmates. Respondents also reported using Facebook for entertainment purposes and to vent their emotions. No respondent reported using Facebook for educational purposes. In the same

vein, Donlan (2012) investigated students' use of Facebook. Participants were 112 university students in the UK. The study employed a questionnaire to investigate students' use of Facebook in the first phase. Then Facebook pages were set up so that students could share and download articles. The findings showed that they used Facebook for social purposes such as chatting with their friends, updating their status or for educational purposes such as communicating with peers and lecturers. Although students stated that they were interested in sharing materials on Facebook, they only downloaded or viewed articles online. The study concluded that students should be trained to engage with materials on social media. Similarly, Madge, Meek, Wellens, and Hooley (2009) surveyed 213 first-year undergraduate students in the UK and found that that students used Facebook to keep in touch with their friends, and to plan social events. Only 10% of the students used Facebook to discuss academic work with their peers. Students (43%) thought that the use of Facebook was most important for social reasons, not for formal teaching purposes. Other studies have been reported about students' perception of Facebook as a learning platform. Bani-Hani, Al-Sobh, and Abu-Melhim (2014) investigated students' experiences and evaluation of a writing course in a Facebook group. The participants were 42 EFL students at a Jordanian university. Most students agreed that the course had assisted them to improve the organization of their writing, learn more vocabulary from their friends' comments, control spelling mistakes, and have more interesting ideas in the brainstorming stage of writing. The students felt relaxed when they posted their opinions and felt more motivated when their friends 'liked' their posts on Facebook. Similarly, Yunus and Salehi (2012) examined students' perception of Facebook in teaching writing. Participants were 43 university students in Malaysia. Students were invited to participate in tasks such as brainstorming and summarizing organized on closed Facebook groups. The findings showed that students perceived that this teaching could help them improve their writing, especially in the brainstorming phase. They also learnt more vocabulary and got more ideas by reading comments from their peers. However, they were also distracted by other activities such as games, chat or other applications. Bani-Hani et al. (2014) and Yunus and Salehi (2012) investigated students' opinion about Facebook as a learning platform but did not measure whether writing practice on Facebook led to better writing progress for students.

**Table 2. 1 Summary of recent studies about students' use of technologies**

<b>Authors</b>	<b>Year</b>	<b>Context</b>	<b>Level of students</b>	<b>Methods</b>	<b>Findings</b>	<b>Comments</b>
Madge, Meek, Wellens and Hooley	2009	UK	university students	questionnaire	Only 10% of the students used Facebook to discuss academic work with their peers. Most of the students thought Facebook should be used for social purposes.	These studies showed the conflicting results. While the Madge, Meek, Wellens & Hooley and Donlan's study showed that university students used Facebook more for social purposes, Fewkes & McCabe found that most high school students used Facebook for educational purposes. On the other hand, high school students in Singapore mainly used Facebook for social purposes.
Donlan	2012	UK	university students	questionnaire	Students mainly used Facebook for social purposes. They downloaded materials and passively digested; therefore, they needed to be trained on how to engage with materials online.	
Fewkes and McCabe	2012	Canada	high school students	questionnaire	Most of the students (73%) used Facebook for educational purposes.	The study only examined students' opinion, not their actual use.
Hew and Cheung	2012	Singapore	high school students	survey	Students used Facebook primarily for social purposes.	
Yunus and Salehi	2012	Malaysia	university students	survey	Students perceived that learning on Facebook could help them learn more ideas and vocabulary.	The study did not investigate what kinds or for what purposes.
Beckman, Bennett, and Lockyer	2014	Australia	secondary school students	interview, students' diaries	Students utilised technology for both educational and social purposes, but more for social life.	
Abu-Melhim	2014	Jordan	university students	survey	Students supposed the online course on Facebook helped them organize their writing, learn vocabulary and control their mistakes.	The study only measured students' opinion about the online course but did not address whether the course was effective or not.

Richardson, Nash, and Flora	2014	Cambodia	upper secondary school students	survey	Students showed positive attitudes towards technology and believed that technology could help them study better.	The study did not address what kinds of technology or how students used it.
Swanson and Walker	2015	USA	university students	survey	What kinds of digital tools students used for academic and non-academic purposes	The study did not examine how students used these tools
Strachan and Aljabali	2015	UK	university students	questionnaire	Students used digital technologies for both formal and informal contexts, but they employed them more for informal purposes.	
Y. Wang, Niiya, Mark, Reich and Warschauer	2015	USA	university students	computer logging, questionnaire, interview	Students could not control their use over social media. They also had difficulties in choosing materials.	These studies did not examine how students used each digital tool.
Selwyn and Gorard	2016	Australia	university students	questionnaire & interview	The study showed the percentage of students using each digital tool and the perceived usefulness of each one.	
Lu, Hao and Jing	2016	Hong Kong	secondary school students	survey	Students employed technology both inside and outside the classroom, but more outside the classroom.	The study did not investigate what kinds or for what purposes.
Dube and Scott	2017	Zimbabwe	university students	questionnaire	Students showed positive attitudes towards technology but were disappointed with the current teaching method.	

In summary, the above studies investigated university and secondary school students' uses of technology. Recent studies showed that both university students and secondary school students in developed countries such as USA, Australia, or Hong Kong employed technology both for social purposes such as communicating with friends, or relatives or updating their social status and for educational purposes such as finding information on the internet, sharing

materials, discussing online with their friends and interacting with the materials online. The results showed that these students tended to use technologies more for their social purposes than for educational purposes. Besides, earlier studies showed that both high school and university students utilised technology for their social purposes. In addition, Y. Wang et al. (2015) reported that university students in the USA lacked strategies to learn in the online environment. However, there has been little empirical data about how students use digital technology, especially in developing countries (e.g. Vietnam). The topic about how students use digital technology in a developing country will be revisited in Chapter 5.

### *2.3 The effects of technology in online learning and teaching*

This section discusses research into the effects of online practice. The section starts by reviewing some studies regarding online extensive listening practice. The section continues with the overview of online speaking practice especially voice-blogging activities, and then ends with online writing.

#### *2.3.1 The effects of online listening practice*

According to Renandya and Farrell (2011) extensive listening is “all types of listening activities that allow learners to receive a lot of comprehensible and enjoyable listening input” (p.56). Ewert and Mahan (2011) pointed out that students could choose their own listening recording and listened information or meaning.

A number of studies of online extensive listening have been conducted. Alm (2013) examined 28 students studying German at a university in New Zealand. Participants self-selected the podcasts and listened to them. Then they wrote blogs to document their podcast use. By the end of the course, students were asked to write a review of their podcast use and complete a questionnaire. Fifteen students were invited for a focus group interview. The results showed that students used their personal computers to practise their listening. They also preferred to choose their own topics which were more entertaining and related to their personal interests. Students reported that the responsibility to write a blog post affected their frequency of listening. They were aware that other students would read their blogs and the presence of the audience motivated them to put more effort into listening and writing. Students worked with the podcasts, pausing and replaying to understand the audio files further. They also used online tools, such as a dictionary, to understand the videos. Chang and Millett (2016) investigated the effects of extensive listening on students’ listening proficiency. Participants were 115 university students learning English in Taiwan which were divided into 4 groups: a

control group (n = 39) and three different experimental groups with different levels of assignment completion. These students were asked to listen and read 15 graded audio books, accompanied by the printed text, and to do extended listening-focused activities. The study employed pre-and post-tests to measure the effects on listening. The results showed that the group that completed the most assignments improved the most while the group completing the least assignments did not show much progress compared to the control group. The study concluded that the effects of extensive listening depended on the amount of listening-focused practice. However, the study did not clarify how these students practised with their audio books and one book a week was also a large number that many students could not finish.

Some studies investigate online language courses, while others look at courses taught on campus or in a classroom but have some online activities. Widodo and Rozak (2016) investigated students' experiences of listening by using videos. Participants (n = 24) were students from a private university in Indonesia. Students were guided how to choose a video, and view collaboratively. After viewing the video, students participated in online discussions. After that, students wrote a reflection about the video. The study employed in-depth interviews to explore students' experiences. The results showed that students chose the topics according to their culture and identity, and played the videos five to six times to get the main ideas. Students perceived that collaborative learning encouraged them to watch the video, engage in the discussions and have more opportunities to practice their listening skills, which resulted in an improvement in their listening skills and familiarity with different accents. Besides, they were motivated to participate in the discussions with their peers in an online forum via Facebook, but they also encountered some difficulties such as the speech rate of the video, unfamiliarity with accents, idioms, background knowledge and new vocabulary. However, the study did not measure the effects of watching videos and discussing collaboratively on students' listening skills. Similarly, Absalom and Rizzi (2008) compared the experiences in online listening and online reading of two groups of university students studying Italian in Australia. Fourteen students were divided into two groups: an online listening group and an online text-based group. The online listening group listened to recordings while the online text-based group read a text version of the recordings. The study was carried out over six weeks with one task each week. The study employed pre-and post-interviews and analysed students' writing about one topic. The study found that the listening group tried to engage with the topic and understand the content better while the reading group just employed a surface approach by scanning the text to find the answer. All the students in the listening groups were able to



summarize the topic of the first week's recording while the reading group only retained one or two facts about the topic of the first week. The study measured the language that students could retain after six weeks; however, it did not investigate students' progress in their listening skills.

O' Bryan and Hegelheimer (2007) investigated the use of podcasting such as songs, or short conversations to enhance students' listening skills in an English course at a university in the USA. Teachers and students were interviewed after the course. The instructor reported that podcasting extended their class time and gave students more language input so that they could develop their listening skills. Second, teachers stated that students had a chance to be exposed to different kinds of spoken English. Students found the podcasts a positive component of the course. Anusienė and Kavaliauskienė (2009) investigated the perceptions of online listening to podcasts of 27 university students majoring in psychology and law in Lithuania. Students were asked to listen to podcasts from VOA (Voice of America) special English and provided with links to Podcasts and other links. They were asked to write a blog about what they listened to. Students reported that podcasts could individualize students' listening pace, creating another way of practicing listening, and they added that novelty and diversity motivated them to practise listening outside the class. The study concluded that combining online listening and classroom activities would benefit students.

Chang and Millett (2013) compared three extensive practice situations with three different interventions: listening only, reading and listening, and reading only. Participants were 103 university students taking an English course in Taiwan. The study was conducted over 13 weeks with 100 minutes of reading or 100 minutes of listening each week. The result showed that the group with reading only did not show any significant progress in their listening ability while the listening and reading group showed higher improvement in the post-listening test compared to the listening only group.

In summary, the above studies showed that extensive listening enabled students to have more opportunities to expose themselves to different accents and practise their listening skills outside the classroom. Widodo and Rozak (2016) reported that university students were more motivated in discussing with their peers after extensive listening practice. Alm (2013) showed that university students in New Zealand controlled the recording by pausing or replaying it and Rodrigo (2017) showed that repeated playing of a recording increased Indonesian university students' comprehension of the recording. Chang and Millett (2016) found that online listening practice improved university students' listening skills significantly. However, the above

studies have not investigated whether online extensive listening will result in language proficiency for high school students or not.

### *2.3.2 The effects of online speaking practice*

Several studies (H.-C. Hsu, 2016; Huang, 2015; Shih, 2010; Sun, 2009, 2012) have looked at voice blogging for extensive speaking practice outside the classroom. These studies can be classified into two groups. Group 1 examined the process of voice-blogging, and students' experiences while voice-blogging and their self-perceived progress. Group 2 addressed the objective effects of voice-blogging on students' speaking proficiency.

Voice-blogging was perceived to individualize the learning process and improve students' language skills. In an early study, H.-Y. Hsu, Wang, and Comac (2008) investigated students' experiences in audio blogs. The students had to set up the blog and record their voice. Then they had to upload the sound file to a shared blog. Participants were 22 international students at a university in the USA. The study employed a questionnaire, interviews and analysis of the students' blog. The study concluded that students were satisfied with their instructor and expressed that audio blogging could be a good facilitator for their language learning process. Students perceived that they improved their pronunciation and that the recordings enabled the instructor to individualize the feedback delivery; however, it was challenging for the instructor to have enough time to give feedback to each student. Similarly, Pop, Tomuletiu, and David (2011) conducted a study exploring the potential of an online voice forum to let Romanian university students practise speaking. The study used a post-interview to investigate students' evaluation about the online blogging. Students reported that they had more opportunities to practise their English in a less anxious environment.

In the same vein, Sun (2009) documented students' experiences on voice-blogging at a university in Taiwan. Participants (n = 49) from an oral English class were asked to record and post their voice blogs. Each student was required to post 30 voice blogs and 10 comments on other friends' blogs by the end of the semester. The voice blogs were transcribed and analysed. A pre-and post-questionnaire and interview were employed to investigate students' experiences of voice blogs. The results demonstrated that students followed five main steps such as conceptualizing, brainstorming, articulating, monitoring and evaluating during their voice blog process. Students perceived that voice blogs could enable them to learn language and increase their social networking. However, they did not space their voice blogs over the semester but waited for the deadline and posted their blogs all at once. Similarly, Huang (2015) examined students' (n=74) experiences of voice blogging at a university in Taiwan. Each student was

asked to make eight blogs and comment on 40 other students' blogs. Students were encouraged to read online articles to get ideas for their posts. The study employed a pre-questionnaire, post-questionnaire and post-interview. The findings showed that students followed four stages: reading to get ideas, planning, recording, and sharing their videos. Students perceived that their English skills improved especially their speaking, reading and pronunciation. Besides, they had opportunities to construct knowledge together and enhanced their social networking. However, they also faced some technical problems and a time constraint.

Shih (2010) examined 44 tertiary English major students at a university in Taiwan with blended learning. The study employed a questionnaire, students' self-reflection sheets, and interview to collect data. First, students attended a face-to-face class for 4 weeks, then they were asked to create videos and upload to a blog in week 5. They read and commented on other students' work in week 6. Then students revised their videos and re-uploaded with the new version. After that, students had discussions in the physical classes about their videos. The results showed that peers' and instructor's feedback was highly appreciated, and students were satisfied with the video-blogs because they could learn public speaking effectively. The above studies examined students' experiences and the process of voice blogging. However, these studies have not examined whether voice-blogging has any effects on students' speaking proficiency.

H.-C. Hsu (2016) and Sun (2012) investigated whether there was any improvement due to voice blogging in student speaking in terms of complexity, fluency and accuracy. Sun (2012) examined 46 students at a university in Taiwan. Students participated in voice-blogging for one semester (18 weeks). Students were all non-native English speakers and in a public speaking class. Three first and final blogs were rated by two raters: the teacher-researcher and another examiner. The study concluded that there was no improvement in students' pronunciation, language complexity, fluency and accuracy. However, students perceived that their speaking proficiency improved. Sun supposed that one semester was not long enough to see any improvement. Sun explained blogs were a free environment; therefore, students focused more on the content without paying attention to language complexity. One of the negative aspects of this study is that human raters may be biased in their assessment or students' improvement might be too subtle for the raters to recognize. Similarly H.-C. Hsu (2016) also compared the effects of online blogging of students ( $n = 30$ ) enrolled in an English course at a university in Taiwan. These students had limited time and opportunities for practising speaking outside the class. Students were asked to record and post their recordings via a shared

class blog to supplement the limited time in class. Each student was requested to listen to another student's post and give comments each week for 15 weeks. Students' recordings in week 1, 2 and week 14, 15 were analysed and compared. The study concluded that the language fluency and accuracy did not show any improvement while syntactic complexity improved because students could produce longer clauses. The shortcoming of this study was that the study did not employ a control group to compare the effects of voice-blogging group with a group without voice-blogging.

To sum up, findings from the above studies showed that voice-blogging gave more opportunities to practise English outside the classroom (Pop et al., 2011). The findings on the effects of voice blogging had mixed results. While Sun (2012) found that Taiwanese university students did not show any progress in their speaking skills in terms of language complexity, accuracy and fluency, H.-C. Hsu (2016) pointed out that Taiwanese university students improved their syntactic complexity because they could produce longer clauses; therefore, more studies are needed to see how students practise their speaking skills and what kinds of effects students have after voice-blogging.

### *2.3.3 The effects of online writing practice*

Online writing has been an attractive topic and many researchers have carried out studies on it. Kuo (2008) pointed out that online writing had some helpful tools such as access to a dictionary, and concordancer to assist L2 writers to revise and edit their work. Peer preview and online interactions enabled L2 writers to reflect on their own practice. Writing guidance highlighted the information and increased input. Amos (2011) added that online writing had more advantages. For example, an online audience makes students aware of who they are communicating with. Students could keep their own e-portfolio, edit, publish, and access to enhance their self-study in the online writing environment. Qian and McCormick (2014) found that university students from the UK or Western Europe participated in a forum by both actively contributing to the content of the forum and passively digesting the content from the forum. The study also concluded that more students only passively read the content from the forum rather than contributing to the forum. Students wanted to join the forum to ask for support or offer support. In addition, students shared learning experiences, resources, and difficulties, as well as achievements.

Many studies (Kuo, 2008; Miyazoe & Anderson, 2010; Shih, 2011) have investigated the effects of online writing practice. Miyazoe and Anderson (2010) examined the effectiveness of three online platforms: forums, blogs and wikis. The participants were 61 students from

three different intact classes at a university in Japan. Students had face-to-face classes for 15 weeks. Then they were asked to participate in forums for topic discussions, blogs for free writing and wikis for collaborative translation from English into Japanese. The study used three research tools: questionnaire, interviews and students' writing. The results showed that students perceived that blended learning created an advantageous environment. Students developed more critical thinking in the online forum. However, the study did not measure whether blended learning improved students' writing proficiency with regard to language complexity, fluency and accuracy. Passig and Schwartz (2007) compared online collaborative writing with face-to-face writing. GROOVE tools were used as a learning platform for graduate students in Israel. Participants were 42 students divided into two teams. Each team was subdivided into 10 groups. Each group had to write one online collaborative article and one article through face-to-face collaboration. Students were supplied with the articles and other resources for both online and face-to-face activities. The online collaborative article was analysed and compared with the face-to-face one. The results showed that the online collaborative articles were better in terms of organization of the article, with clearer and more complex language, with more coherence and more focus on the arguments. The study also found that the online groups were more advanced in brainstorming, negotiating, crystallizing, and formulating stages. They supposed that students could see the text better in the online environment and engage in more discussion. The online groups also created more drafts than the face-to-face group, which explained why the online groups had better final writing drafts than the face-to-face group. However, this study employed human raters who might not be sufficiently objective. Similarly, Shih (2011) examined blended teaching with traditional classes and a Facebook platform. The participants were 23 university students at a university, divided into 6 groups, depending on their English level on Facebook. For the first eight weeks, students studied English writing in the class and from Week 9 to Week 16, students were asked to write an essay each week on Facebook. The study employed a pre-writing test in Week 2 and a post-writing test in Week 17, a questionnaire a post-interview and the instructor's reflection. The results showed that students' writing improved significantly in terms of content, vocabulary, structure, organization and genre. It was interesting that the group with the lowest score in the pre-test made the most progress. Students appreciated the combined course because they could get peer assessment and they could exchange their opinions. Students reported that they could improve their writing by reading their peers' essays. However, peer corrections were sometimes not correct. The instructor was overloaded with work and was under a time constraint. Although the findings showed that students advanced in their writing proficiency,

the study combined both pen-and-paper writing and online writing at the same time; therefore, it was impossible to identify what it was that resulted in increased student writing proficiency.

Different authors have tried to compare Facebook with other environments as a writing platform (Dizon, 2016; S. Wang & Camilla, 2014; Yen, Hou, & Chang, 2015). Dizon (2016) compared the effects of writing on closed Facebook groups and those with pen-and-paper. Participants were 30 EFL university students in Japan who were divided into two groups: an experimental group (n = 16) and a control group (n = 15). Students had three 90-minute English classes per week for 15 weeks. In addition to the three ninety-minute English lessons in class, the students also had two free writing lessons for 15 weeks. The experimental group had free writing on Facebook, taught by the researcher, while the other two classes were taught by other teachers, using pen-and-paper. During the writing process, students were not allowed to use dictionaries, textbooks, or any other writing aids. The study employed a pre-test, a mid-test and a post-test to measure the lexical richness, accuracy and fluency of the students' writing. The results indicated that the experimental group were more fluent in their L2 writing than the control group but neither group made any significant advance in lexical complexity and accuracy. The study concluded that Facebook could be an alternative environment for practicing writing. Similarly, Yen et al. (2015) investigated the effects on students' speaking and writing of online asynchronous discussions on closed Facebook groups and synchronous discussions via Skype. Participants were 42 college students learning English conversation in Taiwan. The study used a pre-test and a post-test to measure the effects of the discussions on speaking, and writing. First, students had lectures in the classroom for two weeks to learn some vocabulary for on line discussions. After that students were divided into teams of 5 - 6 students with one leader. Students were asked to discuss first using text chat on Facebook and then on Skype via synchronous calls. Finally, a questionnaire was used to explore students' attitudes about the course. The results showed that the post-test scores of speaking and writing were significantly better than the pre-test ones. The authors explained that active participation in role-play contributed to students' progress. The study also found correlations between the level of participation and students' score in writing but not for speaking. The study also found a correlation between scores for speaking and writing. Students reported that peer correction and self-correction enabled them to learn to speak and write better and they had a positive attitude towards learning; however, some students expressed that they did not understand their friends very well because their peers were better at English and used difficult words. However, the study did not clarify whether online discussion on the Facebook wall or synchronous calls on

Skype led to students' progress in speaking and writing or a combination of these two activities. S. Wang and Camilla (2014) also examined the effect on students' writing of online discussions in a closed Facebook group. Eighteen Chinese intermediate students at a university in the USA were divided into two groups: a control group and an experimental group. The experimental group was put in the closed Facebook group to post their writing for discussion for 16 weeks, while the control group did not have any treatment. The study employed pre-test, mid-term test and post-test to measure differences in students' writing between the control group and the experimental group. Besides, a pre-survey and post-survey were used to explore students' experiences of discussing online. The results showed that students in the experimental group could write more Chinese characters compared to students in the control groups in the mid-term test and post-test. However, the quality of the writing did not improve significantly. The survey results showed that students had positive attitudes towards writing on Facebook.

To sum up, Shih (2011), Miyazoe and Anderson (2010) and Passig and Schwartz (2007) found that online writing could improve students' writing in terms of vocabulary, accuracy and language complexity. In addition, Shih (2011) also found students could exchange their opinions and get peer feedback. However, Dizon (2016) and S. Wang and Camilla (2014) found that online writing on Facebook only improved students' writing in terms of fluency, but not for complexity and accuracy. Yen et al. (2015) reported that a combination of online writing on Facebook and Skype discussions were found to improve students' speaking and listening significantly.

#### *2.4 Theoretical framework*

This section overviews research into language students' willingness to communicate, and then it focuses on willingness to communicate in computer-mediated environments. It then continues with online disinhibition effects before discussing the relationship between the willingness to communicate and the level of disclosure in the online environment. In this study, online disinhibition and social presence are employed as the theoretical lenses through which I will view the data of this study.

##### *2.4.1 Willingness to communicate*

Willingness to communicate (WTC) was first used in discussing the likelihood of first language (L1) interlocutors taking part in communication (McCroskey & Baer, 1985). The construct of WTC has caught the attention of applied linguists due to the important role of interaction in second language acquisition (Long, 1996). Learners with high WTC were more

likely to utilize their L2 in their conversation and knew how to learn autonomously by engaging in learning activities (S.-J. Kang, 2005). Therefore, L2 researchers suggest that stimulating WTC should be a vital factor in L2 instruction (MacIntyre, Baker, Clément, & Donovan, 2003; MacIntyre, Dornyei, Clement, & Noels, 1998). In the area of second language acquisition, according to MacIntyre et al. (1998), WTC is “readiness to enter into discourse at a particular time with a specific person or persons, using a L2” (p. 547). MacIntyre et al. gave an example of students raising hands to speak in the L2 class as a way to express their willingness to communicate. S.-J. Kang (2005) specifies the definition of WTC as the readiness to communicate in the L2. He defines readiness to engage in L2 communication as varying “according to interlocutor(s), topic, and conversational context, among other potential situational variables” (p. 291). MacIntyre et al. (1998) presented a model to explain variables which might affect each individual’s WTC in the L2. The model shows that self-confidence or communication behavior has a direct impact on WTC while psychological aspects of the interlocutor such as motivation, personality or attitudes were more permanent and stable with WTC.

An improvement in WTC has been discovered to have direct effects on L2 acquisition. High WTC students would be at an advantage in communicative activities (Ellis, 2004) because they would likely interact more frequently in their L2 (Clément, Baker, & MacIntyre, 2003), and have opportunities to practise their L2 (MacIntyre, Baker, Clément, & Conrod, 2001). They, therefore, would become more active and independent (S.-J. Kang, 2005) and usually achieve higher language competence (MacIntyre et al., 2001; MacIntyre et al., 1998).

Several studies have been conducted to investigate factors affecting WTC. Shao and Gao (2016) reviewed ten articles published in the journal *System* from 2000 to 2015. The articles investigated the willingness to communicate of learners from different contexts such as Taiwan, China, Hong Kong, New Zealand, Poland and Macau. The findings showed that students’ willingness to communicate was not culturally rooted and suggested that teachers should encourage students to be more willing to communicate in the class. Korean university students studying English in the USA (S.-J. Kang, 2005) were found to be more willing to communicate when the topics were familiar to them. Pawlak and Mystkowska-Wiertelak (2015) also found that Polish university students were more willing to communicate about familiar topics. Chinese university students’ willingness to communicate was reported to be affected by the environment, and by students’ motivations and beliefs (Peng, 2012). However, Chinese university students were described as preferring to ‘think deeply before talking’ (Chen,



2003, p. 265). Both Cao (2011) and Zhong (2013) found that Chinese and Korean university students learning English in New Zealand were found to be more concerned about their language accuracy, self-perceived confidence, face-saving and fear of being commented on in speaking English in front of the class. Eddy-U (2015) pointed out that assessment was the main factor motivating Macau university students to speak English. N.-F. Liu and Littlewood (1997) also found that lack of speaking experience was also a factor preventing Asian university students from being willing to communicate. D.-M. Kang (2014) documented that studying abroad increased students' willingness to communicate.

Other factors have been found to affect the WTC. S.-J. Kang (2005) conducted a qualitative study at a university in the USA in which four Korean learners worked in pairs with their American tutors. The data were collected during a period of eight weeks through interviews, video recording, and stimulated recalls. The study found that when students were familiar with the topic, they felt more secure, motivated and responsive to talk about that topic. It also pointed out that security, motivation and responsiveness to communicate in a second language depended on their familiarity with the interlocutor and the interlocutor's interest and expressions of eagerness. Kang also found out that students felt less willing to communicate when the size of the group increased. Zarrinabadi (2014) examined how teachers influenced students' WTC in the classroom in Iran. Fifty Iranian English major university students were asked to write essays about the circumstances in which they were the most and least willing to communicate. The results indicated that the longer teachers waited for students to respond, the more active and communicative students were. The more familiar topic that teachers selected, the higher WTC and classroom engagement students had. That teachers corrected students' mistakes immediately affected students' WTC negatively. The study also found out that teachers' support in terms of smiling or confirmatory phrases affected students' willingness to communicate.

To sum up, the findings from the above studies show that WTC depends on situational contexts such as topics, teacher's attitudes towards students, internal characteristics of students such as their motivation, beliefs, experiences with their speaking skills or their self-perceived confidence, or outside environment. However, the above studies focused on examining university students' WTC; none of them investigated other age groups such as secondary or high school students.

### **Willingness to communicate through computer-mediated communication activities**

Several studies (Alwi, 2015; Freiermuth & Huang, 2015; Freiermuth & Jarrell, 2006; Ockert, 2014) have investigated students' WTC through computer-mediated communication. It should be noted that technology has developed quickly, and computer-mediated communication has also changed rapidly from text chat to voice and video chat. Sheldon (2008) surveyed 172 tertiary students at a university in the USA. She concluded that students who were more willing to communicate in real life tended to be more willing to communicate in the online environment. However, the study did not clearly identify whether it was synchronous or asynchronous communication with text, audio or video in the online environment. Freiermuth and Jarrell (2006) compared the motivation of 36 female students in Japan in face-to-face discussions and online text chat in motivating students in learning English. Data were collected from the post-questionnaire and students' output under each condition. The results showed that most students preferred text chat to face-to-face communication because they felt more comfortable in the online environment, which enhanced their willingness to communicate.

More recent studies have also reported that students are more willing to communicate in the online environment. Reinders and Wattana (2015) carried out a study exploring Thai tertiary students' experiences while learning English through playing online computer games. The results indicated that most of the students felt more confident and freer to speak in the online game because they supposed their performance was not assessed by the teacher. Moreover, students felt less anxious, more relaxed about making mistakes, and had more freedom to express their thoughts in English in the online computer game. In general, most of the students supposed that gameplay improved their English skills, especially their communication skills. The study did not explore whether students' confidence led to any progress in their language such as accuracy or complexity or not, and the results may have had more to do with the communicative situation than the online nature of the communication. Similarly, V. L. Nguyen (2011a) investigated Vietnamese trainee teachers by conducting a course through computer-mediated communication. The researcher established a website in which trainee teachers were able to have synchronous and asynchronous text chat through wikis to communicate and deliver the course. Data were collected through 24 Likert-scale questions asking 30 trainee teachers about their perceptions and evaluations of the course. Together with the questionnaires, interviews with 15 students were transcribed to analyse. The results showed that trainee teachers expressed positive opinions about synchronous learning situations. Most of the students (27 out of 30) evaluated the synchronous communication environment as giving

them more pleasure and convenience than face-to-face environment, increasing their time efficiency because of no travelling to the class, and reducing waiting time for turn-taking. Furthermore, students also perceived less pressure to share ideas with their partners because these trainee students were able to choose their words, edit the text and review the message before sending it. Furthermore, their computer skills improved through online chatting. However, a few students (3/30) who were not good at digital skills and language thought that it would be good for them, but they had to ask for help from their friends and sometimes they felt lost. The study concluded that both synchronous and asynchronous computer-mediated communication assisted trainee teachers to generate more ideas and lessen anxiety.

Similarly, Freiermuth and Huang (2015) examined students' experiences via online chat in a cultural exchange. Thirty-nine university students including twenty Japanese students and nineteen students from Taiwan were divided into 9 groups of four or five members each. A separate chat room was created for each small group. During the intercultural exchange, students typed their entries into a dialogue box. After experiencing the online chat, students were asked to complete a questionnaire with open-ended questions to reflect their opinion. In addition, chat scripts were collected and analysed. The results indicated that online chat enhanced students' confidence using the target language, which led to more WTC and higher motivation, stimulated more interactions that fostered the process of language learning, minimized the language difference among group members and boosted mutual understanding. In the same vein, Alwi (2015) investigated 48 second year engineering Malaysian students at a university of technology. They were asked to interact with their peers in problem-solving tasks. Learners role-played as engineers in an international company meeting to determine which software the company should select. Each learner was provided with information about software to promote to the team members. During the discussion, they were required to discuss the different types of software showing their advantages and disadvantages, and to recommend the software to buy either via text chat or face-to-face. He found that the text chat groups were more successful in producing language than the face-to-face group.

The findings from the above studies showed that students perceived the online environment as safer, and they were more willing to communicate and articulated more language; however, these studies investigated text chat, the least revealing means of communication in the online environment, to exchange information, while they did not examine how students perceived other means of computer-mediated communication, such as video or audio call. Similarly, Chotipaktanasook and Reinders (2016) examined 40 Thai

students in an intact class. They were asked to post pictures about what they did in the class on Instagram and reflect on their learning experiences. WTC was measured through a pre-and post-questionnaire. The results show that students had higher WTC when they used social media compared to when they were in class. They implied that social media could be used as a channel for sharing ideas, feelings and thoughts. However, this study did not investigate whether students with higher WTC would produce more language or more turns during their communication. Besides, Chotipaktanasook and Reinders (2016) did not investigate either whether higher WTC will result in more language accuracy and complexity.

Yanguas and Flores (2014) compared students' progress in terms of language when they were in the online text chat environment. Participants were 31 university students learning Spanish at a university in the USA. These students participated in two decision-making tasks. One was carried out face-to-face and the other was conducted through text chat via Skype. The result shows that students produced statistically significantly more turns in the computer-mediated communication, but the number of words did not increase significantly. The authors suggested that the increase of turns might correlate with the students feeling less anxious and more motivated. However, this study did not have a control group and was conducted over a short time; therefore, caution is called for in concluding that the online text chat environment enabled students to produce more language. In addition, the study did not compare the quality of students' language, such as language complexity or accuracy in the face-to-face environment and the online text-chat environment.

In summary, the above studies reported that the online text chat environment was perceived to be safer and students were more willing to communicate because it was felt to be less face-threatening. Students produced more turns and more language; however, these studies have not addressed whether the online environment with synchronous or asynchronous audio or video chat is less face-threatening than the face-to-face environment. Besides, these studies have not explored students' progress in terms of language complexity and accuracy when they are in the online environment such as text chat, voice chat, or video chat

#### *2.4.2 Online disinhibition and willingness to communicate*

Disinhibition is explained as "any behaviour that is characterized by an apparent reduction in concerns for self-presentation and judgement of others" (Joinson, 2001, p. 44). Online disinhibition effects are psychological conditions in which participants are less inhibited about how they are perceived in the online environment. Suler (2004) categorizes online disinhibition effects into two types: benign disinhibition and toxic disinhibition. Benign

disinhibition is the positive reactions such as being kind, generous with online communicators while toxic disinhibition relates to negative behaviours that could harm others such as crime, anger, criticism, rudeness, flirting, exclamations, etc. (Kiesler, Zubrow, Moses, & Geller, 1985). Walther (1996) in his Hyperpersonal Communication theory points out two attributes that encourage participants to disclose more: reduced social cues and controllability. Similarly, Kiesler et al. (1985) explained the cause of face-to-face disinhibition effects. They supposed that computer-mediated communication (CMC) (by which they mean asynchronous text chat) reduces visual, auditory and contextual cues as well as the full advantages of controllability such as reviewing, editing the message; therefore, online communicators were less restrained and disclosed more information compared to those in the face-to-face environment. Suler (2004) listed four explanations for being disinhibited in the online environment: anonymity, invisibility, asynchronicity, and individual differences. Thurlow, Lengel, and Tomic (2004) explained that participants perceive that they are less constrained and less responsible in a CMC environment. They are less self-conscious and disclose more personal information. Similarly, Joinson (2007) explains that reduced social cues and controllability are the two main factors contributing to disinhibition during online interactions.

As can be seen in Table 2.2, earlier studies have reported that the online messaging environment (asynchronous text communication) is more comfortable for online users, especially for those who have a high level of anxiety in face-to-face environments. Shepherd and Edelman (2005) reported that anxious university students in the USA found it easier to maintain communication in an online chat environment compared to face-to-face meetings because they could be anonymous and not seen by others. Similarly, Caplan (2006), who investigated 343 university students in the USA, found that highly anxious students preferred online interactions and felt more comfortable in the online environment and disclosed more information compared to a face-to-face context. Pierce (2009) pointed out that text messaging and phone calls reduced social anxiety. Tidwell and Walther (2002) also found out that in computer-mediated environment using text chat, university students in the USA disclosed more personal information than face-to-face. Joinson (2001) conducted other studies to evaluate the level of disclosure between the face-to-face and online communication. The participants were undergraduate students at a university in the UK. He conducted three studies and found that students disclosed more through text chat in the online environment than in face-to-face meetings but they disclosed less information when they had the camera on in an online environment. He concluded that the perception of anonymity resulted in higher levels of

disclosure in online communication; however, Joinson (2001) did not identify whether the online environment with video is more or less face-threatening than face-to-face discussions. However, the online environment has changed since Suler (2004) and Joinson (2001, 2007) explained the disinhibition effects. The 2006 online environment with text chat is totally different from the 2017 online environment. Thanks to the progress of technology, online participants can disclose more social cues if they wish. Therefore, there is a gap in the literature review about students' disinhibition effects in the environment with more social cues with video synchronous or asynchronous communication.

Recent studies (Table 2.2) also compared participants' disinhibition effects between online text chat and the face-to-face environment. Green, Wilhelmsen, Wilmots, Dodd, and Quinn (2016) examined 306 online young adults in different parts of the world through a questionnaire and concluded that private communication on Facebook resulted in disinhibition effects, however, public communication did not. Weidman et al. (2012) examined 114 undergraduate students in the USA and found that shy students felt more confident in the online environment and disclosed more information than in the face-to-face environment. Rice and Markey (2009) compared the level of anxiety in two environments: face-to-face conversations and anonymous text-chat. The participants were 80 female undergraduate students at a university in the USA. Online communication was reported as being less stressful compared to face-to-face communication and the introvert participants were more nervous in the face-to-face conversation but these participants reported less anxiety in the online environment. Lapidot-Lefler and Barak (2015) investigated the effects of three factors: anonymity, invisibility and lack of eye contact on self-disclosure. The participants were 144 students in two universities in Israel. The study concluded that anonymity and invisibility significantly affected the disclosure of emotions and added that anonymity was not the strongest factor of disinhibition effects. However, Silvia, Guilia, and Scott (2015) found that reduced non-verbal cues and controllability resulted in higher levels of disinhibition and more social interactions among 640 university students in Italy. Although the above studies examined the online environment recently, they only investigated text chat, which involves the least social cues. In contrast, Melchor-Couto (2018) examined the relationship between anonymity, foreign language anxiety, personal profiles and self-efficacy beliefs. The participants were 18 students at a university in London. The study employed both quantitative and qualitative data. The study employed questionnaires to address students' personal profiles, self-efficacy beliefs, and foreign language anxiety. The study paired the students in the UK with students at a university

in Spain to discuss in four sections with four different topics. After each section, students were asked to answer three open questions. The results showed that there was a strong correlation between self-efficacy beliefs and anonymity effects, but no correlations were found between the participants' foreign language anxiety and anonymity or their personal profiles. There are not many studies exploring how students will react in an online environment with more social cues such as online video conferencing.

In ESL teaching, it is true that online disinhibition effects are also not well recorded. Only Cunningham (2011) documented from her own experiences that students who were not required to use a video camera synchronously usually did not turn it on during their online seminar. She reported that students preferred voice chat to video chat. She had to encourage one of her students to participate in the online course by promising him that he would not have to use his camera.

**Table 2. 2 Summary of recent studies about online disinhibition and willingness to communicate**

<b>Authors</b>	<b>Year</b>	<b>Context</b>	<b>Level of students</b>	<b>Methods</b>	<b>Findings</b>	<b>Comments</b>
Joinson	2001	USA	university students	Three different studies on three different environments: text chat, visual and video environment.	Students disclosed more in the text chat environment than in the face-to-face one; however, students disclosed less when the camera was on.	Joinson did not point out whether students disclosed more or less in the video online environment compared to the face-to-face meeting.
Tidwell and Walther	2002	USA	university students	Two groups of students were asked to have face-to-face meetings and online meetings. A questionnaire was administered after that.	Students disclosed more information in the text chat environment than in the face-to-face meeting	These studies concluded that shy students were more confident in the text chat environment compared to the face-to-face environment while technology enables people to communicate through voice or video calls. These studies have not addressed students' experiences other online environments with more social cues such as voice and video calls.
Shepherd and Edelmann	2005	USA	university students	questionnaire	Students with anxiety found it easier to communicate in the online environment than the face-to-face meeting because of anonymity.	
Caplan	2006	USA	university students	questionnaire	Anxious students preferred online environment and disclosed more information in the online environment than in face-to-face meeting.	
Rice and Markey	2009	USA	university students	- Questionnaire to administer their personality - Divide participants into dyads and let them	Online environment was less stressful. Introvert participants were more stressful in the face-to-face environment compared to the online environment.	



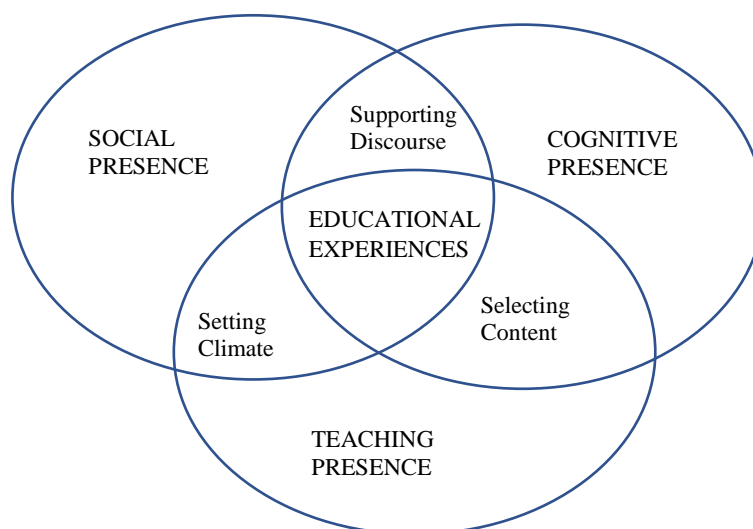
				communicate in the online and face-to-face environments. - A questionnaire was used to measure students' anxiety in each environment.		
Weidman et al.	2012	USA	university students	questionnaire	Shy students tended to be more confident in the online environment and disclosed more information.	
Lapidot-Lefler and Barak	2015	Israel	university students	questionnaire	Anonymity and invisibility affected the disclosure of emotion	These studies have not examined how students showed their willingness to communicate in the online environment with more controllability and more verbal cues through video conferencing.
Silvia, Guilia, and Scott	2015	Italy	university students	questionnaire	Non-verbal cues and controllability contributed to disinhibition effects and more social interactions	
Green, Wilhelmsen, Wilmots, Dodd, and Quinn	2016	Different parts of the world	young adults	questionnaire	Private communication resulted in disinhibition effects.	
Melchor-Couto	2018	UK	university students	both quantitative data (questionnaire) and qualitative data (open questions)	The study revealed that there was a strong relationship between anonymity and self-perceived efficacy, but no correlation was found between foreign language anxiety and personal profiles or anonymity in the online environment.	Melchor-Couto's findings were contradictory with the findings from the previous studies that anonymity in the text chat in the online environment contributed to greater student disclosure.

To sum up, Joinson (2001, 2007) and Suler (2004) explained the online disinhibition effects when text chat was the main means of communication; the online environment was felt to be less threatening and students became less inhibited because they could reduce the social cues and have more control during their online conversation. With the advancement of

technology, the online environment has changed rapidly, and online participants can choose whether or not to show more social cues with less controllability, and what Suler (2004) and Joinson (2007) explained might not apply in the new environment. However, recent research has focused on students' online disinhibition with text chat while other computer-mediated means of communication such as synchronous video chat, a form of communication involving more social cues has not yet been much examined. More discussion of WTC is in Chapter 6.

### 2.4.3 Social presence

Short, Williams and Christie (1976) first coined the term “social presence” when they studied human communication via various media. They define social presence as a “degree of salience of the other person in the interaction and the consequent salience of the interpersonal relationships” (p. 65). This definition has been developed by researchers studying online learning. Gunawardena and Zittle (1997) state that social presence is “the degree to which a person is perceived as “a real person” in mediated communication” (p. 8). Garrison, Anderson and Archer (2000), in their Community of Inquiry model, have a similar definition, that “social presence is the ability of participants in the community of inquiry to project their personal characteristics into the community, thereby presenting themselves to others as ‘real’ people” (p. 94). They present the conceptual framework of the Community of Inquiry model which has three main elements: cognitive presence, social presence and teaching presence.



**Figure 2.1 Community of Inquiry by Garrison et al. (2000, p. 2)**

**Cognitive presence** is described as “the extent to which the participants in any particular configuration of a community of inquiry are able to construct meaning through sustained communication” (Garrison et al., 2000, p. 89). **Teaching presence** consists of selecting, developing, organizing the course content and facilitating the learning activities. **Social presence** includes three factors: affective, interactive and cohesive presence (Rourke, Anderson, Garrison, & Archer, 1999). Affective presence is defined as emotional aspects in the exchange, while the interactive presence indicates the interactive thread of exchanges. The cohesive characteristic is an indicator of the cohesion within the interchanges of participants (Rourke et al., 1999).

Social presence in online education has been investigated, particularly with asynchronous text-based communication. Hostetter and Busch (2013) investigated the relation between social presence and students’ learning outcome. The participants of the study were 121 female university students in the USA taking an online course with recorded PowerPoint lectures and a discussion forum. The study examined social cues in the participants’ writing in the communicative forum and in a survey. The results showed that 86.45 percent of the postings in the forum included social symbols indicating affection, interaction or cohesion. The results showed that students with higher social presence in the forum performed better in their writing assignments. However, the study did not attempt to explain why higher social presence could affect writing assignments. Another study by Tu and McIsaac (2002) investigated the relationship between social presence and online interaction. They focused on intimacy and immediacy. According to them, intimacy is “a function of such things as eye contact, physical proximity and topic of conversation” (p. 133) while immediacy “is conveyed through speech and associated verbal and nonverbal cues” (p. 134). They conducted their study with fifty-one graduate students in an online course in the USA. Data were collected through a questionnaire, interview and observation. The questionnaire investigated students’ evaluation of email, a bulletin board and a real-time chat while the observation and interviews explored the concept of social presence experienced by the participants. The findings showed that the more formal the communicative situation was perceived to be, the less immediately they responded to the message. The results also revealed that teachers used a variety of strategies to boost communication, such as initiating a conversation, greeting, praising, using an inviting tone, and so forth. The authors recommended that instructors should spend time building trust online because this could enhance social engagement and social negotiation.

J. Richardson and Swan (2003) investigated the relationship between online learning

environments and students' perception of learning and satisfaction with instructor. The participants were 97 online students from a university in the USA. Their results showed that students who received more frequent, immediate verbal and nonverbal feedback from their teachers were more likely to give higher ratings to the overall quality of instruction and the value of a course, and they rated especially high their satisfaction with the instructor. Mathieson & Leafman (2014) compares students' and teachers' perceptions of social presence. Participants were all online students (n = 2715) and educators (n = 172) at a health science university in the USA. The survey was conducted through a link on SurveyMonkey and sent to participants by email. A total of 282 students and 92 instructors completed the survey. Results showed that students and teachers reported perceiving a high level of social presence. However, there was a mismatch between the instructors and students. Students reported lower levels of social presence and less satisfaction than their instructors.

To sum up, students who perceived that their learning situation had higher social presence had better learning outcomes and students rated their instructors more highly if they got more frequent feedback and experienced higher social presence. The relationship between the willingness to communicate and social presence is discussed further in Chapter 6.

## *2.5 Summary*

This chapter has presented research on communicative language teaching and student perspectives about CLT. Students were reported to prefer CLT activities such as group work and pair work, but they would like teachers to explain grammar explicitly and correct their grammatical mistakes (A. V. Brown, 2009; Rahman, 2015). Besides, although most teachers reported that they liked CLT, they did not consistently apply it in their teaching practice (Karimi & Biria, 2017). CLT was reported to be better for students to improve their language proficiency such as speaking, reading and listening (Ahmed & Bidin, 2016; Beretta & Davies, 1985; Hanafiyeh, 2015; Ismaili, 2013). However, some studies did not point out what method they tried to compare (Ahmed & Bidin, 2016; Ismaili, 2013), or they were not able to conclude that it was more effective than other methods because teachers actually did not organize communicative activities (Jaime Osorio & Insuasty, 2015).

The literature review continued with student perspectives about technology in learning languages. High school and university students in the above studies used technology especially social media for educational, communicative and social purposes. However, these studies were conducted in developed countries such as America, Austria or Britain while little is known

about how high school students in a developing country will use technology particularly in the context of Vietnam.

The chapter discusses more about the application of technology in language teaching and learning. Extensive online practice of listening, speaking and writing has been studied. The above studies presented mixed results. Online listening practice gave more opportunities for students to practise listening (Alm, 2013) and improved university students' listening skills (Chang & Millett, 2016). For writing, while Huang (2015) and Shih (2010) found that students highly appreciated opportunities to practice speaking online, Sun (2012) concluded that no improvement in terms of pronunciation, language complexity and fluency was found. On the other hand, H.-C. Hsu (2016) pointed out the language complexity improved while fluency and accuracy did not change after sixteen weeks of voice blogging. In the case of writing, online writing practice was found to improve university students' writing skills regarding vocabulary, accuracy and language complexity (Miyazoe & Anderson, 2010; Passig & Schwartz, 2007; Shih, 2011); however, Dizon (2016) and S. Wang and Camilla (2014) found that university students only improved their fluency but not their accuracy and complexity. However, the above studies tried to investigate university students who were able to learn independently, and little is known about how high school students might practise their language skills and whether extensive online practice would result in any proficiency for high school students, particular in the context of Vietnam.

The chapter continues to review student experiences in learning online especially social presence and willingness to communicate. Many studies (Joinson, 2007; Weidman et al., 2012; Zhao, Sullivan, & Mellenius, 2014) have been conducted to investigate the online disinhibition effects and students' disclosure in the online course. The above studies showed that students felt more comfortable in the online text chat environment because of the reduced social anxiety. The advancement of technology has enabled other computer-mediated communication such as synchronous video conferencing or audio chat. In these new means of communication, students could disclose more about themselves. However, not many studies have been conducted to examine how students will disclose themselves in an environment with more social cues, such as online video conferencing.

## CHAPTER 3: THE TEACHING CONTEXT IN VIETNAM

Warschauer (1998) asserted that the application of technology in education depends on many variables such as institutions, teaching context, teachers and students' beliefs. In this chapter, an overview of the teaching context in which the current study was carried out is elaborated with the history of English language education in Vietnam (3.1). Then it describes one of the recent projects that has been set up for teaching and learning English in Vietnam the 'Foreign Languages Project 2020' (3.2). After that, the chapter continues with the actual practice of learning and teaching English in high schools in Vietnam (3.3). Section 3.4 presents more details about technology implementation in teaching English in Vietnam, and Section 3.5. describes the mandated textbook which is used nationwide. Section 3.6 discusses students' motivation in learning English before the chapter ends with a description of the national English exam in Section 3.7.

### *3.1 English policy and development in Vietnam*

English language policy in Vietnam has changed dramatically over the past five decades. Before 1954, French was the official language in education because Vietnam was one of the French colonies and only the elite in the society had any opportunity to access education (Hang, 2009). English began to be taught as a foreign language in secondary and tertiary education in the South when the American forces came into the South of Vietnam. After 1954, English and French became popular foreign languages in the South of Vietnam (Do, 2006). In the north, Russian and Chinese were the most widely taught, because the North of Vietnam was allied with Russia and China (Hang, 2009). After the unification of Vietnam in 1975, Russian became the preferred foreign language in secondary school education while English, Chinese and French were downplayed in education policy because of political relationships. To be more specific, around 70% of secondary school students studied Russian while the figure for English and French was 20% and 10% respectively (Hang, 2009; Hoang, 2010). At tertiary level, Russian learners exceeded the total number of other language learners.

After what was called the 'Renovation' (*doi moi*) policy was implemented in 1986, English recovered its dominant status since the Vietnamese government had opened the door to the world (Hang, 2009). After this economic and political change, Vietnam discontinued bureaucratic centralization (Do, 2006) and expanded its relationship with other countries and

implemented a market-oriented economy. Vietnam changed its policy to attract more foreign investment not only from communist countries but also from other countries including English-speaking countries, and English has become a major language for communication in business and cooperation (Do, 2006; Hoang, 2010). English is a compulsory subject in secondary education and high school graduates must pass the national examination in which English is obligatory. As Vietnam has integrated into international business and trade, English has become a vital instrument for communication.

Vietnamese education includes three school levels: primary schools, secondary schools and high schools. The number of academic years for the three levels is 12 years in total. Each academic year has 35 weeks, which are divided into two semesters. Primary schools start at Grade 1 and end at Grade 5. Secondary schools are from Grade 6 to Grade 9. High schools have three years from Grade 10 to Grade 12. After Grade 12, students take a high-stakes university entrance exam.

English is a compulsory subject throughout the national curriculum. In total, as shown in Table 3.1, students must study English for 805 periods (one period is 45 minutes long) in their secondary school education over the 10 years from Grade 3 to Grade 12. Specifically, in primary school, students have two English periods a week, totalling 210 periods. Secondary school students study more English from Grade 6 to Grade 8, with 3 periods a week, but only 2 periods a week for Grade 9. The total for secondary school is 385 periods, while students in high schools have a total of 315 periods, with 3 periods a week. The curriculum design for the whole school year is in Table 3.1.

**Table 3. 1 The English curriculum for secondary education in Vietnam**

Level of education	Number of periods/week	Total periods in one academic year (35 weeks)
Primary education (Grade 3 – 5)	2	210
Secondary education (Grade 6 – 8)	3	315
Secondary education (Grade 9)	2	70
High school (Grade 10 – 12)	3	315
	Total	805

(adapted from (Hoang, 2010))

### *3.2 Foreign languages project 2020*

In 2008, the Vietnamese government launched the National Foreign Languages Project 2020. The objective of the Foreign Languages Project 2020 is that high school, college or university graduates will be capable of using English independently at the equivalent of the B1 level of the European framework (*Vietnamese Government, 2008*). To realize the objective, a framework for language proficiency was set up for teachers and students. To be more precise, students at primary schools should be at A1 level on the Common European Framework (CEFR) while the level of language skills required for lower secondary school students is at A2, and high school, college and university students should be at B2. The English requirement is B2 for primary and secondary school teachers and C1 for high school teachers. In an attempt to reach these targets, training courses have been offered to train teachers in both methodologies and proficiency. One of the principal solutions is to apply technology to improve language proficiency and diversify methodology (N. H. Nguyen, 2013). The following section describes the actual application of this policy in learning and teaching English in Vietnam.



### *3.3 Teaching and learning English in Vietnam*

Despite the crucial roles of English in social and economic development, teaching and learning English in Vietnam have some unsolved issues. Obstacles include unqualified teachers, insufficient teaching facilities, passive Confucian learning styles, overcrowded classrooms, lack of an English-speaking linguistic environment and outdated teaching methodology (V. L. Nguyen, 2011a).

First, students and teachers do not meet the CEFR English requirements according to the standards set by the Foreign Languages Project 2020. Students are incapable of communicating in English after 7 years of learning English at high schools and two years at tertiary education (Hoang, 2010). In other words, the required level for students is B1; however, the majority of students are at A1 or A2 (H. T. Le, 2013); therefore, they cannot use their English for basic conversations. In addition, the teachers' language proficiency is far below the necessary standard. In the school year 2011 - 2012, 83% of teachers at primary schools, 87% of teachers at secondary schools, and 92% at high schools were not qualified enough in terms of language proficiency (N. H. Nguyen, 2013).

In general, Vietnamese students have a passive learning style due to the effect of the Confucian ideology of teaching and learning. Confucian ideology has a strong impact on Vietnamese society. The main principle of Confucianism is represented by the hierarchy of social respect. The king has the highest ranking, followed by teachers and fathers. Teachers are held to be even more important than the father in the educational and social development of a child. In Confucian society, children are expected to show their respect to other people and young people are supposed to show reverence to older people. This is realized by the unbalanced social relationship between teachers and students. In this asymmetric relationship, teachers have absolute power whereas students are supposed to listen to what teachers say. Consequently, learning is a knowledge transmission process in which teachers play the centre role as a knowledge giver while students act as passive receivers. Therefore, in the Vietnamese classroom, students are encouraged to learn by heart what teachers say, memorize and recite the lesson. Any students who raise challenging questions to the teachers are considered to be disrespectful to their teachers (V. C. Le, 2011). That is why Vietnamese students are usually seen as passive students.

Another problem is that the teaching of English in the classroom is orientated towards exams (V. C. Le, 2011; G. V. Nguyen, 2013; V. L. Nguyen, 2011a). Because the national

university entrance examination is very competitive, and a university degree is regarded as a passport into a better life (V. L. Nguyen, 2011a), high school students and parents pursue this exam at all costs. However, the national high school graduation English examination tests explicit language knowledge especially vocabulary, grammar, pronunciation and reading comprehension while the government's official macro-strategy is to equip students with communicative skills. This leads to a dilemma for teachers of choosing between form-focused instruction for their students to perform well in the exam and communicative language teaching (CLT) with the aim of training students' communicative competence. Consequently, the teacher tries to teach students as much explicit language knowledge as possible so that they can perform well in the university entrance exams. G. V. Nguyen (2014a), in a case study at high schools found that high school teachers chose to employ the activities in the textbook which fostered explicit language knowledge. In addition, students felt demotivated to learn English as there was a discrepancy between the textbook (which) was designed for CLT using communicative activities and the tests and examinations which are only form-focused.

In Nguyen's study, teachers tended to focus on forms because they believed that language contained a set of grammatical items and words and learning a language was 'a process of transmission and practice of certain lexical or grammatical items' (G. V. Nguyen, 2013). High school teachers also equated mastering grammatical rules with 'communicative competence'. Although teachers claimed to favour communicative language teaching, they believed that CLT was intended to help students memorize and manipulate linguistic knowledge (V. C. Le, 2011). V. C. Le (2011) also found out that Vietnamese high school teachers believed that mastering English grammar would improve high school students' language accuracy, especially in speaking and writing, and increase students' confidence. Therefore, high school teachers tried to teach using information about the English language as an input so that students could use this knowledge in the production stage even in language skill lessons (G. V. Nguyen, 2013). V. C. Le (2011) pointed out that high school teachers believed that learning a language meant memorizing as many language items as possible, and the teachers checked the vocabulary items at the beginning of each lesson. Teachers spent a lot of time teaching grammatical items, and even replaced some language skill lessons with grammar ones.

To realize their teacher beliefs, Vietnamese high school teachers retained more form-focused activities and tended to omit all the meaning-focused activities in the lessons they planned (G. V. Nguyen, 2013). In their teaching they pre-taught language for students to use

in their production stage. Even in presenting speaking and writing skills, they also focused on language to be built. They employed activities to drill language items. Although Vietnamese high school students were asked to work in pairs or groups, they did not create meaning as their Vietnamese high school teachers emphasized the language items to be practised. Besides, these teachers managed the time strictly; therefore, students did not have enough time to carry out a real conversational activity. In correcting students' mistakes, teachers pointed out the grammatical mistakes and asked students to fix the grammatical mistakes explicitly (V. C. Le, 2011; G. V. Nguyen, 2013).

### *3.4 Technology application in teaching English in Vietnam*

The application of technology in the Vietnamese context is somewhat limited. Peeraer and Petegem (2010) conducted research in four educational institutions in Northern and Central Vietnam. They concluded that accessing computers was not an obstacle, but that university teachers' computer skills were the main cause to inhibit them from using technology. A large number of university teachers were surveyed and found to believe that technology use would allow them to access extensive teaching resources on the internet (99.5%), improve their teaching performance (99.1%), especially with the use of multimedia resources downloaded from the internet, better communicate with colleagues via email (99.1%), enhance lesson preparation (98.1%), increase productivity (96.7%), facilitate sharing of teaching experiences with others (95.3%) and develop their professional expertise in their subject areas (94.9%). However, X. T. Dang, Nicholas, and Lewis (2012) found that university lecturers in Vietnam also did not use technology because they did not have good computer skills. Lack of incentive from the institution was also a reason for discouraging teachers from using technology. The study also found that most teachers (66.2%) possessed laptops but they did not have sufficient technology training. Besides, these university lecturers also complained about technical problems and limited access to technology facility. These university lecturers believed that applying technology would increase their workload. Most of the teachers (60%) believed that they would have to spend a large amount of time learning new technologies, using technology for lesson preparation and using technology in the classroom. Ly and Ab Jalil (2013) studied 109 lecturers at a university regarding their use of and attitude towards technology, and they concluded that there was a correlation between the lecturers' attitudes and their actual use of ICT in the classroom. Although the lecturers evaluated ICT highly, their actual use of ICT was limited. This study only examined the general uses of ICT but did not actually show how lecturers employed their technology for their study and their teaching practices.

To sum up, these above studies showed that university lecturers in Vietnam had positive attitudes towards technology in their teaching; however, they did not apply technology in their teaching because they were not very good at using technology and felt discouraged because technology increased their workload.

### *3.5 Description of the new textbook*

The Ministry of Education and Training (MOET) launched new mandated textbooks in 2014 for the new curriculum to meet the English proficiency targets for students set by the *Foreign Languages Project 2020*, namely the B1 level of English in the European framework. In order to realize that purpose, a new compulsory textbook series for nationwide programs from Grade 6 to 12 was introduced. This research focuses on the English Grade 11 textbook (Hoang et al., 2014), so a detailed description of one unit in this textbook will be shown in the following paragraphs.

The English Grade 11 textbook (Hoang et al., 2014) was first launched for trialling in 2014. During Grade 11, students have two textbooks for the two semesters. The textbook for the first semester has 5 units. There are two themes in the textbook, so the first three units are about one theme, and the other two units are about the other theme. Each unit of the textbook has six main parts: *Getting started*, *Language*, *Skills*, *Communications and Culture*, *Looking back* and *Project*. These six parts are supposed to cover the three stages (presentation, practice and production) in the communicative language teaching approach. Hoang et al. (2014) stated in the foreword of the textbook that it has been compiled according to the communicative approach which helps students use the language (phonology, vocabulary, grammar) develop communicative competence in English through the four skills: listening, speaking, reading, and writing. Therefore, the language knowledge (phonology, vocabulary, grammar) are introduced in the first two parts: *Getting started* and *Language*, so that students get some knowledge about the language before they can practise their language skills in the *Skills* section. Then knowledge about communication and culture is presented in the section *Communication and Culture*. Before students can produce free language in the section *Project*, they have time to review the language in section *Looking back*.

The first stage consists of *Getting started* and *Language* which aim to introduce the explicit language knowledge necessary for the rest of the unit. This stage begins with a conversation and vocabulary, grammar, and pronunciation are extracted from the conversation for students to practice. The following parts *Skills*, *Communications and Culture*, and *Looking*

*back* correspond to the presentation stage in communicative language teaching. Skill lessons such as reading, speaking, listening and writing are introduced for practicing the language presented in the conversation. *Communications and Culture* follows language skills and focuses on culture and communication. For example, in Unit 1, family trends in the world are introduced so that students have broad views about different types of families. A discussion about family trends in Vietnam follows the previous part. A review lesson *Looking back* consists of exercises for students to practice in preparation for the free language production stage. In the final phase, a *Project* is presented in order for students to use their own language for their communication. After the first theme (three units) a review lesson is presented to check students' knowledge of language. The textbook is accompanied by teachers' manuals, sound material and students' workbooks.

For Unit 1 (Appendix 3), *Getting started* begins with a conversation and the first activity is *Listen and read*. A *True/false* exercise follows to help students understand the conversation. The following activities focus on the meaning and the form of the vocabulary in the conversation such as completing the word in the sentence, finding the compound nouns, and finding verbs to express duty, obligation, advice or lack of obligation. The last activity is a pair-work activity which requires students to state their opinions.

The *Language* part of this first unit has three components: *Vocabulary, Pronunciation and Grammar*. The *Vocabulary* part has two exercises. For example, in Unit 1, the first exercise is to make compound nouns by combining two morphemes and the second one is to fill in the sentences with given words. In *Pronunciation*, sentences containing stress pattern are presented and the *Listen and repeat* task is designed to orientate students to the pronunciation patterns before pronunciation rules are presented. For grammar, sentences with grammatical structures are presented. The grammatical items are bolded for students to help them become more aware, and rules and explanations follow. A grammar drill is the final activity for the *Grammar* section.

*Skills* have four lessons: *Reading, Speaking, Listening and Writing*. the PPP model is intended to present in each skill one more time. Each lesson begins with introducing the context, pre-teaching vocabulary, practice is followed and a small free activity is shown at the end of each skill. For example, *Reading* begins with the introduction of the topic by asking students to read sentences about the content of the topic and guess the meaning before the

passage. Exercises to ensure comprehension follow, such as matching, or answering questions and a free discussion activity is the last part. Similarly, the *Speaking* section consists of a situation and a comprehension task to check students' understanding before group work or pair work with guided expressions and model conversations are introduced. Although the lesson aims at practising speaking skills, students are not free to choose the language.

For *Listening*, pre-listening questions and answers involving the context and vocabulary are used before students can listen to the language. While students listen to the recordings, they have to do comprehension activities such as answering true/false questions or multiple choice questions. The last activity asks students to work in pairs to discuss a topic related to the recording. Like listening skills, writing skills also follow the same format with some vocabulary pre-presented in a passage. A comprehension exercise comes afterwards, and this skill also ends with a free activity.

The next section is *Communication and Culture* which commences with preliminary-questions for students to work on in pairs and for groups to brainstorm their ideas. The subsequent activity is the passage about different customs in the world for reading comprehension and questions go along with the passage to assist students' to figure out its meaning before free discussion comes out.

After presenting and practising language knowledge and skills, a short review section named *Looking back* is inserted into the unit. In this part, pronunciation, vocabulary and grammar exercises are brought in to help students review the new language items. The last part is the *Project*, which comes in the form of an interview with guided questions. At this stage, students are free to use their own language to carry out the communicative activities, which are similar to the 'Production' stage in the 'PPP' model.

### *3.6 Students' motivation to learn English*

Hang (2009) found that students' attitudes towards learning foreign languages had changed from resentment to appreciation in the past 30 years because of the changes in social, cultural and economic structures. Vietnamese high school students were keen on learning English because of career-orientated motivation, with the main purpose of communicating in English, being able to work later for a foreign investment company with a well-paid contract (Hang, 2009; Pham, 2016). Pham (2016) also pointed out that parent involvement was one of the strong factors influencing students to learn English. Vietnamese parents encouraged their children to learn English by sending them to language centres or tutorial classes in order for

them to be able to speak English. Another cause is that peer competition in the class is very important especially in the Vietnamese context. If one person in the class who is good at English gets an offer to study abroad, other students try to learn English to have the same opportunities. T. T. Dang (2010) said that Vietnamese students are very hardworking in all the subjects including English. They not only learn English in class but also participate in tutorial classes at their teachers' houses after school.

### *3.7 National exams*

The national exam is used for high school graduation and university admission. The national English exam has around seventy multiple choice questions and a paragraph writing task. These multiple choice questions test reading comprehension, vocabulary, and grammatical items while the writing question asks students to compose a paragraph. The time allowed for the English test is 90 minutes. Because of the importance of the exam, it has a strong impact on teaching and learning English in Vietnam. Teachers try to follow the format of the test and train students in testing skills so that they will perform well in the national examination and therefore score highly enough for university admission. The teachers spend time presenting grammar, reading comprehension and vocabulary while they ignore communicative competence. Besides, they offer extra tutorial classes to train students to cope with exams by practising more grammar, reading comprehension and vocabulary (G. V. Nguyen, 2013).

### *3.8. Chapter summary*

In summary, English has gained popularity in Vietnam since the country opened its door to trade with other countries in the world. English is a compulsory subject in secondary education. The new textbook has been written with a CLT approach. Vietnamese students are found to have positive attitudes towards English and they are highly motivated to learn English in order to achieve a higher socio-economic status. However, high school teachers in Vietnam spend a lot of time presenting explicit grammar structures because they believe that if high school students master all grammar rules, they will be able to communicate. In addition, the national English exam focuses heavily on the testing of language knowledge such as reading comprehension, vocabulary and grammar. Because of the importance of English, the Vietnamese government established the Foreign Languages Projects 2020 which aims to improve both students and teachers' English proficiency, especially speaking and listening. The Project 2020 guidelines require teachers and students to apply more technology in their

language teaching and learning to improve students' communicative skills. However, no empirical data has been collected about how students (especially high school students) use technology. To be more specific, the questions of what kinds of digital tools that high school students utilize, and for what purposes students employ these digital tools have not been studied. In addition, no studies have been conducted in Vietnam about how students experience in the online environment especially the relationship between willingness to communicate and social presence. Furthermore, whether online learning would result in language proficiency or not was not answered. The current study fills this gap in the research by finding out how students used digital tools, how they experienced the online environment and what effects of learning online they might gain.



## Chapter 4: METHODOLOGY

In this chapter, the research design and procedure are presented in detail. Section 4.1 starts with a presentation of the research design. This is followed by a description of the pilot study, and the changes made after piloting in Section 4.2. The method for the current study is described in Section 4.3. Section 4.4 presents the research context with information about the participants, and schools where the study took place. The chapter continues with the description of the six-week online course in Section 4.5. Section 4.6 presents data collection tools used, such as a questionnaire and pre-course interview for students, pre-and post-course tests, post-course interview and researcher journal. The ethical assurance procedure is presented in Section 4.7. The data collection is elaborated on in detail in Section 4.8., and the data analysis is in Section 4.9. Student participation in the online course is reported in Section 4.10. The chapter ends with a summary in Section 4.11

### *4.1 Research design*

The main study investigated high school students' use of and beliefs about technology, especially social media, in learning English in Vietnam. The study also aimed to explore students' experiences of learning in a meaning-focused online course, especially the relationship between willingness to communicate (WTC) and student's self-presentation, and the effects of the online courses on students' speaking, listening and writing skills. A questionnaire was designed, and an in-depth interview was prepared to gain further understanding of students' practices and beliefs about technology.

After gaining an overview of the students' use of technology, students were invited to take pre-course tests in listening, writing and speaking. This was followed by a six-week online course (see more detail in Section 4.5). After that, students' experiences in the online course were investigated through a post-course questionnaire. The effects of the online course on students' listening, speaking and writing were measured by pre-and post-course tests. Facebook was employed as a learning platform and Skype was used for online interaction with students during the course. The research design is summarized in Table 4.1.

**Table 4. 1 Research design**

<b>Research questions</b>	<b>Sub-questions</b>	<b>Research tools</b>	<b>Participants</b>
1) What are students' practices and beliefs about technology for studying English?	What digital tools do students use for educational and social purposes?	Questionnaires	204
	What are students' beliefs about technology, particularly social media, in studying English?	Pre-course interview	18
2) How do students experience the online course?	How does the online environment affect students' willingness to communicate in?	Pre-course interview	18
	What are students' self-presentation preferences?	Post-course interview Researcher journal	
3) What are the effects of the online course?	What are the effects of the online course on students' writing, speaking, and listening skills?	Pre-course tests	17
	How do students practise their language skills in the online course?	Post-course tests	17
	How do students perceive their language skills development in the online course?	Post-course interview	18

For the first research question: the questionnaire gave quantitative data while the interview with students who volunteered for the online course gave qualitative data about how students used each kind of technology. The second research question was addressed through an interview after the course, which explored students' experiences of the online course such as their willingness to communicate as well as self-presentation preference. The third research question was addressed through pre- and post-course tests in speaking, listening and writing and post-course interviews with students about their perceived improvement after the online course.

To make sure that the research tools work well, a pilot study was conducted to test the research instruments and the run of the online course. The following section presents details about the pilot study.

#### *4.2 Pilot study*

A pilot study was conducted in November 2015 to test the research instruments: a) pilot the questionnaire; b) trial the pre-course interview questions; c) determine whether the online materials were appropriate for students at grade 10; d) pilot the run of the online course via

Skype and Facebook; e) try out the post-course interview; and f) pilot the data analysis approaches.

The participants of the pilot study were a group of *Grade 11* and *Grade 12* students who were similar to the prospective participants for the main study. These students attended the same high schools as those in the main study. These students started their Year 11, which was quite similar to the potential students in the main study. Only two Grade 12 students were at a somewhat higher level than the students in the main study.

#### *4.2.1 Piloting the questionnaire for students*

In order to pilot the instruments, a group of 10 *Grade 11* and *12* students who previously studied under the researcher were asked to voluntarily trial the questionnaire and the pre-course interview. They committed to join an online course for four hours every week for six weeks to learn English online. Before the course started, a modified version of the SEET questionnaire (Gosper, McKenzie, Pizzica, Malfroy, & Ashford-Rowe, 2013) (see the detailed description in Section 4.6.1) was uploaded to the online students' closed Facebook group, and these students were asked to complete the questionnaire and send it back to the researcher via email. Seven students finished the questionnaire and emailed it to the researcher. After the answers were received, the students were asked via an online Skype debriefing about how they perceived the questionnaire. Similarly, a set of written interview questions were uploaded on a closed Facebook group, '*English 2015*', and students were asked to answer the questions in writing in Vietnamese and send back to me through email. Six students finished the interview questions and replied to me.

#### *4.2.2 Piloting the online course*

Online course materials were created, based on the content of the nationwide mandated textbook by the Ministry of Education and Training (see more detailed description in Section 3.5). The textbook for each grade has 16 units corresponding to 16 topics, which students study in one academic year. The online course covered the first two topics (the generation gap and relationships) in the Grade 11 mandated text book (Hoang et al., 2014). The purpose of the pilot class was as follows:

- to try out the suitability of the materials in stimulating students' interest, developing language skills, communication skills and cultural awareness by studying via social media;
- to test the feasibility of using online communication via Facebook and Skype in teaching English to high school students in Vietnam;

- to enable evaluation of the teaching materials before conducting the main study;
- to give me an insight about teaching online and effective delivery of the lessons to assist students to learn.

Each online course unit had 16 activities, which aimed to enhance language skills, communication and culture for students. The course was designed with four asynchronous activities and two synchronous speaking activities. The asynchronous activities were carried out in a closed Facebook group, and included writing a paragraph about a given situation, listening to a podcast or watching a short video (often selected from YouTube) and answering a question about it, speaking about the topic by making a recording and uploading it to the closed Facebook group. Synchronous discussions were conducted using Skype, to review and explain the asynchronous activities and to let students discuss the topic in depth. Each week the activities were posted on the closed Facebook group and a deadline was set for students to finish tasks before the online Skype discussion. The students completed their work and posted it on the Facebook group.

Ten students from three different schools volunteered to participate in the online course. They were keen to study English online free of charge for six weeks. A closed Facebook group named “English 2015” was created. Five students (three in Grade 11 and two in Grade 12) were from School A, three students from School B were in Grade 12 and two students from School C were in Grade 11. They all were quite similar to the potential main study participants who were at a nearby high school.

### **Teaching procedures**

Initially, activities were added on the closed Facebook group and students were asked to complete them within an assigned time. After that, feedback was posted on the Facebook group. The course continued with the activities being posted and students finishing them. Students joined online discussions with me and with other participants synchronously through Skype. In the discussion, students could freely choose between text-chat or voice-chat. The first three activities were as follows:

**Activity 1:** Students were asked to use their own device to make an audio clip in their own time to introduce themselves and upload it to the Facebook group.

**Activity 2:** This was also an asynchronous task in which students were asked to write a one-paragraph post in the closed Facebook group, expressing their preference for living in a nuclear family or an extended family.

**Activity 3:** Students were asked to watch a video clip before having synchronous discussions via Skype. The video clip was about a girl falling in love with a boy and getting pregnant. They got married and had their baby. However, life after marriage was not happy and they separated. The ending of the video was that the girl thought of her happy time with the boy. Students' opinions were elicited supposing that they were the girl, the girl's parents, and the boy.

### **Researcher's journal for the online course**

After each day of the online course, I made notes about what problems students encountered so that I could make some modifications to the course materials for the main study. Some important issues were recorded during the course. For the first activity, two students were unable to upload the files and asked for assistance. Another problem was that in activity 3, students preferred to use text chat, as they did not feel confident in their ability to take part in spontaneous oral discussions. They were still rather passive and needed more support. After the first three activities, I had a debriefing with students. After three weeks, only 8 participants were actively doing their homework and participating in the online discussions until Week 5.

Another important observation was that when students were asked to listen to a link from the website, <http://learningenglish.voanews.com/>, some students were unable to follow the link on the closed Facebook group to access the website, because this website was blocked in Vietnam due to censorship. In order for students to access the files, the audio files on this website were downloaded and uploaded on Soundcloud ( [before they were shared on the Facebook group for students to access.](https://soundcloud.com/stream<sup>1</sup>)

At the end of Week 5, I had an informal debriefing with the participants. The debriefing was carried out in Vietnamese by voice-chat via Skype. The debriefing enabled me to know more about the students' opinions on the online course materials as well as their difficulties in learning online.

#### *4.2.3 Insights from the pilot study*

Feedback from the students showed that the school supplied an internet connection but did not have computers for students; therefore, students only accessed the internet by using their personal mobile phones or computers. The only location for students to access the internet was the computer lab, so students could not use computers at school every day. However, students used technologies at home for their self-study. The feedback also indicated that the

---

<sup>1</sup> SoundCloud is a free online voice recording application.

questionnaire, which was originally designed for Australian university students, needed to be adapted for high school students in Vietnam. For example, questions relating to the access of the computers at the library were removed. Although the school had a website, it did not have a learning system management online; therefore, questions relating to that were also taken out. Besides, after piloting the questionnaire, some digital tools that were not used by Vietnamese students such as Scoopit and LinkedIn were deleted from the questionnaire and some websites or digital tools that were common in Vietnam such as Viber, Facetime, Zalo, or the local social networking site Zingme.vn and the online library violet.vn were added to the questionnaire. Moreover, students did not understand some specific terms in the questionnaire clearly and these were simplified. Furthermore, the questionnaire in the pilot study did not explore the students' beliefs about technology. Therefore, in the main study, the pre-course questionnaire was modified with the following amendments. First, some digital tools which were not used by Vietnamese students were taken out, but some digital tools which were popular in Vietnam were added into the questionnaire. Second, to make sure that students fully understood the questionnaire, it was translated into Vietnamese. Third, some questions relating to students' beliefs about technology were added, to explore students' opinions about using technology for their own study.

Concerning the online course, I was afraid that students would feel unconfident or would not know how to make a voice recording, so I was going to make a video to introduce myself and demonstrate how to make a recording; however, two hours after the activity was posted on Facebook, one tech - savvy student uploaded his clip on Facebook, and other students followed his example; therefore, it was unnecessary to upload the model recording. Later on, all students had made their voice recordings to introduce themselves. Nevertheless, two students had difficulties in uploading recordings to Soundcloud, a website which could be used to upload sound recordings before sharing them, and asked for help from me. In response to the students' inquiry, I asked them to try again. After one week, they were able to upload their recordings, so I asked the student who first uploaded the recording how he had been able to record his voice and upload the file to Facebook, and he replied that he searched on Google and followed the instructions. This student showed that he had the initiative to learn new technology in order to complete his assignment. However, in the main study, I still needed to make a video to demonstrate how to make an audio recording in case no students had strong learner autonomy or digital strategies. In this activity, I tried to give some comments, but it took a large amount of time and effort. Students were requested to give feedback to each other

in the second activity to help them be more critical and they could learn from their friends' mistakes. In addition, I was able to reduce my feedback time; however, they were not engaged in this activity very much. Only four students gave short comments on each other's work because they did not want to point out their friends' mistakes.

In the third activity, seven students participated in online Skype discussions. Students engaged in the discussions; however, three of them used only text chat and four of them used voice chat. They reported that were afraid of voice chat. Besides, they said that they needed more time to find new vocabulary or information to answer my questions. It showed that some students were afraid of voice chat although they were my old students and we knew each other for a long time.

### **Changes in the technology training**

In the pilot course, one technology-savvy student did the tasks first, and other students imitated him, thus learning how to upload the files. However, in the main study, there might not be any technology-savvy students, and no one would lead the way for other students to follow. Besides, language learners would need to be well-prepared in a CALL environment to use the application effectively (Hubbard, 2004); therefore, another important point is that in the main study students should be trained at the beginning of the course in how to record sound files and upload them. The target of the training would be to equip students with technology skills to participate in the online course actively without spending too much time or effort on dealing with technical problems. It would also be helpful for students to be trained at the beginning of the course to ensure that they could effectively use the technologies required in the main study. Before the course started in the main study, participants would also need to be trained in how to upload their files to the websites, <https://soundcloud.com/stream>, <http://bubbly.net/><sup>2</sup>, <https://www.youtube.com/><sup>3</sup> or <https://www.movenote.com/>.<sup>4</sup>

### **Changes in the course design**

Informal discussions with students showed that the pilot course had some weaknesses and needed to be changed in order to make it more suitable for students. Feedback from students showed that they wanted more listening practice, so the following changes were made. First, more listening activities were added into the course materials to enable students to

---

<sup>2</sup> Bubbly is a free online voice recording application.

<sup>3</sup> YouTube is a free online video recording application.

<sup>4</sup> MoveNote is also a free online video recording application.

practise more. Second, two popular websites, BBC Learning English Podcasts (<http://www.bbc.co.uk/learningenglish>) and the British Council website for learning English (<http://learnenglish.britishcouncil.org/en/elementary-podcasts>) were introduced for student self-study. Students were shown how to use these two websites to optimize their learning.

### **Changes to the research design.**

After the pilot course, students perceived an improvement in their listening, speaking and writing. However, it was not clear whether they really improved their speaking, listening and writing after the online course; therefore, in the main study, pre-course and post-course tests in listening, speaking and writing were conducted. The third research question, which is about the effects of the online course, was refined to reflect this.

### *4.3 Method*

This study involved both quantitative and qualitative approaches because it would give a better comprehension of the complicated issue (Creswell, 2014; Dörnyei, 2007). In particular, the quantitative and qualitative approach enabled the scope of the study to become wider and deeper. In this study, the quantitative data was collected first. After that, the qualitative data was gathered to explore and explain the quantitative data with more details and examples in order to understand the situation better. Examples of the quantitative aspects of this research were the questionnaire investigating the digital tools that students used, and their beliefs about technology, while the qualitative interviews illustrated how they used these digital tools for their study. For the second and third research questions, the effects of the online course were assessed with quantitative data such as pre-course tests in listening, speaking, writing being collected first. After that, when the online course was completed, post-course tests in speaking, listening, speaking were conducted and students' experiences and the learning process on the online course were gathered through the post-course interview. These data were intended to complement each other and depict the effects of the online course on students' language proficiency (as measured by the tests), as well as their learning process.

The data collection process for the main study had many steps and ran from mid-April to late July 2016. First, a meeting with the principal of the school was arranged to ask for his informed consent for the study. After signing the consent form, the principal introduced me to a teacher who could introduce me to a suitable classroom. In the classroom, students were informed about the purpose, the procedure of collecting data and the time frame for the study. I explained in detail and answered any questions relating to the research. Then I also clarified



about time commitment for the research. After that, all the potential participants were given the information sheets and the consent form and asked to submit the consent form if they were interested in the study. All the information sheets and consent forms followed the requirements from the University of Canterbury Educational Research Human Ethics Committee (see more detail in Section 4.7) and they were translated into Vietnamese so that students could fully understand before they decided to participate in the study. Students were also made aware that they could withdraw at any time without any penalty or effect on their scores at the school.

After receiving the consent forms, the questionnaire was handed out for students to complete. Students who volunteered to participate in the question were given 2 pens, worth VND 4,500 = NZD 0.30. Those students who voluntarily participated in the online summer course were asked to do the pre-course tests in writing, listening, and speaking, and have the pre-course interview and do the technology training. Before the pre-course interview started, students were told that they could answer anything they liked and that they need not feel afraid to share their opinion. The participants were told that if they completed the course and data collection, they would be eligible for a lucky draw with the prize of VND 1,000,000 = NZD 70 at the end of the course.

During the initial training section, students were requested to create an account in Skype and accept the researcher as their Facebook friend. Then they were added into the closed Facebook group created for the course. The first assignment, asking students to make a recording to talk about their friendships, was posted on the closed Facebook group. The students participated in the online course with four asynchronous activities and two synchronous meetings each week. The meetings were to encourage more discussion about the suggested topics as well as to give students some feedback about their online submissions. Each synchronous meeting lasted about one hour. During the course, students did a total of 24 asynchronous tasks which covered listening, speaking and writing, and they took part in 12 synchronous meetings. After the online course was completed, students were asked to do post-course tests in listening and writing. A detailed description of an asynchronous and synchronous meeting is provided in Section 4.5.1

After the course, students were scheduled for interviews via either Skype or face-to-face. In the end, seventeen students did the post-course tests and scheduled post-course interviews. The interviews were recorded and transcribed for further analysis.

**Table 4. 2 Data collection procedure**

Week	Process	Participants
1	Participant recruitment for students	204 students
2	Questionnaire for students	204 students
3	Pre-course interview for students	18 students
4	Technology training	18 students
5	Pre-course tests	17 students
6	The run of the online course	18 students
.....	The run of the online course (cont..)	.....
12	Post-course tests in speaking	16 students
	Post-course tests in writing and listening	17 students
	Post-course interview	17 students

#### 4.4 Research context

The study was carried out at three different schools in a province in central Vietnam. Each school had about 2000 high school students in Grades 10, 11, and 12 (aged 16, 17 and 18 years old). All these schools had internet access all over the school. Each school had laboratories where students could use earphones for listening and projectors for PowerPoint lessons. Students in these schools were placed in three different groups of classes, according to their enhanced subject.

**School A** was located in the centre of the provincial capital and students in this school were supposed to be more able than those at the other two schools because, in order to study in this school, they had to pass an entrance exam. This school was labelled a national standard high school and it had more advanced technology in the classroom than other schools. Each classroom had a TV screen which could be used as a projector and be connected to the internet. Teachers were able to use these screens anytime they needed. Two classes in this school were selected by the Ministry of Education and Training (MOET) to trial the new mandated textbook being launched by MOET.

**School B** was a district school, located in a rural area; however, the students from this school also had to pass an entrance exam. Students in this school were studying with the old

textbook but they were going to be using the new textbook in the following year. The school had two labs where students could have listening practice.

**School C** was also a district school where students had less advantages in terms of facilities. They only had one lab, where students and teachers could access a projector and stereo system. They also had free internet access. One issue was that students in this school had tutorial classes during the summer break, so while they were interested in the course, they could not follow it because the online interaction was in their study time.

In addition to the schools above, four of my former students volunteered to participate in the online course. They were also from the same province. One of them was from school A and the other three were from a gifted school that was not associated with the other schools. This gifted school was for the students with best results in the subject they selected when they took the entrance exam.

### **Participants**

The participants in this study were 204 Grade 10 high school students in the same province in Vietnam, 54 males and 150 females. They had just completed Grade 10, and they were on average 16 years old. Students in the study were mainly from the above three schools: 60 from School A, 100 from School B, and 41 from school C. The three other students were from a gifted school, as described above.

There were three reasons why Grade 10 students were selected. Firstly, they were not under pressure for the national exam, which is relatively competitive in Vietnam. Grade 12 students in Vietnam normally have to revise for the national exam to get high scores, so they can enter a high-quality university; otherwise, they fail or cannot get admission to the university. Secondly, these students were to begin studying with the new mandated textbook from the Ministry of Education and Training. Thirdly, Grade 10 students have spent nearly 8 years at school learning English; however, their English proficiency is not very good. They have difficulties in speaking, listening and free writing because of an insufficient linguistic environment (H. T. Le, 2013; V. L. Nguyen, 2011a). Finally, Project 2020 in Vietnam requires high school teachers to learn technology and help students to use technology to improve their English skills. However, there is not much empirical data on the issues that this brings with it.

Twenty-eight students joined the online course at the beginning, but only eighteen of them followed the course until the end. Three of these were the students from the school for gifted students; one of them was from school A; the rest of the students were from school B,

while students from school C had a summer course at the school, and so they did not have enough time to join the online course at the beginning. Seven students from school A left the online class after one week without giving any reasons. The students who participated in the entire online course were divided into three groups: *Group 1*, *Group 2*, *Group 3* during the online course. Detailed descriptions of the eighteen students are given here:

**Group 1** consisted of eight students from three different schools with six boys and two girls. Three of them (two boys and one girl) were from the high school for gifted students (Students A, B, and E); however, their enhanced subjects were mathematics and biology, not English; therefore, they had the same number of English periods in the week as normal students. One of them was from the enhanced English literature class from a normal school and her writing skills were a little better, but her oral English skills were much the same as other students. Seven of these eight students had studied together previously, and they knew each other before joining the online course. However, two students in this group did not join the course until the end, so only six completed the English course. A detailed description of these six students is below.

Student A was from the school for gifted students; however, English was not his enhanced subject at school. He was good at technology, but he did not have a microphone during the online meetings; therefore, when joining the online course, he only listened and typed his contributions. For making videos or audio recordings, he utilized his mobile phone and then uploaded on the closed Facebook group. He employed technology to seek out information for his study. In particular, he tried to record his regular school classes and replayed them when going to bed, to learn them by heart. His English was average for the group. He scored 9/25 correct answers in the listening test. His speech for the pre-course speaking test was rather short with 69 words while his pre-course writing was 177 words long. As he reported in the pre-course interview, he was afraid to speak in front of the class because he felt that other people would look at him.

Student B was also from a gifted high school, but his enhanced subject was mathematics, so English was not his priority. Concerning his technology skills, as he described, he used a lot of technology for study and non-educational purposes. He knew how to make a video clip using Proshow producer software. He often used Facebook to store information in order to access it later but did not want to contact the teacher on social media. During the online discussion via Skype, he only typed which he claimed was because he did not have a microphone. He reported feeling nervous about speaking English in class and did not use

English outside the classroom. He said that he felt that his English was not good, and that he sometimes did not understand the lesson very well in his regular class, and that he often fell asleep. He described the classroom teacher as giving knowledge without interaction with the students. Although he was aware that English was important, he said that he could not concentrate in the English class. His pre-course listening test score was 10/25. He spoke 88 words in the pre-course speaking test and his pre-course writing in 30 minutes was 99 words.

Student C was from school B, so he did not have a specific enhanced subject. He did not use much technology. He did not have a Skype account. He reported that he used YouTube to watch lessons and Facebook mainly to chat with his friends. He sometimes joined group discussions on Facebook. He described himself as being rather shy, so he found it a bit hard to speak in front of the class. He scored 6/25 in the listening test. He spoke 84 words in the pre-course speaking test and wrote 103 words in the pre-course writing test.

Student D was from school B, but she was from an English and literature-enhanced class where she had four English periods, one English period more than the normal students from other classes. She was really interested in speaking, but she had problems with her speaking because she felt unconfident in raising her ideas in front of the class due to being afraid of making mistakes. She used a lot of technology for language learning. She was a member of the Duolingo, a website for learning English online. She practised English on YouTube by listening to some videos. She also used online lessons on YouTube as a reference to help understand the lesson in the class better. Her English was rather good compared to other students in the same group. She had 13/25 correct answers for pre-course listening, 127 words in her pre-course speaking, and 92 words for pre-course writing.

Student E was a student from the gifted school; nevertheless, her enhanced subject was biology. Like students from normal classes, she just had three English periods per week. She tried to practise listening skills online and she watched videos with subtitles. She did not have group discussions online but watched a lot of videos online for her study. However, she was not very confident in speaking English in front of the class because she was afraid of making mistakes. Her English proficiency was average, with 8/25 correct answers for pre-course listening test, 56 words for pre-course speaking and 103 words for pre-course writing.

Student F was a student from School A. He did not have a particular focus on any one subject because he was from a normal class. He used YouTube videos extensively as a reference for the lessons that he did not understand at school. He joined closed Facebook groups

to discuss other subjects such as mathematics, physics or chemistry with other people. He was not confident in speaking in front of the class because he supposed that his English was not good, and he was afraid of making mistakes. He did not know how to use Skype. His English was average compared to other students in the group. His pre-course listening was average with 7/25 accurate answers. His speaking and writing in the pre-course tests were each 97 words long.

**Group 2** had 7 students from School B; however, they were all from different classes. One student was from a normal class while the other students were from mathematics-physics-chemistry-enhanced classes. However, they all had the same number of English periods with three English classes per week. All the students in this group were girls. These students knew each other reasonably well. Compared to Groups 1, and 3, their English level was a little lower in terms of pre-course listening. Most of the students had fewer than 8 correct answers out of 25 questions. However, their pre-course writing and speaking samples were as long as those of the students from the other groups. All students' information in this group was summarized in Table 4.3.

Student G made use of Facebook and YouTube for study. When she did not understand the lesson in the class, she used YouTube videos in chemistry, mathematics or English as a reference lesson to understand fully what the teacher had said in the class; however, all these videos were explained in Vietnamese. She did not join the Facebook group for discussions. She was not confident in her listening skills because she supposed that her vocabulary was not large enough to understand the lesson in the class. She said that she was very shy about speaking in front of the class. She never put up her hand in her regular English class. Her pre-course tests showed that she was not very good at English. She had 6/25 correct answers in pre-course listening test, 82 words in her pre-course speaking, and 65 words in her pre-course writing.

Student H watched lessons on YouTube and used Facebook to communicate with her friends. As she described herself, she was nervous when she had to present something in front of the class. Her English was rather good in the pre-course tests with 8/25 for listening, 38 words for speaking and 114 words for writing. During the online course, she reported having difficulties in making recordings although the researcher had instructed her how to do it. She always sent voice messages through Facebook for the first few weeks. After Week 3, she knew how to use SoundCloud and used it quite competently. She was very confident in the synchronous Skype meeting although she mispronounced some words.

Student I did not watch video lessons on YouTube. She tried to find learning resources through the website violet.vn, where teachers in Vietnam often shared their lesson plans, exercises, quizzes and PowerPoint presentations. She had previously participated in a commercial online course. She felt unconfident in speaking English in front of the class because she was afraid of making mistakes. She made friends with English-speaking foreigners and she used to exchange text messages with foreigners through Facebook. She had 5 correct answers out of twenty-five for pre-course listening, 62 words for pre-course speaking, and 67 words for pre-course writing.

Student J did not use Facebook much because she had just set up an account on Facebook. However, she accessed YouTube to view the lessons on physics and biology. She did not practise English on YouTube. In the class, she felt nervous and did not raise her hand during the class because she was not confident about her English. She was not confident in digital technology. After she joined the class, she registered for Facebook and Skype accounts. Her English was not very good. She only scored 5/25 for pre-course listening and her pre-course speaking was 80 words and pre-course writing was 38 words long.

Student K also utilised a lot of technology for her studies, especially YouTube. She viewed lessons on YouTube for the subjects that she found difficult at school. In addition, she did exercises online to review her regular lessons and prepared for the exam. She wished teachers could have online video lessons so that she could watch teachers' videos. She claimed to be a bit shy in class because she did not practise much English. Her pre-course listening was 3/25. Her pre-course speaking was 123 words long and her pre-course writing was just 61 words.

Student L did not use technology much in her study. She employed Facebook to communicate with her friends and often found information online for her study. She was afraid of making mistakes and she did not use English to practise outside the classroom. Her English was not very good. She got three correct answers out of twenty-five questions for her pre-course listening test. Her pre-course speaking was 99 words long and her pre-course writing was 29 words.

Student M utilized Facebook for communicating with friends but avoided making friends with her teachers. She did not use Facebook for her study, but she watched the lesson on YouTube. In class, she was afraid of making mistakes, so she did not speak English in the

classroom. Her English was not very good. She only scored 2 correct answers in her pre-course listening, and had 78 words in both her pre-course speaking and pre-course writing.

**Group 3** had 8 students from two schools: School A and School B. They were all students from English and literature-enhanced classes, and had 4 English periods per week, one period more than students in the normal class. Seven students were female and were from the same school, and there was a male who was from a different school. Their English listening and speaking skills were different from each other. Two students were very good at English and they could score about 10 correct answers out of 25 questions in listening while the three other students had under 5 correct answers. However, the male student did not submit his assignments or attend the online meeting after the first week. After three weeks, only five students in Group C continued to submit their assignments to the end; therefore, all the data relating to the other students was removed from the analysis process. Details of these five students from N to R are summarized in Table 4.3. The following is the description of the students who participated in the course until the end.

Student N utilized Facebook for various purposes. She often sent messages to her friends via Facebook; however, she avoided teachers on Facebook. She participated in closed Facebook groups to ask questions when she needed more information about a specific subject. She did not use YouTube much, but she tried to find out more English grammar exercises online to do. She was the daughter of an English teacher and her mother helped her with English grammar. In terms of her willingness to communicate in class, she was quite shy in the classroom because she was afraid of making mistakes. Her listening skills were not very good with only two correct answers out of 25 questions. Her pre-course writing was 83 words and 84 words for her pre-course speaking.

Student O employed a lot of technology for her study. She subscribed and watched YouTube for reference lessons. She joined online courses, such as English 123 (<https://www.tienganh123.com/>) to improve her English. She used to have video calls to chat with her friends and brother in Vietnamese. She was rather confident in class, so if she had something to say, she would raise her hand to speak. Her English was quite good compared with other students in the same group, with 11 correct answers for pre-course listening, 166 words for pre-course speaking and 144 words for pre-course writing.

Student P applied a lot of technology in her study. She watched the lessons on YouTube. She also participated in the Facebook discussion group to talk about the problems she had in



her study. She looked for information online to supplement her studies. However, she was a bit shy about speaking in front of the class. Her English was rather good compared to other members in the group. She had 9/25 correct answers for the pre-course listening test, 181 words for her pre-course speaking and 114 for her pre-course writing test.

Student Q took advantage of technology for her study. She found information on social media very useful and read news shared on Facebook. She was confident about her speaking. She could express her ideas in front of the class without being nervous; however, she was not confident about her listening skills. Her English skills were not very good compared to those of other students in this group. She had two correct answers in the pre-course listening test, 84 words for her pre-course speaking and only 52 words for her pre-course writing.

Student R made use of social media as a channel to find educational resources. She subscribed to some channels on YouTube so that she could be informed when new videos came out. She had good pronunciation because she deliberately practised her pronunciation, following an online teacher. She reported that she was afraid of asking questions in face-to-face meetings. She preferred to ask questions online because she was not confident in front of the class. Her English was rather good. She participated in the online course and completed her assignments, but she did not take the post-course tests because she was absent on that day. She only had the pre-course interview and post-course interview.

**Table 4. 3 Summary of participants' information**

Student	Group	Pre-course test scores	listening	Number of words in pre-course speaking	Number of words in pre-course writing
Student A	1	9		69	177
Student B	1	10		88	99
Student C	1	6		84	103
Student D	1	13		127	92
Student E	1	8		56	103
Student F	1	7		97	97
Student G	2	6		82	65
Student H	2	8		38	114
Student I	2	5		62	67
Student J	2	7		80	38
Student K	2	3		123	61
Student L	2	3		99	29
Student M	2	2		78	78
Student N	3	2		84	83
Student O	3	11		166	144
Student P	3	9		181	114
Student Q	3	2		84	52
Student R	3	Missing data		Missing data	Missing data

#### 4.5 The online summer course

The online course lasted six weeks with two synchronous meetings on Skype and four asynchronous assignments each week on a closed Facebook group for each group.

##### 4.5.1 Description of the summer course

The online materials focused on speaking, listening, and writing. Because high school teachers in Vietnam spend a large amount of time on vocabulary, grammar and reading, these points were not explicitly taught in the online course. The activities in the online materials were less controlled than those in the mandated textbook and required more free language production, and in the online course students were able to use their own language to speak and write. Besides, the activities were authentic situations with the hope that students might find it easier to talk about their real experiences and thoughts. For example, the activities were about

students' opinion about friendship, the generation gap, or family matters. The activities were stimuli for students to express their ideas independently in free language production.

Topics for the online course were similar to those in the mandated textbook; however, online material from YouTube and podcasts from British Council were employed. The listening materials were classified for elementary level students by British Council because these recordings were written using a limited number of words; therefore, these materials could be expected to be appropriate for high school students in Vietnam as described in section 3.3 by Le (2013). With the purpose of enhancing speaking, listening and free writing skills, activities focusing on grammar, vocabulary and reading were not included in the course. The online course consisted of meaning-focused speaking, listening and writing activities in which students could express their ideas freely within the given topics.

**Speaking:** Students were asked to make recordings with the given topics and upload their recordings online. Besides, during the online discussion twice a week, open questions about the suggested topics were given as stimuli for students to have more debate with other students in the same group.

**Listening:** Links from British Council elementary podcasts or YouTube were posted on the closed Facebook group for each group and students were required to view and summarize the content or do other tasks relating to the content of the recordings.

**Free writing:** Students were asked to write a paragraph about the suggested topic, relating to the main theme, and post on the closed Facebook group.

The online course was designed with asynchronous activities, including writing a paragraph, listening to a podcast from British Council Broadcast or watching a video on Youtube.com, making a recording on a suggested topic relating to family and friendship (the themes involved). The synchronous discussions with students via Skype aimed to give students some feedback as well as practise speaking. Each week the activities were posted on the closed Facebook group and a deadline was set for students to finish before the online discussion via Skype happened. Table 4.4 below shows an example of the activities designed for the online course for Unit 1 which lasted for three weeks.

**Table 4. 4 Activities for Unit 1 for the online summer course**

No.	Activity	Description	Purposes
1	Pre-course speaking test	Students make a recording to answer the following question: <i>Is friendship important to you? Why?</i>	Speaking
2	Introduction	Students make a video to introduce themselves and upload to their closed Facebook group.	Speaking
3	Discussion about the video via Skype	Students watch a video clip about a high school girl falling in love with a boy, getting married, and having a baby. The story ends with a separation between the boy and the girl.	Live interaction
4	Learn the alphabet by heart	Students listen to ABC songs and review the alphabet.	Listening
5	Expressing opinions	Students write a paragraph to express their preference for nuclear family or extended family.	Writing
6	Retelling teenagers' problems via Skype	A video clip about teenagers' problems was uploaded. Students watched and told similar stories that they knew.	Live interaction
7	Writing rules for teenagers if they were parents	Students are asked to suppose that they were parents wanting to prevent their children from bad behaviour, and to write seven rules to help teenagers improve.	Writing
8	Giving advices	Students watch a video clip about a boy becoming addicted to games and make a recording to give him some advice.	Speaking
9	Discussion about rules via Skype	Students review seven rules about the things teenagers should and should not do. Skype discussion about the rules.	Live interaction
10	List ten things parents should know about teenagers	Students listen to the video and write down comments about ten things that parents should know about teenagers.	Listening
11	Persuading parents	Students make a recording about how they will persuade their parents when they have different opinions about their clothes, future career or hairstyle.	Speaking
12	Online discussion about the story	Students are asked to take on different roles of the characters in the story and tell about what they think.	Live interaction

13	Story creation	Students write a full story using a topic sentence.	Writing
14	Summarizing a story	Students listen to a YouTube video about a boy being addicted to computer games and retell the story.	Listening
15	Online discussion via Skype	Students choose one of the following topics to compare the difference between teenagers and their parents: Clothes, hairstyle, career trend, food, music, books, lifestyle, etc.	Live interaction
16	Homesickness if living far from family	Students listen to a podcast about how to cope with homesickness when living far from family	Listening
17	Expressing opinion	Students write a paragraph in answer to the question, <i>What do you wish your parents understood about you?</i>	Writing
18	Discussing family issues via Skype	Online discussions: Family situations <i>1. Are you pressured by your family to act in a certain way?</i> <i>2. Are your parents strict?</i> <i>3. Whom do you look like?</i>	Live interaction

#### 4.5.2 Learning platform

The learning platform employed to deliver the online course was Facebook. All the tasks were uploaded on the Facebook platform and students submitted their assignments or commented on the Facebook closed group. In addition, Skype was also used for synchronous communication with students during the online interaction.

Facebook can be a learning platform because videos, music, and photos can be shared on social media. Visual and auditory stimuli from multimedia files attract student's attention and contribute to language learning. Images can reinforce the language and provide immediate meaning instead of allowing students to translate into their first language (Canning-Wilson, 2000). Besides, videos enable students to understand the language better by viewing non-verbal language such as facial expressions and body language (Burt, 1999). Leier (2016) reported the success of using Facebook to engage university students in New Zealand in learning German. According to Alexa (2016), in 2016 Facebook was the most popular social media and the third most popular website worldwide. Furthermore, the Facebook interface is easy to use to establish networking with other students and students have been shown to be satisfied with Facebook as a learning platform because they can have two-way communications with the instructor (Chou & Pi, 2015).

Facebook was employed in this study as a learning platform for the following reasons. First, it seemed that most students in Vietnam had Facebook accounts, so they were quite familiar with the interface and knew how to use it very well. Second, a closed Facebook group could be created so that confidentiality in the student group could be guaranteed and outsiders could not observe the interactions of the students during the online course. Third, all kinds of materials, such as videos, audio files, pictures, and text could be uploaded on Facebook easily. Fourth, every time students uploaded something on Facebook, a notification would be sent to the members of the group and they could follow the information easily.

Skype also has many functions for exchanging information both synchronously and asynchronously. It allows its users to make free video or voice calls, both individually and in groups; therefore, students who are unable to come to school can have lessons through Skype (Michels & Chang, 2011). Thanks to the voice calls on Skype, speaking practice can be carried out easily on it (Yen et al., 2015). Besides, Skype can help to eliminate the difficulties of expense and time in commuting to schools. In addition, it has two useful functions: instant messaging and file sending. This can help students to write comments, share documents and interact with other users (Michels & Chang, 2011). Moreover, users of Skype can share their screens while presenting something that can extend their presentation skills. In addition, Skype has software to video or audio record calls. In this online course, Skype could be used as a means for synchronous discussions resulting in live interaction because Skype allows free group calling.

#### *4.6 Data collection tools*

This section presents the research tools, namely the pre-course questionnaire, pre-course interview for students, pre- and post-course tests in speaking, listening and writing, post-course interview for students and researcher journal.

##### *4.6.1 Questionnaire for students*

A modified version of the SEET survey which was created by Gosper et al. (2013) to collect information about the technology practices of tertiary students in Australia, was employed to find out what kinds of technologies students at high schools in Vietnam used and how often they used these technologies as well as their beliefs about technology. This questionnaire was adapted to collect information about high school students' use of technology in Vietnam. To accommodate differences in the teaching contexts between high school in

Vietnam and university in Australia, a sub-section about students' beliefs and perceptions about technology was added to the questionnaire.

The original SEET questionnaire had five parts. Part 1 investigated students' use of technology in general. Part 2 had four sub-sections which aimed to investigate the use of technologies for learning, to communicate with the teaching staff, to communicate with other students and to manage the learning process. Part 3 was about services and learning support. Part 4 was about students' use of technologies for administrative purposes and finally demographic and general information questions were in Part 5. In this study, after the questionnaire was piloted, a modified version of the questionnaire was created with three parts (Appendix 2). Part 1 dealt with demographic information related to gender and school. The second part explored students' use of technology for social, communicative or educational purposes. The last section examined students' beliefs about technology. The questionnaire was delivered on paper to students in their class directly after the recruitment process.

#### *4.6.2 Pre-course interview for students*

The pre-course interview questions explored how students employed technology for their study as well as their social life. The semi-structured interview for students consisted of 12 questions. The first two questions investigated students' use of social media such as Skype, Instagram, YouTube, Zingme and Facebook. Questions 3 - 4 tried to find out about students' views of the advantages and disadvantages of the sites as well as their impact on students' personal life. Questions 5 - 7 examined students' beliefs about technology especially social media for their study. Questions 8 - 10 investigated their perceptions of their usual teachers' use of technology as well as their wishes for teachers to employ technology in their teaching. Questions 11 - 14 aimed to find out more about their willingness to communicate in the class and their use of English outside the classroom. After the pre-course interview, students had to do pre-course tests before joining the online summer course.

#### *4.6.3 Pre- and post-course tests*

##### *4.6.3.1 Listening tests*

The pre-course listening test and the post-course listening test were at the same level so that the test scores could be compared. Two Cambridge Preliminary listening tests from the testing booklet Key English Test 4 (University of Cambridge, 2006) were used. Both the pre- and post-course listening tests had five parts. Each test consisted of twenty-five questions which were divided into five different parts. Part 1 had five short conversations in which

students should choose the correct pictures in the conversation they listened to. Part 2 was a long conversation between two people, and students were asked to match information. Part 3 was a short speech with multiple choice questions. Part 4 was a short conversation and students had to pay attention to detailed information to fill in the blanks. Part 5 was a short talk which tested students' comprehension of detailed information. Similar to Part 4, students had to understand the talk and complete the blanks. It was suggested in the test that the time allocation for the test was 30 minutes, which includes 8 minutes for transferring answers to the answer sheet; however, when completing the test, students wrote their answers directly on the test paper; therefore, when the recording stopped, the test papers were collected. During the six-week online course, students were asked to listen to recordings uploaded to the closed Facebook group. After the course, students took another listening test from Cambridge Preliminary Test under the same testing conditions as the pre-course listening test. Students' pre- and post-course test scores were compared to see any progress in students' listening skills after the course.

#### 4.6.3.2 Pre- and post-course writing tests

Before the online summer course, students were asked to take a pre-course writing test. Students were required to write a paragraph in 30 minutes about how they worked to improve their English. After the course, the students were also invited to do a post-course writing test which was similar to the pre-course writing test. Students wrote a paragraph in half an hour about how they used social media in their daily activities. The pre-and post-course writing tests were carried out under the same testing conditions. Students were not allowed to use any digital devices such as mobile phone or e-dictionary. Students were informed that these tests were for research purposes, so they should be honest in writing independently without looking at their friends' work or copying from online.

#### 4.6.3.3 Pre- and post-course speaking tests

After finishing the writing tests, students were reminded to make a recording to upload on the closed Facebook group. The topic for the pre-course speaking test was the importance of friendship in their lives. Similarly, the post-course speaking test was about how they used computers in their lives. Pre-course speaking tests were compared to post-course speaking tests to see any differences in terms of students' speaking skills before and after the course.



#### *4.6.4 Post-course interview*

The post-course interview aimed to examine how students felt about the new learning environment, how they practised their language skills, and how they felt about the use of voice and video in online communication and how it developed their willingness to communicate and their technology skills. The post-course interview had 16 questions relating to students' experiences during the online course, and also explored their process of learning through social media. The post-course interview was recorded and transcribed with the help of two research assistants.

#### *4.6.5 Researcher journal*

Important factors such as student absenteeism, students' asking for permission to withdraw or other occurrences, as well as interesting interactions and developments during the course were documented in a weekly research journal. Students' interaction online, using text chat, voice chat, and video chat, asynchronously and synchronously were observed. Students' recordings and their comments on Facebook as well as their discussions on Skype were collected for further analysis.

#### *4.7 Research ethics*

This study was approved by the Educational Research Human Ethics Committee (ERHEC) of the University of Canterbury. The study strictly followed the guidelines set by ERHEC. I was conscious of the potential risks that the research could cause to students; therefore, every step was taken to reduce such risks. First, the principals of the schools where students were studying were informed about the purpose as well as the procedure of the study explicitly and clearly. When they granted permission to approach students, they were asked to sign the consent form, and they were informed that all the data relating to the study would not be shared with any third party. Similarly, all the students were given explanations about the objectives, the procedure, the activities, they were asked to participate in, and the time they needed to spend on each activity. Students were also informed that they could withdraw anytime during the data collection periods. I sought informed consent from students. During the recruitment I attempted to minimize the interruption to the students' time because they were preparing for their semester exam which was very important for them. I contacted students, asked them to consider participating and to complete the questionnaire while they were revising for the exam. The main data collection process was carried out after three weeks when students had completed their final exam. All the scores in the pre-and post-course tests were sent to students' through private messages if students inquired about their test scores. The test scores

were not disclosed to anyone else except them. In addition, some steps were taken to reduce students' risk while they were studying online. Closed Facebook groups were set up so that outsiders were not able to see students' writing, speaking or other materials. Students in the same group were reminded not to share their friends' work outside the group. During the data analysis, two research assistants were employed for transcribing. These two research assistants were asked to sign confidentiality agreements to make sure that they did not disclose the information to any third party. In presenting my data for publication, all real names were replaced by code names. The schools are referred to as schools A, B and C to keep the schools' identities confidential. To sum up, I have complied with the rules and regulations set by the University of Canterbury. In this study, every step was taken to make assure the confidentiality of the schools to reduce any influences on the learning and teaching activities at the schools, and the students' participation was completely voluntary.

#### *4.8 Data collection*

The data collection followed several steps, starting in the middle of April 2016 when I contacted the principals to ask for permission and help recruiting participants and getting the consent forms from them, and ending in late July 2016 when the last post-course interview was conducted. First, the schools were selected for convenience: they were within a 7-kilometre radius. Second, the principals of these schools granted permission for me to get the data. Third, the participants were voluntary and available. I approached four high schools: two in a rural district and two in the provincial city. I went to each school to see the principal and explain in detail about the research project. However, only three principals responded. After that, meetings were scheduled with the principals for them to sign the consent form officially and allow me to enter the classroom to see students. During the meeting, two principals allowed me to enter the classroom directly by asking one of the teachers to take me to the classroom. However, one principal was afraid that students were revising for the exam and the research might keep them from focusing on their main duty; therefore, that principal signed the consent form and asked me to return after three weeks when the exam was completed. Being aware of the coming exam, I explained the project for students, asked them to sign the consent form and complete the questionnaire if they were interested in the project. After that, I waited three weeks to contact students when they had completed their final exam. When the exam was over, I contacted the students who volunteered to participate in the online course. Three different groups were scheduled appointments. Groups A had 8 students, Group had B had 8 students, and group C 7 students and Group D 6 students. After the students had done the pre-course

tests, they were scheduled for an interview through either face-to-face meeting for Facebook video or voice calls. The students were allowed to choose a suitable time to have the pre-course interview. One week after the interview, students were asked to participate in digital training to prepare for the online course. One week after the course started, students from group D were neither active in the closed Facebook group nor responded to any message; therefore, I decided to delete all the data relating to students from this group.

### **Learner training**

According to Hubbard (2004), students should be well-prepared to work in CALL environments so that they can use CALL materials effectively. Learner training equips students with digital skills to complete tasks effectively and confidently in the online environment. The learner training in the present study was based on Hubbard's model of learner training in CALL. Hubbard (2004) suggested that learners should be trained in: technical, pedagogical, and learning strategies. Training in CALL would minimize the anxiety students had when working in the new online environment and prepare them with new digital tools that they had not known before. Pedagogical training would enable them to understand the potential of CALL in language learning and teaching. Before the training, students were told about the digital tools that would be used in the online course and that they would be trained to become familiar with the tools.

Researchers have long been aware that lack of technical support can constrain the success of CALL activities (Jones, 2001). A number of studies (Hubbard, 2004; Winke & Goertler, 2008) have pointed out the necessity of technical training for learners to work in the online environment. Following Hubbard's model, technical training in this study consisted of giving students instructions on how to register for their accounts online as well as how to install software or use it effectively. During the online course, if students had any inquiries about technical problems, they could ask at any time, and they would be given guidance on their inquiries. First, students were asked to join the closed Facebook group and make a first post in it. Second, students were trained to use Skype for communication through online synchronous discussions. Third, students were trained in how to record their voice, use their telephone or other software, and then how to upload the file using SoundCloud, Bubbly or MoveNote before sharing in the closed Facebook group. In total, four applications – Skype, SoundCloud, Bubbly and MoveNote – were introduced to students. These applications enabled students to participate in the online discussions and record their own videos to upload on Facebook. These applications were selected because students could use these applications free and these

applications allow students to record their speech and share their recording easily on Facebook closed groups. However, the two main applications they were trained to use were Skype and Soundcloud because they needed to be familiar these applications to complete the online course.

The training started when the students finished their pre-course tests. Students were introduced to these applications and were asked to practise these applications at home. After that, the 18 students were divided into three groups for training. Only two main applications, Skype and SoundCloud were introduced carefully because other applications had similar functions. The training of these two applications lasted an hour for each group. For the other applications, I made videos about how to use Movenote, and Bubbly and uploaded these to the closed Facebook group, so that students could follow the instructional videos and try to use the other applications. I employed Screencast-O-Matic (a free screen recorder application) to make three videos about how to use Skype, Bubbly, Soundcloud, and Movenote. Each video was five minutes long and was in Vietnamese so that students could understand easily.

The training section was also explained in Vietnamese so that the participants could fully understand. The training schedule was as follows:

Application	Technical training
Facebook	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Accept me as a friend in their Facebook friend list</li> <li>2. Accept the invitation to join closed Facebook group</li> <li>3. Make a trial post in the group.</li> </ol>
Skype	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Account registration</li> <li>2. Download and install the software</li> <li>3. Activate the account</li> <li>4. Open and close the application</li> <li>5. Make a trial interaction with the new application</li> </ol>
Soundcloud.com	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Account registration</li> <li>2. Download and install the software</li> </ol>

	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>3. Activate the account</li> <li>4. Open and close the application</li> <li>5. Make a trial recording with the new application</li> </ol>
Bubbly.net	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Account registration</li> <li>2. Download and install the software</li> <li>3. Activate the account</li> <li>4. Open and close the application</li> <li>5. Make a trial post with the new application</li> </ol>
Movenote.com	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Account registration</li> <li>2. Download and install the software</li> <li>3. Activate the account</li> <li>4. Open and close the application</li> <li>5. Make a trial recording with the new application</li> </ol>

---

#### 4.9 Data analysis

Various kinds of data were collected: a) students' questionnaire and the transcript of the students' pre-course interview about their beliefs and practices of technology; b) students' pre-course writing, speaking and listening tests before the online course; c) post-course interview about students' perceived improvement through the course as well as their experiences in the course especially regarding their experience of social presence and their willingness to communicate; d) students' post-course writing, speaking and listening tests; e) researcher journal. Multiple methods of analysis were used for these different kinds of data. The following section describes the analysis of each research question according to the research design.

##### 4.9.1 Research Question 1

Research question 1, '**What are students' use of and beliefs about technology especially social media in learning English?**', was addressed through a questionnaire and pre-course interview. The questionnaire was analysed quantitatively with a percentage, and frequency, relating to how many times students used their technology or the number of digital devices they had access to. For questions about students' attitudes towards technology, mean

and standard deviation were used to calculate this Likert scale data (e.g. strongly agree, agree, neutral, disagree and strongly disagree), and interpretation was utilised. The pre-course interview was transcribed into Vietnamese and coded by using the qualitative data analysis software, NVivo.

Both quantitative and qualitative analysis approaches were employed to analyse the data about students' uses of and beliefs about technology. For the qualitative data, the analysis went forwards and backwards searching, coding, and grouping the information into themes. I followed Charmaz's (2006) instructions for coding data for qualitative research starting coding with open nodes which were meaningful. Particularly, I paid attention to students' use of technology for social, educational and communicative purposes. At the beginning many codes were created and as the process continued, the themes and categories emerged, and the number of codes decreased. When the nodes had been created, the iterative process was run through the nodes to rename, organize and put into categories.

#### *4.9.2 Research Question 2*

In order to answer the second research question: '**What are students' experiences of learning English in a six-week online course via Skype and Facebook?**', the pre-course interview and post-course interview were employed to compare students' experiences before and after the online course. Only qualitative data was used to answer this research question. I also utilized Charmaz (2006) qualitative analysis approach for this research question. First, the transcripts of the pre- and post-course interviews were reviewed before they were coded. Then open coding was applied to the interview transcripts. The iterative process continued until the key themes were identified. Then the data from the pre-course interview and post-course interview was compared and contrasted to identify changes in students' experiences between the online environment and their previous experience of physical classes. In addition, the researcher journal was analysed to see how WTC evolved during the online course.

#### *4.9.3 Research Question 3*

In order to answer the Research Question 3 '**What are the effects of the six-week online course delivered via Skype and Facebook for high school students on their language proficiency?**', the pre-course tests in listening, speaking, and writing were used to compared with the respective post-course tests. Besides, students' post-interviews were analysed to see the process of learning during the online course.

**For the listening**, the pre- and post-course tests were analysed quantitatively in terms of the number of correct answers that students had in each test. Paired-sample T-tests were employed to see whether the difference between the test scores was statistically significant. The qualitative post-course interview was transcribed and coded according to themes relating to how students practised their listening skills, what they did and what difficulties they had, as well as their self-assessed improvement in the online course.

**For speaking**, language fluency and complexity were analyzed to identify any difference between the pre- and post-course tests. Skehan (1996) presented three main goals of language learning: complexity, fluency and accuracy which have been used to measure learners' language proficiency (Housen, Kuiken, & Vedder, 2012). Complexity refers to the use of more complex structures and vocabulary (Skehan & Foster, 1999). Fluency is related to processing time (Schmidt, 1992). Accuracy is defined as the ability to produce 'error-free language' (Housen et al., 2012). In this current study, language complexity and language fluency were the main focus. Regarding fluency, Housen et al. (2012) pointed out three types of fluency in oral performance: speed fluency, breakdown fluency and repair fluency. To be more exact, speech rate ("rate and density of linguistic units produced") (Housen et al., 2012, p. 5) was employed for analysis to measure student speaking fluency because Kormos and Dénes (2004) pointed out the strong correlation between speech rate and perceptions of fluency. The other two measures were not used because, while students recorded their own speech, they prepared scripts beforehand. They tried to fix all the pauses and breakdowns before posting their sound file on the Facebook closed group. Concerning language complexity, according to Housen et al. (2012), there are three different types of complexity regarding second language performance: *propositional* complexity, *discourse-interactive* complexity and *linguistic* complexity. In this current study, linguistic complexity was employed to identify any differences in students' use of language. Many measures have been used to assess language complexity such as syntactic, morphological, lexical analysis (Housen et al., 2012). The two main measures applied here were lexical measures and syntactic measures. For lexical measure, type and token ratio was employed while the length of the utterance was used for syntactic complexity.

**Mean length of utterance** in words is the total number of words divided by the number of utterances (Parker & Brorson, 2005).

**Type-token ratio** is the ratio between the number of different words and the total number of words (Johansson, 2009).

To calculate type and token ratio and mean length of utterance, student speech recordings were transcribed. Any sounds which could not be understood were not taken into consideration. After that, students' transcripts were entered into the online Compleat Lexical Tutor<sup>5</sup> vocabulary profiler, an application which returned the information about the word or phrase used by learners at different level (Cobb, 2004). Besides, the Compleat Lexical Tutor returned information about the type-token ratio of each student recording as an indication of its lexical diversity to analyse the frequency and range of the vocabulary (lexical items) used. To evaluate students' fluency, the speech rate (syllables per minute) in the recordings was calculated. A paired-samples t-test with alpha level at .05 was employed to identify differences between the type-token ratio and speech rate in the pre-and post-course speaking tests. The post-course interview provided qualitative data on how students practised their speaking skills.

The analysis of the students' writing was similar to the analysis of the recorded speech data and focused it on two different aspects of students' writing: fluency and complexity. Speed of writing was also employed to measure students' writing fluency. In this current study, both the pre- and post-tests were limited to 30 minutes; therefore, the total number of words in both pre- and post-course writing tests was counted and compared using a paired-sample t-test. The complexity of students' writing before and after the course was compared using two different measurements of language complexity: lexical complexity and syntactic complexity. The type-token ratio (the number of different words divided by the total number of words) was an indicator of lexical complexity in student writing. To calculate type-token ratio, students' hand-written tests were transcribed in Microsoft Word format. Students' writing was not corrected or changed during the typing process, not even their spelling mistakes. All students' writing was put through the Compleat Lexical Tutor vocabulary profiler to analyse students' writing. Compleat Lexical Tutor returned the information about ratio between the number of content words and the total number of words, an indicator to measure lexical density. In the Compleat Lexical Tutor, spelling mistakes were calculated as off-word lists which consisted of 'proper nouns, unusual words, specialist vocabulary, acronyms, abbreviations, and misspellings' (Cobb, 2004); therefore, these misspelled words were not taken into account for analysis. A paired-sample t-test was used to see whether there was any statistically significant difference in terms of lexical complexity between the pre- and post-course writing tests. For syntactic

---

<sup>5</sup> This is the link of the website "Compleat lexical tutor" <https://www.lextutor.ca/>



complexity, the ratio between the number of subordinate clauses and total number of clauses was employed to examine students' ability to use complex language (Housen et al., 2012).

Moreover, the pre- and post-course interview question about how students practised their writing before they uploaded it online was coded as described above for other qualitative data. In addition, students' perception of their progress in writing was coded carefully to identify any changes in their own perceptions.

#### *4.10 Students' participation in the online course*

Because the online course was optional, some students did not complete all the assignments. At the beginning, there were 29 students in the course but by the end only 18 students (shown in Table 4.5) completed the course. Data relating to students who did not complete the course was removed. Among the students who followed the course until the end and participated in both pre- and post-tests, three students (students E, F, and I) completed all the assignments and participated in all online discussions. 48% of the students completed more than 80% of the assignments and attended the online course discussions, while around thirty percent of the students completed 65% to 80 % of the online course. One student (M) attended only 58% of the online meetings via Skype and 50% of the total assignments because the internet at her house had some problems and she sent a message to me to ask for permission not to attend the online interactions but she continued to complete asynchronous assignments.

**Table 4. 5 Student participation in the online course**

No.	Student	Group	Number of online meeting attended on Skype	Percentage	Assignment completion	Percentage
1	A	A	11/12	92%	24/26	92%
2	B	A	7/12	58%	21/26	81%
3	C	A	9/12	75%	20/26	77%
4	D	A	11/12	92%	24/26	92%
5	E	A	12/12	100%	26/26	100%
6	F	A	12/12	100%	26/26	100%
7	G	B	11/12	92%	25/26	96%
8	H	B	8/12	67%	22/26	85%
9	I	B	12/12	100%	26/26	100%
10	J	B	10/12	83%	23/26	88%
11	K	B	11/12	92%	19/26	73%
12	L	B	9/12	83%	22/26	92%
13	M	B	7/12	58%	13/26	50%
14	N	C	7/12	58%	18/26	69%
15	O	C	11/12	92%	18/26	69%
16	P	C	10/12	75%	24/26	85%
17	Q	C	10/12	83%	14/26	54%
18	R	C	11/12	92%	16/26	62%

#### *4.11 Summary*

The pilot study led to some changes in the design of the main study. A range of methods was employed to collect both qualitative and quantitative data in the main study. Students'

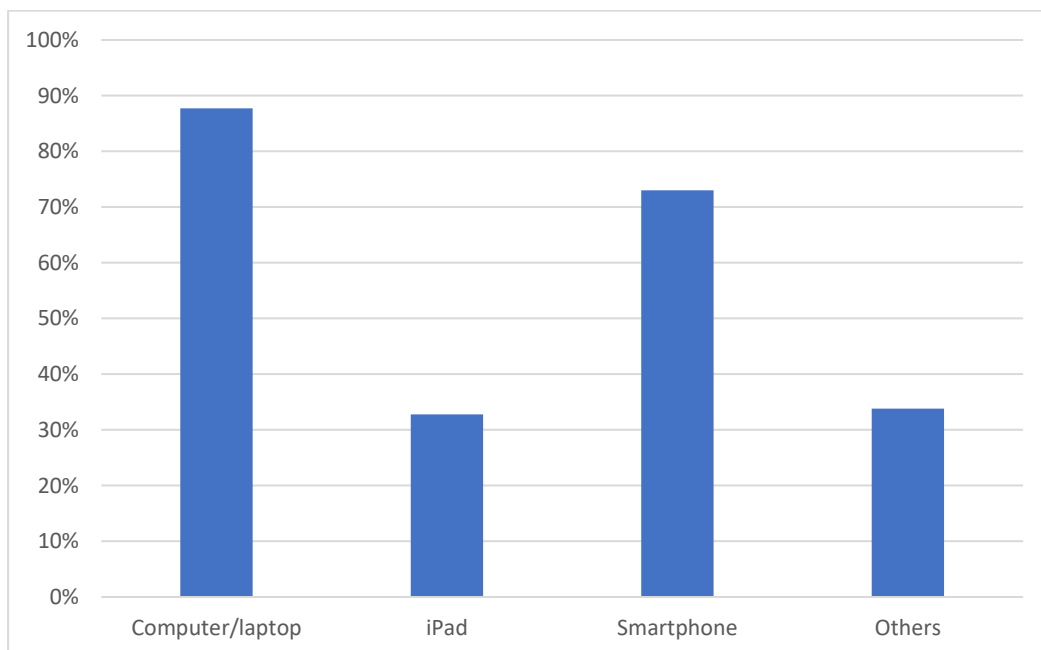
practices and beliefs about technology were investigated in a questionnaire and a pre-course interview. The questionnaire gave quantitative data on the digital tools students' use, while the pre-course interview explored students' use of digital tools as well as their beliefs about using technology for study purposes. Students' experiences such as their willingness to communicate in speech and writing in different synchronous and asynchronous course activities, and their self-presentation preferences in the online course were examined in the post-course interview. The effects of the online course as well as students' self-assessed improvements were tested through pre-and post-course tests and the post-course interview. The six-week online course had two live interactions and four asynchronous activities each week. Facebook was used as a learning platform and Skype was utilized for live group discussions. Both qualitative and quantitative data was collected through the questionnaire and pre- and post-course interviews and tests. The study strictly followed the ethical guidelines set by the University of Canterbury. Qualitative data was coded thematically while quantitative data was compared to see any progress in students' speaking, listening and writing skills. Two main criteria – fluency and language complexity – were employed to analyze and compare the quality and quantity of students' pre- and post-course writing and speaking.

## Chapter 5: STUDENT USES OF AND BELIEFS ABOUT TECHNOLOGY

This chapter presents the findings to address the first research question: “**What are students’ practices and beliefs about technology especially social media for studying English?**”. In order to answer this research question, questionnaires with 204 Grade 10 high school students and in-depth interviews with 18 students were conducted. Data from the questionnaire explored digital tools students used and their beliefs about technology in helping them learn English, while the pre-course interview examined how students utilized each kind of digital tools. The chapter begins with a presentation of findings regarding the digital tools that students possessed, and how students used these digital tools for social, educational and communicative purposes. It continues with a presentation of findings regarding students’ beliefs about technology. The chapter ends by comparing the results from this study with other similar studies elsewhere in the world.

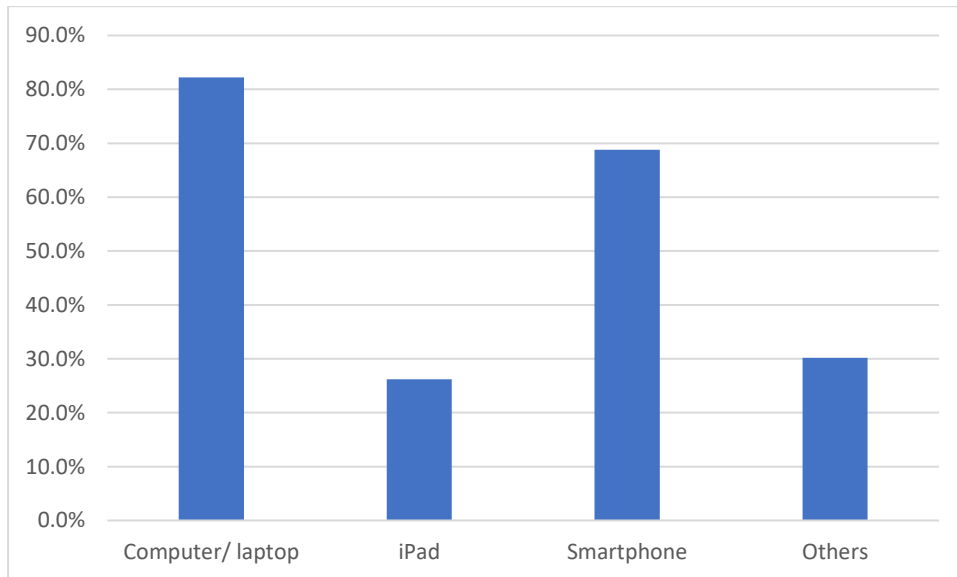
### *5.1 Digital devices that students had access to or ownership of*

Most students had digital devices that could access the internet, and they employed their digital devices for a variety of purposes such as entertainment, education and other social purposes. Figure 5.1 shows that nearly 90% of the students had a computer or a laptop and more than 70% of the students possessed a smartphone. More than 30% of the students owned iPads or other digital devices and many students had more than one digital device such as computers or smart phones. The majority of the students possessed digital devices.



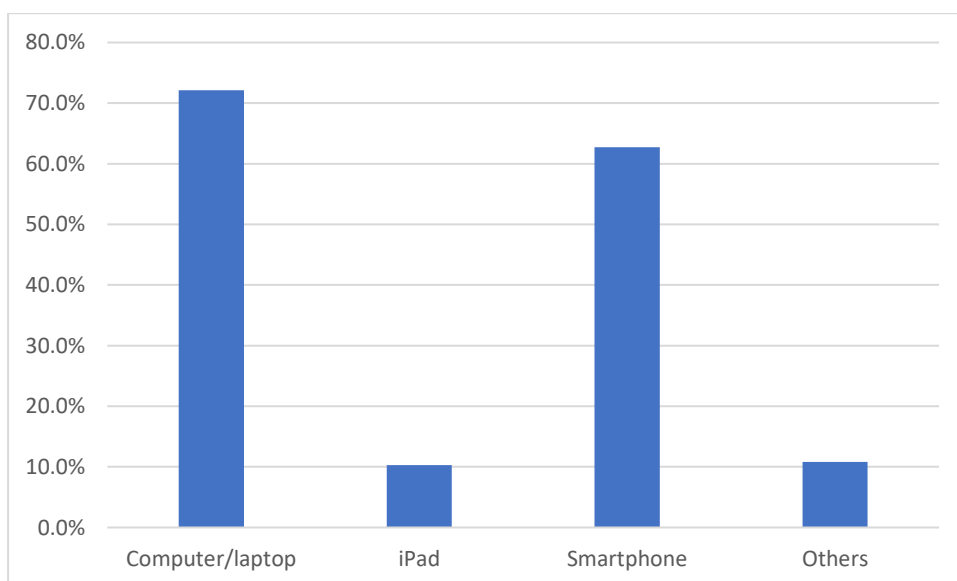
**Figure 5. 1: Digital devices students possessed**

It is clear from Figure 5.2 that more than 80% of the students had internet-connected computers and approximately 70% of the students in the survey had smartphones connecting to the internet. This shows that the number of the digital devices which could connect to the internet was less than the total number of devices that students possessed. The figure for iPads and Others was less than 30%.



**Figure 5. 2: Digital devices that could connect to the internet**

However, students' preferences also differ. Computers and smart phones were the two popular digital devices that students used the most often. Figure 5.3. shows that more than 70% of students were using computers while the figure for smartphones was over 60%. iPads and other digital devices only accounted for 10% of the digital devices that students often utilized.

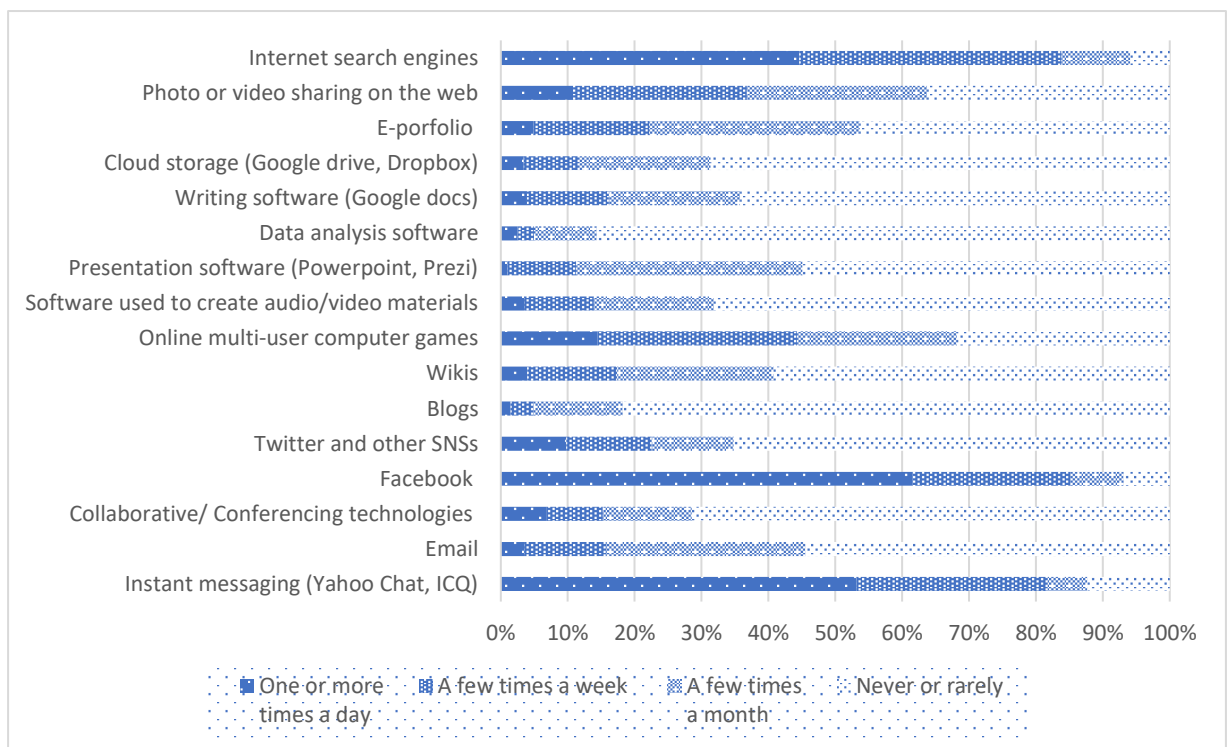


**Figure 5. 3: Digital devices that students often used**

Students used digital devices for a variety of purposes. The following section describes in detail how students used their digital devices.

### 5.2 Digital practice outside the education context

It can be seen clearly from Figure 5.4 that three applications that students used frequently were Facebook, instant messaging, and internet search engines. More than 80% of the students used an internet search engine, Facebook, or instant messaging a few times a week or more. Other commonly used websites involved photo sharing or video sharing. Online multi-user computer games were used by more than 40% of the students. Twitter and other social media were less popular, being used by around 20% of the students.



**Figure 5. 4: Digital practice outside the educational context**

The pre-course interview allowed for a better understanding of this diagram, showing that technology served different social functions: social, communicative, recreational, economical, and personal. All students in the interview reported using technology for social purposes, mainly chatting with friends, communicating with their relatives, sharing photos, engaging in the community and getting news from their friends. As reported in the interview, one student employed technology as a means of communication with friends to exchange information.

**Example 1** – *Đạ, (em) thường nhắn tin cho bạn bè* [Yes, (I) often sent messages to my friends] (Pre-course interview – Student I).

In addition, technology served for recreational activities. Playing online games, watching online videos such as gameshows or films and listening to music were among the most popular activities that students utilised social media for.

**Example 2** – *Zingme thì em thường chơi game nhiều* [For Zingme, I played games a lot] (Pre-course interview – Student E).

**Example 3** – *Em nghe nhạc, coi phim, coi những chương trình thực tế* [I listened to music, watched movies or reality shows] (Pre-course interview – Student P).

Technology especially social media equipped students with a convenient channel for sharing news and other information, and one student supposed that news on Facebook was handy and felt more encouraged to read it.

**Example 4** – *Em thường đọc tin tức bạn bè chia sẻ* [I often read news my friends shared] (Pre-course interview – Student K).

Interestingly, Facebook was used to share personal status when students were in more extreme moods such as sadness or happiness as well as sharing photos about their idols. In addition, social media were a means to see their friends' status and photos.

**Example 5** – *Hoặc là lúc vui thì mình đăng vui lúc buồn thì mình đăng buồn* [When being happy, I posted 'happiness', when being sad, I posted 'sadness' (on my Facebook page)] (Pre-course interview – Student R).

**Example 6** – *Em chia sẻ hình máy ca sĩ Hàn Quốc* [I shared photos of Korean singers] (Pre-course interview – Student K).

One of the students used Facebook to sell and buy goods to earn extra money. Usually he found information such as phone numbers on Facebook and then used Facebook to communicate with the seller.

**Example 7** – *Thì người ta sẽ rao những mặt hàng trên đó, người ta sẽ cho mình số điện thoại để mình liên lạc với họ* [Other people put ads there (on Facebook) and give their phone number, I often communicated with them via Facebook] (Pre-course interview – Student E)

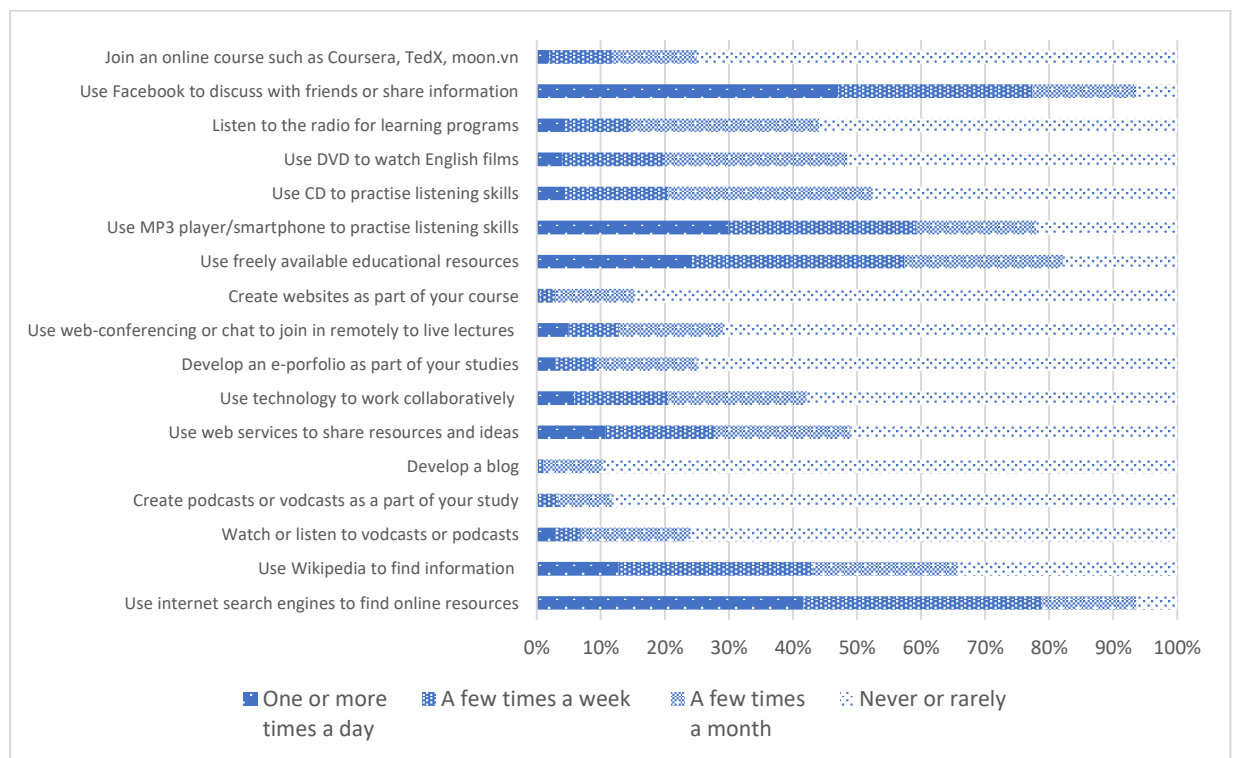
One student employed Proshow Producer to make videos storing some memories for his own classes.

**Example 8** – *Video clip em mới làm được có 1 cái à [I just made a video clip]* (Pre-course interview – Student B).

In summary, students used digital tools to serve various social purposes such as updating their status, entertaining themselves by listening to music or watching movies, playing games, interacting with friends, trading or creating their own videos.

### 5.3 Digital tools used for educational purposes

Students used a variety of digital tools for educational purposes. It is obvious from Figure 5.5 that the most common tool was the internet search engine which was employed by nearly 80% of the students in the questionnaire with the frequency of a few times a week or more. More than 60% of students used MP3 players and smartphones to practise their listening a few times a week or more. Besides, Wikipedia was used by more than 45% students a few times a week or more. Around 20% of the students used technology to work collaboratively, and they used DVDs to watch English films, or practise listening. Around 15% or less of the students used other digital tools.



**Figure 5. 5: Use of digital technologies for learning**



In this way, students used digital technology to supplement their classwork. Students took advantage of social media for various ways of learning. First, one student employed social media as a means to announce education-related issues such as timetabling, class meetings, or other news on the class closed Facebook group.

**Example 9** – *Facebook em lên mấy trang fanpage, không là mấy trang học tìm kiếm thông tin* [For Facebook, I accessed a fan page, or a study page to find information] (Pre-course interview – Student P).

Social media played a crucial role as a forum for online discussions about educational issues. This created some benefits for students in their independent study outside the class; therefore, students spent a large amount of time on social media discussing educational issues. Students also received online materials and discussed educational issues with their friends.

**Example 10** – *(em) là lên trao đổi hỏi bạn bè, hỏi bạn về việc học tập* [I accessed (Facebook) to discuss with my friends, asked them about study] (Pre-course interview – Student L).

If students needed more information relating to their study, they employed social media to find suitable materials for their own learning.

**Example 11** – *Dạ thưa thầy là cái nhóm như nhóm trao đổi học tập Toán, Lý, Hóa 10, 11, 12. Đăng vô rồi ai giúp được sẽ làm rồi chụp, lấy điện thoại chụp rồi gửi lên Facebook* [Teacher, some groups such as groups to talk about study such as math, physics, chemistry 10, 11, 12. People posted problems and then anyone who could solve them, solved them, took photos with a phone and then uploaded on Facebook] (Pre-course interview – Student F).

Moreover, to get access to updated materials, one student also registered accounts on social media and subscribed to educational channels to be notified whenever the instructor uploaded new materials.

**Example 12** – *Dạ do là trên trang YouTube thầy có thể đăng kí cái nick google của thầy vào cái tài khoản riêng của mình, lúc đó là thầy có thể subscribe các giáo trình ôn thi hoặc là các thầy cô giảng dạy á thầy. Mấy thầy cô đăng tải các chương trình học thường xuyên lắm, nên là mỗi lần tới là nó đều báo vô cái nick của mình là mình có thể đăng kí học ngay luôn* [Yes, because on YouTube you could register with your Google account, then you could subscribe to some review materials or other teachers' lessons. Some teachers frequently uploaded their lessons and every time this happened, your

nickname was informed, and you could register and study immediately] (Post-course interview – Student R).

Students developed agency when they made use of online lessons as a complement to classroom lessons. Video lessons online were used as a reference to understand the lesson more deeply in class especially when students had difficult topics at school or they did not catch what the teacher explained in the class.

**Example 13** – *Như gần thi thì em vô em coi mấy video mà về hướng dẫn cách giải mà về chuyên đề đồ á thầy* [When it was near the exam, I watched videos about how to solve specialized issues, teacher] (Pre-course interview – Student I).

One student even compared the quality of the online lessons with the lessons by her teacher in class. She felt that the online teachers explained in a more detailed way than her teachers.

**Example 14** – *Thầy cô trên đây thì em thấy giảng rõ hơn ở ngoài* [I thought teachers there explained more clearly than teachers in the class] (Pre-course interview – Student R).

After watching the videos, one student tried to summarize the main ideas of the lesson before applying the knowledge in exercises and then compared his solutions to see whether he had the correct answer or not.

**Example 15** – *Ví dụ như là em lên coi mấy cái bài đó họ cho ví dụ thì mình để coi mấy cái phần chung rồi làm thử có được hay không rồi so sánh đáp án với họ* [For example I watched the lessons, they gave examples for me to watch and then I tried to do (the exercises) and check my answers] (Pre-course interview – Student A).

Some students also joined online courses on websites moon.vn, and hocmai.vn. to improve their knowledge. These popular websites offered online courses for high school students to learn and review their lessons for the national graduation examination. One student had to pay to join these online courses for her independent learning, and if she had any questions, she would ask by sending questions to the course instructor.

**Example 16** – *Moon là em mới đóng nữa 400000 VND* [For Moon, I paid VND 400,000] (Pre-course interview – Student I).

Students also recorded their own readings of course material as a learning strategy to memorise lesson content. As one student reported it was more convenient, he just listened to the recording and remembered the lesson better when going to bed.

**Example 17** – *À ghi âm thì cái đó ghi âm vô cái điện thoại rồi tối ngủ bật nghe cho nó học thuộc bài, khỏi mất công đọc. Đọc rồi để máy nó tự đọc rồi mình tự nhớ* [Oh, (I) recorded it in the mobile phone, then going to bed, I could open it to listen to so that I could learn by heart the lesson without reading it. Let the recording open, then I could remember] (Pre-course interview – Student A).

However, one student had some difficulties in dealing with the online materials because she just got the materials without direct interaction with the teacher and found them hard to study.

**Example 18** – *Trên đó thì em không được giao tiếp trực tiếp, mà chỉ là thầy giảng thôi, nên là nó cũng có bất tiện nhiều* [There I couldn't communicate directly, but just listen to the lesson video, so it was also inconvenient] (Pre-course interview – Student R).

### **Technology for learning English**

Some of the students' activity on Facebook was part of their English language study.

**Example 19** – *Dạ các cấu trúc của bài tiếng Anh, hoặc các là bài ôn* [Yes, (I looked at) some English structures or some review lessons] (Pre-course interview – Student R).

Students practised their English skills beyond the classroom on their own initiative, and they took control of their own learning process. They were fully aware of what they did and were motivated to achieve their learning goal (H. D. Brown & Lee, 2015). In this study, students also employed social media to have extensive practice outside the classroom. They used videos on YouTube as resources to improve their language skills.

**Example 20** – *YouTube có lúc em lên luyện nghe tiếng Anh* [Sometimes, I went on YouTube to practise listening to English] (Pre-course interview – Student P).

Other students followed suggestions from other people:

**Example 21** – *Nội dung thì hồi bữa dì em bảo là cứ xem mấy cái đấy* [My aunt asked me to watch those videos]. (Pre-course interview – Student Q).

One student even followed a YouTube channel which had lesson videos explaining how to practise pronunciation with American accents, and she tried to imitate the accents there.

She perceived the videos she got as a teacher who taught her pronunciation, even though she did not have contact with the video teacher.

**Example 22** – *Em học một thầy, thầy sẽ chỉnh những cái lỗi phát âm mà người thường mắc phải* [I studied with a teacher who adjusted my common pronunciation mistakes] (Pre-course interview – Student R)

One student also used Skype to call her online friends to talk with them and to improve her English-speaking skills.

**Example 23** – *Skype thì hồi trước cũng có làm quen với một bạn nước ngoài, cũng có nói chuyện một lần* [For Skype, I made friends with a foreigner, and I talked with him once] (Pre-course interview – Student E).

On her own initiative, one student found online software such as Duolingo to improve her language. From the online website, she could build up their vocabulary and do more exercises to revise their English lessons.

**Example 24** – *Dạ, ngày nào em cũng học, học từ vựng cơ bản mỗi ngày, có lần làm bài tập ôn với lại học là ... thì em học mỗi ngày 1 bài* [Yes, I studied every day, learned basic vocabulary every day; sometimes I did the review lesson and studied one lesson every day] (Pre-course interview – Student D).

One students also participated in online English courses, such as tienganh123.com, to learn English or review her lessons at school.

**Example 25** – *Tiếng Anh 1,2,3 khoảng một khóa của nó là 175000 VND* [For Tieng Anh 1,2,3, one course cost 175000 VND] (Pre-course interview – Student I).

However, it is interesting that students reported that none of their English teachers at school created any kinds of videos or organized any kind of forums. Teachers only used PowerPoint to present the lesson in the class or CDs to play sound for students. None of the teachers created videos. Some of the students reported that their teachers used videos to illustrate their lessons.

**Example 26** – *Giáo viên thì đưa tụi em lên phòng máy để nghe hoặc để giáo viên cho xem hình ảnh* [The teacher took us to the lab to listen to or to let us see a visual illustration] (Pre-course interview – Student Q).

**Example 27** – *Dạ chỉ có học bài read và listen thì cô dạy bằng máy chiếu, còn bao nhiêu thì dạy trong lớp không à* [Yes, she only used the projector when we had ‘Read

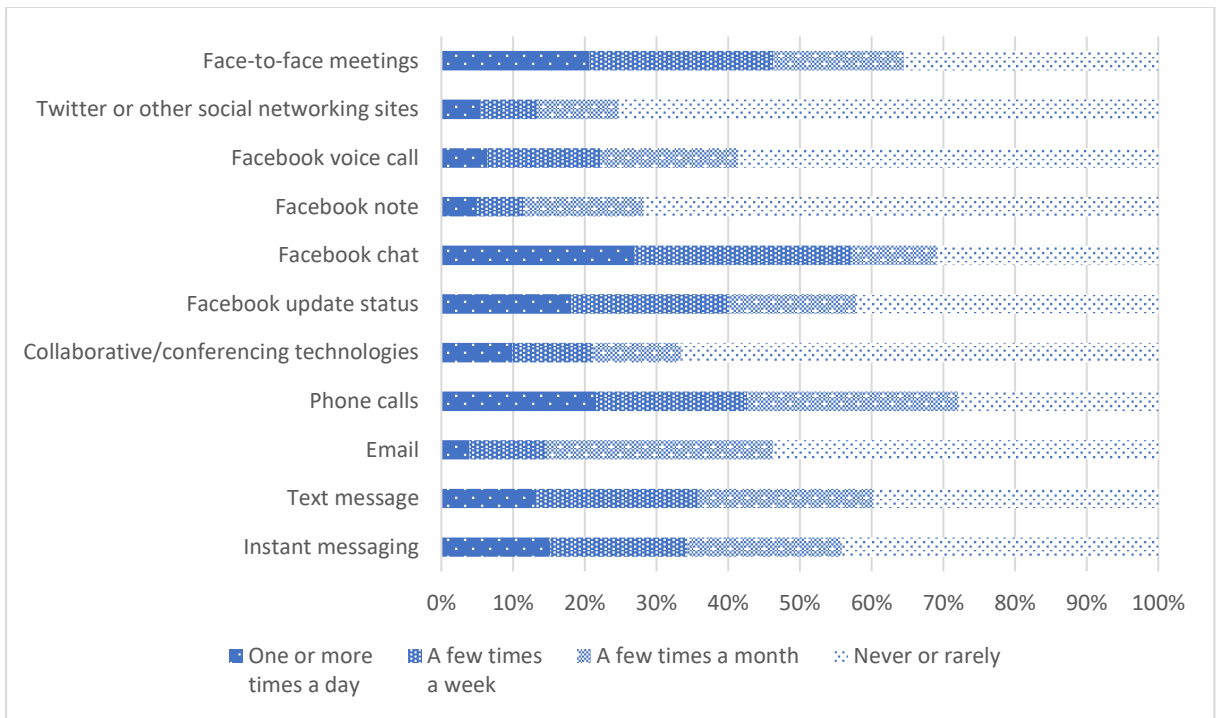
and Listen' lessons, and for other lessons she presented in the class] (Pre-course interview – Student O).

In summary, students employed digital technology to find more information or materials to supplement their learning resources. They also utilised Facebook groups as a means to discuss educational issues with their friends, or to join online courses or to view lessons on YouTube as a complement whenever they had difficulties in the class. For learning English, students worked together with language structures or listened to YouTube to practise their listening skills, or they interacted with foreigners via Skype or participated in online courses to improve their language skills.

#### *5.4 Technology as a means of communication*

##### **For communicating with teaching staff**

Some of the affordances of technology were also employed as a means of communication. For communicating with their teachers, Facebook chat was the most common means of communication. Figure 5.6 indicates that more than 55% of the students used Facebook chat a few times a week or more. About 47% the students met their teachers face-to-face meetings once a week or more. The number of students using phone calls and Facebook status a few times a week or more was around 40%. The number of students employing text messages and instant messages a few times a week was around 35%. Only around 20% of the participants in the survey frequently used conferencing technologies, or Facebook voice chat. Facebook notes and emails were used a few times a week or more by around 15% of the students at least a few times a week.



**Figure 5. 6: Use of technology for communicating with teaching staff**

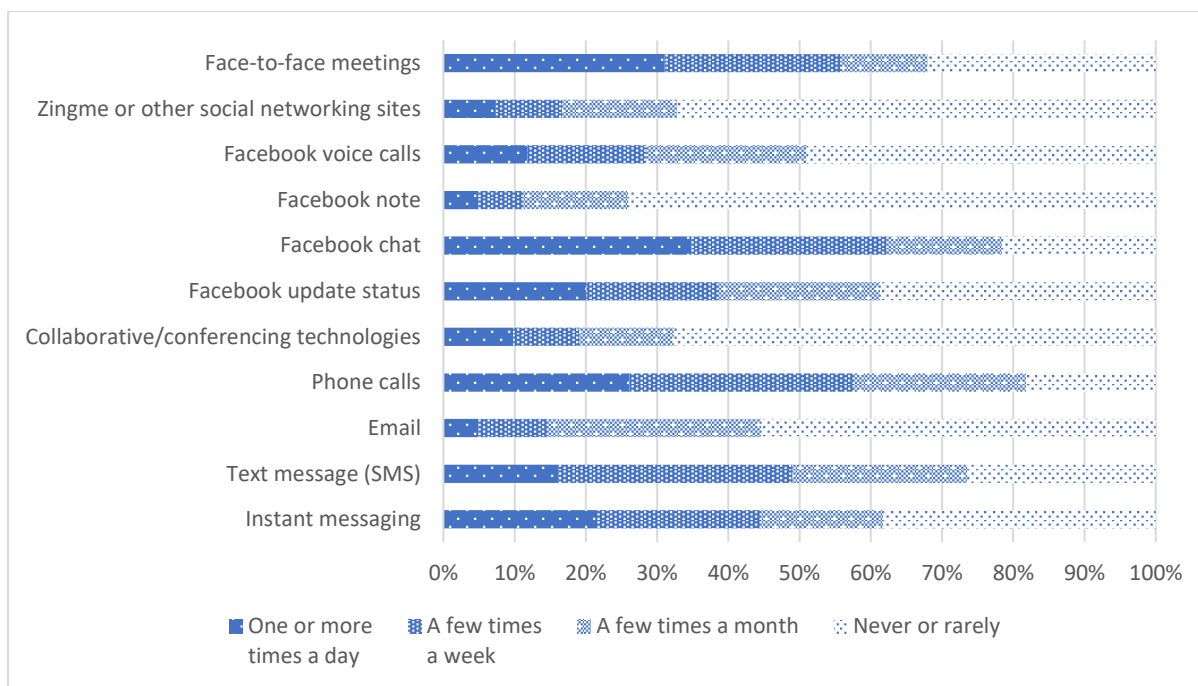
Students felt disinclined to make video or audio calls to their teachers. What they employed most was email, an asynchronous means of communication in which students could have more time to think and write their message.

**Example 28** – *Em liên lạc với giáo viên qua G-mail* [I communicated with my teachers via G-mail] (Pre-course interview – Student B).

#### **For communicating with their peers**

For communicating with their peers, Figure 5.7 shows that more than 60% of the students used Facebook chat, or phone calls a few times a week or more. The number of students employing text messages or instant messaging was 50% and 45% respectively. Facebook updated status or voice calls were employed by more than 30% of the students. Less than 20% used emails, collaborative/conferencing technologies or Facebook notes. With their peers, more video or audio calls were employed for mutual communication. One of the reasons is that they felt nervous about calling teachers. It was much safer for them to interact through asynchronous channels with their teachers.

**Example 29** – *Dạ, bạn bè thì em gọi nhiều hơn chứ giáo viên gọi hơi ngại* [Yes, for friends I made phone calls more but for teachers I felt afraid] (Pre-course interview – Student E).



**Figure 5. 7 Use of technologies for communicating with other students**

Students employed both asynchronous and synchronous communication with their friends and teachers. However, more asynchronous communication was used because it was less face-threatening than the synchronous channel. Students also reported that they preferred using asynchronous communication with their teachers because they felt safer and less anxious.

### 5.5 Students' beliefs about digital technology

The questionnaire and the interview gave information about students' perceptions of their own technology skills, and their beliefs about the use of technology in their study, as well as about some students' concerns about technology. Responses to one set of questions (Table 5.1) showed that students perceived technology as useful for study especially for their language learning on a scale from 1 ('strongly disagree') to 5 ('strongly agree').

Table 5.1 shows that students agreed that technology enhanced their motivation ( $M = 4.0$ ) and assisted students to study better ( $M = 4.2$ ). Furthermore, students supposed that technology could enable them to improve their English skills ( $M = 4.24$ ).

**Table 5. 1 Perceived usefulness of technology for study**

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Interpretation
Technology has helped me study better	204	4.20	.809	Agree

Technology has enhanced my motivation	204	4.00	.759	Agree
Technology has helped me learn foreign languages	204	4.24	.760	Agree

Table 5.2. showed that students disagreed that technology caused them distraction. Most students disagreed that technology wasted their time (M = 2.43) or made them not concentrate on their study (M = 2.82). It was significant that students showed a strong degree of disagreement to the proposition that they disliked technology.

**Table 5. 2 Students' attitudes towards technology**

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Interpretation
Technology distracts me from my study	203	2.82	1.049	Neutral
I hate technology	204	1.67	.809	Disagree
Technology is time-consuming	204	2.43	1.064	Disagree

The interview explored possible explanations for students' beliefs about technology, such as that they could view videos that were relevant to their lessons. Besides, they could play, replay or pause the videos as many times as desired. In addition, materials found on the internet could be printed out and kept for further study. Students also believed that they could find useful information easily and quickly.

**Example 30** – *Nó cũng tiện nghi hơn. ... Máy câu viết ra trên đó có thể sao chép những thứ mình thấy cần thiết, hoặc thấy hay, em lấy in ra để học* [It was more convenient ... Some sentences there (on social media) could be copied if I found it necessary. Or if it was interesting, I printed out to study] (Pre-course interview – Student P).

Social media were also a channel for students to learn something new outside the formal schooling context. They developed agency and independent learning skills and extended their study which was seen as useful for the future.



**Example 31** – *Em nghĩ như là cái đấy là mình học hỏi được nhiều điều, không chỉ là học ở trong lớp mà còn học trong đó* [I think I could learn a lot of things, not only study in the class but also study from there (Facebook)] (Pre-course interview – Student K).

In addition, social media were employed to interact with other students to ask questions if they had unsolved problems in their study.

**Example 32** – *Nếu có gì mình không biết thì mình có thể hỏi bạn trên đó* [If I didn't know something, I could ask my friends there] (Pre-course interview – Student R).

One student, perhaps optimistically, believed that social media enabled him to be successful in his study and assisted him to concentrate better because he had no friends nearby to talk to.

**Example 33** – *Em nghĩ là có thành công, bởi vì trên mạng xã hội dễ tập trung hơn, bình thường nếu học trên lớp thì em nói chuyện nên khó tập trung* [I think it would be successful because on the SNS it was easier to concentrate. Normally, in the class, I chatted, so it was hard to stay focussed] (Pre-course interview – Student A).

One student also perceived that she was more confident about asking teachers questions on social media than in person because she did not feel it was face-threatening.

**Example 34** – *Nó sẽ, tất nhiên nó là thích hợp hơn, nó thuận tiện hơn bởi vì thường là trực tiếp vậy là em ngại hỏi* [They were, of course, be more appropriate, and more convenient because usually if it was face-to-face like this, I felt afraid of asking questions] (Pre-course interview – Student R).

Students expressed a wish that teachers might make videos explaining the lessons to watch in the class. In this way, the lesson would more pleasant and interesting.

**Example 35** – *Cái bài giảng đó nó nói ra cái tiếng nói của mình luôn chứ chình powerpoint nó thụ động* [The lesson went with the voice at the same time because it was very passive with just PowerPoint] (Pre-course interview – Student M).

**Example 36** – *Như tạo ra một cái video rồi cho lên máy chiếu rồi lên màn hình rồi tất cả học sinh nhìn lên thì cũng có thể hiểu được* [For example, creating videos and then showing them to students on the screen was also easier to understand] (Pre-course interview – Student F).

One student strongly believed that technology extended his study because it could supplement what he learned at school and prepare the following lessons in the class.

**Example 37** – *Nó giúp em giải quyết những vấn đề mình không hiểu. Với lại có thể giúp em làm thêm nhiều bài tập và để chuẩn bị cho mấy bài kiểm tra* [It helped me solve the problems that I did not understand. In addition, I could do more exercises and review for the test] (Pre-course interview – Student K).

The results from the pre-course interview also showed that students had mixed feelings about technology. Students reported that social media also brought them some negative aspects. First, too much time was spent on social media and students could not concentrate on their main responsibility; therefore, they expressed some concerns about wasting time on social media.

**Example 38** – *Thì đôi khi nó làm mình tốn thời gian nhiều quá. Cái nữa là, có những cái khi mà mình cảm thấy mình chú tâm vô nó quá, tới lúc nào đó mình nhận ra nó không có đúng thì thấy nó lãng phí thời gian* [Sometimes social media made us waste too much time. Moreover, I paid too much attention to them (social media), then I did not recognize that it was not right, realising that I was wasting time] (Pre-course interview – Student Q).

Although students recognized that social media consumed their time, they found that some materials were useful for their study and they tried to assess to social media.

**Example 39** – *Nó cũng có tốn thời gian nhưng mà nó có nhiều tài liệu hay với có những người tốt họ chia sẻ tài liệu miễn phí á, coi có thấy hay* [It took a lot of time but social media had a good source of good documents shared by kind people for free; they were interesting] (Pre-course interview – Student A).

One student also supposed that abusing social media could lead to some harmful outcomes such as being addicted to social media or being cheated by other people.

**Example 40** – *Mạng xã hội để trao đổi thông tin. Nhưng mà nếu giới trẻ thì lạm dụng quá thì có những tiêu cực, như gây nghiện, khi sử dụng nhiều quá..... Hoặc là tệ nạn xã hội cũng bắt nguồn từ đó* [Social media were for exchanging information. However, young people abused them, which led to some negative consequences such as addiction when using too much ..... Or social evils originated from there] (Pre-course interview – student E).

But one student also expressed some concern that at the beginning the study group was created to exchange thoughts about the lesson but later on, they gossiped more than discussing.

**Example 41** – *Đa số cái nhóm em ban đầu em gia nhập là dùng để học nhưng vào đó thì mấy bạn chém gió không à thầy* [Most of the groups were established for study but later, group members almost only chatted] (Pre-course interview – Student B).

In terms of technology skills, the students expressed their neutrality. The average scores for these questions suggested that students felt that they were neither good nor bad at using technology.

**Table 5. 3 Students’ perceptions of their technology skills**

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Interpretation
I am satisfied with my technology skills	204	3.00	.960	Neutral
I have found it easy to use technologies	202	3.43	.986	Neutral

In summary, students believed that technology skills enabled them to study better because they could find more resources to further study their lessons. It was also a channel for them to learn from their peers by exchanging information. Some students even claimed that technology enabled them to concentrate better. However, some of the students expressed concerns that it was time-consuming and could lead to a lack of concentration on study while discussing in groups. They were neutral about their technology skills.

#### *5.6 Discussion about students’ uses of and beliefs about technology*

The results about student use of technology were from the SEET questionnaire from Gosper, McKenzie, Pizzica, Malfroy, and Ashford-Rowe (2014) who investigated university students’ use of technology in Australia in 2013. However, the questionnaire was adapted because of differences in infrastructure in Vietnam, although the level and the context were different between the current study and findings from Australia, USA, or other countries. In addition, technology has changed so fast and more digital tools such as Facebook voice calls became available in 2016. However, it could still be interesting to have a comparison between high school students in Vietnam and students in Australia and other countries.

First of all, the result would be compared with tertiary students from Gosper et al. (2014) study. Although students in this current study were from Vietnam, a developing country, a large number of the students accessed the two most popular types of digital tools: computers

(90%) and smart phones (70%). Gosper et al. (2014) found that 96% of the students could access computers at home and 82% of the students had their own smart phones in 2013. The findings could be also compared to students from an urban school with low socio-economic background in Northeastern USA in 2015. Li, Snow, and White (2015) found that most secondary school students in a middle school in the USA were able to access cell phones (91.23%), desktop (84.2%) and laptop computers (76.12%), and 34.64% of the students also had access to a tablet. S.-K. Wang, Hsu, Campbell, Coster, and Longhurst (2014) also found that most secondary school students in ten schools in New York and nine schools in Utah, USA had computers (74.4%), cell phones (80.9%) and laptops (69%). Although students in the current study were high-school students from a developing country, the number of students accessing the computers and mobile phones was nearly the same as that rate (around 80%) of the students in studies carried out in developed countries such as UK, USA or Australia two or three years earlier. Besides, it is noticeable that students in Vietnam did not have access to computers at school, while students in the above studies could use the computers at school.

Most of the students in this current study used Facebook, internet search engines and text messaging for social purposes. Three digital tools that most of the students used more than once a week were Facebook, an internet search engine and text messaging. More than 80% of the students used these tools several times a week or more. Other digital tools that were used by about 40% of the students were online computer games and photo or video sharing on the web. The rate of student use of digital technology was in line with findings by Eid and Al-Jabri (2016) who examined 308 students from a university in Saudi Arabia. They also found out that the most popular digital tools which were used by about 80% of their respondents a few times a week or more were YouTube and Facebook.

To be more specific, students in this current study used these digital tools for social purposes such as watching movies, playing games, listening to music, reading news, updating their status, and sharing information with their peers or relatives. Hew and Cheung (2012), who investigated Singaporean students' use of Facebook also found that a large number of students (more than 80%) used Facebook to update their friends' information, or their own status, or to schedule an event or chat with their peers. Beckman et al. (2014) investigated the case study of 12 Year 9 and 10 students from two secondary schools in Australia. They concluded that students used technology outside the classroom for social purposes more than for educational purposes.

Students in the current study used technology for both social and educational purposes. Students used technology, especially social media on their own initiative for independent study. The findings are also reminiscent of the results from previous studies (Fewkes & McCabe, 2012; Hamid et al., 2015; Selwyn & Gorard, 2016) who found that students used search engines to search for information for their study or watch educational resources on YouTube. To be more exact, more than 80% of the students in the current study used internet search engines, freely available educational resources, and Wikipedia a few times a week or more. Gosper et al. (2014) also found that more than 80% of the Australian university students in their study used a search engine to find information more than a few times a week. With more recent studies in Australia, the findings were similar with the findings from this current study. For example, Selwyn and Gorard (2016) found that a majority of Australian university students in their study used an internet search engine to find information (99.4%), watched free educational resources such as YouTube (97.2%) , used social media such as Facebook to work in group with students (89%) and utilized Wikipedia as material resources (87.5%).

Vietnamese high school students used these digital tools for three main purposes: learning resources and materials, interaction with each other and their teachers, and online self-study in which students interacted directly with the content. Students showed agency and learner autonomy when they took the initiative to look for and find materials online . Beckman et al. (2014) had similar findings in that Australian secondary school students took the initiative to search for online materials for their study. In addition, technology empowered students to join the online forums to discuss with their friends and enhance their self-study. Previous studies (Hamid et al., 2015; Odom, 2010) also had similar results in that students initiated to use social media for interactions and collaborative learning. Earlier studies also found out that 86% of the students at a university in the UK utilized Facebook to discuss academic issues. Those students said that they used technology to personalize their learning process by accessing supplementary materials online (Donlan, 2012). Beckman et al. (2014), in their investigation of two low socio-economic status secondary schools in Australia also found that secondary school students tried to find information online to answer the questions in the class. Moreover, in the current study, some students used Skype to communicate with native speakers to practise their English skills without this being required of them by their school teachers. These activities indicated that students developed the agency to supplement their teacher-led learning.

Students in the current study used materials on Facebook as reference lessons if they had difficulties comprehending the lessons in the class. Selwyn and Gorard (2016) also found

that university students in Australia utilized Wikipedia to understand terms, concepts, and definitions that they did not understand at school. Students in the current study even evaluated online videos as explaining the lesson much more clearly than the lesson in the class; they knew how to exploit online materials to supplement what they could not learn at school. Without pedagogical instructions from the teachers, they chose to study online by listening to recordings to improve their listening skills or practice their vocabulary online. They even joined paid online courses. This is consistent with the findings by Hamid et al. (2015) who found that secondary school students in Australia interacted with online content. Students developed learner autonomy when they self-studied what they believed would be useful for them. This is different from the findings by Obradović and Pavlović (2015), who found out that 50% of Malaysian university students did not use YouTube and did not evaluate it highly. To sum up, Vietnamese high school students in this current study developed independent learning habits by employing more technology to find information, using social media as an interaction channel for further discussions with friends about academic issues, digesting online materials such as watching videos or listening to English recordings or communicating with foreigners to improve their English skills. These students set out to find what they thought was good for them.

### **Student creation of materials**

The findings indicated that Vietnamese high school students did not create their own materials. This finding is in accordance with Lu et al. (2016), who investigated 186 secondary school students' use of technology inside and outside schools in Hong Kong. Their students reported that they used digital technology for viewing, sharing, communicating and sharing in both inside and outside class. Students did not create much content because producing and creating materials on social media needed more 'intellectual effort' and 'serious engagement' (Lu et al., 2016). These authors suggested that teachers should help students engage in creating materials on social media. In addition, the students in that study did not give many comments on their friends' work. Commenting on other students' works practices critical thinking and debating skills (Hamid et al., 2015) but not many students did that in this current study either. To sum up, students in this current study passively digested online materials but they did not create much content.

For communicating with teaching staff, students tended to employ more asynchronous and formal means of communication to allow them to edit their response. This is consistent with the findings by Gosper et al. (2014) that emails were the most popular communication

with teachers (35%), face-to-face (24%), learning management system (31%) at least a few time a week. However, students in the present study used more chat with 55% of the students using Facebook chat while face-to-face meeting was 45%. Around 30% of the students used text messaging. Only 20% of the students used voiced calls to communicate with their teachers.

Students used more synchronous communications with their peers. Facebook chat was the most popular (50%). Text messages accounted for 45%. Facebook voice increased to 30%, while students in Gosper et al. (2014) used text messaging (SMS) (43%), Facebook (42%), email (38%), and face-to-face meetings 40%. One possible cause was that students in the present study did not have learning management systems to communicate.

Students believed that digital technology motivated and enabled them to study better, so they themselves employed technology to study without teachers' support. These findings are in line with previous studies (Crook et al., 2008; Hamid et al., 2015; J. W. Richardson et al., 2014). J. W. Richardson et al. (2014) found that secondary school students in Cambodia perceived that the internet and computers helped them to learn new skills. Students were interested in technology especially social media because they could access materials for free. Lai, Wang, and Lei (2012), on the other hand, investigated factors affecting students' use of technology and found that support from teachers, and peers were the most important factors influencing students to use technology.

Students believed that online digital materials were useful to them. They even compared online materials with the lesson that their teachers taught in class. They assumed that online materials helped them study better because they could use reference lessons online to supplement what they did not completely comprehend at school. Besides, students interacted directly with online materials such as listening to YouTube videos. This result is in agreement with the study by Lai et al. (2012) that students' perception of usefulness contributed to their use of technology. The findings are similar to the results by Beckman et al. (2014) and Hamid et al. (2015) who found that students highly appreciated online educational sources.

Students reported that social media extended their communication ability. Students could interact with other students whenever they had difficulties which could increase their collaborative learning skills. These findings are supported by previous studies (Hamid et al., 2015; Tay & Allen, 2011).. Technology also reduced students' anxiety in raising questions for the instructors (Hamid et al., 2015; Wheeler, Yeomans, & Wheller, 2008).

Students in this study wished their teachers would create videos and other digital materials for the class. Margaryan, Littlejohn, and Vojt (2011) also pointed out that students wanted their instructors to create videos for them to view. However, Lai, Yeung, and Hu (2016) compared students' perceptions of teachers' roles in enhancing students' use of technology and concluded that students wished their teachers to support and guide them how to use technology for autonomous learning with metacognitive skills as well as cognitive skills while teachers supposed that students were better than they were in terms of technology and they could find appropriate materials for themselves.

Additionally, students were also concerned about spending too much time on social networking. Hamid et al. (2015) and Y. Wang et al. (2015) found that university students in the USA lacked control of their use of social media. This is totally opposite to the ideas from one student in this current study when he supposed that social media could help them to concentrate better because he did not have any friends nearby to talk to.

### *5.7 Chapter summary*

To sum up, students used digital technology especially social media for communicative, social and educational purposes. For communication, students used asynchronous chat more than synchronous channels because it was seen as less face-threatening, especially with their teachers. Students utilized digital technology especially social media for different social purposes such as watching movies, updating their status, sharing photos or trading online. It is interesting that students employed a lot of technology for their study by finding more resources online, watching online lessons, practicing listening, joining online discussions with their peers in groups, practising speaking with foreigners or participating in the online courses. In addition, students utilized many digital tools for independent study outside the formal schooling context. Students also believed that technology could help them improve their language skills because they could learn something from their peers and become more motivated with technology, although some of them expressed their concern that they might be wasting their time while learning online.



## Chapter 6: STUDENTS' EXPERIENCES IN THE ONLINE COURSE

This chapter presents students' experiences in the online course. It starts first with findings regarding students' reported willingness to communicate (WTC) in the physical class and then continues with students' WTC in the online environment. After that, the chapter discusses the relationship between students' WTC and their self-presentation in three different modes of communication: text chat, voice chat and video chat.

### 6.1 Perceived willingness to communicate in the class

In both pre-course and post-course interviews, students expressed their feelings about speaking English in their regular class. Several mentioned feeling nervous about speaking in front of the class because they were shy and felt exposed in class. In general, students were nervous of speaking English in front of the class because they were afraid of being laughed at by other students for their mistakes; therefore, they were reluctant to speak.

**Example 42** – *Em ngại nói lắm. Với lại em nói không hay* [I was shy. In addition, I did not speak well] (Pre-course interview – Student P).

**Example 43** – *Do em không tự tin nên là em cũng không có nói* [Because I was not confident, I didn't speak] (Pre-course interview – Student J)

Others felt unable to speak fluently or were afraid of being laughed at by other students for their mistakes. They perceived that their bad pronunciation inhibited them from speaking in front of their peers. As a result, they felt demotivated to speak.

**Example 44** – *Bởi vì tiếng Anh không đủ nè, nói không được hay* [Because my English was not good enough, I could not speak well] (Pre-course interview – Student N).

**Example 45** – *Em sợ nói sai mấy nó cười nên ít nói* [I was afraid that if I spoke wrongly, other students would laugh at me, so I seldom spoke] (Pre-course interview – Student A)

One student felt that other people were looking at him when he was performing a speaking task in the class.

**Example 46** – *Dạ, nói có nhiều người, xong người ta nói chung là nhìn vô cảm thấy ngại ngại á thầy* [Yes, (in the class) there were many people; they looked at me speaking, I felt shy, teacher] (Post-course speaking interview – Student E).

Although one student admitted that in class she felt more anxious in the face-to-face situation.

**Example 47** – *Thấy nói chuyện trực tiếp nó khỏe hơn, nhưng mà cái nói nó ngại ngại.*  
[Speaking face-to-face was easier, but it was unconfident] (Post-course interview – Student A).

With the physical class, students reported that they did not feel confident to speak. They also perceived speaking in front of other people to be face-threatening and they felt high levels of anxiety with low perceived confidence. However, students' experience of the online environment, especially their WTC and self-disclosure when asked to communicate, is presented in the following section.

## 6.2 Willingness to communicate online

Although students reported in Chapter 5 that many of them used phone calls to communicate with their friends and relatives, they felt more inhibited to speak when they changed their audience. They felt more confident to use phone calls with their close friends or relatives, while in the online communicative class, students still felt a little nervous because they were not used to the new environment nor to a communicative approach which asked them to communicate in English.

**Example 48** – *Do cái điều kiện môi trường không có ấy nên mình không nói được, mà lúc mà thầy bắt nói thì cũng hơi sợ sợ* [Due to the insufficient linguistic environment, I could not practise speaking; therefore, at the beginning when you asked me to speak, I felt a little nervous] (Post-course interview – Student D).

In the first synchronous meeting via Skype, the students did not speak via audio calls. Instead, they tried to type as much as possible. Students reported that they preferred text chat, the least face-threatening mode of communication. One possible reason to explain students' preference for text chat was that it gave them a little more time to think and prepare their answers before sending.

**Example 49** – *Thì nói chuyện trực tiếp đôi khi mình chưa có nghĩ ra cái câu mình nói là gì, còn cái như mình viết thì mình nghĩ, mình nghĩ ra được rồi thì mình viết ra dễ hơn* [For synchronous voice chat, sometimes I had not figured out what to say, but for text chat I thought, I figured out and wrote down; it was easier] (Post-course interview – Student F).

**Example 50** – *Đánh máy có gì mình suy nghĩ từ từ rồi mình đánh ra, còn nói cứ em lắp ba lắp bắp nói* [For typing, I thought something and then typed down gradually, but for speaking I babbled]. (Post-course speaking interview – Student K).

Another reason why students were more confident in the online environment was that they were able to use the internet and search for the necessary information to answer the questions.

**Example 51** – *Ở trên mạng, nếu em không biết cái gì đó, em có thể tìm thông tin một cách dễ dàng* [On the Internet, if I did not know something, I could find the information easily] (Post-course interview – Student B).

One student avoided voice chat because he was not in a private environment. He said.

**Example 52** – *Em thích text chat hơn; em không thích voice chat bởi vì cháu chọc* [I preferred text chat; I didn't like voice chat because my nephews joked with (me)] (Post-course interview – Student F).

However, after the first meeting, some students gained some confidence and started to use voice in the Skype meetings to speak English.

**Example 53** – *Dạ qua Skype thì lúc đầu thì em thấy ngại, mà nay cỡ từ bài thứ 2, thứ 3 là em thấy bình thường rồi thầy* [Yes, through Skype, at the beginning I felt unconfident but from lesson 2, or 3 on, I felt normal, Teacher] (Post-course interview – Student G).

This was easier than it had been in the regular class

**Example 54** – *Dạ, trên Skype thì thoải mái, nói thoải mái à chứ, còn ở lớp không biết nói gì hết thầy* [Yes, on Skype it was comfortable, speaking comfortably, but in the class, (I) did not know what to say, Teacher] (Post-course interview – Student F).

Possibly this was due to the students not using their video cameras in the Skype environment and not showing their faces

**Example 55** – *Trên Skype đây có ai biết mình đâu, nói thoải mái* [On Skype, no one knew me, speaking as much as possible] (Post-course interview – Student F).

When students were asked to turn on their cameras, they perceived the same level of anxiety as in face-to-face communication

**Example 56** – *Chứ nhìn mặt em ngại lắm thầy* [Looking at faces, I felt a bit shy] (Post-course interview – Student N).

**Example 57** – *Nó hồi hộp lắm thầy* [It was very nerve-racking, Teacher] (Post-course interview – Student K).

One student was even worried about being seen by other people when she was on video calls in the online interaction.

**Example 58** – *Lỡ mà em của em nó đi ngang qua nhìn vô thì không có được tự nhiên* [In case my brother passing by saw me, I was not natural] (Post-course interview – Student D)

The most confident student was unconcerned about speaking in front of the class.

**Example 59** – *Skype cũng được, trên lớp cũng được, cái nào cũng được á thầy* [Skype was ok, or in the class it was ok. Either was ok] (Post-course interview – Student J)

Even if one student was reluctant to be seen on Skype, he wanted to see the instructor.

**Example 60** – *Ví dụ như cái tiếng đó mà thầy nói em không biết đọc sao, nhưng nhìn cái âm miệng của thầy á, thì em nói được* [For example, the sound you said I did not know how to say, but looking at your mouth, I could say it] (Post-course interview – Student C).

### **Asynchronous work**

As well as synchronous Skype meetings, students were asked to post their work in closed Facebook groups in order to get feedback from their peers. They were quite happy about this, hoping that someone would read and assist them to correct some of their grammatical mistakes.

**Example 61** – *Em nghĩ là nó tốt, tại là đăng lên ấy thì thầy với các bạn là có thể sửa, có thể sửa các lỗi sai của em* [I think it was good because posting there (on Facebook), you and other friends could correct my mistakes] (Post-course interview – student I).

Students also expressed a preference to uploading in closed Facebook groups rather than where their entire Facebook community could see, thus avoiding negative comments.

**Example 62** – *Mạng xã hội thì có 1 nhóm để mình làm chứ còn nếu mà đăng lên tường sợ mấy bạn khác nói như là chảnh đồ đăng bài tập đồ lên á thầy* [Social media should have a group to work. Perhaps some people would think that I was boastful when posting my homework, teacher] (Post-course interview – Student F).

Just as in the synchronous Skype meetings, students were camera shy on Facebook; when asked to make recordings of their speech, they preferred voice recording to video recording. Students felt insecure when they had to show their faces in the video and were unused to seeing their own faces.

**Example 63** – *Do nó để nguyên cái mặt em vô trông thấy, mắc cười quá* [Putting my face in the video was ridiculous] (Post-course interview – Student N)

**Example 64** – *Dạ, người ta nói tiếng Anh là nhìn cái miệng người ta phát âm âm “s” đồ hay, còn mình nói chưa đúng mình phát âm nó không có được hay nhìn nó không có đẹp* [Yes, they spoke English, their mouth pronouncing the sound /s/ looked good, but I mispronounced, or did not know how to pronounce, my mouth did not look beautiful] (Post-course interview – Student D).

Again in this asynchronous communication via Facebook, students expressed that it did not feel natural to turn on the camera and they preferred voice recording. Here too, in the more social presence of the communicative situation, the less willing students were able to communicate, even in asynchronous communication when they did not have to see their audience’s reaction to them. Therefore, it cannot be concluded that CMC is less face-threatening than a face-to-face environment. It really depends on the way students communicate.

While most of the students in this study were used to using digital technology, there were exceptions. One student who was not very good at technology reported that she was more willing to communicate in front of the class because it was more convenient than the online environment as her typing skills were not very good and it took her more time to type.

**Example 65** – *Dạ nói với các bạn ở trên lớp thì em thấy em tự tin hơn* [Yes, I was more confident speaking with my friends in the classroom] (Post-course interview – Student L).

### *6.3 Discussion about the relationship between WTC and self-presentation*

In class, students perceived that their communicative competence was very low because they supposed that their English was not good enough to present in front of the class. They were afraid of making mistakes especially in pronunciation. Students felt a high level of anxiety in the classroom which inhibited them from speaking in front of the class. This is consistent with the findings by Baran-Łucarz (2014) who found a relationship between willingness to communicate and pronunciation anxiety. The poorer that students perceived their pronunciation to be, the less willing they were to communicate. Students were afraid of making mistakes because it was face-threatening. This is also in line with the result by Joe, Hiver, and Al-Hoorie (2017) who found that the classroom social climate affected students’ willingness to communicate. Freiermuth and Jarrell (2006) also pointed out that immediacy and social rules

made face-to-face communication in the classroom face-threatening and increased the level of anxiety of the interlocutors.

Most students reported that they were more confident with text or voice chat and were more willing to speak about what they thought in the online environment compared to face-to-face class because they felt that no one was able to see their face. It is consistent with the findings by Sheldon (2008) that students felt more anxious in face-to-face communication than text chat on Facebook. Rice and Markey (2009) also found that the level of anxiety decreased significantly in online text chat compared to a physical class. Joinson (2001) also had similar findings in his two subsequent studies about online environment when he compared CMC via text chat with a face-to-face environment. He found that online interactants disclosed more information. However, in this current study, students reported they were more willing to communicate and spoke more on the suggested topics with voice chat or text chat than with video chat. This is in line with the findings by Reinders and Wattana (2015) who found that in the online game environment using only text chat, students produced more target language and were more willing to communicate than in class. Chotipaktanasook and Reinders (2016) and Mathieson and Leafman (2014) also found that students were more confident in the social mediated environment than the face-to-face environment.

Walther (1996) pointed out that two important factors that make online participants less inhibited about disclosing personal information are reduced social cues and controllability. In terms of controllability, students in this study reported that they had more time to search for the answer and were more willing to communicate than in the face-to-face meetings. Suler (2004) also found that controllability contributes to online disclosure of the interactants. Regarding social cues, students reported that the less social cues students presented, the more willing they were to communicate. It was true that at the beginning, students felt more anxious to speak; therefore, they used extensive text chat although they were in audio calls. The most comfortable mode of communication in the online environment was text chat. That was why at the first online meeting, students used both text and voice chat to communicate with each other. After that, when students felt familiar with the online environment, they started communicating using voice. Alwi (2015) found that university students were more confident with text chat than with oral communication in class. Yanguas and Flores (2014) compared online oral communication through Skype with the physical class and found that online learners produced more turns (a participant speaks one at a time in a conversation) via Skype than in a physical class. However, after the first meeting, students in the current study were more willing

to communicate and they started using voice to answer the questions. It seemed that it took time for students to become familiar with the online environment. Suler (2004) pointed out that anonymity also contributes to disinhibition effects in the CMC environment, however, all students in the same group in this study used to study together and knew each other; therefore, anonymity might not strongly affect students' willingness to communicate in this study.

Students' willingness to communicate in the online environment decreased when they were asked to turn on the camera. They perceived a higher level of anxiety, as if they were in a face-to-face environment. They were afraid of the background noise of their family or that other people might look at them while they were on the synchronous video chat. That was why students did not turn on the camera until the end of the course. When they entered communicative situations with greater social presence, they became less willing to communicate. This is also in line with the results from the research by Cunningham (2011) who pointed out that a video synchronous conferencing environment is as threatening as the face-to-face class. She explained that students who did not opt to turn their video on would not turn it on during the online course.

With asynchronous communication via Facebook, students in the current study expressed that they did not feel natural when they video recorded themselves and that they preferred voice recording. One more time, it was true that in situations with more social presence, students were less willing to communicate, even in asynchronous communication. Throughout this current study, students perceived that text chat was the least face-threatening environment, and they showed more willingness to communicate in this environment. Voice-chat was more face-threatening than text chat. Video chat was perceived as face-threatening as physical class.

Students perceived being safer and more willing to publish their work in closed Facebook groups, and they expressed reluctance to publish posts in the public mode because then other people would see them. However, one student would have liked to see the instructor's video so that he could see the instructor's articulation to guess the meaning. Cunningham, Fägersten, and Holmsten (2010) also found that online students had to employ multimodal communication to comprehend the information due to the fluctuation of signals. Melchor-Couto (2018) found that extrovert students preferred a face-to-face environment where they could see the social cues and so understand their interlocutors better.

However, there was one exceptional case in the study. One student who had participated in many online courses before perceived that there was no difference between the online environment and the physical class. This student, who was not very good at technology, reported that she was more willing to communicate in front of the class because it was more convenient than the online environment. This is consistent with the findings of V. L. Nguyen (2011a) who found that three out of 30 students did not like the wiki environment. The findings are also in line with the results of Freiermuth and Jarrell (2006) who found that not all students were more willing to communicate in their study. Similarly, Wattana (2013) concluded that students who were not good at technology were reluctant to participate during the online gameplay.

#### *6.4 Chapter summary*

In summary, students felt that communicating in a physical class was face-threatening, and they were reluctant to speak because they were afraid of making mistakes and being laughed by other students. However, for the online environment, students showed various degrees of willingness to communicate. For synchronous communication, students perceived that text chat was the least face-threatening channel because they could delay the answer and look for information. Besides, they could avoid showing their face during text chat; therefore, they were more willing to communicate in text chat than in the classroom. Students also felt that voice chat was more nerve-racking than text chat, but less so than video chat. Video chat was reported to be the most face-threatening mode of online communication and students perceived that video chat was as face-threatening as the physical classroom environment. It is also true for asynchronous communication that students preferred voice recording to video recording because in video recording they felt more anxious and less willing to communicate.



## CHAPTER 7: THE EFFECTS OF THE ONLINE COURSE

In the previous chapter, student experiences in the online course, especially their willingness to communicate and their self-presentation, are discussed. The results show that students were more willing to communicate in the online environment if they show less social presence. This section presents the results of the third research question: ‘‘**What are the effects of the six-week online course delivered via Skype and Facebook for high school students on their language proficiency?**’ Section 7.1 describes how students practised their listening and the effects of the online course on their listening skills by comparing results in the pre-course listening test with the post-course listening test. In Section 7.2 students’ pre- and post-course speaking tests were analysed in terms of language complexity and fluency. Similarly, section 7.3 presents student writing before and after the six-week online course. Students’ pre-course and post-course tests of writing were compared in terms of language complexity and fluency. Findings from the post-course interview about how students practised their writing during the course as well as their perceived improvement are described in detail. The chapter ends by presenting special cases such as students with high and low attendance rate to see whether attendance rate is correlated with their outcomes.

### *7.1 Listening skills*

This section starts with the themes from the pre-course interview in which students reported about their practice of listening in class (7.1.1). Sub-section 7.1.2 reports the process of student practice during the online course. Students’ perceived improvement in the listening skills is in sub-section 7.1.3. Sub-section 7.1.4 moves to the quantitative results of the pre- and post-course listening tests to see whether there was any difference in their listening skills after six weeks practicing listening. Sub-section 7.1.5 summarizes the findings of the online listening practice.

#### *7.1.1 Lack of opportunities for listening in class*

Students believed that they did not have enough listening practice due to the time limitations at high school. For the whole academic year, they had limited exposure to target language. On average, students had one listening practice lesson every two weeks.

**Example 67** – *Đạ, khoảng 14 unit, mỗi unit 1 bài nghe, 1 năm có 14 bài nghe, thầy*  
[Yes, about 14 units, each unit has 1 listening lesson, one year has 14 listening lessons,  
Teacher] (Pre-course interview – Student E).

In one case, a student reported that during the whole semester, he only practised listening once by listening to music.

**Example 68** – *Có hồi học kì 1, có 1 lần nghe mà nghe nhạc, giờ đó nghe nhạc tiếng Anh* [In semester 1, there was a listening lesson, but we only listened to English music] (Pre-course interview – Student F).

Even when the teacher let students practise their listening, they did not understand the listening recording, and students opened the teachers' books or reference books to copy the answer keys.

**Example 69** – *Phần nghe thì... sách giải mấy bạn chép xong rồi ra nghe chứ không nghe thật thật* [For listening, my friends opened the reference books to copy the answer keys but did not pay attention to listening] (Pre-course interview – Student G).

In short, they perceived that in the classroom they did not have enough listening practice in the class because of time constraints. Besides, sometimes they did not understand the listening recording and they tried to show their answer by looking for the answer from the reference book.

After the pre-course interview, students were asked to do the pre-course listening test. Then they participated in the online course for six weeks when they were given some listening exercises online. When the course was completed, they did the post-course listening test. The following section presents the results of the online course.

#### 7.1.2 Listening practice in the online course

In the post-course interview, one student reported that he practised more listening during the online course than he had done at school and that he tried to listen to the recording a few times to understand the meaning of the recording/video when it was uploaded to the closed Facebook group.

**Example 70** – *Em nghe nhiều hơn, chứ trên trường em ít nghe hơn* [I practised more listening (online), but at school I did not practise listening much] (Post-course interview – Student F).

Students reported that online extensive listening offered them opportunities to practise their listening skills outside the classroom. Widodo and Rozak (2016) also found that Indonesian university students reported that they had more chances to practise their listening by using video and they could learn different accents. When students had opportunities to listen

to the podcasts or vodcasts more than once, they were able to familiarize themselves with vocabulary and structures.

Students tried to listen to videos or recordings to understand them and do the task.

**Example 71** – *Mấy cái video thầy cho em nghe có đoạn thì nghe mấy lần, còn có cái em nghe 1 lần, 2, 3 lần* [The videos you asked me to listen to, for some episodes, I listened a few times, but for some others I only listened to once, two or three times] (Post-course interview – Student D).

Online listening enabled students to individualize their listening process. Students could play and pause the recordings many times. This was found to be useful in previous studies (Anusienė & Kavaliauskienė, 2009; Widodo & Rozak, 2016). Fuente (2014) found that when students were able to control their listening process, they were better at noticing language structures, understanding the content better, and they could focus on their listening to complete the task better. Alm (2013) also found that students paused where they did not understand well. Anusienė and Kavaliauskienė (2009) found that students engaged in online listening because of its novelty and they could listen at their own pace.

**Example 72** – *Bình thường em đâu có nghe đâu, bữa thầy cho em nghe. Em nghe được thì làm, không nghe được thì thôi* [Normally, I did not practise listening. When you asked me to listen, if I could understand I did the exercises. If I couldn't understand, I did not do them] (Post-course interview – Student A).

Interestingly, one student stated that this was a good opportunity to be exposed to native speakers' accent which she had not heard much before.

**Example 73** – *Dạ chưa thầy, hồi giờ em học Anh vẫn em chỉ nghe người Việt nói chứ ít khi nào nghe người Anh nói lắm thầy* [Yes, before, I only listened to Vietnamese accent, and rarely to English speakers] (Post-course interview – Student N).

As one of the students reported, listening online enabled her to get exposure to native English, which she could not have in her classroom. Similarly O' Bryan and Hegelheimer (2007) pointed out that language students in the USA reported that they had more language input and were exposed to different spoken accents with podcasting.

However, both students P and H reported they were too busy to practise their listening skills or too lazy to complete their listening practice. Student H said that she skipped all her

listening activities. However, because the online course was voluntary, it was impossible to force the students to do their listening assignments.

**Example 74** – *Em cũng lười biếng nên hầu như bài tập nghe em bỏ, em không có làm* [I was rather lazy, so I did not do most of the hard tasks] (Post-course interview – Student G)

To sum up, online listening could individualize students' listening processes, and it enabled them to have more exposure to listening input, especially to different accents.

### 7.1.3 Perceived improvement in listening skills

Students believed that when they did extensive practice, their listening skills progressed.

**Example 75** – *Nghe thì em thấy nó lên một xíu,* [I think my listening improved a little bit] (Post-course interview – Student G)

However, they believed that their improvement was not very significant.

**Example 76** – *Nghe thì vẫn còn kém. Nói chung là cũng đỡ đỡ hơn trước một chút* [For listening, I was still not good. In general, [my listening skills] were a little bit better than before] (Post-course interview – Student F)

Students felt that their progress in listening skills was less than speaking and writing skills as they did not completely understand the recordings; some parts of the recordings or videos were rather fast, and they were not able to understand fully.

**Example 77** – *Tại mấy bài nghe em nghe cũng được 1 phần, xong rồi có phần em nghe không được* [For listening lessons, I could understand one part, and for some parts I did not understand] (Post-course speaking interview – Student I).

**Example 78** – *Dạ có nghe thầy, mà cái người Anh nói nhanh quá nhanh em nghe từ được từ không á thầy* [Yes, (I) listened, teacher, but some English speakers spoke so fast, I could understand some but some words I did not understand, teacher] (Post-course speaking interview – Student N).

Some students had very low listening competence, and they did not understand the recording well although the recording was at elementary level. These students had very low scores in their pre-course listening test. During the course, they had difficulties in listening skills. These special students are discussed in the individual variation section.

One student felt that her listening did not improve because she did not understand the long recordings.

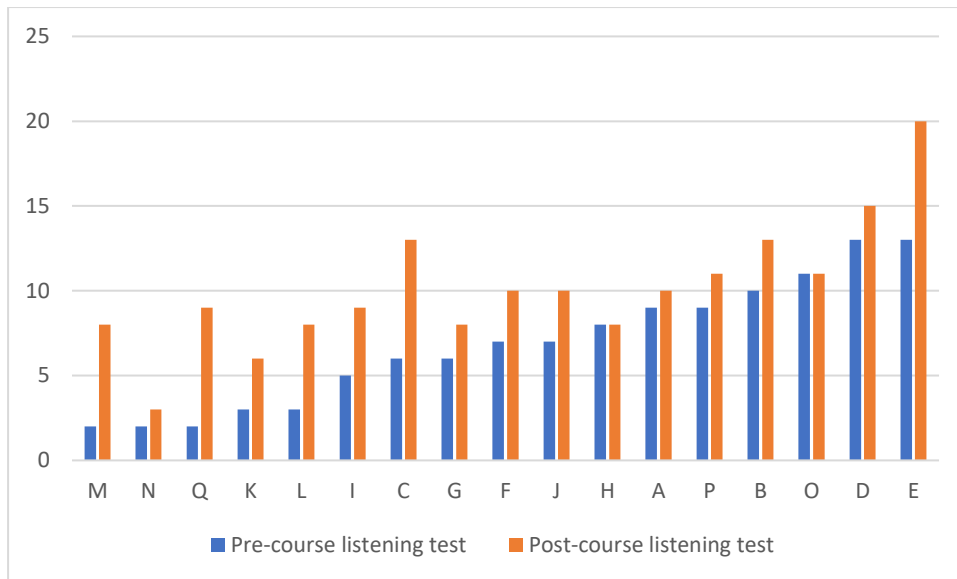
**Example 79** – *Nếu nghe thì em chưa, chưa cải thiện được nhiều .... những đoạn nghe ngắn ngắn thì em... kiểu là em nghe được, nghe nhiều lần thì được* [For listening, I did not improve much .... For some short recording, I could understand when listening to them many times] (Post-course interview – Student P)

Most of the students perceived that their listening improved because they tried to listen to listening recordings on the closed Facebook group. Some of the students stated that they did not completely understand the sound recordings. The students' English level was mixed, but the selected recordings for the online course were the same for all the students; therefore, some of the students found them too difficult.

#### *7.1.4 Results of online listening practice*

As described in Chapter 4 (section 4.5), both pre-and post-course listening tests had five parts and each part had five questions. The total number of questions was twenty-five. The post-course listening test scores were compared with the pre-course listening test scores using a paired sample t-test. The result from the t-test shows that there was a statistically significant difference ( $p = .000 < .005$ ) between the average listening test scores before the course ( $M = 6.82$  out of 25,  $SD = 3.70$ ) and after the course ( $M = 10.12$ ,  $SD = 3.77$ ) with the effect size of 16. Students' average test scores increased from 6.59 to 9.94, which means that students' listening proficiency improved significantly after the online course.

Figure 7.1 shows that most of the students made progress in their listening skills. To be more exact, most students (88%) had many more correct answers in the post-course listening tests compared to the pre-course listening tests. However, two students (H and O) did not show any improvement in their listening test scores.



**Figure 7. 1 Comparison of pre- and post-course listening tests**

The results showed that students progressed in their listening after the six-week online course. The findings were consistent with previous findings (Chang & Millett, 2013, 2016) that extensive listening outside the classroom could improve students' listening skills. Chang and Millett (2016) also pointed out students who had extensive listening practise improved their listening skills depending on the number of assignments they completed. Students with higher completion of their assignments developed their listening more than students with a lower rate of assignment completion.

#### 7.1.5 Summary

Students reported that they did not have enough opportunities to practise listening in class because of the time constraint. In some cases, they only had a few listening sections during the whole semester. In addition, they did not understand the listening recording in the class; therefore, they copied answers from the key. This means that they did not learn much during the class time. They believed that online listening let them have more chances to practise their listening skills and they could expose themselves to authentic listening with different accents. They tried to listen to the listening recordings a few times to understand. Although these recordings were at elementary level, some of the students' listening skills were even lower than elementary level; therefore, some of the students found them too difficult. After spending time practising listening skills during the online course, the students perceived that their listening improved. The quantitative data also showed that majority of the students progressed in their listening skills. It can be concluded that if students tried to practise their listening skills online by replaying more than once until they understood, their listening skills would progress.

## 7.2 Speaking skills

Speaking is also one of the skills that students had difficulties with in learning English in Vietnam because the teachers spent most of their time presenting grammatical items, and the students did not have enough time to practise their speaking skills in class. As a result, their speaking skills were not up to the required level. Therefore, the online course aimed to use online discussions and voice recordings with suggested topics to improve student speaking skills.

Speech recordings were used to assess whether there was any progress in students' speaking skills before and after the online course. One student's computer broke down two weeks before the course finished, so she could not send me the recording she made, and only sixteen recordings were employed for comparison. This section covers student opportunities for speaking in the class in the pre-course interview (7.2.1) before it moves on to present student speaking practice during the online course (7.2.2) and students' perceived progress in their speaking abilities (7.2.3) with the data from the post-course interview. The effects of speaking practice are described in Sub-section 7.2.4. The section ends with a summary in 7.2.5

### 7.2.1 Insufficient opportunities for speaking in class

The interview results show that students did not have enough chances to speak English in their regular classes or to present their ideas due to the time constraint as the time allocation for speaking in a week was limited.

**Example 80** – *Thưa thầy là do trên lớp không có thời gian* [Dear teacher, there was not enough time in the class] (Pre-course interview – Student J)

**Example 81** – *Dạ không có cơ hội luyện nói nhiều, thầy* [Yes, not many opportunities to speak, Teacher] (Pre-course interview – Student L).

One student perceived that the speaking class was so short that he felt that teachers wanted to finish as quickly as possible.

**Example 82** – *Cái tiết nói nó ngắn lắm. Ví dụ trong vòng 10 phút cho lướt qua không à thầy* [Speaking lessons were very short. For example, it passed in 10 minutes] (Pre-course interview – Student B).

Although the time was limited, teachers spent time presenting grammatical items at the beginning of the lesson; therefore, the students felt that they did not have enough time to speak

English in the class. Moreover, the overcrowded classroom also limited their opportunities to speak English.

**Example 83** – *Chủ yếu, là học cấu trúc cho nên nặng về cấu trúc nên ít nói lắm thầy* [Mainly (we) learnt structures, more structures, so speaking was very little] (Pre-course interview – Student E)

**Example 84** – *Mình không có cơ hội nói, không có cơ hội cho tất cả các bạn nói* [I did not have opportunities to speak: there were no opportunities for every student to speak] (Pre-course interview – Student D)

Only confident students who raised their hands to speak in front of the class would be called on to speak, while other students who were not confident enough to put up their hands kept quiet in their seats.

**Example 85** – *Nó sơ sài lắm thầy, bạn nào hay phát biểu đồ vậy lên. Chứ bọn em nó hơi bị nhút nhát nên không có dám lên* [It was very plain, if anyone often raised his/her hand, he/she would be called. For us, we were rather shy, so we were afraid to stand up] (Pre-course interview – Student I).

In summary, students believed that they did not have enough opportunities to practise speaking in class due to lack of time. Another reason was that teachers spent a lot of time presenting structures and, in any case, students were afraid of speaking in front of the class. This is consistent with findings by G. V. Nguyen (2013) who found that Vietnamese high school teachers only conducted two steps: presentation and practice in the three Ps model (presentation, practice and production). Teachers did not organize free speaking activities for students to work on in groups and pairs for free language production.

#### 7.2.2 Students' speaking practice in the online course

Students perceived that recording their voice gave them more opportunities to practise speaking skills.

**Example 86** – *Em có cơ hội luyện nói nhiều hơn* [I had more chances practising speaking English] (Post-course interview – Student I)

**Example 87** – *dạ thưa thầy là được nói chuyện tiếng Anh với các, các bạn nhiều người chứ nếu mà bình thường thì cũng không được nói như vậy* [Yes, Teacher, the course gave opportunities to speak English with friends more because as usual, we did not speak English like this] (Post-course interview – Student L)



Students perceived that voice-recording enhanced their opportunities to practise speaking English outside the classroom. This finding is consistent with findings from previous studies (Huang, 2015; Pop et al., 2011; Sun, 2009) that online voice-blogging can compensate for the time constraint in the classroom. Students could take advantage of the online environment to practise their speaking. Students tried to prepare their speaking by finding ideas and writing down their ideas before they started their own recording. One of them even wrote a script before she started her recordings.

**Example 88** – *Với lại thường thường em làm bài viết trước, xong rồi em nói, mà em nói nó không có theo kịch bản, cho nên em phải làm lại ... theo kịch bản nữa mà em thấy nó sai sai gì á xong em làm lại* [Usually I wrote down in advance, then I spoke but I did not speak according to the script, so I had to redo it according to the script but I still found something wrong and I did it again] (Post-course interview – Student D).

It is interesting that students deliberately practised their pronunciation and fluency before they recorded themselves. One student also prepared the pronunciation of some uncommon words before she recorded herself.

**Example 89** – *Như mấy từ khó mình lên mạng, lên lấy từ điển tra, xong rồi mình tập đọc cách phát âm á thầy* [For some difficult words, I looked up the online dictionary, then I practised pronouncing the words, teacher] (Post-course interview – Student I)

After they were well-prepared for their speech, they tried to rehearse a few times ahead or record many times until they were satisfied with their work.

**Example 90** – *dạ trước khi ghi âm em cũng đọc qua mấy lần trước rồi em mới ghi âm lận thầy* [Before recording, I read a few times, then I recorded, teacher] (Post-course interview – Student I).

**Example 91** – *Em ghi chừng nào em cảm thấy mệt thì em mới hết* [I recorded until I felt tired, then I stopped recording] (Post-course interview – Student D).

During the practice process, students also had the following steps to complete their recordings: planning, practising, recording, and uploading. This finding is in accordance with Huang (2015) who also found that the students followed the same steps in making their recordings. Similarly, Sun (2009) found that students had to follow five main steps namely conceptualizing, brainstorming, articulating, monitoring and evaluating during their voice blogging process.

Students reported that they tried to correct their pronunciation and grammatical mistakes while recording. One student reported that for the first recording, she tried to record thirty times because her mother checked and asked her to redo it to correct her grammatical mistakes and pronunciation.

**Example 92** – *Em nói cái nó sai cái mẹ bảo bỏ bỏ ghi lại đi, nói sai cái mẹ bảo bỏ bỏ ghi lại, em ghi tới 30 lần lận thầy* [I made mistakes and my mother asked me to rerecord, but I made mistakes and my mother asked me to rerecord, I recorded 30 times] (Post-course interview – Student G).

Even when there was some background noise, or they mispronounced some words, they tried to record their sound files again.

**Example 93** – *Dạ như hôm qua có cái tiếng gì á thầy, xong đoạn đấy phải ghi âm lại, thứ hai nữa là có những từ mà mình đọc đến từ đấy mình quên cách phát âm á thầy .... nên phải ghi âm lại* [Yes, for example yesterday when I recorded, there were some background noises, so I had to record again. The second time when I read there were some words, I suddenly forgot their pronunciation.... so I had to do it again] (Post-course interview – Student K).

Besides, in order to make recordings to upload on the closed Facebook group, students spent a large amount of time practising until they felt their pronunciation was correct. They attempted to correct their word pronunciation as well as the pronunciation of final sounds which were one of the most challenging features that Vietnamese learners encountered (Cunningham, 2013). The students practised these features by looking up the words in online dictionaries and trying to imitate the pronunciation.

**Example 94** – *Dạ có lẽ là em tập được nhiều nhiều âm cuối* [Yes, perhaps, I practised the final sounds a lot] (Post-course interview – Student I)

**Example 95** – *Khi nói là em cũng coi mấy cái âm đó phát âm 1 vài từ thôi, với lại 1 vài chỗ có “s” đồ vậy, nhưng khi ghi âm em phát âm qua cái đoạn đấy thấy nó sai sai bị lỗi, nó dở cái em thu lại* [Before I spoke, I checked the pronunciation of some words with ‘s’ but when recording, I found that I mispronounced. It was not good, so I recorded again] (Post-course interview – Student D)

However, if after her best attempts, one of the students could not pronounce the word, she would speak with her Vietnamese accent.

**Example 96** – *Dạ nếu mà dễ thì em có thể sửa, mà nếu khó quá thì em đọc giống tiếng việt mình* [If it was easy I could correct (my pronunciation), but if it was too hard, I just spoke like the Vietnamese] (Post-course interview – student O).

Students practised many times before they recorded their own sound files, or they recorded many times until they felt satisfied with their final sound file before uploading on the closed Facebook group. They also tried to pronounce the words correctly by looking up the online dictionaries. They corrected their final sounds by imitating the native speaker accents.

### 7.2.3 Students' perceived progress after the online course

Students believed that their fluency increased significantly because they rehearsed many times before they could record themselves. Besides, online speaking practice via Skype also enabled them to speak English more fluently than before the course.

**Example 97** – *Chắc là lru loát hơn cái hồi hồi trước khi học đây á thầy* [Perhaps it was more fluent than before the online course] (Post-course interview – Student G).

After the course, students believed that their pronunciation was better because they were able to recall the pronunciation of the word as well as its spelling.

**Example 98** – *Nhờ đó em nhớ cách phát âm và từ nhiều hơn* [Thanks to that I could remember their pronunciation and more words] (Post-course interview – Student O).

Interestingly, one student even compared the pronunciation which she heard from the website with her teacher's pronunciation to see the difference.

**Example 99** – *Dạ nó không có giống với mấy phát âm ở trên thầy cô, có từ giống có từ không* [Yes, it was different from the teacher's pronunciation; some words were similar, but some were not] (Post-course interview – Student O).

Students also had some problems when recording their own files. For the first weeks, some students did not know how to record their files via SoundCloud and they had to ask for help. However, they kept sending the files through Facebook messages although they were trained how to use this digital tool. One of the reasons was that they did not confirm the account by email. Huang (2015) also found that students in his study had some difficulties in using digital tools and they struggled.

Students perceived that their speaking skills improved in terms of fluency and pronunciation because they deliberately practised their pronunciation and fluency when they tried to imitate the accent of the native speaker. They also tried to learn some new vocabulary.

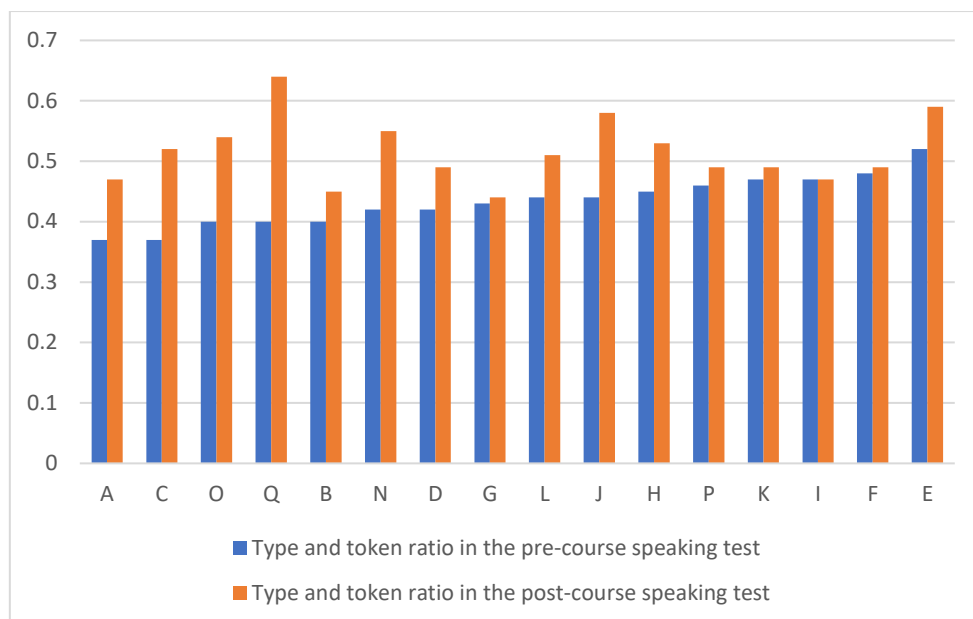
The following Sub-section will analyse the pre- and post-course speaking tests to see whether students developed their speaking skills in terms of lexical, syntactic complexity and fluency.

#### *7.2.4 Results of online speaking practice*

As described in section 4.4.3, speaking tests were employed to compare student speaking skills regarding language complexity and fluency before and after the course. As discussed in section 4.7.3, Housen et al. (2012) described two types of language complexity: grammatical or syntactic complexity and lexical complexity. They suggested that type and token ratio can be used to measure lexical richness and that syntactic structures are one of the indicators of language complexity. In this current study, two criteria – type-token ratio and mean length of utterance – were employed to measure lexical richness and syntactic complexity. In terms of fluency, speech rate before and after the course was compared. Because the main focus of CLT is to enable students to communicate and the primary aim of the course was also to boost students' communicative skills; therefore, accuracy was not measured in this study.

The result showed that students produced higher lexical density in the post-course speaking test compared to the pre-course speaking test. The ratio between the number of word types and the total number of words (tokens) increased from 0.41 (SD = .106) in the pre-course speaking test to 0.52 (SD = .054) in the post-course speaking test. The p value being .002 indicates a statistical significance in terms of lexical density.

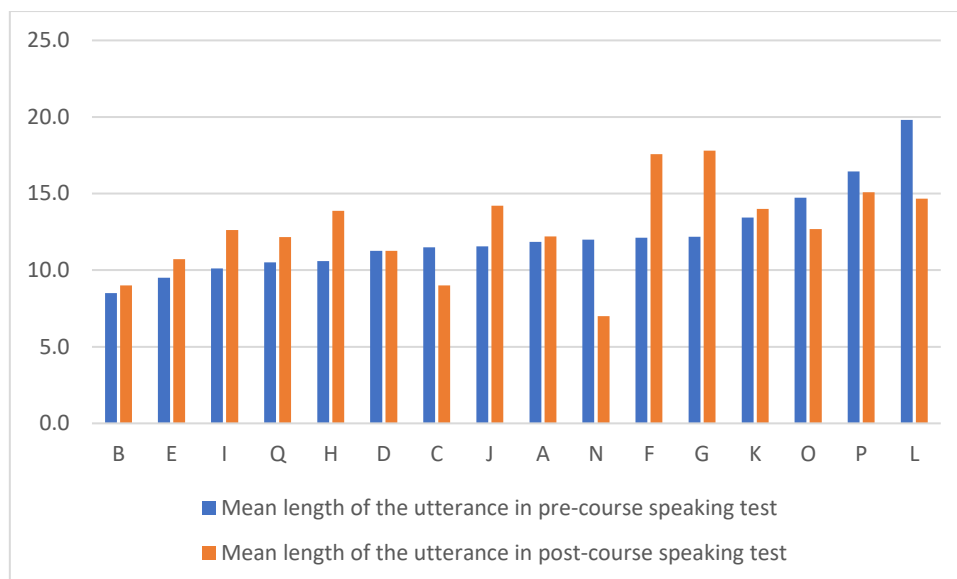
Figure 7.2 shows that more than 80% of the students had higher type-token ratio after the course, which means that students employed more content words than function words in their post-course speaking test and the lexical density increased in the post-course speaking test.



**Figure 7. 2 Comparison of type-token ratio in pre- and post-course speaking tests**

The findings from this current study are different from previous studies (H.-C. Hsu, 2016; Sun, 2012) which reported no progress in students' language complexity regarding vocabulary use. One possible explanation is that students in this study spent their time practising many times and most of them prepared their manuscript before they recorded their own voice; therefore, they had time to select better vocabulary.

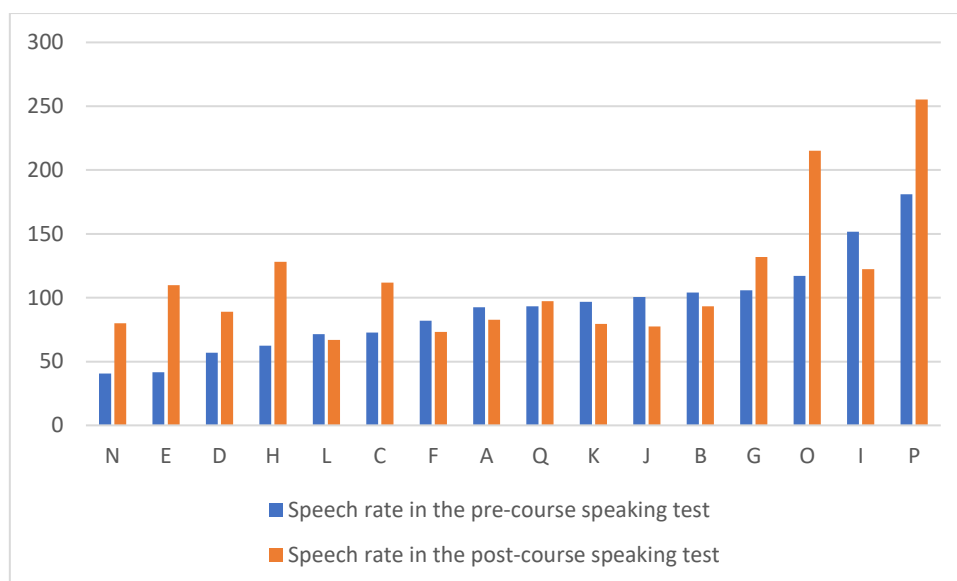
As mentioned in Section 4.7.3, mean length of utterance is one of the measurements of language complexity (Housen et al., 2012). In this current study, mean length of utterance was employed to measure syntactic complexity. The longer the mean length of utterance is, the more complex the language that students were able to use. The findings from this current study showed that the average mean length of utterance did not change between the pre-course and post-course speaking tests, as can be seen in Figure 7.3. No significant difference was found between the mean length of utterances in the pre- and post-course speaking tests; students did not use more complex syntactic structures in their speaking.



**Figure 7. 3 Comparison of mean length of utterances in pre- and post-course speaking tests**

As discussed in 4.7.3, fluency is associated with processing time (Schmidt, 1992). Kormos and Dénes (2004) concluded that speech rate is highly correlated to fluency. The higher the speech rate is, the more fluent the language learners are (Kormos & Dénes, 2004). In the current study, speech rate is employed as an indicator to measure student fluency. The finding indicated that the speech rate also increased from 91.9 syllables per minute to 113.4 syllables per minute. The paired-samples t-test showed a statistically significant difference ( $p = .047$ ) between the pre- and post-course speaking rates.

Figure 7.4 illustrates that more than half of the students had a higher speech rate in the post-course speaking test. It means that students were more fluent in their speaking in the post-course speaking test.



**Figure 7. 4 Comparison of speech rate in pre- and post-course speaking tests**

Findings showed that students progressed in fluency and improved their vocabulary level but not their syntactic complexity. This is in line with previous findings by Sun (2012) who found that students perceived a language improvement, although their post-speaking test showed no improvement in terms of language complexity, fluency and accuracy. Sun (2012) explained that in his study, the course was not long enough to see the difference, or the improvement was not significant enough for the human raters to perceive the changes. Secondly, students in Sun’s study did not practise over the whole semester but waited until the end of the semester and tried to submit all their recordings. On the other hand, H.-C. Hsu (2016) also found that language complexity improved after 15 weeks of voice-blogging, but fluency did not show any changes although H.-C. Hsu (2016) used the number of syllables per minute to measure language fluency, which is similar to the measurement employed in this current thesis. Hsu (2016) explained that development of language complexity was traded off for language fluency. However, in this current study, language complexity did not improve while language fluency advanced. The findings support the assumption that constant output practice leads to less progressing time (Gass & Mackey, 2007). Students’ advancement in vocabulary and fluency could be explained in their reported practice, since they tried to prepare their speech and rehearsed it many times before they recorded it to upload. Secondly, they deliberately tried to learn vocabulary to include in their speaking; as a result, their lexical complexity improved while they did not mention trying to use more complex structures.

### *7.2.5 Speaking summary*

The students reported that they did not have opportunities to practise their speaking skills in class because teachers did not organize free language production activities, focussing instead on presenting language structures. Students supposed that the online course gave them more opportunities to practise English outside the classroom especially when they recorded their own voice. While recording their own voice, students prepared the ideas and practised speaking many times to correct their pronunciation, especially word-final sounds before uploading on the closed Facebook group. The results showed that their speaking skills improved in terms of their lexical complexity and fluency, but not for syntactic complexity. One of the explanations was that the students who volunteered to participate in this course were highly motivated to improve their English skills. Therefore, they prepared carefully and practised many times before they uploaded their recordings. At the end of the course, they were still motivated to record their voices whereas participants in the study by H.-C. Hsu (2016) were discouraged and made shorter recordings at the end of the course. The third reason is that students read from a prepared transcript; therefore, they could make more corrections on their transcript and choose more advanced vocabulary to perform as well as they could.

### *7.3 Writing skills*

As described in section 4.4.3, students were asked to do the pre- and post-course writing test before and after the course. They were requested to write for 30 minutes for each test. All these tests were written with pen and paper. Seventeen students completed both pre-course and post-course writing test. These test results were analysed in terms of language complexity and fluency. As discussed in Sub-section 4.7.3, for language complexity, lexical density with type and token ratio was employed to measure lexical complexity, and the ratio between the number of dependent clauses and the total clauses was used to measure the syntactic complexity. Because both pre- and post-course tests was conducted in 30 minutes, the number of words for pre-and post-writing tests were used for comparison to see whether students were more fluent in their writing after the course. Section 7.3.1. reports on students' opinions about their writing practice in class. Section 7.3.2 explores how students practised their writing skills while participating in the online course. Section 7.3.3 presents perceived progress of the students. Section 7.3.4 compares the results from the pre-course and post-course writing tests to see whether there was any improvement in student writing skills as regards language complexity and fluency. Section 7.3.5 ends with the writing summary.



### 7.3.1 Lack of writing practice in class

Students reported that they did not have enough writing practice in the class. The teacher usually asked students to practise writing at home because there was not enough time in class.

**Example 100** – *Thường đến tiết học viết, cô cho một số từ vựng hoặc cấu trúc câu. Sau đó cô cho như bài tập về nhà để tự viết* [Usually, for writing lesson, the teacher presented some vocabulary or some structures. After that, she asked us to write at home] (Post-course interview – Student C).

One of the students said that his English teacher skipped the writing lesson to present grammar or vocabulary.

**Example 101** – *Cô em ít dạy bài writing lắm thầy, hình như đầu năm đến giờ chưa làm bài nào* [She rarely taught writing skills. Perhaps she had not taught a writing lesson since the beginning of the school year] (Post-course interview – Student F)

To sum up, students did not have enough time for free writing practice in class because the teacher spent time on presenting structures and vocabulary.

### 7.3.2 Students' writing practice in the online course

As students reported that this was a good opportunity for them to have extensive writing practice outside that classroom especially in the context where English is a foreign language.

**Example 102** – *Em được luyện viết nhiều hơn* [I practised more writing] (Post-course interview – Student C)

Students became more motivated to write and they practised writing by looking for information.

**Example 103** – *Em thấy như thầy ra bài tập thì em có động lực để tìm tòi thông tin rồi để làm bài viết, tăng khả năng viết* [When I saw your exercises, I was more motivated to find the information to write, which enhanced my writing] (Post-course interview – Student I).

After students wrote extensively with the given topics and posted their writing on the Facebook closed group during the online course, they felt they could write much better and found it easier to write.

**Example 104** – *Em luyện viết nhiều, nó giúp em viết tốt hơn* [I practised a lot of writing, which helped me write better] (Post-course interview – Student P)

The result can be explained by Swain's output theory (Swain, 1995, 2005) that when language learners produce language more than one time, they automatise their use of forms and become more fluent; therefore, they become familiar with the language and it takes them less time to produce language.

During their writing practice, students initially looked for new ways of expressing ideas. They tried to improve their lexical resources by using Google Translate and translating Vietnamese into English to express their ideas fluently.

**Example 105** – *Có mấy từ em không biết em cũng lên Google dịch miết mà* [For some words I did not know, I used Google Translate] (Post-course interview – Student F).

After finding appropriate vocabulary, students tried to think of their own structures or to find alternative structures online to convey their ideas.

**Example 106** – *Là em lên em tìm mấy cấu trúc để viết ... tùy theo cái topic á thầy* [I searched (on Google) for the structures depending on the topics, Teacher] (Post-course interview – Student I)

To sum up, students were motivated and spent time finding more ideas online to write about. They also tried to find vocabulary, or new structures to express their ideas thoroughly. They practised more writing while participating in the online course.

### 7.3.3 Perceived writing progress

Students felt that their writing improved significantly after the course, much more than the other skills. Besides, they showed a tolerant attitude towards writing.

**Example 107** – *Hiệu quả là em viết được, em chịu khó viết hơn* [The effect was that I could write, and I became more patient to write] (Post-course interview – Student G).

After extensive practice of writing, students became more fluent in their writing and the writing tasks became easier.

**Example 108** – *Dạ có, nhất là... kỹ năng viết á thầy, hồi mấy đợt trước là em sợ cái việc đó, do viết em không đủ cái từ vựng. Do nay do thầy tập viết miết cho nên giờ thấy nó cũng ổn hơn, quen hơn. Thấy nó cũng đơn giản hơn xiu* [Yes, the most was writing skills, Teacher. Before, I felt afraid of that because I did not have enough vocabulary, and because you asked me to write a lot and I found it more normal and familiar. I found it simpler] (Post-interview – Student D).

Students reported that they found it quicker to construct their ideas as well as recalling

vocabulary to write, so they were able to write faster with less repetition in words, more complex structures and more interesting ideas.

**Example 109** – *Em tìm ý tưởng nhanh hơn và viết nhanh hơn* [I could think of ideas faster and write faster] (Post-course interview – Student B).

**Example 110** – *Dạ kỹ năng viết thì em viết em sử dụng đúng cấu trúc hơn, với lại viết tốt hơn, ít bị lặp từ* [Yes, for writing skills I used better structures and wrote better with fewer repeated words] (Post-course interview – Student M).

More importantly, students remembered vocabulary and they could activate their vocabulary quickly for their writing.

**Example 111** – *Em nghĩ em có nhớ từ vựng sau cái đấy* [I recalled vocabulary after that] (Post-course interview – Student G).

Students reported that they remembered structures and used them in their writing. This is consistent with Swain's output theory (Swain, 1995, 2005) which suggests that when language learners write or speak, they notice the linguistic gap between the known and unknown features and try to concentrate on what they do not know in order to express them better in the future.

Students believed that the closed Facebook group helped them because they got feedback from their friends:

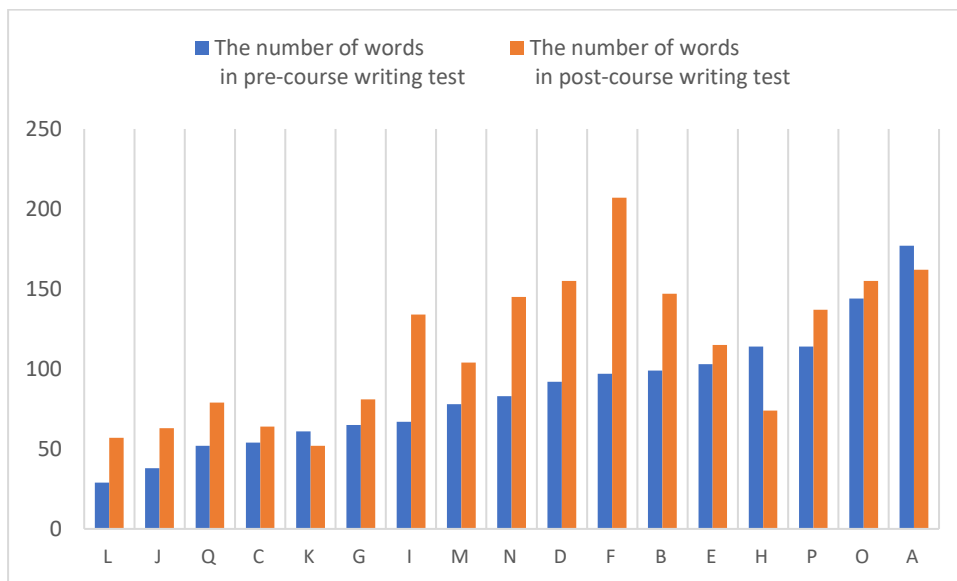
**Example 112** – *Trong nhóm thì tốt thì các bạn cũng có thể thấy cái bài của mình và các bạn có thể góp ý vào cái bài của mình đấy* [In the group, my friends could see my writing and they could give me some feedback] (Post-course interview – Student L)

The students showed positive attitudes towards the online environment. They also reported that they were more motivated to write because they felt that they had an audience to write for. Besides, students reported that that they could get feedback from their peers. Tai, Lin, and Yang (2015) concluded that peer-feedback together with instructor's feedback created better results than only teacher's feedback. Besides peer-feedback motivated the students to write more and more. This is in line with Kabilan and Khan (2012) who found that online peer feedback encouraged pre-service teachers to write more. The following section will examine whether online writing practice leads to the improvement of students' writing skills.

#### 7.3.4 Writing test results

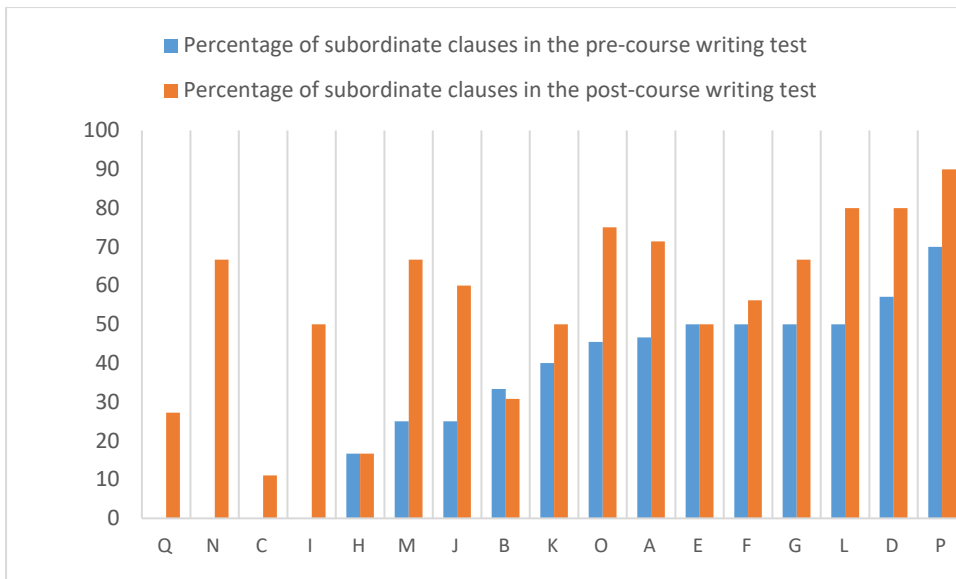
The paired-samples t-test result shows that the difference between the number of words

in student writing in the pre- and post-course tests was statistically significant ( $t = -3.19$ ,  $P < .005$ ). The average number of words increased by more than 30 percent in the post-test ( $M = 113.58$ ,  $SD = 45.7$ ) compared to the pre-test ( $M = 86.29$ ,  $SD = 37.9$ ). Figure 7.5 shows that most of the students (82%) wrote longer texts in the post-course writing test compared to the pre-course writing test. Only three students (18%) wrote shorter texts in the post-course writing test. This means that with the same amount of time, most of the students were able to produce more words and so had become more fluent in their writing skills.



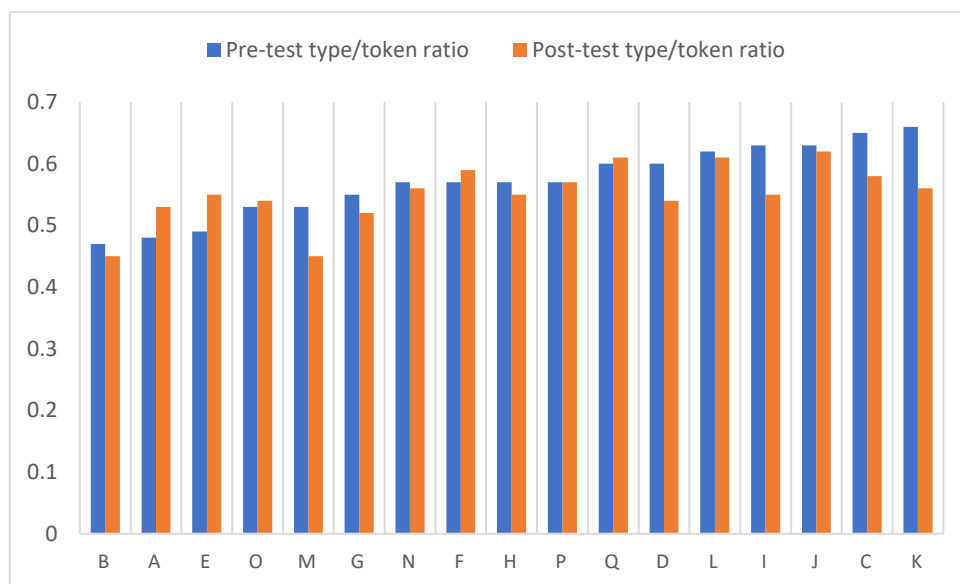
**Figure 7.5 The number of words in pre- and post-course writing tests**

Regarding syntactic complexity, students used a higher ratio of subordinate clauses. The percentage of subordinate clauses increased significantly from 33% to 56% and the paired samples t-test showed a significant difference with  $p < .0001$  and  $t = -5$ . This means that students could employ more complex structures to express their ideas in the post-course writing. Figure 7.6 shows that 82% of the students had more subordinate clauses in their post-course writing test. Only three students (B, E and H) did not make any progress in terms of employing more complex structures.



**Figure 7. 6: Percentage of subordinate clauses in pre-and post-course writing tests**

Regarding lexical diversity, students did not use more diverse vocabulary after the course. A paired-sample t-test showed no significant difference in the type-token ratio before and after the course ( $p$  value = .089). This means that students did not use more diverse vocabulary in the post-test compared to the pre-test. Figure 7.7 shows that the type-token ratio did not change for most students.



**Figure 7. 7: Type/token ratio in pre- and post-course writing tests**

This is in line with the results from Dizon (2016), who found that students from Facebook closed groups could produce longer texts but lexical density went down. It seems that students actively prioritized their syntactic complexity when they were asked to write in a fixed amount of time.

Yen et al. (2015) found that the combination of Facebook wall discussion and synchronous Skype calling resulted in students' advancement in both speaking and writing in terms of language accuracy and complexity. In this current study, both synchronous calls and asynchronous writing on Facebook were employed, and the results showed that students progressed in both writing and speaking in fluency and syntactic complexity.

Similarly, Shih (2011) reported that Facebook group activities could improve students' writing in terms of content structures in a blended learning method using both traditional classes and a Facebook platform. However, the result is contradictory to S. Wang and Camilla (2014), who found that the quality of students' writing did not improve much. Caution is needed to interpret differences between the findings of this current study and that of S. Wang and Camilla (2014). One of the reasons may be different criteria of assessment. S. Wang and Camilla (2014) employed a holistic approach for assessment while this study assessed students' writing more analytically in terms of sentence structures.

#### *7.3.5. Writing summary*

The study investigated the effects of online writing in a closed Facebook group in a six-week online course. The result showed that after six weeks, students became more fluent in their writing because they could write more in the same amount of time in the post-course test compared to the pre-course test. Besides, students' syntactic complexity in writing (more subordinate clauses) progressed. Students reported in the post-course interview that they remembered the vocabulary, and found ideas and structures faster; therefore, they could write faster. The qualitative analysis showed that the closed Facebook group offered opportunities for students to practise extensive writing outside the classroom, which was quite useful in the foreign language context with its time constraint. Therefore, closed Facebook groups could be a good environment for students to get extensive practice outside the classroom.

#### *7.4. Individual variation*

This section presents three individuals in the course, students F, K and H. Student F was the student who actively completed all the assignments and attended all the online Skype discussions, Student K was the student whose attendance was around 70 percent of the course and student H was the one who had the lowest attendance (about 55%) of the 17 students.

##### *7.4.1 Student F*

As described in section 4.4, student F had 7/25 correct answers in the pre-course listening test. His computer skills were not very good. He had difficulties recording his own

voice at the beginning, and problems connecting the sound system to his computer, so he asked for help at the beginning of the course. He felt that his listening skills did not develop much although he often tried to do all the listening assignments to practise his listening skills.

**Example 113** – *Nghe thì vẫn còn kém. Nói chung là cũng đỡ đỡ hơn trước một chút*  
[My listening skills were still bad. In general, they were just a little better than before (the course)] (Post-course interview – Student F).

The post-course listening test showed that his listening skills improved with three more correct answers in the post-course listening test. It can be concluded that his listening skills progressed even if he did not notice it.

The post-course speaking test showed that Student F also progressed in his speaking skills. His type-token ratio in speaking grew from 0.4 to 0.45, which means that he increased his lexical complexity with more content words. The mean length of utterance rose from 8.5 to 9, which indicated that his language complexity developed in the post-course speaking test. However, fluency did not show any improvement as his speech rate declined by nearly 11 words per minutes. In the post-course interview, he reported that his speaking skills did not improve much.

**Example 114** – *Thấy chắc tốt hơn 1 chút* [(I) thought it improved a little bit] (Post-course interview – Student F)

However, he recorded his speech more than two times to practise pronunciation.

**Example 115** – *Phát âm sai thì phải ghi âm lại. Lỡ phát âm sai 1 từ thì phải ghi âm lại*  
[I mispronounced a word, I had to record it again] (Post-course interview – Student F).

**Example 116** – *Chắc cũng cải thiện được mà đôi khi phát âm sai cũng có* [Perhaps it improved but sometimes, I made some pronunciation mistakes] (Post-course interview – Student F)

However, when he mispronounced words many times, he felt downheartened and he did not correct his pronunciation mistakes.

**Example 117** – *Nhưng mà có mấy cái phát âm miết mà nó cứ sai miết, nản quá, nản, thôi bỏ luôn* [However, when I made the same mistakes many times, I gave up] (Post-course interview – student F).

He reported that he tried to find new words to include in his speech.

**Example 118** – *Ở đây thì cũng đôi khi cũng lên Google dịch kiếm mấy cái từ mình không biết* [Here sometimes I tried to access Google to translate the words that I did not know] (Post-course interview – student F).

What he reported about his practice could explain his progress in his speaking skills. He deliberately looked for new vocabulary online. That was why his lexical complexity improved after the online course. One more explanation for his decrease in fluency may be that he might have been focusing too much on correcting his pronunciation. Besides, he also improved his syntactic complexity which may have slowed his speech rate down. Compared to the whole class, he was distinctive because other students did not improve their syntactic complexity as he did. Perhaps, he was motivated to learn new words and structures and tried to apply them in his speaking. Besides, he tried to fix his pronunciation mistakes; therefore, he lost his fluency in speaking.

Regarding writing skills, Student F showed some improvement. He improved his writing fluency because he wrote 197 words in the post-course writing test which was 100 more words than in the pre-course writing test (97 words). He wrote more than any other of the 17 students. He showed less improvement in terms of language complexity. The percentage of subordinate clauses in his post-course writing test increased by 6% compared to the pre-course writing test. He also showed a little progress in lexical complexity when his type-token ratio increased from 0.57 in the pre-course writing test to 0.59 in the post-course writing test. He reported that his writing practice enabled him to be more fluent, and he was able to write better.

**Example 119** – *Nó giúp em có khả năng viết tốt hơn* [It (the online course) helped me improve my writing skills] (Post-course interview – Student F).

One of the reasons why he could produce longer text was that he could remember more words.

**Example 120** – *Em nghĩ em có nhớ từ vựng sau đó* [I think it helped me remember vocabulary after that] (Post-course interview – Student F).

In summary, student F perceived that his listening improved a little and the post-course listening test supported his report. He found the sound files difficult to understand. That was why he could not improve his listening skills much. For speaking skills, he developed his lexical and syntactic complexity while his fluency decreased. One possible explanation was that he tried to learn new words and structures to incorporate them into his speaking which may have slowed him down. On the other hand, he developed his writing skills in terms of language



complexity and fluency. It can be concluded that his regular practice paid off in his advancement in three skills: speaking, listening and writing.

#### 7.4.2 Student K

**Student K** was average in the groups in terms of her assignment submission (73%) and online Skype attendance (93%). Her perceived progress was also consistent with her actual performance in the test. Student K reported that her listening skills developed slightly because she did not fully understand the sound files uploaded to the closed Facebook group. Before the course, her pre-course listening skills were not very good. She only had three correct answers out of 25 questions. She had three more correct answers in the post-course listening test than in the pre-course listening test.

**Example 121** – *Thầy, kĩ năng nghe em cải thiện chút chút* [Teacher, my listening skills improved a little] (Post-course interview – Student K).

One reason why she did not understand the listening test was that her listening skills were very low at the beginning. Although the test was designed to test elementary level, she only scored 3 out of 25 questions. This showed that her pre-course listening skills were below the elementary level. Therefore, she did not fully understand the sound file because all the sound files were at elementary level.

Regarding speaking skills, the post-course test showed that her lexical complexity improved when her type-token ratio increased from 0.47 to 0.49. However, her fluency decreased from 96.8 words per minute to 79.5 words per minute. Her mean length of utterance rose slightly from 13 to 13.4 words. The post-course speaking test results were consistent with her perception that her speaking skills also improved a little.

**Example 122** – *Dạ cũng chút chút* [Yes, it improved a little bit] (Post-course interview – Student K)

She reported that she had worked on her pronunciation and vocabulary.

**Example 123** – *Dạ, nhưng mà nhờ vậy tại em cũng phát âm nhiều, nhớ được cái từ đấy nhiều* [Due to the course, I practiced more pronunciation, remembering more words] (Post-course interview – Student K)

Student K reported that she tried to correct her pronunciation, but it was too difficult, although she believed she became more fluent after a lot of practice.

**Example 124** – *Dạ, dạ nói nhiều lần tự nhiên nó lưu loát lại à thấy* [Yes, after speaking many times, I became more fluent] (Post-course interview – Student K)

Maybe Student K concentrated on her pronunciation, thus slowing her speech in the post-course speaking test. She reported in the interview that she could remember more vocabulary and her post-course speaking test indicated that she had developed her lexical complexity. Similar to student F, her fluency was affected by her increased language complexity in her speaking skills.

The proportion of subordinate clauses increased from 40% to 50% in Student K's post-course writing, which indicates that she increased the syntactic complexity of her writing. However, the other two criteria for writing, such as lexical diversity in terms of the type-token ratio and the number of words written, did not develop. Her post-course writing test was 52 words long compared to 61 words in the pre-course writing test, and her type-token ratio in the post-course writing test was 0.56 compared to 0.66 in her pre-course writing test.

She supposed that her writing skills improved the most because, while doing her work, she tried to learn more words, and she tried to correct her sentence structures

**Example 125** – *Bởi vì em là em có thể kiểm tra, rồi sửa rồi chú ý cấu trúc câu...* [Because I looked for vocabulary, then corrected sentence structures...] (Post-course interview – Student K)

Although she reported that she tried to find more words to incorporate in her writing, the post-course writing test did not show any improvement in terms of lexical complexity. On the other hand, she stated that she tried to use more structures, and her post-course writing test showed that she had increased her syntactic complexity.

In summary, student K improved her listening skills just a little because the sound recordings used were too difficult for her. Her listening at the beginning was lower than elementary level. As regards her speaking skills, her syntactic and lexical complexity developed while her fluency did not. Concerning her writing skills, she improved her structural complexity, but her fluency and lexical complexity decreased.

#### 7.4.3 Student H

**Student H** was the student who made the least progress. She had difficulties in dealing with technology. For the first two weeks, she sent her sound files through Facebook voice messaging. Her participation was also very low. She attended 65% of the online course and did 85% of the assignments. Of the three skills assessed, she only improved her speaking skills

while listening and writing did not change. Regarding her listening skills, her listening scores in the pre- and post-course listening tests were the same, with 8 correct answers out of 25 questions. One of the reasons for her unchanged score was that she did not do the listening assignments.

**Example 126** – *Em cũng lười biếng nên hầu như bài tập nghe em bỏ, em không có làm* [I was also lazy, so I did not do the listening assignments] (Post-course interview – Student H)

. The result from this student suggests a causal relationship between the students' (lack of) participation and their (lack of) progress in the language skills.

Student H believed that her speaking skills improved. The speaking test showed that her type-token ratio increased from 0.45 to 0.53, which meant that she improved in terms of lexical complexity. Her speech rate also climbed from 62.35 to 65.73 words per minute. Her mean length of utterances also went up from 10.6 to 13.9 word per utterance. One of the reason is that she was interested in speaking and she practised her speaking skills. She also perceived that her speaking improved.

**Example 127** – *Em luyện tập được khả năng nói của mình* [I practised my speaking skills] (Post-course interview – Student H)

She perceived that both her online speaking practice via Skype and her recording contributed to her speaking development because every time she recorded sound files, she prepared the ideas and practised until she was fluent in her speaking.

**Example 128** – *Em được tập nói với các bạn trên Skype và em cũng luyện nói bằng cách ghi âm* [I could practise speaking with friends on Skype and I also practised by recording my voice] (Post-course interview – Student H).

**Example 129** – *Em thường ghi ra giấy, sau đó tập và ghi âm. Đến khi em thấy lưu loát em mới nộp cho thầy* [I often wrote down what I wanted to say and practiced before recording until I felt fluent and recorded myself] (Post-course interview – Student H).

However, her writing skills did not improve. She even wrote fewer words in the post-course writing test. She only had 74 words in her post-course writing test compared to 114 in her pre-course writing test. The percentage of complex sentences remained the same with 17% in both pre-and post-course writing test. Her type-token ratio decreased from 0.57 to 0.55. The post-course interview showed that she only practised at the beginning of the course.

**Example 130** – *Lúc đầu em có viết vài bài nhưng lúc gần kết thúc khóa em hơi lười viết nên em nghĩ kĩ năng viết không cải thiện được thầy* [At the start, I wrote some paragraphs, but towards the end of the course, I did not practise writing anymore, so, I don't think I improved my writing skills] (Post-course interview – Student H).

In summary, the results from the special individual showed that there was a relationship between the amount of time students practiced and both their perceived progress and actual language skill improvement. Student E tried to complete all the assignments and attended all the online discussions. As a result, his post-course tests in speaking, listening and writing developed significantly. Student H did not practise writing and listening; therefore, her writing and listening did not improve at all. On the other hand, she was interested in speaking and tried to complete all the assignments, and she improved her speaking skills in terms of language complexity and fluency. The results were similar to those in previous studies (Cheng & Chau, 2016; Ko, Park, Yu, Kim, & Kim, 2016; Romanov & Nevgi, 2008) in that participation was closely related to learning outcomes. Romanov and Nevgi (2008) found that the number of messages posted by students and their messages replies were associated with students' achievement in an online course. Cheng and Chau (2016) also pointed out that students' interactions and use of technology to develop their own works highly correlated with their achievement.

## *7.5 Chapter discussion*

The finding indicated that when students had extensive practice they improved their language skills such listening, speaking and writing. This section discusses about learning beyond the classroom and communicative language teaching in the online environment where students were allowed to have free language production.

### *7.5.1 Learning beyond the classroom*

Students showed high agency when they participated in many online activities to supplement their classwork. Students also improved their language skills when they had extensive practice online. They also reported that they did some online activities, and these activities enabled them to develop their language skills. They advanced in terms of listening, speaking and writing. This is in line with previous studies about extramural English when Sylvén and Sundqvist (2012) found that there was a strong correlation between the amount of time 11-12 years-olds in Sweden spent on online computer games and their language proficiency. The more time students played online computer games, the better their English

was. Sundqvist (2009) pointed out that students were more motivated to study English when teachers incorporated informal English from online computer games into the classroom. Curtis (2015) described how a child learned English through watching Pokemon. Curtis (2015) suggested that videos and cartoons could be suitable for young learners. Coxhead and Bytheway (2015) suggested that online role-play games and *TED Talks* could give students plenty of opportunities for input so that they noticed the language in use. In addition, online games can be a meaningful output. They also give ample opportunities to practise fluency (Coxhead & Bytheway, 2015). Findings from this current study confirmed that the online environment could offer students variety of opportunities to practise their language skills. Students could gain exposure to different recordings, interact with the content or other people and created plenty of language outside the classroom. When students are in the online environment, they can engage in some meaningful input or output. The following section discusses more about communicative language learning.

#### *7.5.2 Communicative language learning and teaching*

The study employed CLT to deliver the content of the online course. Students were allowed to write freely on a suggested topic. They were also able to present their speech on a given topic by making recordings. No grammar was taught in the course; accuracy was not the focus of the online course. The activities in the course were like the free language production stage in the PPP model. As students reported, these activities offered them opportunities to practise language outside the classroom and supplemented their school work. As discussed in section 3.3, students did not have opportunities for free language production in the classroom (G. V. Nguyen, 2013); therefore, the online activities could be used as free language production to supplement classroom work. Students were interested in the communicative language teaching on the online course when they could have free language production. This is in line with high school students in Bosnia (Eroz & Akbarov, 2016) who were reported as being engaged in communicative activities.

The results illustrated that students advanced their language skills after a six-week course when they were able to have free language production. This is similar to findings by Mehta (2015) who investigated Grade-8 students learning English using CLT in India, and found that students progressed their language proficiency after the fifteen-day intervention. Similarly, Ahmed and Bidin (2016) found that university students improved their writing skills with TBLT. The experimental group outperformed the control group in terms of fluency and

accuracy. Ismaili (2013) also found that university students in Macedonia progressed their speaking skills when they were taught with TBLT.

The findings from the current study indicated that when students were given more exposure to language input outside the classroom and had the opportunity for free language production they were able to develop their language skills, especially their fluency and complexity. It is notable that students in this current study were able to improve their speaking and writing in terms of fluency and accuracy after six weeks of having free language production.

### *7.6 Chapter summary*

To sum up, students reported that they had opportunities to practise their listening, speaking, and writing skills in the course. The post-course listening test results showed that students progressed in their listening ability after the six-week online course. As regards speaking skills, most students progressed in terms of fluency (in that the post-course speaking test showed higher speech rate than pre-course speaking test). Students also used more diverse vocabulary (in that the type-token ratio in the post-course speaking test was statistically greater than in pre-course speaking tests. However, the mean length of utterance did not change much, which meant that students did not use more complex syntactic structures in their speaking. The post-course interview showed that students spent time preparing their speech before they recorded themselves. They tried to correct their pronunciation. They perceived that they became more fluent and remembered more words in their speaking. In terms of writing skills, the post-course writing test showed that students became fluent in their writing in that they could write much longer texts in the post-course writing test than in the pre-course writing test. The difference in the percentage of subordinate clauses between the pre-course and post-course writing was found to be statistically significant. However, no lexical difference was found in terms of the type-token ratio between the pre- and post-course writing test, which meant that students did not improve concerning their lexical use in writing. The post-course interview showed that students spent time looking for structures to express their ideas and they believed that they became more fluent in their writing after they had practised writing a lot.

Students improved fluency in both speaking and writing when they had more practice. These findings are in line with Swain's output theory (Swain, 2005), in that the more students practised, the less time they needed to process. In this current study, students practised more speaking and writing, they became more used to writing and speaking and they could then write

and speak faster. However, the development of language complexity was different in speaking and writing skills. While students did not show any improvement in terms of syntactic complexity in their speaking skills, they wrote more subordinate clauses. On the other hand, students developed their lexical complexity in their speaking skills but their lexical complexity in writing remained the same.

## Chapter 8: CONCLUSION

The current study sought to answer the questions of how high school students used digital technology for language learning; whether a six-week online communicative course would result in any effects on student's proficiency in their English; and how students experienced the communicative online course especially regarding the relationship between their willingness to communicate and their self-presentation. The following conclusions could be drawn from the study.

### *8.1 High school students' use of technology for language learning*

The majority of the students had access to either personal computers, mobile phones or other digital tools, and they could connect to the internet either at school or at home. Students employed technology for social and educational purposes; in particular, they utilized technology for their independent study. For social purposes, students posted their Facebook status, commented on their friends' photos, and communicated with their relatives.

Digital technology was also used for educational purposes on different levels. Students used social media to share school-related information, such as meetings and learning resources. Besides, students tried to find online materials, such as extra grammar exercises to supplement their school textbooks. They demonstrated considerable agency when they actively participated in online forums to ask for support from their peers or took part in online courses. In addition, they found and viewed online videos as reference resources to understand the lessons in the classroom better. Students spontaneously used digital tools to find and learn new vocabulary and new structures to express their ideas. They also used conferencing tools to have conversations with foreigners. These young Vietnamese high school students were not prepared to wait for their teacher to lead the way in the use of technology, or for their examination system to begin assessing real proficiency. They took control of their own learning, pragmatically applying their everyday digital practices to their learning, intuitively understanding that they needed extensive input of spoken and written English and opportunities to use the language in interaction to develop their proficiency as well as to perform well in the language examination they were preparing for.

For communication, students also used technology to communicate with their peers and teachers. With peers, they preferred more synchronous communication such as text chat, voice chat or video calls while they wanted to employ more asynchronous communication such as e-mail to communicate with their teachers.



They believed that technology helped them study better because they could find more materials or work collaboratively with their friends. They reported that technology enhanced their motivation. However, they sometimes found it distracting, because they spent too much time watching videos or commenting on their friends' Facebook pages. Besides, students reported that their teachers did not use much digital technology in their teaching of English. These teachers only used PowerPoint while students expected their teachers to use a wider range of technology.

### *8.2 Willingness to communicate and self-presentation*

Students in this current study were more or less willing to communicate, depending on the means of communication. Students perceived that asynchronous text chat was the least face-threatening environment because they had time to think about their responses or to find more information for their answers. In addition, in the text chat environment, students revealed the least social cues about themselves, and they had the highest controllability. With voice synchronous communication, students became more nervous than in text chat but not as much as in synchronous video chat. The synchronous video chat was perceived as the most face-threatening environment in the online environment, at a level similar to class. It can be concluded that WTC is closely related to the social presence in the online environment. The more social presence students showed, the less willing they were to communicate. It was also true with the asynchronous online environment. While students recorded their voice, they also perceived that the voice recording was much less face-threatening than video-recording.

### *8.3 Effects of the course*

Students lacked opportunities for speaking, listening and writing in their usual English lessons. They believed that online learning could compensate for the time constraint in the classroom by offering opportunities for extensive practice to improve their listening, speaking, and writing skills. In addition, accessing online material and social media offered them more chances to be exposed to authentic materials with different accents.

After six weeks in the online course, students showed progress in the three skills that were assessed: listening, speaking and writing. For listening, most of the students showed improvement because they reported that they tried to listen to sound files uploaded on a closed Facebook group. For writing, students showed advancement in fluency in that they could write longer texts within the same amount of time in the post-course writing test. Their writing also progressed in terms of structural complexity in that they produced a greater proportion of

subordinate clauses after practising writing online. However, although students reported that they tried to find new words to express their ideas, the result from the post-course writing test showed that their lexical density remained the same. In summary, students advanced their syntactic complexity and fluency while the lexical complexity of their writing did not show any development.

Concerning speaking, the lexical complexity of students' voice recordings showed an increase in type-token ratio. This may be because students spent a lot of time on practising speaking. They tried to correct their pronunciation mistakes and diversify vocabulary while they practised speaking via voice recordings. Students believed that online voice recording would help them improve their speaking skills especially fluency and pronunciation. Students did not show any change in terms of syntactic structures, but they showed improvement in fluency and their type-token ratio increased.

It is interesting that students showed development in terms of lexical complexity for speaking but syntactic complexity for writing. Maybe, students had more time to employ more complex structures with their writing. Students also showed advancement of fluency in both speaking and writing.

The detailed description of three students showed that there was a causal relationship between students' participation, their perceived progress and their actual post-test scores. Students who reported that they did not practise listening skills did not show any advancement in their listening skills. Students who had the highest attendance and completed all the assignments improved the most among seventeen students investigated. Likewise, a student who completed her assignment averagely only improved a little. One student only did her speaking assignment and her post-course tests showed that she only progressed in her speaking skills while other skills did not show any change. To sum up, learners' participation has a correlation with language skill advancement.

#### *8.4. Theoretical implications*

Students did not perceive that the online environment was less inhibiting or a safer environment in which to express themselves than face-to-face classroom situations, which is what other studies concluded. Instead, students' WTC varied with the level of social presence of the online context. The more social presence students experienced, the less willing they were to communicate. The online environment was only seen to be safer when students were able to regulate social cues. For example, students would share more information with text chat or

voice chat compared to the face-to-face environment while video chat was perceived to be just as face-threatening as the face-to-face classroom. This could explain why students tried to minimize the social presence experienced in communicative situations at the beginning of the course by avoiding video. From the students' perspective, the kinds of communicative activities they were asked to carry out in the online course were a considerable step up from their regular face-to-face English class, with its minimal emphasis on communicative skills due to the washback from the upcoming summative assessment of knowledge of grammar and academic writing. This study offers support for the inverse relationship between social presence and WTC suggested in Cunningham (2011). If learners experience foreign language anxiety they will try to avoid face-threatening situations and avoid using the foreign language in public. The more public the situation, the less comfortable it will be for the anxious learner. Reducing social presence and its accompanying perceived exposure to potential criticism or ridicule by minimizing the social cues given by the learner will lessen their anxiety and can be expected to increase their WTC.

### *8.5 Pedagogical implications*

The findings have some pedagogical implications for the use of digital technology in second language teaching and learning especially for language teachers, principals, textbook writers and materials developers.

#### *8.5.1 Implications for language teachers*

Students used digital technology for educational purposes, especially learning English outside the classroom. Students also believed that technology enabled them to access online materials and information, so that they could study better. However, a few students still had some difficulties in using technology and had difficulties in finding appropriate materials. Therefore, these students could be guided to use technology for their independent learning outside the classroom and limit their misuse of technology. For example, students could be put into closed Facebook groups and English materials could be uploaded into the group. Besides, teachers could suggest some appropriate materials and guide students to learn online more effectively. The findings showed that students passively consumed online materials and did not create them; therefore, they could be encouraged to create their own online materials such as making videos, voice recording or writing paragraphs.

The findings also suggest that online practice resulted in advancement of language skills in terms of language complexity and fluency. The findings may suggest that the online

environment could be a supplementary channel where students could practise their language skills outside the classroom especially in the context where English is spoken as a foreign language and explicit grammar teaching tends to be very common (V. C. Le, 2012; G. V. Nguyen, 2014b). For example, teachers could ask students to record their voice and upload to the closed Facebook group. By doing this, teachers could create an environment where students could have extensive practice outside the classroom as well as interacting with their peers in an online environment. Students also could have more language input (Krashen, 1985) by listening and reading more materials online or write with a suggested topics to have more language output (Swain, 1995). Besides, they could have more interactions in the online environment outside the classroom.

In addition, it is necessary to evaluate and reward students' online extensive practice so that they could be more motivated to learn in the online environment. Moreover, credits should be given to the feedback that students give each other. As students reported that they could record many times and tried to correct their pronunciation, teachers could not only credit their digital activities for their online works but also their efforts they put into revising and editing their works to motivate students better.

#### *8.5.2 Implications for principals*

The findings showed that students believed digital technology enabled them to have more opportunities to learn outside the classroom; therefore, the principals should encourage teachers to use more digital technology in their teaching. Kafyulilo, Fisser, and Voogt (2016) figured out that teachers did not use technology when there was lack of support from school management. Therefore, principals or school administrators should encourage teachers to use technology both inside the classroom and outside the classroom. For example, school administrators can reward teachers when they initiate to use digital technology for their teaching. Besides, Hur, Shannon, and Wolf (2016) found that teacher's confidence in using digital technology was correlated with their actual use of technology for teaching; therefore, the principal could organize workshops for teachers about how to use technology so that they could upgrade their technological skills and become more confident in using digital technology. As Khlaif (2018) pointed out that technical support and infrastructure influenced teachers' use of technology, more funds could be allocated to buying more digital devices for teachers to use.

### *8.5.3 Implications for textbook writers and curriculum designers*

The implications can be useful for designing curriculum and writing textbooks for students. The curriculum designers should incorporate some sections in which students could use digital technology to complete their activities. Besides, there should be a national website where students could have supplementary materials relating to the textbook so that they could engage with their learning activities outside class. These kinds of materials could enable students to develop their learner autonomy. Besides, the website could allow students to create different sub-groups to have more interaction with other students to create a community and learn from each other (Swan, 2002). Moreover, students could interact with the content from the website. Furthermore, the website should be designed in such a way that students could upload their own materials into the websites so that they may take an active role in their learning process (Mao, 2014).

### *8.6 Limitations*

The study only investigated a small sample size within a district in a small province in Vietnam. Data collected did not represent the whole population of high school students in Vietnam; therefore, it cannot be generalized. Instead the study could be a model for language teachers to apply technology in their teaching practice.

This study is not an experimental study to compare between the control and the experimental group. This study only compares students' progress before and after the course. The course also employed communicative language teaching as a main teaching approach, which was different from what students learned every day at school. They were mainly taught by their teachers, using the grammar translation approach. As a result, the interpretation of the findings could be confounded by the course introducing two new factors: an online environment and a communicative approach. The study could not conclude whether the CLT approach or the online environment affected students' willingness to communicate or their motivation to do their work in the online environment.

In addition, the students in this study volunteering to take part in the online course on the closed Facebook group were highly motivated to learn English, and they tried their best to do all the activities in the course; however, on a larger scale, students may not be strongly motivated; therefore, in real classroom practice, online extensive practice may be better as part of the ongoing formative assessments so that students would be more motivated to complete their assignments.

The findings showed that language proficiency improved significantly. However, although language skills are assessed separately in this study, they do not develop independently of each other. Progress in one skill might be difficult to distinguish from progress in other skills because students were practising three different skills: listening, speaking, and writing, at the same time during the online course. Secondly, the online course included both asynchronous assignments and synchronous discussions; therefore, it cannot be established that either one or the other had a stronger effect on students' progress. Thirdly, the improved performance of the speaking test may be less strong because of the limitations in collecting data. The recordings of the pre-course and post-course speaking tests were made and submitted to the Facebook closed groups by students; therefore, they might practise either the pre-course speaking test or post-course speaking test more than the other.

Some students had some difficulties in understanding the recording although they tried their best. One of the explanations is that students' listening level might be lower than the recording. Therefore, to these students, listening to the recording in the online course is not an extensive listening practice, in which students listen for information and to be more fluent in their listening skills. More appropriate materials could have been chosen by letting students have vocabulary tests at the beginning of the course.

#### *8.7 Recommendations for further research*

The study only investigated a small sample size within a single district in a small province in Vietnam. Data collected did not represent the whole population of high school students in Vietnam; therefore, more research would need to be conducted to see different areas in Vietnam with a bigger sample size and in other areas (e.g. urban areas) to have an overview of Vietnamese students' use of and beliefs about digital technology.

Participants in this current study were all from a developing country with a Confucian culture. They were inhibited in their face-to-face classroom context and had low self-confidence. More studies should be carried out to see whether these advantages would also hold for western students where students are more active in teaching and learning.

Although the study showed some positive preliminary results about students' L2 performance in speaking, especially their language complexity and fluency, it only investigated a small number of students for a short period of time (6 weeks), so the result could not be generalized. Besides, this study only examined the students' improvement in terms of language complexity and fluency without analysing language accuracy. More studies could be conducted

to measure students' accuracy while learning online. In addition, the results added to the mixed findings in the literature about extensive online practice in speaking, listening and writing. Some previous studies (Sun, 2012) showed that students did not progress while other studies (H.-C. Hsu, 2016; Yen et al., 2015) showed that students improved their language complexity.

Moreover, students who volunteered to participate in the study were highly motivated and they tried to improve their English skills. The future study could be conducted in a larger scale with larger number of students who are in classes which consist of both highly motivated and less motivated students to see whether there is any progress in their language skills after extensive practice such as extensive online listening, voice-recording or online writing.

In this current study, it was not possible to conclude that the development of one skill resulted in the advancement of the other skills because the sample size was small. More studies should be conducted with each skill each time to know exactly how each skill could be improved if students were asked to practise extensively online or to find out how the development of language skills interacts.

In addition, teachers' use of and beliefs about technology have not been studied thoroughly although the government policy suggests that teachers should employ more technology. More empirical data about how teachers should use technology inside and outside the classroom is needed so that administrators and policy makers could write appropriate policy for both language teachers and students.

### *8.8 Concluding remarks*

The study showed that students used digital tools for both social and educational purposes. In particular, students used digital technology for their independent study such as finding more materials, learning online or participating in the online forum.

When students took part in the online course, they showed that they were more willing to communicate with text chat, but less willing with voice chat. Video chat was the most face-threatening in the online environment. The more students showed their social presence, the less willing they were to communicate. This was true for both synchronous and asynchronous communication.

The online course showed that students advanced their listening skills after six-week online course. They improved their fluency in both speaking and writing. However, they only developed their language syntactic complexity for writing, but not for lexical density while on

the other hand, they advanced their lexical range in their speaking but not for syntactic complexity.



## REFERENCES

- Absalom, M., & Rizzi, A. (2008). Comparing the outcomes of online listening versus online text-based tasks in university level Italian L2 study. *ReCALL*, 20(01), 55-66.
- Ahmed, R. Z., & Bidin, S. J. B. (2016). The effect of task based language teaching on writing skills of EFL learners in Malaysia. *Open Journal of Modern Linguistics*, 6(03 ), 207-218.
- Alexa. (2016). How popular is facebook.com? Retrieved from <http://www.alex.com/siteinfo/facebook.com>
- Alm, A. (2013). Extensive listening 2.0 with foreign language podcasts. *Innovation in Language Learning and Teaching*, 7(3), 266-280.
- Alwi, N. A. N. M. (2015). Language learning performance using engineering-based tasks via text chat. In M. Thomas & H. Reinders (Eds.), *Contemporary task-based language teaching in Asia* (pp. 193-210). London: Bloomsbury Publishing Plc.
- Amos, C. (2011). Future proofing English by harnessing writing online of the power. *English in Aotearoa* 75, 15-19.
- Anusienė, L., & Kavaliauskienė, G. (2009). English for specific purposes: Podcasts for listening skills. *Santalka: Filologija, Edukologija*, 17(2), 28-37.
- Bani-Hani, N. A., Al-Sobh, M. A., & Abu-Melhim, A. H. (2014). Utilizing Facebook groups in teaching writing: Jordanian EFL students' perceptions and attitudes. *International Journal of English linguistics*, 4(5), 27-34.
- Baran-Lucarz, M. (2014). The link between pronunciation anxiety and willingness to communicate in the foreign-language classroom: The Polish EFL context. *Canadian Modern Language Review*, 70(4), 445-473.
- Beckman, K., Bennett, S., & Lockyer, L. (2014). Understanding students' use and value of technology for learning. *Learning, Media and Technology*, 39(3), 346-367.
- Beretta, A., & Davies, A. (1985). Evaluation of the Bangalore project. *ELT Journal*, 39(2), 121-127.
- Brown, A. V. (2009). Students' and teachers' perceptions of effective foreign language teaching: A comparison of ideals. *The Modern Language Journal*, 93(1), 46-60.
- Brown, H. D., & Lee, H. (2015). *Teaching by principles: An interactive approach to language pedagogy* (4th ed.). White Plains, NY: Pearson Education.
- Burt, M. (1999). *Using video with adult English language learners*. ERIC Digest Retrieved from [http://www.cal.org/caela/esl\\_resources/digests/video.html](http://www.cal.org/caela/esl_resources/digests/video.html).
- Canale, M., & Swain, M. (1980). Theoretical bases of communicative approaches to second language teaching and testing. *Applied Linguistics*, 1(1), 1-47.
- Canning-Wilson, C. (2000). Practical aspects of using video in the foreign language classroom6(11). Retrieved from <http://iteslj.org/Articles/Canning-Video.html>
- Cao, Y. (2011). Investigating situational willingness to communicate within second language classrooms from an ecological perspective. *System*, 39(4), 468-479.
- Caplan, S. E. (2006). Relations among loneliness, social anxiety, and problematic Internet use. *Cyberpsychology & behavior*, 10(2), 234-242.

- Chang, A. C., & Millett, S. (2013). The effect of extensive listening on developing L2 listening fluency: Some hard evidence. *ELT Journal*, 68(1), 31-40.
- Chang, A. C., & Millett, S. (2016). Developing L2 listening fluency through extended listening-focused activities in an extensive listening programme. *RELC Journal*, 47(3), 349-362.
- Charmaz, K. (2006). *Constructing grounded theory: A practical guide through qualitative research*. London: SagePublications Ltd.
- Chen, T. (2003). Reticence in class and on-line: Two ESL students' experiences with communicative language teaching. *System*, 31(2), 259-281.
- Cheng, G., & Chau, J. (2016). Exploring the relationships between learning styles, online participation, learning achievement and course satisfaction: An empirical study of a blended learning course: Online participation and learning achievement. *British Journal of Educational Technology*, 47(2), 257-278.
- Chomsky, N. (1965). *Aspects of theory of syntax*. Cambridge, MA: MIT Press.
- Chotipaktanasook, N., & Reinders, H. (2016). Willingness to communicate in social media: An investigation of the long-term effects. *Asia EFL Journal*, 18(4), 6-25.
- Chou, C., & Pi, S. (2015). The effectiveness of Facebook groups for e-learning. *International Journal of Information and Education Technology*, 5(7), 477-482.
- Clément, R., Baker, S. C., & MacIntyre, P. D. (2003). Willingness to communicate in a second language: The effects of context, norms, and vitality. *Journal of Language and Social Psychology*, 22(2), 190-209.
- Cobb, T. (2004). The Compleat Lexical Tutor8(3). Retrieved from <http://tesl-ej.org/ej31/m2.html>
- Creswell, J. W. (2014). *Research design: Qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods approaches*. London: SAGE Publications.
- Criado, R. (2013). A critical review of the presentation-practice-production model (PPP) in foreign language teaching. In R. Monroy (Ed.), *Homenaje a francisco gutiérrez díez* (pp. 97-115). Murcia: Edit.um.
- Crook, C., Fisher, T., Graber, R., Harrison, C., Lewin, C., Cummings, J., . . . Sharples, M. (2008). *Implementing Web 2.0 in secondary schools: Impacts, barriers and issues*. Retrieved from <http://dera.ioe.ac.uk/1478/>
- Cunningham, U. (2011). Liminality and disinhibition in online language learning. *The International Review of Research in Open and Distributed Learning*, 12(5), 27-39.
- Cunningham, U. (2013). Teachability and learnability of English pronunciation features for Vietnamese-speaking learners. In Waniek-Klimczak E & Shockey LR (Eds.), *Teaching and researching English accents in native and non-native speakers* (pp. 3-14). Berlin Heidelberg: Springer Verlag.
- Cunningham, U., Fägersten, K. B., & Holmsten, E. (2010). "Can you hear me, Hanoi?" Compensatory mechanisms employed in synchronous net-based English language learning. *The International Review of Research in Open and Distributed Learning*, 11(1), 161-177.
- Dang, T. T. (2010). Learner autonomy in EFL studies in Vietnam: A discussion from sociocultural perspective. *English Language Teaching*, 3(2), 3-10.

- Dang, X. T., Nicholas, H., & Lewis, R. (2012). Factors affecting ubiquitous learning from the viewpoint of language teachers: A case study from Vietnam. *Ubiquitous Learning: An International Journal*, 4(2), 57-68.
- Dizon, G. (2016). A comparative study of Facebook vs. paper-and-pencil writing to improve L2 writing skills. *Computer Assisted Language Learning*, 29(8), 1249-1258.
- Do, H. T. (2006). *The role of English in Vietnam's foreign language policy: A brief history*. Paper presented at the the 19th Annual EA Education Conference. <http://www.englishaustralia.com.au>
- Donlan, L. (2012). Exploring the views of students on the use of Facebook in university teaching and learning. *Journal of Further & Higher Education*, 38(4), 572-588.
- Dörnyei, Z. (2007). *Research methods in applied linguistics: Quantitative, qualitative, and mixed methodologies*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Dube, S., & Scott, E. (2017). A survey of the university students' perspectives about using digital technologies in education: Zimbabwean case. *IAFOR Journal of Education*, 5(1), 123-140.
- Durrani, H. (2016). Attitudes of undergraduates towards grammar translation method and communicative language teaching in EFL context: A case study of SBK women's university Quetta, Pakistan. *Advances in Language and Literary Studies*, 7(4), 167-172.
- Eddy-U, M. (2015). Motivation for participation or non-participation in group tasks: A dynamic systems model of task-situated willingness to communicate. *System*, 50, 43-55.
- Eid, M. I., & Al-Jabri, I. M. (2016). Social networking, knowledge sharing, and student learning: The case of university students. *Computers & Education*, 99, 14-27.
- Ellis, R. (2003). *Task-based language learning and teaching*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Ellis, R. (2004). Individual differences in second language learning. In A. Davies & C. Elder (Eds.), *The handbook of applied linguistics* (pp. 525-551). Oxford: Blackwell Publishing Ltd.
- Eroz, E., & Akbarov, A. A. (2016). The implementation of communicative language teaching (CLT) in an EFL context: A case study of learners' attitudes and perceptions. *Modern Journal of Language Teaching Methods*, 6(3), 351-356.
- Ewert, D., & Mahan, R. (2012). Extensive listening in a self-access learning environment. In *selected proceedings of the 2011 Michigan Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages Conference* (pp. 24-40).
- Fewkes, A. M., & McCabe, M. (2012). Facebook: Learning tool or distraction? *Journal of Digital Learning in Teacher Education (International Society for Technology in Education)*, 28(3), 92-98.
- Freiermuth, M., & Huang, H. (2015). Employing online chat to resolve task-based activities: Using online chat to promote cultural language exchange between Japanese and Taiwanese learners. In M. Thomas & H. Reinders (Eds.), *Contemporary task-based language teaching in Asia* (pp. 211-227). London: Bloomsbury Academic.
- Freiermuth, M., & Jarrell, D. (2006). Willingness to communicate: Can online chat help? . *International Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 16(2), 189-212.

- Fuente, D. L. M. J. (2014). Learners' attention to input during focus on form listening tasks: The role of mobile technology in the second language classroom. *Computer Assisted Language Learning*, 27(3), 261-276.
- Garrison, D. R., Anderson, T., & Archer, W. (2000). Critical inquiry in a text-based environment: Computer conferencing in higher education. *The Internet and Higher Education*, 2(2), 87-105.
- Gass, S. M., & Mackey, A. (2007). Input, interaction, and output in second language acquisition. In B. VanPattern & J. Williams (Eds.), *Theories in second language acquisition: An introduction* (pp. 175-199). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.
- Gosper, M., McKenzie, J., Pizzica, J., Malfroy, J., & Ashford-Rowe, K. (2013). Students' experiences and expectations of technologies survey: An Australian study designed to inform planning and development decisions. *Australasian Journal of Educational Technology*, 29(2), 268-282.
- Gosper, M., McKenzie, J., Pizzica, J., Malfroy, J., & Ashford-Rowe, K. (2014). *Student use of technologies for learning—what has changed since 2010?* Paper presented at the Ascilite 2014, Dunedin, New Zealand.
- Green, T., Wilhelmsen, T., Wilmots, E., Dodd, B., & Quinn, S. (2016). Social anxiety, attributes of online communication and self-disclosure across private and public Facebook communication. *Computers in Human Behavior*, 58, 206-213.
- Gunawardena, C. N., & Zittle, F. J. (1997). Social presence as a predictor of satisfaction within a computer-mediated conferencing environment. *American Journal of Distance Education*, 11(3), 8-26.
- Hamid, S., Waycott, J., Kurnia, S., & Chang, S. (2015). Understanding students' perceptions of the benefits of online social networking use for teaching and learning. *The Internet and Higher Education*, 26, 1-9.
- Hanafiyeh, M. (2015). A comparative study of the effect of grammar translation method and communicative language teaching on Iranian lower-intermediate EFL learners' language proficiency. *Modern Journal of Language Teaching Methods*, 5(4), 334-344.
- Hang, P. T. T. (2009). Impacts of Vietnam's social context on learners' attitudes towards foreign languages and English language learning: Implications for teaching and learning. *Asian EFL Journal*, 11(4), 169-188.
- Hew, K. F., & Cheung, W. S. (2012). Use of Facebook: A case study of Singapore students' experience. *Asia Pacific Journal of Education*, 32(2), 181-196.
- Hoang, V. V. (2010). The current situation and issues of the teaching of English in Vietnam. *立命館言語文化研究*, 22(1), 7-18.
- Hoang, V. V., Phan, H., Hong, T. H. H., Hoang, T. X. H., Kieu, T. T. H., Vu, T. L., . . . Chung, T. Q. (2014). *Tiếng Anh 11 - Tập một*: Vietnam Education Publisher- Ministry of Education and Training and Pearson Education Cooperation.
- Hostetter, C., & Busch, M. (2013). Community matters: Social presence and learning outcomes. *Journal of the Scholarship of Teaching and Learning*, 13(1), 77-86.
- Housen, A., Kuiken, F., & Vedder, I. (2012). *Dimensions of L2 performance and proficiency: Complexity, accuracy and fluency in SLA*. Amsterdam: John Benjamins Pub. Co.

- Howatt, A. (1984). *A history of language teaching*. Oxford, England: Oxford University Press.
- Hsu, H.-C. (2016). Voice blogging and L2 speaking performance. *Computer Assisted Language Learning*, 29(5), 968-983.
- Hsu, H.-Y., Wang, S.-K., & Comac, L. (2008). Using audioblogs to assist English-language learning: An investigation into student perception. *Computer Assisted Language Learning*, 21(2), 181-198.
- Huang, H.-c. (2015). From web-based readers to voice bloggers: EFL learners' perspectives. *Computer Assisted Language Learning*, 28(2), 145-170.
- Hubbard, P. (2004). Learner training for effective use of CALL. In S. Fotos & C. Browne (Eds.), *New perspectives on CALL for second language classrooms* (pp. 45-68). New Jersey: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Hur, J. W., Shannon, D., & Wolf, S. (2016). An investigation of relationships between internal and external factors affecting technology integration in classrooms. *Journal of Digital Learning in Teacher Education*, 32(3), 105-114.
- Hymes, D. (1972). On communicative competence. In J. B. Pride & J. Holmes (Eds.), *Sociolinguistics* (pp. 269-293). Harmondsworth, England: Penguin.
- Ismaili, M. (2013). *The effectiveness of the task-based learning in developing students' speaking skills in academic settings on the EFL classroom-A study conducted at South East European University (SEEU)*. Paper presented at the Albania International Conference on Education.
- Jaime Osorio, M. F., & Insuasty, E. A. (2015). Analysis of the teaching practices at a Colombian foreign language institute and their effects on students' communicative competence. *How*, 22(1), 45-64.
- Joe, H.-K., Hiver, P., & Al-Hoorie, A. H. (2017). Classroom social climate, self-determined motivation, willingness to communicate, and achievement: A study of structural relationships in instructed second language settings. *Learning and Individual Differences*, 53(1), 133-144.
- Johansson, V. (2009). Lexical diversity and lexical density in speech and writing: A developmental perspective. *Working Papers in Linguistics*, 53, 61-79.
- Joinson, A. N. (2001). Self-disclosure in computer-mediated communication: The role of self-awareness and visual anonymity. *European Journal of Social Psychology*, 31(2), 177-192.
- Joinson, A. N. (2007). Disinhibition and the Internet. In J. Gackenbach (Ed.), *Psychology and the Internet: Intrapersonal, interpersonal, and transpersonal implications* (2nd ed., pp. 75-92). Laguna Hills CA: Elsevier Science.
- Jones, J. (2001). CALL and the responsibilities of teachers and administrators. *ELT Journal*, 55(4), 360-367.
- Kabilan, M. K., & Khan, M. A. (2012). Assessing pre-service English language teachers' learning using e-portfolios: Benefits, challenges and competencies gained. *Computers & Education*, 58(4), 1007-1020.
- Kafyulilo, A., Fisser, P., & Voogt, J. (2016). Factors affecting teachers' continuation of technology use in teaching. *Education and Information Technologies*, 21(6), 1535-1554.

- Kang, D.-M. (2014). The effects of study-abroad experiences on EFL learners' willingness to communicate, speaking abilities, and participation in classroom interaction. *System*, 42, 319-332.
- Kang, S.-J. (2005). Dynamic emergence of situational willingness to communicate in a second language. *System*, 33(2), 277-292.
- Karimi, M., & Biria, R. (2017). Evaluating instructional efficacy of communicative language teaching: The case of high schools in Isfahan. *Modern Journal of Language Teaching Methods*, 7(1), 176-194.
- Khlaif, Z. (2018). Teachers' perceptions of factors affecting their adoption and acceptance of mobile technology in K-12 settings. *Computers in the Schools*, 35(1), 49-67.
- Kiesler, S., Zubrow, D., Moses, A. M., & Geller, V. (1985). Affect in computer-mediated communication: An experiment in synchronous terminal-to-terminal discussion. *Human-Computer Interaction*, 1(1), 77-104.
- Ko, J. W., Park, S., Yu, H. S., Kim, S.-J., & Kim, D. M. (2016). The structural relationship between student engagement and learning outcomes in Korea. *The Asia-Pacific Education Researcher*, 25(1), 147-157.
- Kormos, J., & Dénes, M. (2004). Exploring measures and perceptions of fluency in the speech of second language learners. *System*, 32(2), 145-164.
- Krashen, S. (1985). *The input hypothesis: Issues and implications*. Boston: Addison-Wesley Longman Ltd.
- Kuo, C.-H. (2008). Designing an online writing system: Learning with support. *RELC Journal*, 39(3), 285-299.
- Lai, C., Wang, Q., & Lei, J. (2012). What factors predict undergraduate students' use of technology for learning? A case from Hong Kong. *Computers & Education*, 59(2), 569-579.
- Lai, C., Yeung, Y., & Hu, J. (2016). University student and teacher perceptions of teacher roles in promoting autonomous language learning with technology outside the classroom. *Computer Assisted Language Learning*, 29(4), 703-723.
- Lapidot-Lefler, N., & Barak, A. (2015). The benign online disinhibition effect: Could situational factors induce self-disclosure and prosocial behaviors? *Cyberpsychology: Journal of Psychosocial Research on Cyberspace*, 9(2). doi:<https://cyberpsychology.eu/article/viewFile/4335/3402>
- Larsen-Freeman, D. (2003). *Techniques and principles in language teaching*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Le, H. T. (2013). ELT in Vietnam general and tertiary education from second language education perspectives. *VNU Journal of Foreign Studies*, 29(1), 65-71.
- Le, V. C. (2011). *Form-focused instruction: A case study of Vietnamese teachers' beliefs and practices*. (PhD thesis), The University of Waikato, Hamilton, New Zealand.
- Le, V. C. (2012). A theory-practice divide: EFL teachers' and students' beliefs about grammar instruction. *English Australia Journal*, 27(2), 34-49.
- Lee, M. W. (2014). Will communicative language teaching work? Teachers' perceptions toward the new educational reform in South Korea. *Indonesian Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 3(2), 1-17.

- Leier, V. M. (2016). "just facebook me" *A study of the use of Facebook in a German language course at a tertiary institution in New Zealand*. (PhD thesis), The University of Canterbury, Christchurch, New Zealand.
- Li, J., Snow, C., & White, C. (2015). Urban adolescent students and technology: Access, use and interest in learning language and literacy. *Innovation in Language Learning and Teaching, 9*(2), 143-162.
- Littlewood, W. (1981). *Communicative language teaching: An introduction*. Cambridge, England: Cambridge University Press.
- Liu, N.-F., & Littlewood, W. (1997). Why do many students appear reluctant to participate in classroom learning discourse? *System, 25*(3), 371-384.
- Liu, S. (2015). Reflections on communicative language teaching and its application in China. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies, 5*(5), 1047.
- Long, M. H. (1996). The role of the linguistic environment in second language acquisition. In W. Ritchie & T. Bhatia (Eds.), *Handbook of second language acquisition* (pp. 413-468). San Diego: Academic Press.
- Lu, J., Hao, Q., & Jing, M. (2016). Consuming, sharing, and creating content: How young students use new social media in and outside school. *Computers in Human Behavior, 64*, 55-64.
- Ly, T. H., & Ab Jalil, H. (2013). Attitudes towards ICT integration into curriculum and usage among university lecturers in Vietnam. *International Journal of Instruction, 6*(2), 53-66.
- MacIntyre, P. D., Baker, S. C., Clément, R., & Conrod, S. (2001). Willingness to communicate, social support and language-learning orientations of immersion students. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition, 23*(3), 369-388.
- MacIntyre, P. D., Baker, S. C., Clément, R., & Donovan, L. A. (2003). Sex and age effects on willingness to communicate, anxiety, perceived competence, and L2 motivation among junior high school French immersion students. *Language Learning, 52*(3), 137-166.
- MacIntyre, P. D., Dornyei, Z., Clement, R., & Noels, K. A. (1998). Conceptualizing willingness to communicate in a L2: A situational model of L2 confidence and affiliation. *The Modern Language Journal, 82*(4), 545-562.
- Madge, C., Meek, J., Wellens, J., & Hooley, T. (2009). Facebook, social integration and informal learning at university: 'It is more for socialising and talking to friends about work than for actually doing work'. *Learning, Media and Technology, 34*(2), 141-155.
- Mao, J. (2014). Social media for learning: A mixed methods study on high school students' technology affordances and perspectives. *Computers in Human Behavior, 33*, 213-223.
- Margaryan, A., Littlejohn, A., & Vojt, G. (2011). Are digital natives a myth or reality? University students' use of digital technologies. *Computers & Education, 56*(2), 429-440.
- Mathieson, K., & Leafman, J. S. (2014). Comparison of student and instructor perceptions of social presence. *Journal of Educators Online, 11*(2), 1-27.

- McCroskey, J. C., & Baer, J. E. (1985). *Willingness to communicate: The construct and its measurement*. Paper presented at the The Annual Meeting of the Speech Communication Association, Denver.
- Mehta, N. K. (2015). Communicative approach in learning English language: Effectiveness at middle school level (with special reference to government middle school of Ujjain city in the state of Madhya Pradesh, India). *Speech and Context*, 1(7), 113-123.
- Melchor-Couto, S. (2018). Virtual world anonymity and foreign language oral interaction. *ReCALL*, 1-18.
- Michels, B. J., & Chang, C.-W. (2011). Attending a presentation at a distance in real-time via Skype. *TechTrends*, 55(1), 23-27. doi:10.1007/s11528-011-0465-0
- Miyazoe, T., & Anderson, T. (2010). Learning outcomes and students' perceptions of online writing: Simultaneous implementation of a forum, blog, and wiki in an EFL blended learning setting. *System*, 38(2), 185-199.
- National Foreign Languages 2020 Project. (2015). Retrieved from <http://dean2020.edu.vn/>
- Nazari, A., & Tabatabaei, O. (2016). Effects of task-based vs. explicit teaching of grammar on learning conditional sentences among Iranian EFL learners. *Modern Journal of Language Teaching Methods*, 6(9), 164-179.
- Ngoc, K. M., & Iwashita, N. (2012). A comparison of learners' and teachers' attitudes toward communicative language teaching at two universities in Vietnam. *University of Sydney Papers in TESOL*, 7(2), 25-49.
- Nguyen, G. V. (2013). *Orienting to pedagogical innovation: A case study of Vietnamese teachers' beliefs and practices regarding task-based language teaching*. (PhD thesis), The University of Waikato, Hamilton, New Zealand.
- Nguyen, G. V. (2014a). *Constraints in innovation implementation: Vietnamese English teachers' perspectives*. Paper presented at the National/International Academic and Research Conference on "Management Movements in Transitional Period Towards ASEAN Community", Nakhon Phanom University, Thailand.
- Nguyen, G. V. (2014b). Forms or meaning? Teachers' beliefs and practices regarding task-based language teaching: A Vietnamese case study. *The Journal of Asian TEFL*, 11(1), 71-96.
- Nguyen, N. H. (2013). *National Foreign Languages 2020 Project*. Paper presented at the Vietnam Engineering Education Conference, Can Tho University.
- Nguyen, V. L. (2011a). *Computer-mediated collaborative learning in a Vietnamese tertiary EFL context: Process, product, and learners' perceptions* (PhD thesis), Massey University, Palmerston North, New Zealand.
- Nguyen, V. L. (2011b). Learners' reflections on and perceptions of computer mediated communication in a language classroom: A Vietnamese perspective. *Australasian Journal of Educational Technology*, 27(8), 1413-1436.
- O' Bryan, A., & Hegelheimer, V. (2007). Integrating CALL into the classroom: The role of podcasting in an ESL listening strategies course. *ReCALL*, 19(2), 162-180.
- Obradović, N., & Pavlović, D. (2015). *Youtube as a resource for continuous education of journalism students*. Paper presented at the Conference proceedings of e-Learning and Software for Education, Universitatea Nationala de Aparare, Serbia.



- Ockert, D. M. (2014). The influence of technology in the classroom: An analysis of an iPad and video intervention on JHS students' confidence, anxiety, and FL WTC. *JALT CALL Journal*, 10(1), 49-68.
- Odom, L. (2010). Mapping Web 2.0 benefits to known best practices in distance education. *An online learning magazine for University of Maryland University College Faculty Center for Support of Instruction*.
- Parker, M. D., & Brorson, K. (2005). A comparative study between mean length of utterance in morphemes (MLUm) and mean length of utterance in words (MLUw). *First language*, 25(3), 365-376.
- Passig, D., & Schwartz, G. (2007). Collaborative writing: Online versus frontal. *International Journal on E-Learning*, 6(3), 395-412.
- Pawlak, M., & Mystkowska-Wiertelak, A. (2015). Investigating the dynamic nature of L2 willingness to communicate. *System*, 50, 1-9.
- Peeraer, J., & Petegem, P. V. (2010). Factors influencing integration of ICT in higher education in Vietnam. *Proceedings of the Global Learn Asia Pacific*. Retrieved from [http://www.vvob.be/vietnam/files/SubmissionGlobalLearnJP\\_v2.pdf](http://www.vvob.be/vietnam/files/SubmissionGlobalLearnJP_v2.pdf)
- Peng, J.-E. (2012). Towards an ecological understanding of willingness to communicate in EFL classrooms in China. *System*, 40(2), 203-213.
- Pham, C. (2016). Identifying sociocultural influences on high school students' motivation to learn English in rural areas in Vietnam. *New Zealand Studies in Applied Linguistics*, 22(1), 5-20.
- Pierce, T. (2009). Social anxiety and technology: Face-to-face communication versus technological communication among teens. *Computers in Human Behavior*, 25(6), 1367-1372.
- Pop, A., Tomuletiu, E. A., & David, D. (2011). EFL speaking communication with asynchronous voice tools for adult students. *Procedia-Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 15, 1199-1203.
- Qian, K., & McCormick, R. (2014). Building course cohesion: The use of online forums in distance Chinese language learning. *Computer Assisted Language Learning*, 27(1), 44-69.
- Rahman, M. S. (2015). Do teachers and students want CLT? A study of Bangladesh college teachers' and students' perception of CLT. *International Journal of English Language Teaching*, 3(7), 8-21.
- Rao, Z. (2002). Chinese students' perceptions of communicative and non-communicative activities in EFL classroom. *System*, 30(1), 85-105.
- Rasheed, M. M. H. A. (2011). *Communicative language teaching (CLT) in Bangladesh: Effectiveness and enhancements*. (MEd thesis), University of Canterbury. School of Teacher Education.
- Reinders, H., & Wattana, S. (2015). Affect and willingness to communicate in digital game-based learning. *ReCALL*, 27(01), 38-57.
- Renandya, W. A., & Farrell, T. S. C. (2011). 'Teacher, the tape is too fast!' Extensive listening in ELT. *ELT Journal*, 65(1), 52-59.

- Rice, L., & Markey, P. M. (2009). The role of extraversion and neuroticism in influencing anxiety following computer-mediated interactions. *Personality and Individual Differences, 46*(1), 35-39.
- Richards, J. C., & Rodgers, T. (2001). *Approaches and methods in language teaching*. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.
- Richardson, J., & Swan, K. (2003). Examining social presence in online courses in relation to students' perceived learning and satisfaction. *Journal of Asynchronous Language Networks, 7*(1), 68-88.
- Richardson, J. W., Nash, J. B., & Flora, K. L. (2014). Unsystematic technology adoption in Cambodia: Students' perceptions of computer and internet use. *International Journal of Education and Development using Information and Communication Technology, 10*(2), 63-76.
- Rodrigo, V. (2017). Quantifying comprehension gains after repeated listening by students of Spanish with different listening ability: An exploratory study. *Journal of Spanish Language Teaching, 4*(1), 35-48.
- Romanov, K., & Nevgi, A. (2008). Student activity and learning outcomes in a virtual learning environment. *Learning Environments Research, 11*(2), 153-162.
- Rourke, L., Anderson, T., Garrison, D. R., & Archer, W. (1999). Assessing social presence in asynchronous text-based computer conferencing. *Journal of Distance Education, 14*(2), 50-71.
- Samuda, V., & Bygate, M. (2008). *Tasks in second language learning*: Palgrave Macmillan.
- Savignon, S. J., & Wang, C. (2003). Communicative language teaching in EFL contexts: Learner attitudes and perceptions. *IRAL, 41*(3), 223-250.
- Schmidt, R. (1992). Psychological mechanisms underlying second language fluency. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition, 14*(4), 357-385.
- Selwyn, N., & Gorard, S. (2016). Students' use of Wikipedia as an academic resource—Patterns of use and perceptions of usefulness. *The Internet and Higher Education, 28*, 28-34.
- Shao, Q., & Gao, X. A. (2016). Reticence and willingness to communicate (WTC) of East Asian language learners. *System, 63*, 115-120.
- Sheldon, P. (2008). The relationship between unwillingness-to-communicate and students' Facebook use. *Journal of Media Psychology, 20*(2), 67-75.
- Shepherd, R.-M., & Edelman, R. J. (2005). Reasons for internet use and social anxiety. *Personality and Individual Differences, 39*(5), 949-958.
- Shih, R.-C. (2010). Blended learning using video-based blogs: Public speaking for English as a second language students. *Australasian Journal of Educational Technology, 26*(6), 883-897.
- Shih, R.-C. (2011). Can Web 2.0 technology assist college students in learning English writing? Integrating Facebook and peer assessment with blended learning. *Australasian Journal of Educational Technology, 27*(5), 829-845.
- Short, J., Williams, E., & Christie, B. (1976). *The social psychology of telecommunications*. Toronto: ON : Wiley.

- Silvia, C., Guilia, F., & Scott, C. (2015). Online disinhibition: Precursors and outcomes. *Journal of Media Psychology, 27*(4), 170-177.
- Skehan, P. (1996). A framework for the implementation of task-based instruction. *Applied Linguistics, 17*(1), 38-62.
- Skehan, P., & Foster, P. (1999). The influence of task structure and processing conditions on narrative retellings. *Language Learning, 49*(1), 93-120.
- Strachan, R., & Aljabali, S. (2015). *Investigation into undergraduate international students' use of digital technology and their application in formal and informal settings*. Paper presented at the 12th International Conference on Cognition and Exploratory Learning in Digital Age.
- Suler, J. (2004). The online disinhibition effect. *Cyberpsychology & Behavior, 7*(3), 321-326.
- Sun, Y.-C. (2009). Voice blog: An exploratory study of language learning. *Language Learning & Technology, 13*(2), 88-103.
- Sun, Y.-C. (2012). Examining the effectiveness of extensive speaking practice via voice blogs in a foreign language learning context. *Calico Journal, 29*(3), 494-506.
- Sundqvist, P., & Olin-Scheller, C. (2013). Classroom vs. extramural English: Teachers dealing with demotivation. *Language and Linguistics Compass, 7*(6), 329-338.
- Supharatypthin, D. (2014). Developing students' ability in listening and speaking English using the communicative approach of teaching. *International Journal of Arts & Sciences, 7*(3), 141.
- Swain, M. (1995). Three functions of output in second language learning. In G. Cook & B. Seidlhofer (Eds.), *Principles and practice in applied linguistics* (pp. 125-144). Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Swain, M. (2005). The output hypothesis: Theory and research. In E. Hinkel (Ed.), *Handbook of research in second language teaching and learning* (pp. 471-483). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Swan, K. (2002). Building learning communities in online Courses: The importance of interaction. *Education, Communication & Information, 2*(1), 23-49.
- Swanson, J. A., & Walker, E. (2015). Academic versus non-academic emerging adult college student technology use. *Technology, Knowledge and Learning, 20*(2), 147-158.
- Sylvén, L. K., & Sundqvist, P. (2012). Gaming as extramural English L2 learning and L2 proficiency among young learners. *ReCALL, 24*(3), 302-321.
- Tai, H.-C., Lin, W.-C., & Yang, S. C. (2015). Exploring the effects of peer review and teachers' corrective feedback on EFL students' online writing performance. *Journal of Educational Computing Research, 53*(2), 284-309.
- Tay, E., & Allen, M. (2011). Designing social media into university learning: Technology of collaboration or collaboration for technology? *Educational Media International, 48*(3), 151-163.
- Thurlow, C., Lengel, L., & Tomic, A. (2004). *Computer mediated communication*. London, UK: Sage Publications.
- Tidwell, L. C., & Walther, J. B. (2002). Computer-mediated communication effects on disclosure, impressions, and interpersonal evaluations: Getting to know one another a bit at a time. *Human Communication Research, 28*(3), 317-348.

- Tu, C.-H., & McIsaac, M. (2002). The relationship of social presence and interaction in online classes. *The American Journal of Distance Education*, 16(3), 131-150.
- Tuoi Tre News. (2015). Facebook now has 30 million monthly active users in Vietnam. Retrieved from <http://tuoitrenews.vn/society/28733/facebook-now-has-30-million-monthly-active-users-in-vietnam>
- University of Cambridge. (2006). *Key English Test 4*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Vietnam National Institute for Educational Sciences. (2011). Competency framework for English language teachers: User's guide. Retrieved from <http://dean2020.edu.vn/news/Hoc-lieu/Competency-Framework-for-English-Language-Teachers-User-s-Guide-307/>
- Vietnamese Government. (2008). *Decision on the approval of the project entitled "Teaching and learning foreign languages in the national education system, period 2008-2020"*. (Decision 1400/QD-TTg). Hanoi: Vietnamese Government.
- Walther, J. B. (1996). Computer-mediated communication: Impersonal, interpersonal, and hyperpersonal interaction. *Communication Research*, 23(1), 3-43.
- Wang, S.-K., Hsu, H.-Y., Campbell, T., Coster, D. C., & Longhurst, M. (2014). An investigation of middle school science teachers and students use of technology inside and outside of classrooms: Considering whether digital natives are more technology savvy than their teachers. *Educational Technology Research and Development*, 62(6), 637-662.
- Wang, S., & Camilla, V. (2014). The effect of target language use in social media on intermediate-level Chinese language learners' writing performance. *Calico Journal*, 31(1), 78-102.
- Wang, Y., Niiya, M., Mark, G., Reich, S. M., & Warschauer, M. (2015). *Coming of age (digitally): An ecological view of social media use among college students*. Paper presented at the Proceedings of the 18th ACM Conference on Computer Supported Cooperative Work & Social Computing.
- Warschauer, M. (1998). Online learning in sociocultural context. *Anthropology & Education Quarterly*, 29(1), 68-88.
- Wattana, S. (2013). *Talking while playing: The effects of computer games on interaction and willingness to communicate in English*. (unpublished PhD thesis), University of Canterbury, Christchurch, New Zealand.
- Weidman, A. C., Fernandez, K. C., Levinson, C. A., Augustine, A. A., Larsen, R. J., & Rodebaugh, T. L. (2012). Compensatory internet use among individuals higher in social anxiety and its implications for well-being. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 53(3), 191-195.
- Wheeler, S., Yeomans, P., & Wheller, D. (2008). The good, the bad and the wiki: Evaluating student-generated content for collaborative learning. *British Journal of Educational Technology*, 39(6), 987-995.
- Widodo, H. P., & Rozak, R. R. (2016). Engaging student teachers in collaborative and reflective online video-assisted extensive listening in an Indonesian initial teacher education (ITE) context. *Electronic Journal of Foreign Language Teaching*, 13(2), 229-244.

- Wilkins, D. A. (1972). *Linguistics in language teaching*. Cambridge MA: MIT Press.
- Winke, P., & Goertler, S. (2008). Did we forget someone? Students' computer access and literacy for CALL. *Calico Journal*, 25(3), 482-509.
- Yanguas, I., & Flores, A. (2014). Learners' willingness to communicate in face-to-face versus oral computer-mediated communication. *The JALT CALL Journal*, 10(2), 83-103.
- Yen, Y.-C., Hou, H.-T., & Chang, K. E. (2015). Applying role-playing strategy to enhance learners' writing and speaking skills in EFL courses using Facebook and Skype as learning tools: A case study in Taiwan. *Computer Assisted Language Learning*, 28(5), 383-406.
- Yunus, M. M., & Salehi, H. (2012). The effectiveness of Facebook groups on teaching and improving writing: Students' perceptions. *International Journal of Education and Information Technologies*, 6(1), 87-96.
- Zarrinabadi, N. (2014). Communicating in a second language: Investigating the effect of teacher on learners' willingness to communicate. *System*, 42, 288-295.
- Zhao, H., Sullivan, K. P., & Mellenius, I. (2014). Participation, interaction and social presence: An exploratory study of collaboration in online peer review groups. *British Journal of Educational Technology*, 45(5), 807-819.
- Zhong, Q. M. (2013). Understanding Chinese learners' willingness to communicate in a New Zealand ESL classroom: A multiple case study drawing on the theory of planned behavior. *System*, 41(3), 740-751.

## APPENDIX 1: QUESTIONNAIRE FOR HIGH SCHOOL STUDENTS

### Part 1: Demographic information

#### Gender

- Male
- Female

#### Your school

- Luong Van Chanh
- Nguyen Hue
- Tran Quoc Tuan
- Duy Tan
- Tran Suyen

### Part 2 - Use of technologies

Select all that apply

	Desktop or laptop computer	Tablet (eg iPad)	Smartphone (eg iPhone,)	Other device with internet access (eg games )
What computing equipment do you have <b>access</b> to (select all that apply)?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Which computing equipment has access to the internet (select all that apply)	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Which equipment do you <b>often use for your study</b> (select all that apply)?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

**2a. Outside of school, how often do you currently use the following technologies in your everyday life for social and work purposes (ie for purposes NOT associated with learning)?**

	Never or Rarely	A few times a MONTH	A few times a WEEK	One or more times a DAY
Instant messaging (eg, Yahoo, ICQ, Viber, Zalo)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Email	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Collaborative / conferencing technologies (eg Skype, Facetime, Viber, Facetime, Zalo)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Facebook	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Twitter and other social networking sites (eg zingme.vn, Instagram)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Blogs	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Wikis (eg Wikipedia)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Online multi-user computer games (eg World of Warcraft, Everquest)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Software to create audio/video materials (eg Audacity, iMovie, smartphone)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Presentation software (eg PowerPoint, KeyNote, Prezi)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Data analysis software (eg spreadsheets and databases)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Writing software (Google docs)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Cloud storage (Google drive, dropbox)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
e-portfolios (eg a webspaces that supports your social, educational, professional activities)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Photo or video sharing on the web (eg YouTube, Vimeo, Instagram)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Internet search engines (eg Google, Google Scholar, Yahoo)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Are there any other technologies you use for social purposes? (What do you use and why?)

## 2b. Use of technologies for learning as part of your study

How often do you use technologies as part of your study?

	Never or Rarely	A few times a MONTH	A few times a WEEK	One or more times a DAY
Join an online course (MOOCS) such as Coursera, TedX, moon.vn, hocmai.vn	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Use Facebook to discuss with friends and share information	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Listen to the radio for learning programs	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Use DVD to watch English films	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Use CD to practice your listening skills	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Use MP3 player / smart phone to practice your listening skills	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Use freely available educational resources related to your field of study (eg. Youtube, TedX, Khan Academy)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Create websites as part of your course	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Use web-conferencing or chat (eg Skype, Adobe Connect, Google Hangouts) to join in remotely to live lectures and tutorials.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Develop an e-portfolio as part of your studies	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Use technology (eg Skype, Google Hangouts, Viber, Facetime) to work collaboratively on activities and assignments	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Use web services to share resources and ideas related to your course and learning (eg Instagram, You Tube)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Develop a blog	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Create podcasts, vodcasts as a part of your study	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Watch or listen to vodcasts or podcasts	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Use Wikipedia to find information	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Use internet search engines to find online resources (eg Google, Google Scholar, Yahoo)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Are there any other technologies you use for your study? (What do you use and why?)



--

**Part 2c – Use of means for Communicating with Teaching Staff**

How often do you use the following means **to contact and interact with teaching staff in your course?**

	Never or Rarely	A few times a MONTH	A few times a WEEK	One or more times a DAY
Instant messaging (eg, Viber, Skype chat, Zalo)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Text message (SMS)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Email	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Phone calls	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Collaborative / conferencing technologies (eg Skype, Facetime, Zalo, Viber)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Facebook update status	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Facebook chat	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Facebook note	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Facebook voice call	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Twitter or other social networking sites (, zingme.vn, Pinterest, Instagram)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Face-to-face meetings	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Are there any other means you use to communicate and collaborate with teaching staff? (Please specify)

--

**Part 2d – Use of means for Communicating with Other Students**

How often do you use, and how often would you like to use, the following technologies **to contact and interact with other students in your study for learning purposes?**

	Never or Rarely	A few times a MONTH	A few times a WEEK	One or more times a DAY
Instant messaging (eg, Skype chat, Yahoo message, )	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Text message (SMS)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Email	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Phone calls	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Collaborative / conferencing technologies (eg Skype, Facetime, Zalo, viber)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Facebook update status	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Facebook chat	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Facebook note	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Facebook voice call	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Zingme or other social networking sites ( Instagram)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Face-to-face meetings	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

**Are there any other technologies you use to communicate and collaborate with other students? (Please specify)**

**Part 3 – Evaluation for technologies**

**Overall, how would you describe your experience with technology?**

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Mixed Feelings/ Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
I am satisfied with my technology skills	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Technology has helped me study better	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Technology has enhanced my motivation	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Technology has helped me learn foreign languages	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I have found it easy to use technologies	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Technology distracts me from my study	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I hate technology	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Technology is time-consuming	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

**Please describe the most important ways that technology has assisted your learning at school.**

## APPENDIX 2: TRANSLATION OF QUESTIONNAIRE FOR STUDENTS

### BẢNG CÂU HỎI CHO SINH VIÊN

#### Phần 1: Thông tin chung

##### Giới tính

Nam

Nữ

##### Trường học

Nguyễn Huệ

Trần Quốc Tuấn

Trần Suyền

#### Phần 2 – Sử dụng công nghệ

Chọn tất cả những cái phù hợp

	Máy tính bàn hoặc sách tay	Máy tính bảng (iPad)	Điện thoại thông minh (vd iPhone,)	Các thiết bị khác có kết nối internet
Loại thiết bị máy tính nào bạn có sử dụng được (chọn tất cả những cái phù hợp)?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Loại thiết bị máy tính nào bạn có kết nối với internet (chọn tất cả những cái phù hợp)?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Loại thiết bị máy tính nào bạn sử dụng thường xuyên sử dụng (chọn tất cả những cái phù hợp)?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

**2a. Bên ngoài trường học, hiện tại bao lâu bạn sử dụng những công nghệ được nêu ở dưới đây cho mục đích xã hội và công việc ( ví dụ: cho những mục đích không phải kết nối với việc học tập)?**

	Không bao giờ hoặc hiếm khi	Một vài lần trong một tháng	Một vài lần trong một tuần	Một hoặc vài lần trong một ngày
Tin nhắn trực tuyến (eg, Yahoo Chat, ICQ, Viber)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Thư điện tử (email)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Công nghệ hợp tác và hội nghị (eg Skype, Facetime, Adobe Connect, Viber, Facetime)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Facebook	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Twitter và các mạng xã hội khác (eg , Tumblr, LinkedIn, Pinterest, Scoopit, Instagram)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Blogs	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Wikis (eg Wikipedia)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Trò chơi trực tuyến, game online (eg World of Warcraft, Everquest)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Phần mềm tạo ra tài liệu audio/video materials (eg Audacity, iMovie, smartphone)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Phần mềm thuyết trình (eg PowerPoint, KeyNote, Prezi)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Phần mềm phân tích dữ liệu (eg spreadsheets and databases)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Phần mềm ứng dụng để luyện tập viết (Google docs)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Các ứng dụng lưu trữ đám mây (Google drive, dropbox)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Bài tập trực tuyến (eg không gian web hỗ trợ các hoạt động xã hội, giáo dục và nghề nghiệp)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Chia sẻ hình ảnh hoặc video trên trang mạng (eg YouTube, Vimeo, Instagram)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Công cụ tìm kiếm trên internet (eg Google, Google Scholar, Yahoo)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Có bất kì công nghệ nào khác bạn đang sử dụng vào mục đích xã hội không? Bạn sử dụng nào để làm gì?

## Phần 2b: Sử dụng nhiều công nghệ cho việc học tập như một phần khóa học của bạn

Bạn sử dụng thường xuyên các công nghệ như là một phần khóa học?

	Không bao giờ hoặc hiếm khi	Một vài lần trong một tháng	Một vài lần trong một tuần	Một hoặc nhiều lần trong một ngày
Tham gia các khóa học trực tuyến (MOOCS) như Coursera, TedX, moon.vn, hocmai.vn	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Sử dụng Facebook để thảo luận với bạn bè và chia sẻ thông tin	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Nghe chương trình học qua radio	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Sử dụng DVD để xem phim bằng tiếng Anh	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Sử dụng CD để luyện nghe tiếng Anh.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Sử dụng MP3 hoặc điện thoại thông minh (smart phone) để luyện các kỹ năng tiếng Anh	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Sử dụng các nguồn tài liệu giáo dục sẵn có và miễn phí cho việc học (vd. Youtube, TedX, Khan Academy)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Tạo website như là một phần của khóa học	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Sử dụng web hội nghị hoặc chat (vd Skype, Adobe Connect, Google Hangouts) để tham gia các bài giảng từ xa.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Phát triển danh mục bài tập như là một phần của việc học. (e-portfolio)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Sử dụng công nghệ (eg Skype, Google Hangouts, Viber, Facetime) để cộng tác với các bạn khác để làm bài tập hoặc các nhiệm vụ khác	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Sử dụng web để chia sẻ nguồn tài liệu hoặc ý tưởng mới liên quan đến khóa học và việc học (vd Instagram, YouTube)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Phát triển blog	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Tạo ra podcasts, hoặc vodcasts như là một phần của việc học	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Xem hoặc nghe vodcasts hoặc podcasts	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Sử dụng Wikipedia để tìm thông tin	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

	Không bao giờ hoặc hiếm khi	Một vài lần trong một tháng	Một vài lần trong một tuần	Một hoặc nhiều lần trong một ngày
Sử dụng công cụ tìm kiếm để tìm kiếm dữ liệu trực tuyến (eg Google, Google Scholar, Yahoo)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Có bất kì công nghệ nào khác bạn sử dụng cho việc học tập? Công nghệ đó là gì và bạn sử dụng như thế nào?				

### Phần 2c – Sử dụng phương tiện để giao tiếp với giáo viên

Bạn thường sử dụng phương tiện nào dưới đây để liên lạc và tương tác với giáo viên trong khóa học?

	Không bao giờ hoặc hiếm khi	Một vài lần một tháng	Một vài lần một tuần	Một vài lần một ngày
Tin nhắn trực tuyến (vd, Viber, Skype chat, Zalo)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Tin nhắn văn bản (SMS)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Thư điện tử (email)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Gọi điện thoại	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Công nghệ hội nghị/ hợp tác (vd Skype, Facetime, Zalo, Viber)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Đăng trạng thái trên Facebook	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Facebook chat	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Facebook note	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Gọi điện qua Facebook	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Twitter hoặc các mạng xã hội khác (, zingme.vn, Pinterest, Instagram)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Gặp mặt trực tiếp	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Có phương tiện nào khác bạn sử dụng để liên hệ với giáo viên không (Vui lòng cho biết rõ)

**Phần 2d – Sử dụng phương tiện để giao tiếp với sinh viên khác**

Bạn thường sử dụng phương tiện nào dưới đây để liên lạc và tương tác với sinh viên khác vì mục đích **học tập** không?

	Không bao giờ hoặc hiếm khi	Một vài lần một tháng	Một vài lần một tuần	Một vài lần một ngày
Tin nhắn trực tuyến (vd, Viber, Skype chat, Zalo)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Tin nhắn văn bản (SMS)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Thư điện tử (email)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Gọi điện thoại	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Công nghệ hội nghị/ hợp tác (vd Skype, Facetime, Zalo, Viber)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Đăng trạng thái trên Facebook	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Facebook chat	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Facebook note	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Gọi điện qua Facebook	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Twitter hoặc các mạng xã hội khác (, zingme.vn, Pinterest, Instagram)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Gặp mặt trực tiếp	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Có phương tiện nào khác bạn sử dụng để liên hệ với các bạn sinh viên khác không (Vui lòng cho biết rõ)



### **Phần 3 – Đánh giá đối với công nghệ**

**Nhìn chung, bạn đánh giá kinh nghiệm của mình đối với công nghệ như thế nào?**

	Hoàn toàn không đồng ý	Không đồng ý	Cảm giá pha trộn, trung hòa	Đồng ý	Hoàn toàn đồng ý
Tôi thỏa mãn với kỹ năng công nghệ của bản thân	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Công nghệ giúp tôi trong việc học	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Công nghệ tăng thêm động lực cho tôi	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Công nghệ giúp tôi học ngôn ngữ	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Thôi thấy rất dễ dàng khi sử dụng không nghệ	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Công nghệ làm tôi phân tán trong việc học	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Tôi ghét công nghệ	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Công nghệ tốn thời gian	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Miêu tả một vài cách mà công nghệ giúp bạn trong việc học tập.

### **APPENDIX 3: PRE-INTERVIEW QUESTIONS FOR STUDENTS**

1. What do you use SNSs such as Facebook, Skype, Youtube, Instagram, Zingme, Viber or Facetime for?
2. What do you often share on SNSs? Do you use SNSs to communicate with your teachers or classmates?
3. Do you think SNSs affects your personal life? How do they affect your personal life?
4. Do you think what is the best thing and the worst thing of SNSs such as Facebook, Skype, YouTube and Instagram?
5. Do you use SNSs such as Facebook, Instagram, Skype, Zingme and YouTube for your study? How do you use them?
6. How do you evaluate SNSs as a mean for learning English?
7. Do you use any other technology for your social life and learning? How does it work?
8. Has your teacher given you any assignments on SNSs such as Skype or Facebook? What type of assignments?
9. Do your current teachers use any digital tools to teach you? How do they use these tools?
10. How do you want your teachers use technology to teach you English?
11. Do you have many chances to practice speaking and listening in class?
12. Do you feel confident when you speak English in the class?
13. Do you often use English outside the class?
14. Do you recognize your mistake when you speak or write? Do you correct it?

**APPENDIX 4: TRANSLATION OF PRE-INTERVIEW QUESTIONS FOR  
STUDENTS**

**BẢNG CÂU HỎI PHỎNG VẤN SINH VIÊN**

1. Bạn sử dụng mạng xã hội như Facebook, Skype, Youtube, Instagram, Zingme, Viber or Facetime để làm gì?
2. Bạn thường chỉ sẻ những gì trên mạng xã hội? Bạn có sử dụng mạng xã hội để liên lạc với giáo viên và các bạn trong lớp không?
3. Bạn có nghĩ mạng xã hội ảnh hưởng đến đời sống cá nhân của bạn không? Mạng xã hội ảnh hưởng như thế nào?
4. Theo bạn điều gì là tốt nhất và điều gì tệ nhất khi sử dụng mạng xã hội như Facebook, Skype, YouTube và Instagram?
5. Bạn có sử dụng Facebook, Instagram, Skype, Zingme và YouTube cho mục đích học tập của mình không? Bạn sử dụng nó như thế nào?
6. Có giáo viên nào cho bài tập trên mạng xã hội chưa? Loại bài tập đó là gì?
7. Bạn đánh giá mạng xã hội nhưng là một phương tiện học tiếng Anh như thế nào?
8. Hiện tại, giáo viên có sử dụng công nghệ để giảng dạy tiếng Anh không? Họ sử dụng công nghệ này như thế nào?
9. Bạn muốn giáo viên mình sử dụng công nghệ để giảng dạy tiếng Anh không? vì sao?
10. Ở trên lớp, bạn có được luyện tập nói và nghe tiếng Anh nhiều không?
11. Bạn có thấy tự tin khi nói tiếng Anh trên lớp không?
12. Bạn có sử dụng tiếng Anh bên ngoài lớp học không? Ở đâu và khi nào?
13. Bạn có nhận ra lỗi sai của mình khi bạn nói hoặc viết tiếng Anh không? Bạn có sửa nó không?
14. Bạn có sử dụng công nghệ nào khác cho mục đích xã hội và học tập không? Bạn sử dụng chúng như thế nào?

## APPENDIX 5: POST-COURSE INTERVIEW FOR STUDENTS

1. Do you enjoy learning on Skype and Facebook? If yes, what did you enjoy about it? If no, why didn't you enjoy it?
2. Do you feel more confident in speaking after the course?
3. Do you think it is an effective way of learning on SNSs for you?
4. Did you use more Facebook, Skype during the online course? Do you often use Skype to discuss the lessons with your friends during your study online? Did you do anything related to SNSs outside the educational context during the online course?
5. Would you like teachers give assignments or any other activities through SNSs? If yes, how often and what activities? If no, Why not?
6. What are the best thing and the worst thing about the course?
7. How do you feel when being asked to communicate in English?
8. Do you think you have improved any English skills (speaking, reading, listening and writing)? How has each skill improved?
9. Which one do you prefer: text chat, voice chat, video chat? Why?
10. When do you record your voice, which one do you prefer: sound recording or video recording?
11. Do you record more than one? What makes you satisfy with your recording?
12. What is the best thing or worst thing of writing on Facebook or uploading recording on Facebook?
13. Do you feel different when writing and uploading recording on Facebook?

14. How do you feel when you upload your recording on Facebook?

15. How do you feel when you interact with other students on Skype?

16. Do you have any other comments about the activities online?

## APPENDIX 6: TRANSLATION OF POST-COURSE INTERVIEW FOR STUDENTS

1. Bạn có thích học trên Skype và Facebook không? Nếu bạn thích, bạn thích điều gì nhất? Nếu bạn không thích, bạn không thích điều gì?
2. Bạn cảm thấy tự tin hơn sau khóa học không? Lý do bạn cảm thấy tự tin hơn.
3. Bạn cảm thấy học tiếng Anh trên mạng xã hội có hiệu quả không?
4. Bạn có sử dụng Facebook, Skype nhiều hơn trong khi học online không? Bạn có thường sử dụng Facebook hay Skype để thảo luận về bài học của mình trên mạng không? Bạn có sử dụng bất kì cái gì liên quan đến mạng xã hội bên ngoài việc học online không?
5. Bạn có muốn giáo viên cho thêm bài tập hoặc bất kì hoạt động khác trên mạng xã hội không? Nếu có thì mức độ thường xuyên như thế nào? Nếu không thì tại sao?
6. Điều gì tốt nhất và chưa tốt về khóa học?
7. Bạn cảm thấy như thế nào khi được yêu cầu là phải nói tiếng Anh?
8. Bạn có nghĩ các kĩ năng tiếng Anh của bạn có được cải thiện? Mỗi kĩ năng đó cải thiện như thế nào?
9. Bạn thích cách liên lạc nào nhất: chat văn bản, gọi tiếng, và gọi bằng hình ảnh lẫn tiếng? Vì sao?
10. Khi bạn ghi âm, bạn thích hình thức ghi âm nào: ghi âm bằng tiếng hay ghi âm bằng hình ảnh và tiếng cùng lúc?
11. Bạn ghi âm mấy lần? Điều gì làm bạn thỏa mãn với tập tin ghi âm của bạn?
12. Điều gì tốt nhất hay tệ nhất về việc đăng bài viết trên nhóm hoặc tải tập tin ghi âm lên trên Facebook?

13. Bạn có cảm thấy khác biệt khi viết và tải bài lên Facebook?
14. Bạn cảm thấy thế nào khi tải file ghi âm, ghi hình lên Facebook? (Bạn có sợ/ngại người khác thấy hình của mình không? Bạn có tự tin không khi tải lên vì sao?)
15. Bạn cảm thấy như thế nào khi tương tác với các bạn trên Facebook hoặc Skype (Bạn có cảm thấy tự tin hơn không?)
16. Bạn có bình luận gì thêm về các hoạt động trên mạng xã hội?

**APPENDIX 7: UNIT 1 – TIẾNG ANH 11 TẬP 1**