University of Technology Sydney

Pedagogical Practices of Vocational Education and Training in Vietnam

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Certificate of Original Authorship

This thesis is the result of a research candidature conducted jointly with another University as part of a collaborative Doctoral degree. I certify that the work in this thesis has not previously been submitted for a degree nor has it been submitted as part of requirements for a degree except as part of the collaborative doctoral degree and/or fully acknowledged within the text.

I also certify that the thesis has been written by me. Any help that I have received in my research work and the preparation of the thesis itself has been acknowledged. In addition, I certify that all information sources and literature used are indicated in the thesis.

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List of Publications

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Abstract

This thesis investigates the pedagogical practices of vocational education and training (VET) in Vietnam, at a time of significant economic and educational reforms. As Vietnam moves to engage more fully with the global economy, VET policies, which enhance the skills of the workforce, have become a key focus of government policies and initiatives.

In this context, the study of the pedagogical practices of three different sites of vocational education practice – a Vietnamese government vocational college, a foreign-funded vocational college, and a Family Workshop – contributes significant new knowledge to the field of vocational education and training in Vietnam. Using a qualitative methodology, data was collected through document analysis, observations in classrooms and at workshops, and in-depth interviews with participants including leaders, Masters, teachers, skilled workers and learners. An adapted conceptual framework, *Investigating Vietnamese VET Pedagogical Practices Framework*, was developed to be more appropriate to the context of a developing country.

The study highlights the tensions and challenges faced by VET administrators, teachers and students as they contend with the Vietnamese government's dual goal of integrating VET with the international and regional community through modernisation and industrialisation, while still preserving Vietnamese traditional values and culture. Within VET, these tensions and co-existing goals are reflected in VET pedagogical practices, such as teachers' attempts to include ICT in their teaching and become more learner-centred, while continuing to work in a highly centralised and teacher-focused system.

The application of the concept of Vietnamisation (based on Tran Hoa Phuong's (1998) research into university education) to VET research for the first time opens up new ways of understanding these layers of historical influences over centuries. The Vietnamese VET pedagogical practices examined across the three sites showed legacies of Confucian, French, Soviet and more recent Western influences.

Significantly, Vietnamese vocational education and training systems have incorporated these influences but at the same time have maintained the Vietnamese character – evidence of "integration without dissolution" (Anh Huyen 2014, p. 1), a slogan widely used in Vietnam.

The findings of this research suggest the need to improve VET pedagogical practices by developing a "Vietnamese VET pedagogy" which adopts and adapts the new international influences along with making changes to the policies and systems that support its implementation. Importantly, the study calls for a fluid and efficient combination of didactic teaching – emphasising theory over practice – with a more facilitative pedagogy, developing the needed employability skills for the global economy.

Chapter 1 – Introduction

This research aims to investigate vocational education and training (VET) across various settings in Central Vietnam. It is broadly located in the field of VET research in developing countries, but more specifically studies of VET pedagogical practices in Vietnam. The study's particular focus is on the *pedagogical practices* of vocational education and training in Vietnam in order to illuminate the current practices and challenges facing teachers[1], learners[2] and administrators in Vietnamese VET settings.

This study is timely as Vietnam is currently facing the challenges of joining the global economy through its membership in 2015 of the Trans-Pacific Partnership (TTP) and Association of Southeast Asian Nations (ASEAN) Economic Community (AEC). The Vietnamese Government has announced Vietnam's ambitious goals for the modernisation and industrialisation of the country. These goals are to be supported by the preparation of a skilled labour force and quality improvement in the teaching and learning of VET institutions (Thu[3] tuong chinh phu 2001, Thu tuong chinh phu 2012a, 2012b, Austrade 2013, Nghiem Dinh Vy 2007)[4]. To meet this challenge, key policy initiatives have been released, including the *National Human Resource Development Strategy 2011-2020*; the *National Socio-Economic Development Strategy*

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[1] The term 'teachers" has been used in this thesis to include teachers, lecturers, tutors and VET practitioners in VET institutions and the term "trainers" to refer the Master and the skilled workers in the family workshops.

[2] I use the term "learners" in this thesis as an overall term to cover learners in both formal and informal VET settings. When I use the term "student", it refers only to those attending VET classes in colleges, while the term "vocational learner" refers only to those participating in Family Workshops.

[3] All Vietnamese words, including Vietnamese authors' names, are used without diacritical marks because this thesis uses both Vietnamese sources, which were internationally published without such marks, and domestic sources with diacritical marks. To present references in a consistent system, I decided to use words without marks so that Vietnamese can read and understand them without difficulty.

[4] In this thesis, in-text references with Vietnamese names use full names (e.g., Nghiem Dinh Vy 2007) to avoid misunderstandings. For example, Nguyen Thi Hang, Nguyen Thi Hanh and Nguyen Thu Hong are three different names but they would have the same initials (Nguyen, T. H.) if using the initials-only form of citing. However, references including more than two Vietnamese authors will not use the full-name form as this might lead to confusion; they would also be too long with full names for all authors.

2011-2020; the *National Green Growth Strategy*; and the *National Vietnamese Education Development Strategy 2011-2020.* In particular, the *Vocational Training Development Strategy of Vietnam by 2020*, which was approved by Vietnam's Minister for Education on 29 May 2012, aims to train a skilled labour force of high quality across all forms of education, including informal and non-formal education. As VET is regarded as a critical element in the reform process, this strategy focuses on the quality of VET, including its pedagogical practices.

This chapter commences with a brief description of the context of the study, drawing further attention to the current key VET reforms in Vietnam mentioned above. A broader picture of the background of this research is discussed in Chapter 2 (which has been published as a book chapter (Tien Thi Hanh Ho 2014) on VET in Vietnam). It then explains the study's rationale and focus and considers the significance of the study together with the contributions this research aims to make. It concludes with an overview of the thesis structure.

1.1 Background of the study

Since the launch of Political and Economic Reforms (Doi Moi) in 1986, Vietnam has transformed from one of the poorest countries in the world, with a per capita income of around US$100, to a nation with a lower-middle income status and a per capita income of more than US$2,000 at the end of 2014 (World Bank 2015). Although Vietnam has experienced this significant economic growth in recent decades, approximately half of its workers remain employed in agriculture, which means its economy is considered one of "low productivity" compared to other ASEAN countries (Uramoto 2014). To continue its economic advancements, Vietnam's 11th National Party Congress in January 2011 prioritised integration, modernisation and industrialisation as the new key orientation for Vietnam's foreign policy (Chinh phu Viet Nam 2011). It outlined Vietnam's integration with the world, not only economically, but also in terms of the social, cultural, educational, scientific and technological areas that can support the modernisation and industrialisation process. Importantly, becoming a member of the Trans-Pacific Partnership (TTP) and the

ASEAN Economic Community (AEC) offers opportunities in developing its economy as well as challenges for Vietnam and the Vietnamese people.

As Uramoto (2014), an executive member of the International Labour Organisation (ILO) in Vietnam, has stated, one of the five key areas in which Vietnam needs to take decisive action to achieve closer economic integration is to strengthen its vocational skills development institutions. Specifically, its focus should be on the improvement of vocational training in order to meet the expected growth in demand for medium-skilled workers[5] in Vietnam (Uramoto 2014). In other words, the demand for medium-skilled blue-collar workers (operatives/labourers in manufacturing or construction) and medium-skilled white-collar workers (sales/clerical) is expected to increase in Vietnam.

On 27 November 2014, the *Law on Vocational Education* replaced the 2006 *Law of Vocational Training*, taking effect on 1 July 2015. There are a number of additional goals of vocational training specified in the new law. The 2006 law focused on training the labour force in manufacturing, trading and services. The labour force was to have the ability to work in accordance with their levels of training (i.e., intermediate, college degree) and have good health, good morality and professional ethics. The revised 2014 law goes beyond these aims to address the emerging demands for vocational learners in an integrated and modernised Vietnamese economy. These demands include integrated skills, such as creativity and the ability to apply modern technology, the adaptability to a new work environment, and the ability to work both independently and in teams.

This focus on integrated skills is supported by two reports, the Fundamental and Comprehensive Reform of Higher Education in Vietnam 2006–2020 (Quoc hoi Viet Nam 2013) and the National Strategy for Human Resource Development, 2011–2020 (Thu tuong chinh phu 2011), both of which emphasise skills such as foreign language

[5] Based on the ILO classification, occupations in ISCO88 category 9 are considered as low-skilled (skill level 1) and ISCO88 categories 4–8 as medium-skilled (skill level 2). For more information, see the ILO website www.ilo.org.

competence, especially English, problem-solving skills and communication skills. These are considered to be crucial attributes of learners/workers in a modern industrialised society. As Victoria Kwakwa, a World Bank Country Director for Vietnam, stated: "Literacy and numeracy among Vietnam's adult workforce is widespread and more so than in other countries, including wealthier ones, but a more skilled workforce will be key to Vietnam's successful economic transition" (World Bank 2015, p. 1).

The importance of a skilled workforce is confirmed in the *Vietnam Development Report 2014* released by the World Bank (Boderwig & Badiani-Magnusson 2013). This report states that Vietnamese employers are demanding a labour force with a mix of high quality cognitive, behavioural and technical skills. These skills include job-specific technical skills, teamwork, problem-solving skills, employability skills and communication skills, which are in demand today and critical for the future workforce. This skills aspect will be further discussed in Chapters 2 and 8. In addition, the fashionable terms "green skills", "green vocational training", "green technology" and "green economy" have recently been under discussion at roundtables in Vietnam, with the aim of encouraging the integration of these skills into future VET curriculum frameworks (Thu tuong chinh phu 2012c; TVET Vietnam 2015; Tong cuc dao tao nghe 2015).

The *Vietnam Development Report 2014* highlights how economic modernisation requires a shift in labour demand from today's predominantly manual and elementary jobs towards more skill-intensive, non-manual jobs; and from jobs that largely involve routine tasks to those with non-routine tasks. This report further suggests that Vietnam's employers are struggling to find the "right" workers for the new types of jobs. Therefore, Vietnam needs to equip its workforce with the right skills to accelerate its economic growth and modernisation (Boderwig & Badiani-Magnusson 2013). According to the Global Competiveness Index (GCI) for 2013–2014, Vietnam provides insufficient skilled labour and this decreases the country's competitiveness. This is reflected in its placement on the GCI in 70th position among 148 world

economies (Schwab 2014). It is in this context of government priorities of modernisation and integration into the global economy, and the complementary requirements for an increasingly skilled labour force through improvements in VET in Vietnam, that this study is set.

1.2 Rationale and focus of the study

In this section I describe the rationale and focus of this study. I begin with the personal and professional drivers that motivated my interest. I then explain why there is a need for more research on VET pedagogical practices in Vietnam.

Personal and professional drivers

My motivation for undertaking this research into VET pedagogy comes from both my personal and professional experience. Before undertaking my PhD research in VET pedagogical practices, I worked for several years at the Department of Scientific Research and International Cooperation, an Industrial College in Central Vietnam. While working in this vocational education environment, I conducted research that investigated the need in Central Vietnam for VET training as well as research into transversal[6] skills at vocational colleges. This research recommended the updating of VET policies and strategies. Through my professional experience in the industry and my communication with students and other VET practitioners, I developed a keen interest in examining VET pedagogical practices in Vietnam. I wanted to explore the challenges VET practitioners and learners encounter, particularly in the emerging demands for a skilled labour force, as Vietnam prepares for its 2020 goals of integration, modernisation and industrialisation. Having previously worked on some international cooperative programs and projects, I also saw how the issues of adopting and adapting these programs are relevant. This raised for me questions

[6] Transversal skills (or employability skills) refer to a set of competences which are important for students to successfully adapt to the new working environment upon graduation. These include 'soft' skills, life skills, employability skills, core skills and key technical skills.

about how historical influences have shaped VET practices in Vietnam, and how VET might be able to keep its Vietnamese character during these change processes.

Additionally, in my daily life I talked to many vocational learners at what are called Family Workshops – including learners of hairdressing, motorcycle repairing, tailoring, building and welding. These learners expressed their desire to have a stable job with a degree or a certificate, yet at the same time this was not possible because their informal learning at the Family Workshops was not recognised. This lack of recognition and its consequences for learners inspired me to research the vocational learning in informal settings. These experiences contributed to my interest in investigating VET pedagogical practices in both formal and informal settings in Central Vietnam.

This research is also relevant as the *Vocational Training Development Strategy of Vietnam by 2020* encourages the provision of vocational training across different learning sites and in a variety of forms. As well, it encourages enterprises to take part in the vocational training of Vietnamese workers and to cooperate with vocational institutions in curriculum design and training needs analysis (Thu tuong chinh phu 2012b). Nevertheless, while the *Strategy* mentions "other forms of education" (p. 2), it does not specifically include non-formal and informal forms of education. However, these additional forms of education also contribute to developing Vietnam's labour force as well as maintaining the traditional vocational learning that is an important part of the nation's cultural heritage. Therefore, in order to have a more in-depth understanding of VET pedagogical practices in Vietnam, this investigation of vocational training in both formal and informal contexts will support the nation's efforts to have an increasingly skilled labour force.

Importance of research on VET pedagogical practices for the emerging needs of Vietnam for a VET labour force

VET has been extensively researched in many countries in recent years, including Vietnam (TVET VN 2008). However, the majority of this research in Vietnam has used

quantitative analysis methods to study VET management, policies and evaluation. The lack of qualitative research in VET in Vietnam is limited and this restrains the depth of understanding of VET pedagogical practices. In addition, because existing research is mostly focused on formal VET learning settings (Tran Kiem 2003), it does not take account of the range of research possible in informal settings.

As mentioned above, Vietnam aims to achieve the integration, modernisation and industrialisation of its economy, and it needs a skilled labour force to meet these goals. However, these aims need to be contextualised by the lack of real-world learning environments that have contributed to Vietnam today having low-skilled learners and ill-prepared graduates (Dang Xuan Hoang 2015; Freeland 1996; Hoang Ngoc Vinh 2001; Tran Thi Tuyet 2014b). VET institutions and systems could be improved by changing management, curricula, teaching, learning and assessment, and links to industry. Such improvements would need to be underpinned and informed by research in VET pedagogical practices together with research on historical influences and challenges.

This need to have research-informed change is supported by Lucas (2014), who argues that in order to improve the status and quality of VET generally, it is essential to have an understanding of vocational pedagogy because this is critical to the improvement of learning and learner outcomes. As a Vietnamese VET educator, I too see vocational pedagogy as being important for having a skilled labour force with the qualities needed for the growing demands of Vietnam. This is why this research takes a broad view of investigating Vietnamese VET by looking at pedagogical practices in formal and informal settings, the historical influences that have shaped VET pedagogy, and the challenges it faces in response to the government's call for integration, modernisation and industrialisation.

This research aims to explore the following three questions:

1. What are the pedagogical practices of vocational education in Vietnam across formal and informal settings?

2. How have the various historical influences shaped VET in Vietnam?
3. What are the key challenges for the modernisation of VET in Vietnam?

A number of key terms are used throughout this thesis. They are defined as follows:

VET Pedagogy: Although there is no distinct and agreed definition of pedagogy for the whole VET sector, VET pedagogy can be identified as practically focused and influenced by theories and practices associated with adult learning in which VET adds value to its users (Brown 2011; TVET Australia 2011). It takes into account the complex relationships between multiple elements, including context, content, the teacher and the learner, with a focus on work outcomes. As Lucas, Spencer and Claxton (2012) suggest, vocational pedagogy is:

> the science, art, and craft of teaching that prepares people for certain kinds of working lives (p. 21)

[and]

> the tactical orchestration of classroom talk, activities, groupings, environments, available resources, role models. (p. 22)

Pedagogical practice: In this study, the term "pedagogical practice" refers to "the network of relations between teaching and learning" (Lee, Chapman & Roe 1996, p. 11). Specifically, it involves the roles, performance and interaction of teachers and learners; how the learning process happens in combination with the theories, policies, controversies and contexts that affect both learning and teaching; and the way learners bring their knowledge and expertise to a learning setting from outside it and vice versa (Alexander 2001; Murphy 2008). In a broader sense, pedagogical practices are integral to both VET pedagogy and curriculum development.

1.3 Significance of the study

While this study is pioneering work to provide a clearer understanding of vocational pedagogical practices in Vietnam, it has both theoretical and practical significance for

the field of VET generally. It should also provide a useful basis for further research on VET pedagogical practices in other developing countries that are undertaking modernisation and industrialisation as they move into increased engagement in the global economy.

The significance and contribution of this study is detailed in Chapter 9. In summary, the significant contribution to the field of VET research is in four key areas:

1. It develops a conceptual framework to support the investigation of VET pedagogical practices across a range of vocational settings.
2. It provides rich descriptions of vocational pedagogical practices that occur in a government vocational college, a foreign-funded vocational college and a family vocational workshop.
3. It articulates the historical influences shaping teaching and learning across formal and non-formal vocational education settings and captures the process of Vietnamisation of VET pedagogical practices.
4. It raises the awareness and understanding of non-formal vocational learning in Vietnam.

1.4 Structure of the thesis

This thesis consists of nine chapters. A summary of each chapter is given below.

Chapter 1 introduces the thesis and outlines the research rationale, the research questions and the significance of the thesis. Key terms used in the thesis are also defined.

Chapter 2 is a reproduction of my book chapter "Vocational Education and Training in Vietnam", which has been published in an edited book *Higher Education in Vietnam: Flexibility, Mobility and Practicability in the Globalisation Market Economy* (Tien Thi Hanh Ho 2014). The chapter is based on the research undertaken for this study and is reproduced in full as Chapter 2 of this thesis as it provides an important background

to the study. It overviews the VET system in the Vietnamese context, focusing on its governance, curriculum, pedagogy, funding, internationalisation and mobility.

Chapter 3 reviews the literature on the historical influences, pedagogies and reforms that affect contemporary Vietnamese educational perspectives. This review also takes into account Vietnamese higher education policies, international and Vietnamese VET research, and VET pedagogy and workplace learning.

Chapter 4 describes the methodology of the investigation. It argues for the appropriateness of a qualitative research methodology and describes the conceptual framework adapted for investigating VET in Vietnam. This framework involves the organisation of space, the nature of learning activities, the roles of the teacher and the learner, and moral education. The process of selecting research sites and participants, the methods used to collect and analyse data, and the ethics considerations are described. Finally the issues concerning data analysis are addressed.

Chapters 5, 6 and 7 respectively report on the research findings at three sites, called for the purposes of this study College 1, College 2 and the Family Workshop. The findings outlined in Chapters 5 and 6 are dealt with differently from those of Chapter 7. After a brief description of the Colleges, which are formal, structured learning environments, Chapters 5 and 6 analyse data based on five dimensions of the adapted conceptual framework.

Chapter 7 also uses the conceptual framework to inform the analysis of the Family Workshop data. However, the focus here is upon illuminating the pedagogical and moral education practices "embedded" in work practices.

Chapter 8 discusses the research findings and explores the key challenges for the modernisation of VET in Vietnam. It includes a summary of the VET practices at the three research sites, the shifts from "traditional" Vietnamese VET to "modern" pedagogical practice, and the challenges for VET teachers and learners as they adapt to these shifts. This chapter also analyses the historical influences on the

Vietnamisation of VET during this period of the nation's modernisation and industrialisation.

Chapter 9, the final chapter, describes the significance and contributions of this research, and its implications for Vietnam's future VET policy and systems. It concludes with suggestions for further research.

The next chapter, previously published as chapter 10 in L.T. Tran, S. Marginson, H. Do, Q.N. Do, N. Nguyen, T. Le, T. Vu & T.L.H. Nguyen, 2014, *Higher Education in Vietnam: Flexibility, Mobility and Practicability in the Globalisation Market Economy*, was written during the primary data collection for the thesis.

Chapter 2 – Vocational Education and Training[7] in Vietnam

2.1 Introduction

London (2011) states that education in Vietnam has been seen as "an avenue to social mobility". It can also function as "an obstacle to such social mobility, as a giant sorting mechanism that generates, reproduces, or transforms existing social inequalities" (London 2011, p. 3). Vocational Education and Training (VET), an essential component of Vietnamese education, is playing an increasingly important role in response to the national demand for a high quality and skilled labour force.

Vietnam is a wet rice civilisation, and Vietnamese people popularly pursued vocational learning at family workshops, or in traditional craft villages. This traditional form of vocational training created a skilled labour force for the Vietnamese society and preserved the cultural values of traditional craft villages in Vietnam. From "informal" vocational training at traditional levels to the "formal" vocational education system that began in the nineteenth century, VET in Vietnam has changed its focus over time in accordance with training needs, economic changes, policies and strategies. Aligning with globalisation, VET in Vietnam is now changing to keep pace with the development of the region and the world.

The National Assembly of Vietnam passed the Education Law and the Vocational Training Law in 2005 and 2006 respectively to recognise vocational training as part of the national education system. This chapter provides an overview of VET in Vietnam. It begins with the importance of VET in the Vietnamese context, followed by a brief description of the background of the VET sector. It then examines VET flexibility and practicability, mobility and internationalisation within VET and concludes with a discussion on the reform of VET in Vietnam.

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[7] The original version of this chapter was published as a book chapter entitled "Vocational Education and Training in Vietnam" by Ho Thi Hanh Tien in L.T. Tran, S. Marginson, H. Do, Q.N. Do, T. Le, N. Nguyen, T. Vu, T. Pham & H. Nguyen (Eds.), 2014, *Higher Education in Vietnam: Flexibility, mobility and practicalibity in the global knowledge economy*, Palgrave Macmillan Publisher.

2.2 Importance of Vocational Education and Training in Vietnam

In recent years, the status of vocational education and training has been highlighted in both developed and developing countries in response to the global economy, the pace of technological change and the era of knowledge (Guthrie et al. 2009; Majundar 2011; Nguyen Thi Kim Quy 2010; Rauner & Maclean 2009). Globalisation generates new demands for a high quality labour force empowered with new skills and knowledge. This can be clearly seen in developing countries as they engage in modernisation and industrialisation. Therefore, the shortage of skilled labour needed to meet social requirements is a common issue in most emerging economies. Vietnam, where approximately 15 per cent of the labour force is vocationally trained (Freire 2011), is an example of this phenomenon. Many research projects at both national and international levels are being conducted to find good solutions and improvements to vocational training in order to supply skilled workers. A fine example is the Vietnam-Germany cooperation in Technical and Vocational Education and Training, namely the Project on Vocational training for the agricultural labour force by 2020, and the Project for training soldiers in Vietnam (Cuc dao tao nghe 2012a). Aligning itself to global development, Vietnam has adopted the principle of educational renovation, which includes vocational training; offering new opportunities for the development of vocational training (Cuc dao tao nghe 2012b). At the national level, vocational research centres have been set up, such as the National Vocational Research Institute (in 2008) conducted by the Ministry of Labour, Invalids and Social Affairs (MOLISA). This raises the status and importance of Vietnam VET in the present era because VET is seen to contribute to solving labour shortages and providing society with necessary skills.

Over the last decade, VET in Vietnam has attracted government attention and achieved economic success, thanks to the reform policy. The Government has recognized the importance of human resource development and endeavoured to improve education and training (MOET 2006). Reforms have influenced curriculum development, management systems, and co-operation with international TVET

institutes (TVET VN 2008), and the network of TVET institutions has spread throughout the country. By 2020, it is envisaged the labour force will reach approximately 63 million people of which Agriculture will count for 35-38 per cent; Industry and Construction, and Services, 31 per cent and 27-29 per cent respectively. Today, there are 44 million trained human resources, including 34.4 million with vocational training (Vietnamese Government 2012)[8]. Vocational training, and research on vocational training are seen as principal ways of providing the labour force with the practical, flexible and mobile knowledge and skills that Vietnam needs.

The Vocational Training Development Strategy of Vietnam by 2020, approved by the Prime Minister on 29 May 2012, aims to train a high quality and skilled labour force across all forms of formal, informal and non-formal education. The quality of vocational training is regarded as a critical element in the socio-economic development of human resources, and is one of the three strategic breakthrough targets in the Vocational Training Development Strategy of Vietnam by 2020 (Vietnamese Prime minister 2012). This Strategy supports occasional training in different learning sites and in a variety of forms of education, while encouraging enterprises to take part in vocational training and to cooperate with vocational institutions in curriculum design and training needs analysis (Vietnamese Priminister 2012).

2.3 Background of the VET sector

Vietnam's VET sector, which is now a part of the higher education system, has changed rapidly over the last two decades. It has spread throughout the country. Before 1987, there were over 200 technical and vocational colleges and 125 vocational schools. They trained and supplied hundreds of thousands of workers and technicians (Ministry of Education and Training 2006).

[8] The references in this chapter kept as their original appearance connecting with the style of the book.

Nevertheless, there has long been an imbalance between demand and supply in the labour force. Recent examples demonstrate the problem. According to a research paper on the cooperation between the Vietnam Chamber of Commerce and Industry (VCCI) and the U.S. Agency for International Development's Vietnam Competitiveness Initiative (USAID/VNCI) (2009), only 28 per cent of enterprises rated the quality of vocational training provided by local government agencies (MOLISA, Districts, Wards and Communes) as Good or Very good. At the same time 39 per cent of enterprises considered the quality of the labour force as Medium and the rest as Low or Very Low (The Vietnam Provincial Competitiveness Index PCI 2009). Additionally, for 100,000 jobs offered in 2009, only 6 per cent of job seekers satisfied the qualification requirements and criteria demanded by recruiters (MOLISA 2009).

The percentage of untrained labour is very high (64 per cent), while 78 per cent of youth aged 20–24 are considered unqualified for the job market. Furthermore, in 2009 many enterprises in Ho Chi Minh City complained that they were unable to find qualified workers to fill 61,527 job vacancies, though the number of graduates from vocational institutes had increased. The imbalance between demand and supply in the labour market is a major concern for policy makers, vocational training providers and universities in Vietnam.

Why does this problem exist? When the Vietnamese economy moved towards a market-orientation, the TVET system was exposed as deficient in supplying sufficient numbers of workers with the required skills to meet industry's needs. It meant that skills and knowledge learned in TVET programs were irrelevant and the industry had to take time to retrain graduates. This may have been the reason why the number of enrolments in TVET dramatically decreased, from 171,100 (1985) to 62,614 (1995) (World Bank 2007). In contrast, enrolments into universities increased quickly. The decrease of VET enrolments caused an imbalance in the labour force (MOET - Ministry of Education and Training 2006).

This would suggest that it is the qualification preference within the Vietnamese society that leads to such an imbalance among its workforce. The abundance of

university graduates creates the converse picture of lack of skilled workers. Vocational training is not always the priority of students and their families. Only students who are low-performing, unmotivated or fail university national entrance examinations enter vocational institutions (ADB Evaluation Report 2013; Mac Van Tien et al. 2012; Nguyen 2012). However, as a result of reform policies and strategies for human resource development and VET quality improvement promulgated by the Vietnamese Government and authorities, TVET now shares in the success of the development of the country and the value of VET is gradually increasing.

2.4 Modes of Vocational Training in Vietnam

Informal learning

As mentioned in the introduction, vocational training in Vietnam was founded in the early years following the birth of the nation. The primary form of VET in Vietnam was vocational training in family workshops and traditional craft villages. This form of vocational training had been popular in Vietnam since early times. In this model, Masters simply transferred their knowledge and experience to young vocational learners. This form of learning was more popular in past decades when vocational schools were not widespread throughout all areas of Vietnam, but the model is still widely practised. Many people in Vietnam achieve their skills for future careers by participating in these informal and family workshops. Some families, especially those from suburban areas, allow their children to live with a Master's family whilst undergoing training. Masters such as tailors, carpenters, hairdressers or many owning workshops, have responsibility to train their vocational learners to reach a standard to enable them to engage in chosen careers. Fees for such training may be paid with farming products (e.g., 10 baskets of rice) or with gold (e.g., one or two rings of gold) or by cash.

This mode of learning is considered as "a flexible specialisation", "transferable skills" and "performance appraisals" in which desired products are flexible and competent (Garrick 1998). It has not only contributed to the skilled manpower of Vietnamese

society for many centuries, but also shaped current Vietnamese VET. Although the Vietnamese economy has become increasingly developed and there are now more formal forms of VET in every city of Vietnam, the informal vocational training at family workshops is still chosen for a variety of reasons such as financial issues, literacy requirements for public schools and children leaving school at an early age.

Vocational training in this mode is popular in Vietnamese Confucian tradition. However, there is no specific term for it. When discussing non-formal learning in Vietnam, Tran Kiem (2003) explains that non-formal learning in Vietnam should include the existence of informal learning. This term "informal learning" is not popular in Vietnamese society and people are not familiar with it. Therefore, informal learning should be understood as a part of non-formal learning to avoid any complexity. Frankly speaking, these terms are relatively ambiguous in the Vietnamese language. The terms "non-formal" (khong chinh quy) and "informal" (phi chinh quy) in Vietnamese language are nearly the same in meaning (Tran Kiem 2003). Informal learning is not officially recognised nor mentioned in any official government documents, or within the Vietnamese Education system. Those documents just mention formal education and non-formal education (Tran Kiem 2003).

Non-formal learning

Another mode of learning in VET in Vietnam is non-formal. This refers to learning programs conducted outside formal programs (Tran Kiem 2003).

Nguyen Ngoc Phu (2007) defines non-formal learning as acquired education sought outside of institutional programs with the direct interaction between learners and facilitators to satisfy individual requirements. He argues, that learning at community and distance education centres are non-formal. Community learning centres at communes and village centres in Vietnam have recently been established to provide short vocational training courses for local labourers. As Tran Kiem (2003) explains, non-formal learning and informal learning in the Vietnam context coexist. Indeed, Colley, Hodkinson and Malcolm (2003, cited in Hager & Halliday 2009) in arguing that

"It is not possible to separate informal/non-formal learning from formal learning and in many ways they are applicable and share broad agreement" (p. 1).

Formal learning

Formal learning refers to learning happening within educational institutions with a structured curricula, and programs recognised by formal qualifications (Halliday-wynes & Francesca 2009; Malcolm, Hodkinson & Colley 2003; Merriam, Caffarella & Baumgartner 2007a). Specifically, Nguyen Ngoc Phu (2007) explains that formal learning is mainly undertaken within institutional settings and taught by qualified teachers possessing relevant majors and qualifications equivalent to the level they teach. Tran Kiem (2003) argues that formal learning refers to programs conducted by institutions at all levels (i.e., primary schools, secondary schools, high schools, universities, people-founded schools, private schools, colleges and vocational schools). Formal learning must follow approved guidelines. These embrace a uniformity of structure, student age classes, a standard curriculum and evaluation. It is expected that these criteria should be rigidly applied across all levels, to ensure standardization with the purpose of ultimately achieving a universal standard (this means that individuals cannot make changes to approved programs) (Nguyen Ngoc Phu 2007).

The initial formal form of vocational training was the vocational schools established in Vietnam when the French colonists came. The first three vocational schools were Saigon Vocational School, Hue Vocational School and Hanoi Vocational School (*Ecole Professionelle de Hanoi)* adopting the French model. Subsequently, a Soviet model was introduced until eventually, Vietnam settled on a national model which is described in Figure 1. Under the Vietnamese model, students are educated in technical and vocational training over a period of one to four years, gaining knowledge and skills in both practice and theory. Under the practical aspect of their training, students undertake apprenticeship at relevant workplaces over a period extending from a week to several months.

In recent times, the national model has been supplemented with advanced models of vocational training from developed countries. The following institutions, Viet-Singapore Vocational College, Viet-Duc (Vietnam-Germany) Vocational College, Viet-Phap (Vietnam-France) Vocational College, Viet-My (Vietnam-America) Vocational College, Viet-Nhat (Japan) Vocational College, Viet-Han (Vietnam-Korea) Vocational College and Viet-Xo No. 1 (Vietname – Soviet Union) Vocational College are among examples of advanced VET models operating in Vietnam.

These colleges are supported by their respective countries and follow models of the vocational colleges established within them. For example, at the Vietnam-Germany Vocational College, students are offered more chances to practise at workplaces and their training programs focus on practical knowledge and skills (http://caodangnghevdht.edu.vn). Under the agreement between the governments of Vietnam and Germany in supporting and evaluating the project program, students have access to new advanced teaching programs as well as modern facilities and infrastructure.

2.5 Governance of VET

According to the Law on Vocational Education (2006), the VET sector includes vocational primary school training, vocational secondary school training and vocational college training, which are directly managed by MOLISA. In addition, it also consists of technical upper secondary education, technical (professional) training at college level and technical training at university level. This technical (professional) VET sector is under the management of MOET. The structure of the vocational education system is detailed below in Figure 1.

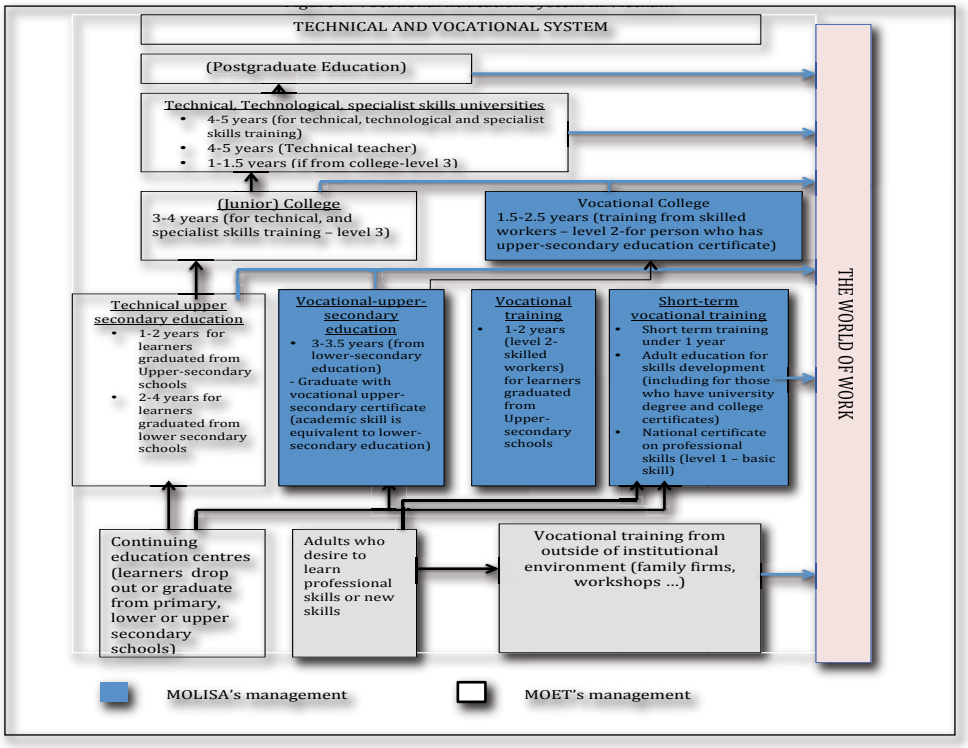
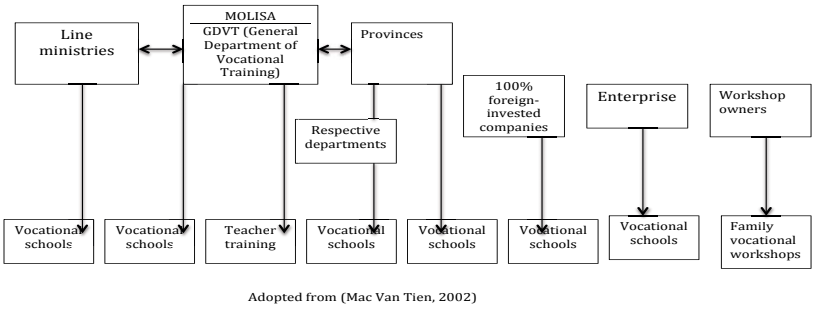


Figure 1: Structure of Vocational Education in Vietnam (Adapted from London, 2011, p. 20, and Vocational Training Law, 2006)

The complexity of governance in the Vietnamese education system is clearly apparent in vocational education and training in Vietnam. According to the Vocational Training Law of 2006, a new three-tier qualification structure was introduced in MOLISA/GDVT, designed for vocational elementary level, provided in vocational training centres, vocational secondary level provided in secondary vocational schools, and vocational diploma level in vocational colleges. The Cuc dao tao nghe (GDVT) additionally run programs in technical secondary schools, while technical and vocational programs at secondary level provided in colleges and universities are under MOET's line management (TVETVN 2008). At the central level, this system is under the direct state administration of Ministry of Education and Training (MOET), Ministry of Labor, Invalids and Social Affairs (MOLISA) and other ministries such as Ministry of Industry and Trade, Ministry of Finance. Local authorities also control it in the local level (MOET 2006b) (see Figure 2).



Adopted from (Mac Van Tien, 2002)

Figure 2: Management structure of vocational education system in Vietnam

After the renovation of TVET programs, the Prime Minister promulgated Decision No. 67/1998/QD-TTg, dated 26 March 1998, which transferred the responsibility for secondary vocational training system from MOET to MOLISA. Decree No. 33/1998/ND-CP of the Government, dated 23 May 1998, establishing the new General Department of Vocation Training (GDVT) was issued a few months after Decision No. 67/1998/QD-TTg. MOET kept the responsibility for higher technical education.

However, responsibility for technical and vocational education still remains with MOET, under the management of Secondary Technical and Vocational Education Department (STVED) of MOET. STVED as regulated takes charge of such areas as building up national policies on TVET, designing strategic plans for TVET, promulgating managerial regulations under its own authorities, planning TVET institutions system, retraining teachers, managing core curriculum of different special training programs, developing national qualification frameworks related to TVET. STVED has been renamed Technical and Vocational Education Department (TVED) in order to be assigned more tasks and responsibilities.

At the local level, Provincial Departments of Education and Training (DOET) administer Professional Offices, which are assigned to carry out tasks of technical and vocational education administration and management by MOET (MOET 2006; TVETVN 2008).

According to Decree No. 186/2007/ND-CP, dated 25 December 2007, which regulated functions, responsibilities, authorities and structural organization of MOLISA, the Ministry has almost overlapped responsibilities with MOET. MOLISA's main duties are planning vocational colleges, vocational schools and centres; promulgating core curriculum for vocational colleges, vocational schools, lists of training programs, regulations on enrolment, testing, examination, graduation recognition, degree and certificate templates; regulating standards and procedures for quality auditing, principles and procedures to build up national standard skills for vocational education and training; and having direct control and cooperating with other Ministries to guide policies for teaching and learning of vocational training (MOLISA 2007).

Other ministries such as the Ministry of Finance, Ministry of Industry and Trade, Ministry of Transport and Communications, and Ministry of Defense also directly manage their own vocational colleges, in which MOLISA training programs and/or MOET programs must be delivered.

Private enterprises, family workshops and traditional craft villages also join in vocational training and manage their own vocational institutes, as shown in Figure 2. Private enterprises, nevertheless, are still under the supervision on training programs by MOLISA or MOET depending on their training delivery. Family workshops are totally managed by the workshop's owners.

This complicated governance and its associated overlapping duties may lead to the VET sector being ineffective in the implementation of policies, due to the overlap in duties. This complexity also affects the VET financial management and financial forecasts.

2.6 Funding

VET funding and finance are mainly from the government budget, vocational learners, enterprises, and foreign funding. The government budget (not including Official Development Assistance (ODA) loans) is the most important financial sources for VET

in Vietnam. This is based on the GDP, the budget allocation for each year, and the suggestions from the local VET authorities and related ministries. The budget for VET increases yearly, growing from approximately 1000 billion dongs in 2001 to 10,000 billion dongs in 2011 (Vietnam Vocational Training Report 2011, 2013).

The vocational learner tuition fee at public and private vocational institutions is also another source of VET funding and finance. Foreign financial support under the projects for the VET development in Vietnam such as ODA, World Bank (WB), Asian Development Bank (ADB), and German Technical Cooperation (GTZ) is a small amount but a great help for VET in Vietnam. Such support contributes to improving VET quality in Vietnam.

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2.7 Quality assurance

In order to improve VET quality as well as encourage people to take part in VET, many policies has been introduced to provide vocational learners flexibility and opportunities for vocational training. The recognition of quality accreditation is an important tool to improve training quality. Many policies have been released, such as Decision No. 08/2008/QĐ-BLĐTBXH, which came into being on 25 March 2008 by MOLISA, regulating the procedures for VET quality accreditation, and Circular No. 42/2011/TT-BLĐTBXH, dated 29 December 2011, by the Minister of MOLISA, stipulating the procedures to carry out the quality assurance at vocational institutions. MOLISA established the Vocational Accreditation Department and GDVT's National Skills Testing and Certification Department. As the quality accreditation has recently been put into force, there are only a limited number of vocational institutions accredited, specifically 2 per cent of vocational centres, 10 per cent of vocational

schools and 43 per cent of vocational colleges (Vietnam Vocational Training Report 2011, 2013). Accredited elements include training objectives, management, organization, teachers and managers, teaching and learning, curriculum, supporting services such as library, facilities, and support for vocational learners, financial management. These criteria are the same with all accredited levels (vocational centres, vocational schools and vocational colleges).

As the accreditation is new, operating only since 2008, volunteering for accreditation is a high priority for all vocational institutions. Their purpose is to confirm their brand name and their vocational training quality. Since 2011, the new VET quality accreditation system has been in preparation, based on the experiences of the Australian system and American system. This new framework, which will underpin the development and implementation of a programme accreditation system, will be carried out in VET in Vietnam to ensure that industry is involved in the process. This can help to improve the vocational training quality in Vietnam.

2.8 VET curriculum

As shown in Figure 1, the vocational education system in Vietnam includes the technical system and the vocational system that are under the management of MOET and MOLISA. In VET curriculum, there exist two types of training programs that are curriculum based (framework curriculum). For the MOLISA curriculum, General Department of Vocational Training (GDVT) determines the broad content of a training programme and specifies the core subjects a trainee must successfully complete in order to be awarded a qualification. Based on the framework curriculum, directors of vocational training institutions are responsible for developing their own curricula.

The MOET curriculum is the same as the MOLISA one, but it is determined by the Technical and Vocational Training Department (TVTD) and MOET. Directors of vocational colleges and schools, which deliver MOET training programs, take responsibility for developing their own curricula following the MOET framework curriculum. In spite of the variety in the curricula, the common educational aim is

training Vietnamese people for perfect development in all aspects including morality, knowledge, health, professional skills, loyalty with the ideal of the independent people and socialism, cultivating revolutionary virtues, fostering the human dignity and ability of a good citizen to meet the demand for developing and safeguarding the country (Education Law 2005, p. 1). Adopted from this general aim, ministries and institutes set up their own specific aims for their training programs.

Aspects	MOET Curriculum	MOLISA Curriculum
Training Objectives	- Equip learners with comprehensive development; learners are able to participate in social activities with professional ethics, knowledge and skills that are suitable for the level of a technology technician. - Equip learners with knowledge on basic principles of Marxism and Leninism, Communist Party of Vietnam, Ho Chi Minh Ideology, foundation knowledge in social sciences and humanities, knowledge in applied mathematics and natural sciences that is suitable to the training program. Achieve understanding of characteristics, operation process of machinery parts and mechanical machines. - Equip learners with skills to process mechanical products by normal and high technology metal cutting; design and transfer technology under the guidance of specialized engineers; organize, manage and guide production teams in enterprises and mechanic services	-Equip learners with knowledge and skills of reading drawings and related documents; knowing how to calculate, develop, arrange, mix, cut metals, save the materials; deploying the dimensions, shaping exactly on sheet steel and shaped steel; straightening, cutting, bending, hole drilling, riveting, assembling to create products with high technical requirements in the form of: tubes, frames, tanks, sinks, bunker - silos, dust filter, for the industrial and civil works - Equip learners with the correct awareness of the directions for contributing and developing the nation, constitution and law, responsibilities for one's work and behaviour. - Learners achieve the basic knowledge, understanding and performance of the common military skills to be ready to perform the task of protecting the country
Duration	3 years	3 years
Entrance requirements	High school graduate or equivalent	High school graduate or equivalent
Study Amount	95 credits (1885 periods) + 3 physical educational credits (90 periods) +135 periods of national defence education	37 Modules (3750 periods)
Curriculum Allocation *- Compulsory general education:*	- 805 periods + 32 credits (580 periods including the principles of Marxist-Leninist, Communist Party of Vietnam, Hochiminh ideology, general law, foreign language, Maths and Advance Maths, Physics, Chemistry, and Logistics) + 90 periods of physical educational + 135 periods of national defence education	- 450 periods + 320 periods (Law, Politics, IT, foreign languages) + 60 periods of physical education + 75 periods of national defence education
- Vocational training	- 63 credits (1305) **Theory training**: **45 credits (675 periods)** + 23 credits (345 periods) of basic professional knowledge + 21 credits (315 periods) of professional knowledge + 3 credits (45 periods) of graduation thesis/replacement subjects) **Practice: 18 credits (630 periods)** + 16 credits (450 periods) of practice + 2 credits (180 periods) of Graduation practice	- 3350 periods **+ Theoretical study: 767 periods** **+ Practice time: 2208 periods** - **Basic modules** (Advanced Maths, Physics, geometry, engineering drawing, safety and labour protection, metal processing technology, mechanical materials…): 502 theoretical periods + 23 practice periods - **Vocational modules**: 265 theoretical periods + 2190 practice periods)
Notes: 1 credit in theory training = 15 periods 1 credit in practice training = 30 periods 1 period = 45 minutes		
Source: Adapted from the Mechanics framework curriculum of MOET and MOLISA		

Figure 3: Comparison of MOET and MOLISA frameworks

As can be seen from Figure 3, due to the different training objectives and allocation of the two curricula, students under the MOLISA training program have more time for practising their vocational knowledge and skills than those under the MOET one.

The core curriculum for teaching and learning is regulated from the top (MOET). However, flexibility is also given to institutions and teachers in choosing teaching materials and teaching methods. Apart from the official training programs, since the Vietnamese economy is integrating into the world, many advanced education models are being adapted and applied in its higher education and vocational education. As noted, training programs from Australia, America, Singapore, Japan, Korea, and European countries such as France, Germany and England are delivered in Vietnam under the cooperation and exchanges between governments. Thanks to the existence of those training programs, there have been a lot of changes in management, assessment, VET teaching and learning in Vietnam.

VET teaching and learning differ greatly at different modes of education as well as at vocational institutions. At some vocational training institutions, which are invested in by foreign partners or under the support of international programs, teachers and students have more opportunities to approach and use new teaching and learning methods. At other institutions, although there have been many policies (such as Reform vocational teaching methods, MOET 2013) to encourage teachers to use learner-centred teaching methods, traditional teaching methods in which teachers play their role in transmitting knowledge to students remain popular in vocational institutions. Indeed, this is what Professor Vu Ngoc Hai, Director of Vietnam Institute of Educational Research, stated in relation to teaching and learning in VET at the national conference on “Basic Reforms of Vocational Education in Vietnam” (Le Linh 2012). His concern is that after over 25 years of reforms in education, Vietnam as yet to get out of exam-oriented education with the “simple and stable” teaching methods basing on the teaching and learning objectives of “remembering, learning by heart and copying knowledge” (p. 1). He argues that VET requires vocational learners to achieve good skills to do the work requested (Le Linh 2012).

Using technology in teaching is also highly appreciated at vocational institutions. Nevertheless, due to the lack of teaching facilities equipped at vocational institutions, the application of technology in teaching and learning is still limited.

Teaching and learning in formal vocational institutes are somehow different from family workshops or traditional craft villages. Learning by observation, learning by imitating, learning by experience and learning by doing are often recognised at family workshops. With this approach of teaching and learning, it contributes to society with a skilled labour force, though one not officially recognised, for example in labour export to foreign markets, and for state enterprises.

2.9 Flexibility and practicability in VET

VET in Vietnam is very flexible. The Vocational Training Law, passed in 2006, has increased flexibility in training provision. It changed the VET system from two types of training "long-term and short-term training" to three distinct levels. As described in Figure 1, on the one hand, those who finish their secondary schools or high schools are eligible for a place at vocational colleges or vocational schools to acquire the skills they need. On the other hand, they can pursue their vocational training at non-public training providers (NPTPs), which was allowed since 1998. NPTPS are private sector training providers, foreign-backed training institutions and State Owned Enterprise-based training institutions. This non-public sector now makes up an important share of vocational training institutions.

However, to get a place at those training institutions, vocational learners need to have a certain level of literacy and numeracy. Alternatively, those learners who have no or limited literacy and numeracy knowledge can attend family workshops or traditional craft villages. This is an advantage of VET in Vietnam in that it provides flexible ways of vocational training for everyone who wants to have vocational skills for their jobs. This mode of vocational training is, nevertheless, not officially mentioned in Decision No. 48/2002/QQ-TTg approving the plan for vocational networks during the stage 2002–2010 as well as in Decision No. 630/QD-TTg, dated 29 May 2012, approving the

development strategy for vocational training for the period of 2011–2020. Vocational training institutes regulated in those decisions are vocational schools, vocational centres, vocational colleges, professional secondary schools and technical colleges allocated vocational training.

In addition, the Vocational Training Law allows for flexible and mobile provision of vocational training. Higher level institutions such as universities are also permitted to offer vocational training at lower levels, so universities can offer vocational training programs if they get permission from MOET and MOLISA. Vocational colleges can deliver intermediate and primary level courses, and vocational secondary schools can deliver primary training programs. Vocational colleges can also set up relationship with universities to offer college graduates can then upgrade their qualification by attending follow-up courses at university. Additionally, businesses, cooperatives, production and trading units, specialized schools and other educational institutions are allowed to deliver primary training after registration. Thanks to the flexibility, vocational learners have more opportunities to undertake their further study.

Actually, most Vietnamese people still prefer a Bachelor degree granted by universities to an associate bachelor degree granted by colleges. Entering vocational training is considered as the last choice for students who fail to enter public and private universities. In that respect, the flexibility in VET is an advantage in attracting more students.

2.10 Internationalisation and mobility in VET

There has been internationalisation in VET during different historical stages of the country. Previously, many exchange programs were established to send Vietnamese people to achieve professional and vocational skills in France, America and countries in the former Soviet Union and its allies; or experts from those countries came to provide VET in Vietnam. Nowadays, international co-operation in vocational education have developed strongly in Vietnam (Vietnam TVET report 2011, 2013). Bilateral and multilateral collaboration programs from over 40 countries have

supported the development of vocational education in Vietnam in all aspects, such as curriculum, technical support, staff training and management skills to improve the supply of labour with qualifications that meet the demand of industry (Vietnam TVET report 2011, 2013). At the request of the Vietnamese Government, in relation to the strategy of human development till 2020, international donors such as World Bank, Asian Development Bank, GTZ and AusAID are now investing heavily in VET with the purpose of developing a skilled labour force for Vietnam. Typically, the Vietnam-Germany Cooperation Technical Vocational Education and Training Project has been carried out from 2008 till now with focus on support for a vocational training system corresponding to the needs of business sector; creation of a differentiated regulatory framework; institutional development including private and governmental training institutions; practice-oriented training; and improved opportunities for women to access vocational training (GDVT 2012).

Apart from international support programs, at a national level, the cooperation between vocational institutions and international partners is encouraged so as to contribute to the development of VET in Vietnam. Many vocational institutes from developed countries such as Australia, America, Singapore, Germany, Japan and Korea have been delivering their advanced training programs in Vietnam. Vietnamese vocational learners now are able to "study abroad" in Vietnam. Nevertheless, training programs delivered by enterprises receiving foreign investment, or under cooperative delivery, are mostly concentrated in applied fields that the market is demanding such as marketing, finance, business, and computer science. Technical fields, for example, mechanics and electricity are still in desperate need of international cooperation.

Thanks to the co-operated and international programs in VET, Vietnamese VET teachers and learners have good opportunities to move toward advanced training programs. Furthermore, teaching and managerial staff have been sponsored to attend international seminars and conferences with the purposes of sharing experiences and approach to update technology as well as new teaching and management skills. Nevertheless, there remain several concerns in VET internationalisation. First, the

quality of foreign VET institutes entering Vietnam in the role of investors should be carefully considered. We would like to join in the global race; however, it does not mean that we welcome all foreign education institutes entering Vietnam regardless of quality.

In addition, lack of a national vocational skill framework, insufficient facilities, curriculum, materials and qualified teaching staff with professional skills and foreign languages, are disadvantages for VET Vietnam in its efforts to integrate into the region and the world. Moreover, the lack of policies and strategies to support for foreign investments in VET is a barrier to attract foreign partners to Vietnam (Vietnam TVET report 2011, 2013).

2.11 VET reform in Vietnam [9]

Issues such as the low status of VET, the overlapping responsibilities of MOLISA and MOET over technical and professional education, the supply driven VET system, the lack of skills standards that link specific competencies to labour market needs, the society's preference for academic degrees over VET, and the lack of the infrastructure and teaching equipment needed to improve vocational training quality (ADB performance evaluation report, 2013, Vietnam TVET report 2011, 2013), all suggest the need to reform VET in Vietnam.

At the tenth National Congress of the Communist Party of Vietnam, the Party laid down policy on reform and restructure of the economy, in order to enable quality improvement, effectiveness and competitiveness in the global setting (MOET 2013). VET in Vietnam needs reforms to integrate with the world because "windows of opportunity do not remain open for long" (Valley & Wilkinson 2008, p. 11). The basic and comprehensive reform of Vietnamese education in general and vocational

[9] This recommendation was given during the primary data analysis. Therefore, these are general recommendations for VET reform. Specific and practical ones for VET pedagogical practices and VET reforms for integration, modernisation, and globalisation will be further developed and discussed in the implementation section of Chapter 9.

education specifically is essential to provide a high quality labour force for the society. Reforms should include:

- Restructuring the VET management system to reduce the overlapping duties among ministries and agencies. The complexity in management at a certain level is a barrier for financial management, to attracting foreign investments and to setting up linkages with enterprises as well as to improving the training quality.
- Establishing a national skill standard set and national qualification system in order to get recognition from the region and the world and to offer qualified labour forces for national as well as international demands. Achieving regional and international recognition will build up mobility and flexibility for vocational learners and also help to increase the number of VET participants.
- Enlarging the linkage with enterprises. This is important to assist students in finding jobs and lowering the burden among training providers. Due to the disconnection between the training providers and enterprises, training quality has not met the needs of society and employers. Enterprises are a key beneficiary of skilled labour and hence have direct interest in skills training.
- Raising public awareness of VET to Vietnamese people to highlight the importance of vocational education in the society. The government needs to reconsider the balance between investments in vocational and academic institutions, and step up campaigns to familiarize secondary and high school students with the benefits of vocational training (ADB performance evaluation report 2013) because academic education is still a preferred choice for students and their families compared with VET. Lower-performance students who cannot have access to the university level have to pursue VET. It is the lower-performance at VET entrance that influences VET output. Vocational qualifications systems have potential to improve the link between education and work, to set up new pathways from education into employment and to reduce barriers to learning, for example by using new forms of pedagogy and assessment, setting up appropriate standards for the teaching workforce which requires both pedagogical and industrial expert, setting up authentic learning

environments to ensure the confidence in VET qualifications and add to the value of VET in Vietnam;

- Increasing the budget for vocational education, particularly in developing infrastructure and improving teaching facilities. Indeed, although the budget for VET increases yearly corresponding to the GDP, the investment for VET still constituted only 0.45 per cent of GDP in 2011 (Vietnam TVET report 2011, 2013);
- Having support policies and strategies to attract foreign investments in vocational education with the purpose of improving the quality of vocational training, teaching and management staff, curriculum and so on. Such policies must be practical and powerful enough to increase the attraction of vocational learners.

Finally, it is important to set up more effective up linkages between formal and non-formal education, as well as informal learning, to offer vocational learners opportunities to improve their practical skills and theoretical knowledge. This is especially necessary for VET in Vietnam. While formal education is highly regarded in Vietnamese culture and tradition, the concept of informal learning in VET is still abstract and ambiguous. The draft Education Development Strategy 2011-2020 (MOET 2010b) calls for diversification, standardisation and specialisation of the national education system. However, in the implementation there is still much to be done. The relationship between modes of VET education should be made effective.

It will bring a bright future for vocational learners at family workshops if they have the chance to get a qualification at a vocational institute. This should be recognised and clearly articulated in official documents related to VET in Vietnam. This can contribute to labour mobility and lift the social expectation of VET in Vietnam.

Chapter 3 – Literature Review

3.1 Introduction

At stated in Chapter 1, this thesis investigates the pedagogical practices of vocational learning in Vietnam, the impact of historical influences on its practices, and key challenges of VET pedagogical practices in the shift to modernisation across the settings: a government college, a foreign funded college and a family workshop. In order to provide a deeper understanding of the these issues, related national and international research projects are reviewed as part of this literature review which draws on a range of academic sources in both Vietnamese and English. It covers three main bodies of work: research into higher education and vocational education in Vietnam, research into VET internationally including VET pedagogies, and research into workplace learning.

The first section of the literature review examines research as it pertains to higher education in Vietnam. It extends to include historical influences, pedagogy in higher education and its related issues and reforms. As already suggested regarding the research problems (see Chapter 1), there is a paucity of research into VET in Vietnam. For this reason, the current research must draw from literature on higher education to map the research findings and shed light on (1) how teaching and learning in VET are pursued, and (2) how historical stages have shaped pedagogical practices in Vietnamese VET.

The second section of the literature review looks at research into VET, specifically national and international VET research, and research into VET pedagogy in both the formal and informal sectors, the objective being to investigate how VET teaching and learning happens in other countries before analysing VET pedagogy in Vietnam. Additionally, it identifies the gap in VET literature in Vietnam and the contribution of the literature of this study to fill that gap.

As well as exploring the gaps in the literature, the final section deals with workplace learning, aiming to examine foundation concepts and to provide an overview of how learning in the workplace is occurring nationally and internationally. Particular focus is on the significant research upon which this study draws when discussing the family workshops.

A conceptual overview of the range of literature explored in this study is presented in Figure 4.

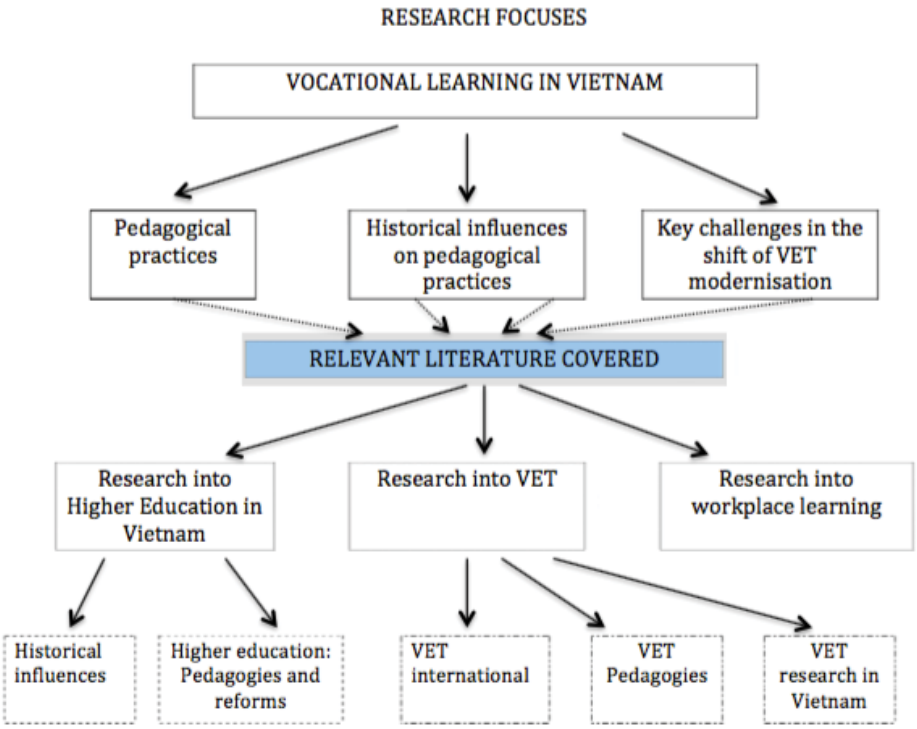


Figure 4: Map of Literature Review

3.2 Research into higher education in Vietnam

Unfortunately, a thorough search of the literature focusing on Vietnamese VET, especially VET pedagogies and their historical influences, revealed a significant lack of available materials to review. Therefore, this study will concentrate on exploring research into higher education in an attempt to understand more about VET in Vietnam.

In Vietnam, research has recently expanded greatly, subsequent to the 2012 declaration of a national development strategy for Science and Technology by 2020. Research and education are considered national priorities if Vietnam is to become an industrialised economy by the year 2020 (Thu tuong chinh phu 2012). The existence of over 1600 R&D institutions at the national, ministerial and provincial levels is proof of this development. However, to date the contributions of those institutions to research development have been limited (Nguyen Thi Lan Huong 2014). The number of research publications from 1970 to 2011 seems substantial with 10,745, yet is only a fraction of the output of neighbouring countries: Thailand (22%), Malaysia (27%) and Singapore (11%) (Nguyen Van Tuan 2013). Interestingly, during the period 1966–2011, the focus of most of these publications (68 %) was on biomedicine (40%), physics (15%), and mathematics (14%) (Nguyen Van Tuan 2013). Research into higher education shows little better orientation. Nguyen Thi Lan Huong's (2014) study exploring research into higher education in Vietnam shows that the volume of research publications from higher education institutions in Vietnam is seriously limited in quantity. Indeed, Hien (2010), who compares the research performance of 11 Southeast Asian countries, reports that Vietnam's entire Peer Reviewed International Publications (PRIP) in 2007 totalled less than that of a single university in Thailand, i.e., 234 compared to 602 publications. He adds that the majority of Vietnamese PRIPs favour mathematics and theoretical physics. Due to these limitations, reviewing the literature on Vietnamese higher education has proven a challenge, to say the very least.

This section first reviews the historical influences on Vietnamese higher education, which are argued to have a significant effect on the current higher education in Vietnam. It then explores pedagogical practices in higher education.

3.2.1 Historical influences on Vietnamese education

In the analyses of contemporary Vietnamese education, many educational researchers have ignored important historical contexts (Pham & Fry 2005). As Professor Dang Canh Khanh observes, it defies belief that "a nation can become developed purely on

the basis of modernisation without looking back at its history" (Dang Canh Khanh 2014, p. 1). The same is true for education. It is very important to research the historical influences that have shaped education practices in Vietnam, a country which has a long history of domination by foreign countries. This is particularly so in the case of VET.

Vietnam's history is marked by several dynasties. Its long history of domination by foreign nations together with its French and Chinese colonial influences has resulted in a rich intermixing of cultures. Many different ideologies have shaped Vietnamese cultural and educational values. Over time, three perspectives, in particular, the Confucian, French and Soviet, have greatly impacted on Vietnamese education.

Confucian influences

Vietnamese education, which endured Chinese domination for more than one thousand years from 207 BC was strongly influenced by a Confucian ideology which "left an indelible cultural and educational impact on Vietnam which persists to this day" (Pham & Fry 2005, p. 200). Several studies describe the degree to which Confucian influences have characterised Vietnamese education; see Tran Hoa Phuong (1998), Pham and Fry (2005), Welch (2010), Phan Le Ha and Phan Van Que (2006), Nguyen Thi Nga (1999), Mai Thi Chin (2010), Nguyen Thi Thanh Mai (2013) and Tran Thi Tuyet (2012).

Tran Hoa Phuong (1998), whose work attempts to trace the evolution of Vietnamese higher education in the 20th century in the context of historical influences, argues that Confucianism has had some influence on teaching, learning and assessment at this level of education. She argues that due to this influence, students spend considerable time reciting and memorising texts and poems mechanically, repeating them without fully understanding the meaning implicit in them (Tran Hoa Phuong 1998). Learners were not encouraged to engage in critical thinking or analysis and were expected to absorb whatever knowledge and skills their teachers imparted. They never raised questions as they were culturally bound to unconditionally respect their teachers (Ho

Thi Hanh Tien & Reich 2014). As such, "questioning their teachers in any way could be considered as disrespect, disloyalty of the student and caused the teacher to lose face" (Tran Hoa Phuong 1998, p. 37). Tran Hoa Phuong further argues that this form of rote-learning and memorisation gradually came to constitute the learning method in Vietnamese education (Tran Hoa Phuong 1998). It still applies in all schools and to all Vietnamese students nowadays. This learning method renders students passive. Tran Hoa Phuong's research (1998) will be used as a basis for theoretical conceptualisations, and as a mirror through which the thesis will explore the current pedagogical practices in vocational education in Vietnam. My aim is to determine the degree to which historical factors have impacted on the country's vocational teaching and learning practices.

Modern Confucianism, which has brought a shift in teaching and learning, has moved students away from a learning activity inscribed with the above Confucian heritage (see Figure 5 for learning activities with Confucian heritage) (Jin & Cortazzi 2006). Tran Thi Tuyet's research (2012) argues vis-à-vis the problems peculiar to the learning approach of Vietnamese students influenced by their Confucian cultural heritage, that Confucianism has not rendered the students passive. The main issues, she claims, are teaching methodologies and learning requirements (Tran Thi Tuyet 2012).

The Confucian influence is also discussed in Phan and Phan's research exploring processes of identity formation of Vietnamese English language teachers (Phan Le Ha & Phan Van Que 2006). Their research shows how deeply the role of morality persists, i.e., that teachers are moral guides. To this end, they argue that, "Confucianism also put great emphasis on morality education, particularly highlighting the moral role of the teacher and the learner" (Phan Le Ha & Phan Van Que 2006, p. 138). Therefore, it has become enshrined in Vietnamese education law that teachers must constantly learn and train in order to set a good example for their learners. Teachers, from that perspective base, have a tendency to develop personal knowledge and morality in accordance with social, cultural and educational expectations (Phan Le Ha & Phan Van

Que 2006). In this particular historical stage, it is argued, Vietnam's teachers have an important role to play in developing learning, learners and Vietnamese education. Emphasis is on morality in education, fondness and respect for learning and respect for teachers, values that throughout time have shaped Vietnamese culture, its history and its people (Pham & Fry 2005).

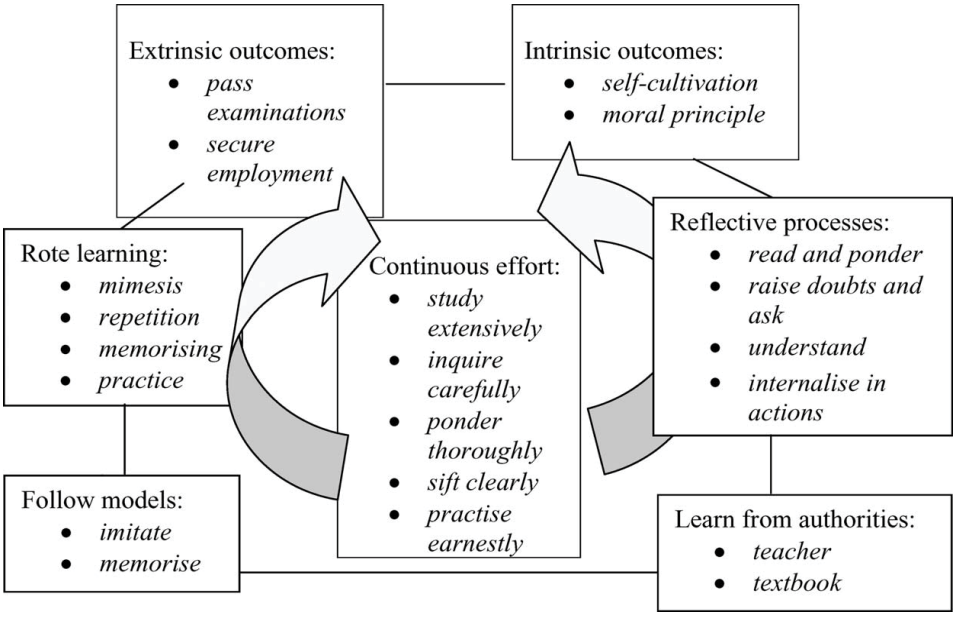


Figure 5: Learning activities with Confucian heritage
(Jin & Cortazzi, 2006, p. 13)

Due to the above Confucian influences, a particular "Vietnamese character" is still found in the Vietnamese education system today (Tran Hoa Phuong 1998; Tran Thi Tuyet 2012). According to Pham and Fry's research (2005), although Vietnam is known as a part of the Confucian world, the Confucian values have been adapted and adopted to fit the Vietnamisation of Confucianism (Pham & Fry 2005). The introduction of "Chu nom" – a Vietnamese form of Chinese characters – is a notable example.

Hoang Trung's doctoral research (2001), which focuses on revolutionary ethics in Ho Chi Minh's ideology, shows that Ho Chi Minh selectively incorporated the moral

obligations of Confucianism into revolutionary ethics specific to his ideology. In the Confucian world view, "loyalty to the King" and "piousness towards parents" were transformed into loyalty to the nation and piousness towards the Vietnamese people. These ideologies, which are taught at colleges and universities in Vietnam, have been incorporated into a subject known as Ho Chi Minh's ideology.

The Vietnamese people's Confucian heritage places great significance on learning, with special respect for teachers, scholars, students and mentors. However, the country's Confucian education system has been criticised for the lack of practical and technological skills in its curriculum, i.e., for its "looking down on manual work" (Pham & Fry 2005). Some argue that this is because vocational education in Vietnam was not highly regarded during that period.

Given the above influences, it seems undeniable that Confucianism has contributed cultural and spiritual values to Vietnamese society. Confucian education, which advocates examinations, has produced a large number of highly educated people in Vietnamese society.

As discussed above, there is a noticeable gap in the extant research into the historical influences on VET in Vietnam. Research mostly examines higher education. Therefore, developing an understanding of the historical influences on higher education could prove useful for exploring historical influences on VET in Vietnam.

French influences

French education policy, which was implemented when the French first colonised Vietnam in 1858, "aimed to shape the minds of the Vietnamese people and disseminate French values" and "used educational institutions as vehicles to influence the local people", and to diminish any anti-French movement (Tien Thi Hanh Ho & Reich 2014, p. 3). According to Pham and Fry (2005, p. 203), "the goal of the French was to replace the Chinese influenced feudal Confucian system with an elitist modern education system which privileged the French language". In reality, the initial objective of French education was to train a labour force which would serve the

colonial demands, for example, training interpreters. French ideology regarding Vietnamese education was markedly different from the Confucian ideology, i.e., in the French perception, education was considered to be a natural interaction, a logical principle. Learning happened naturally and was based on analysis and evidence (Dinh Van Duc 2011; Ngo Minh Oanh 2011). However, unlike Confucian teaching, French education was not based on a belief in heaven or in the afterlife. This perspective offered learners and teachers a chance to approach new knowledge not only in society, but in the world as well. Within this renovation of education, learning by doing or by practice attracted much attention. Several practical schools were opened to provide skilled workers for the society at that time (Dinh Van Duc 2011; Ngo Minh Oanh 2011). In this early stage, the focus of the French was on changing the cognition of Vietnamese in learning, and on raising the requirements for study. Vocational education was also taken deeply seriously, resulting in the foundation of many vocational colleges and schools at that time.

Tran Hoa Phuong (1998) observes that in terms of governance, the French put an end to the traditional way of Confucian education and replaced it with an official school system controlled by the government, as the traditional system made no provision for teaching students the technical and specialised skills sought by the French. The government therefore established the Department of Public Education and the Department of Higher Education in 1917. These agencies made all related decisions in areas such as curricula, staff and school management, effectively giving the government a role in disseminating colonial education. Nowadays, there is evidence that Vietnamese higher education, specifically vocational education, shows some similarities to the French higher education system known for its centralised management (Tran Hoa Phuong 1998). But, despite the French influence at this stage, a Vietnamese initiative was also found during the French colonisation with the introduction of the “Quoc ngu” Romanised writing system, which replaced the traditional Confucian system. It uses a Roman writing system adopted from French and tone sounds added from Chinese (Pham & Fry 2005).

The French influence contributed to a big shift in Vietnamese education, moving it from rote learning and memorisation to learning by doing and practice.

Soviet Influences

Several studies have been undertaken of the Soviet influence on Vietnamese education; see Dang Que Anh (2009), Dao and Hayden (2010), Tran Hoa Phuong (1998), and Harman, Hayden and Pham (2010). After the defeat of the French in 1954, the Vietnamese education system underwent many great changes. Welch (2010, p. 197), who researched the internationalisation of Vietnamese higher education, confirms that "the character of higher learning in Vietnam has been significantly shaped by external influences". The Soviet Union, one among these external influences, made a notable contribution to the development of Vietnamese higher education by offering thousands of Vietnamese students opportunities to study undergraduate and postgraduate courses in the Soviet socialist states. As well, the Soviet Union contributed to the establishment of many universities based on the Soviet model (Welch 2010). The influence of the Soviet Union and Eastern Europe is found in the majority of the universities' curricula and programmes which reproduced those of the socialist countries with the exception of medicine, which was modelled along French institutions' lines; see Dang Que Anh (2009), Dao and Hayden (2010), Harman, Hayden and Pham (2010) and Welch (2010). The Soviet model separated teaching activities from research activities and left the governance of institutions to particular line ministries (Dang Que Anh 2009; Dao & Hayden 2010; Harman, Hayden & Lam 2010). The universities are not considered to be the main actors in the national research and technology system due to historical factors (Nguyen Thi Lan Huong 2014). Following the Soviet model, universities in Vietnam used to be places for teaching and learning, while the research institutes focused on research. In more recent times, the universities have taken up research activities; however, the system of research institutes still exists and absorbs most of the national research funding.

According to Tien Thi Hanh Ho and Reich (2014), the characteristics that distinguished the Soviet model from the French model was its top-down approach to

higher education – a model mimicked by Vietnam's contemporary education system today. It becomes evident when, for example, the State Planning Committee draws on the Ministry of Higher Education's quota (number of students) for all training specialists in each area. Then the Ministry allocates the quota to each university or college. All plans passed down from the top are implemented by universities and colleges.

In terms of organisation, Tran Hoa Phuong's research (1998) shows that while the French model comprised a university and its faculties, the Soviet model, which focused more on the study of pure science subjects, conformed to narrow specialisations, especially in the technical fields. Tran Hoa Phuong (1998) claims that although Vietnam's universities have adopted a Soviet-style organisational structure, decision-making on all issues was assumed by the Vietnamese. Vietnamese leaders simply take from the Soviet model that which is best suited to their education system and their society (Tran Hoa Phuong 1998).

Regarding the Soviet model's teaching programs, Tran Hoa Phuong's research (1998) suggests that Soviet teaching programs have had an extensive influence on the Vietnamese higher education system. Despite acknowledging demands to have their own teaching programs, it is quite hard for teachers to design training programs because they have no practical experience of doing so. Vietnamese planners and teachers, therefore, establish the structure of specialisation, training programs, curricula and teaching methods based on the Soviet model under the guidance of Russian specialists and through the use of translated Russian textbooks (Tran Hoa Phuong 1998). Within this model of education, political education and foundation science are heavily emphasised, an approach accepted by the Vietnamese leaders. The enrolment of students is an issue in this model of education. Apart from the quota allocated by the Ministry of Higher Education and the priority given to specific training areas, the students' political backgrounds were considered as selection criteria when they applied for places at higher education institutions. This led to the poor quality of Vietnamese education at that time. A 1974 report showed that most

students had good political backgrounds, in contrast to their academic levels which were rather low, because the source of prospective students was limited – the quota was made up of 70 – 90% of those who had completed secondary school, with no exam necessary (Tran Hoa Phuong 1998).

Ngo Minh Oanh's (2011) research describes the learning process as an activity based upon Soviet Premier Vladimir Lenin's cognitive procedure. That is, through observation, learners built up their abstract concepts or ideas; then, they put these abstract concepts or ideas into practices. This was a dialectical way of recognising truth and reality in life (Ngo Minh Oanh 2011). In effect, the Soviet approach gives deep consideration to learning by observation, thought and doing (practice). However, Nguyen Thi Thanh Hong's research (2012) reveals that teachers play the key role in this learning process. Their task is to train ideal learners, i.e., communists who are loyal to socialism, are active, creative, acquire the necessary skills and have sound foundation knowledge of both the natural and the social sciences (Nguyen Thi Thanh Hong 2012). Furthermore, students must acquire a high degree of knowledge to be good communists and loyal to the Socialist State. This is still the case in all educational institutions in Vietnam, including vocational colleges. Political and moral education is considered a core subject for all students at vocational colleges. This supports the claim that Soviet ideology has greatly influenced Vietnamese education practices.

This section has briefly addressed the historical influences that have shaped education in Vietnam. In particular, Tran Hoa Phuong's research (1998) emphasises the influences from different historical stages that continue to impact on Vietnamese education today. My exploration of these influences has proven crucial for this research because they will be used as lenses, as conceptualisation frameworks, through which to examine the current pedagogical practices in vocational education in Vietnam, and to judge the effects of historical practices on vocational teaching and learning today.

3.2.2 Higher education: Pedagogies and reforms

Given the paucity of research into higher education in Vietnam alluded to earlier, the current research draws on literature pertaining to Vietnamese higher education from different sources including international and national research. The following notable researchers have contributed to this level of education: Dao and Hayden (2010), Edquist (2005), Harman, Hayden and Lam (2010), London (2011), St. George (2010), Tran Thi Ly (2013b), Tran, Le and Nguyen (2014) and Welch (2010).

The literature on Vietnamese higher education is rather diverse. The significant research into higher education in Vietnam focuses, for example, on historical influences (Pham & Fry 2005; Tran Hoa Phuong 1998), reforms and tertiary practices (Dao & Hayden 2010; Evans & Adam 2010; Hayden & Lam 2010; Luu Nguyen Quoc Hung 2014), on the poor preparation offered to graduates and on employability skills in higher education (Tran Thi Tuyet 2014a, 2014b). A major part of the research focuses on language learning, learner-centred teaching (Pham Toan 2008; Pham Thi Hong Thanh 2011; Phan Le Ha 2014) and policies for higher education (Sloper & Le 1995). Research into curricula and higher education in Vietnam (Tran, Le & Nguyen 2014) and research into quality assurance in Vietnamese higher education (Nguyen Tram 2012) have also contributed to enriching the literature on higher education.

Curricula and pedagogies in Vietnamese higher education have been widely researched over recent years. Notably, Tran, Le and Nguyen's research (2014) provides a clear background of curriculum and pedagogy in Vietnam's higher education. These three scholars argue that "the higher education curriculum is still out of tune with international currents of knowledge, new developments of knowledge and technologies, world-standard scientific research and social research"; and that "the traditional transmission pedagogy still dominates Vietnamese tertiary education". This is despite the fact that the approach to university teaching has changed around the world (Tran, Le & Nguyen 2014, p. 96). Tran, Le and Nguyen observe that the transmission pedagogy shaped by the Confucian tradition considers students to be passive learners and teachers as knowledge transporters. Ngo Tu

Thanh (2008) proposes that changing teaching methods is undeniably the appropriate thing to do at the time of a knowledge economy. Put simply, Vietnamese education is a product of historical existences, and its philosophy and teaching methods have been influenced throughout its historical stages (Ngo Tu Thanh 2008). In his article "Solutions for teaching method innovation at ICT universities nowadays", Ngo Tu Thanh suggests a 3C method (**C**ách - **C**hủ động - **C**ông nghệ). The concept of "teaching method innovation", which is clearly defined in his research, does not mean "bringing computers and projectors to your classroom to replace blackboards and chalk, or group work discussion" (Ngo Tu Thanh 2008, p. 238). Teachers must teach students "**C**ách"; that is, the way to learn, the way to do research, and the way to solve problems. Self-study will energise students, which means incorporating **Ch**ủ động into learning; and applying ICT **C**ông nghệ in teaching. Ngo Tu Thanh (2008) concludes that innovation in teaching methods should not come at the expense of traditional methods. Innovation should be flexibly combined with traditional methods to achieve the maximum learning outcomes. In effect, Tran, Le and Nguyen and Ngo Tu Thanh have made a connection between historical subsistence and pedagogies in their arguments and analyses.

The shift in pedagogies to cooperative or learner-centred learning implemented to satisfy the requirements for change in the Vietnamese education system has recently been researched by Vietnamese scholars inside and outside of the country as well as international scholars. An important component of this shift has been to change traditional teaching and learning into cooperative and learner-centred learning (Pham Thi Hong Thanh 2008). However, the proposed reform has encountered some constraints in the process of implementation in the form of the views of Vietnamese teachers of their roles and responsibilities in class, class sizes, curriculum coverage and workload divisions (Pham Thi Hong Thanh 2011), and the "powerful" and "privileged" roles of teachers (Phan Le Ha 2014). Taken together, these factors have contributed to the unsuccessful implementation of collaborative learning or learner-centred learning in the Vietnamese context.

Another stream of literature pertaining to Vietnamese higher education has intensively examined issues of Vietnamese education, and suggested reforms and/or solutions (Luu Nguyen Quoc Hung 2014; MOET 2006; Nguyen Hung Phong & Nguyen Phuong Hoa 2010; Nguyen Thi Minh Hong 2009; Pham & Fry 2002; Sloper & Le 1995; Tran Thi Tuyet 2014a; 2014b).

Research by Tran Thi Tuyet (2014a, 2015) emphasises the employability skills of higher education graduates, and issues that are likely to arise in response to the reorientation of the world economy and the nation towards modernisation and industrialisation by 2020. Her findings reveal the lack of required skills (i.e., generic skills, soft skills) and poor preparation for students at universities in Vietnam. This is an emerging issue in Vietnam today. Many critics blame the universities for their poor training and for failing to prepare students for entry into the workforce. However, Tran Thi Tuyet (2015) argues that this is not solely the universities' responsibility. Students, employers, policy makers and family members must become involved in the process of prepare for graduates with employability skills.

Issues surrounding learning and teaching are evident in much research into higher education. Luu Nguyen Quoc Hung (2014) alludes to the problems that Vietnamese higher education has, such as lack of autonomy and accountability in management, out-of-date modes of teaching and learning, ineffective usage of technology education, and retraining the labour force after joining the world of work. Importantly, Luu argues, using outdated modes of teaching and learning in higher education is seen as a big obstacle impeding the independence, creativity and problem solving capacity of the students. Therefore, concerns about changing methodologies at Vietnamese universities are increasingly being approached from all aspects and at all levels. But, the process of change is proving very slow due to a lack of qualified lecturers, facilities and materials (Luu Nguyen Quoc Hung 2014). In addition, while university infrastructure is constantly being upgraded with the establishing of modern libraries, laboratories and the Internet, weak utilisation of these is found at most universities as argued by Luu Nguyen Quoc Hung: "The low percentage of regular users including

lecturers and students for academic purposes, limitation and low transferring of the Internet; computers are used as a decoration, and e-mail and Internet are mainly used for personal communication" (2014, p. 3). Further suggestions include reforming higher education, e.g., giving autonomy to universities signalling a shift of teaching methodology from teacher-centred to learner-centred methods; see Edquist (2005), Ellis (1995), Harman, Hayden and Pham (2010), Dao and Hayden (2010), Luu Nguyen Quoc Hung (2014) and Pham Thi Hong Thanh (2008). Changing teaching methods, management, enhancing technology usage and industrial relations in education are suggested to be needed to prepare a qualified labour force for the global economy.

There is a perception that research of this type will help to articulate pedagogies and the historical influences that drive them. This, to some extent, has implications for VET, a topic which I will now discuss.

3.3 Research into VET

The next body of the literature reviewed examines research into VET internationally, followed by the research context of Vietnam (see Figure 4). It provides rich descriptions of how VET pedagogical practices were initiated in both formal and informal sectors in other countries, and the learning theories underpinning such practices. Scrutiny of this literature will help to locate how and where VET pedagogies and learning theories should be implemented in Vietnam in order to provide the country with a skilled labour force.

3.3.1 International VET research

Research into how human beings learn, work and live will contribute to the development of the labour force, society, economics and the education of a nation, since "VET is about human learning, working and living", according to McGrath (2012, p. 623).

Scholars have undertaken a large amount of international research into VET, e.g., VET history, reforms and globalisation or internationalisation. Pätzold and Wahle (2008),

who researched vocational educational theory, and the historical aspects of VET, argue that their search for a political and pedagogical orientation in education either for the present or the future has to be based on the history of VET. According to their findings, VET brings together the experiences of various groups in different societies with their own labour cultures. As such the study of VET can be considered as a part of the discipline of pedagogical science. Similarly, Billett's (2011b) research, which analyses VET's historical roots, positions VET in both Western and Asian traditions. The above research highlights the importance of history to understanding VET.

In recent years, the status of VET has been increasingly highlighted in countries worldwide, both developed and developing, in response to the global economy, the pace of technological change, and the era of knowledge (Guthrie et al. 2009; Majundar 2011; Rauner & Maclean 2009; Nguyen Ngoc Hieu 2010). Globalisation has generated new demands for a high quality labour force equipped with new skills and knowledge. This has particularly been so in developing countries as they engage in modernisation and industrialisation. Therefore, the shortage of skilled labour needed to meet social requirements is a common issue in most emerging economies which are approaching modernisation and industrialisation. Vietnam, in which only approximately 15 per cent of the labour force is vocationally trained (Freire 2011; Mac Van Tien et al. 2012), is an example of this phenomenon. Many research projects at the national and international levels are being conducted to find good solutions to – and improvement of – vocational training in order to supply societies with skilled workers (A cooperation project by Vietnam and Germany on a technical vocational education and training, a project on vocational training for an agricultural labour force by 2020, and a project on training for soldiers in Vietnam) (Cuc dao tao nghe 2012a).

There has been increasing research into the internationalisation of VET (Smith & Smith 1999; Sogaard 2000; Tran Thi Ly 2013a). From a European perspective, Sogaard (2000) discusses the conceptual framework of internationalisation in the context of Danish VET: the need for change, future competence requirements, and cultural identity in response to internationalisation and globalisation. Sogaard's

research focuses on curriculum, teaching and learning, and training because in his opinion, they are greatly influenced by internationalisation. He describes some of the opportunities for curricula and school development in an internationalisation process in Danish VET. Sogaard, whose research offers recommendations for VET in Denmark, claims that VET teaching should be updated regularly in response to international and national requests.

Recent concerns and debate surrounding VET include recognition of increasing skills gaps in many countries, a development considered an aspect of globalisation. Therefore, there is much research to be done in this field. Berdi and Germein (2014) have examined what quality teaching and learning means in the VET context and how education for sustainability enhances the quality of teaching and learning in VET. Education for Sustainability (EfS), which focuses on learner-centred and transformative approaches, is considered an enabler of better quality VET pedagogy. As Berdi and Germein (2014, pp. 5-6) argue, EfS pedagogy may be seen as "enriching and renewing teaching and learning generally, operating on the foundation of conscious theoretical models and approaches relevant to the 21st century context".

In the wake of the above research into VET globalisation, VET is being reconceptualised from different perspectives regarding its roles in human development and its sustainability in the 21st century (Tikly 2013). From the European perspective, Tikly's research examines the nature of VET, its roles, and the challenges facing VET from human capital approaches and sustainable development approaches, and proposes suitable solutions to each approach. VET, it is argued, should be defined and understood in relation to its role in development. Tikly claims that "human capital approaches provide too narrow and instrumental a view of human development, and suggest a one-size-fits-all solution to the challenges facing VET which does not make sufficient allowances for differences in context" (Tikly 2013, p. 32). In contrast, in the sustainable development approach, more attention is paid to universal solutions. However, this approach does not sufficiently address the

processes required to promulgate relevant policies and values relating to VET for local contexts.

More realistically, changing the nature of VET has been widely researched from a South African perspective to prepare vocational learners for the world of work of the future. Gamble (2013), in her research into the reason why the improvement of formal TVET teaching and learning is important, argues that what ready-to-work students need is the knowledge and skills they desire at work, e.g., technological skills, green skills, employability skills, and foundations of language, numeracy and literacy, and the skills and knowledge to prepare them for further learning. However, Van der Berg et al.'s (2011) research stressed that the less economically advanced countries with limited economic growth and high unemployment provide young people with fewer opportunities for work or further study. This is a challenge for VET. As Billett's work (2011a) in Australia reveals, the inevitability of changing work requirements brings with it not only threats to existing competence, and individuals' standing and confidence, but also affects individuals' different capacities to respond to those changes. These research perspectives reveal the importance of VET and its emerging needs when changing to provide a qualified labour force.

Other research has focused on changes in vocational learning (e.g., Billett 2011; Hager 2007; Knight & Mlotkowski 2009; Rauner & Maclean 2009; Wheelahan 2007) at the international level. Most of the existing research has paid considerable attention to teacher development in vocational education, curriculum development and management (Guthrie et al. 2009; Majundar 2011; Nguyen Ngoc Hieu 2010).

Changing approaches to teacher training and changing VET teachers' roles are highlighted in the significant research project titled "Professionalisation of VET teachers for the future" (Cort et al. 2004), which looks at how increasing demands on teachers are being met in the European Union and pinpoints cases of good practice. VET reform is found to have had a great impact on organising teaching and teachers' working practices. However, little research has been undertaken into the applicability of developed VET systems to developing countries (Freeland & Vu Thanh Binh 1996;

Mac Van Tien 2010). Research into VET pedagogies is no exception, and this will be discussed in more detail in the next sub-section.

3.3.2 Research into VET pedagogies

There has been some contemporary debate surrounding the existence, role and nature of vocational pedagogy. As Lucas, Spencer and Claxton (2012) argue, the quality of teaching and learning is the key element to determine the effectiveness of an education system. Thus, in order to gain a thorough understanding of vocational pedagogies, one should look carefully at how to undertake suitable learning activities and how to get different kinds of learners engaged in learning to achieve the desired outcomes (Lucas, Spencer & Claxton 2012). Traditionally, the transmitting of teachers' knowledge to their classes was discussed and considered as the heart of traditional apprenticeships across the world (Lucas 2010). Inconsistent with the traditional view of knowledge as a "nutritionist" model (Freire's term) – a hierarchical model – there is a significant amount of literature from various countries focusing on shifts of VET pedagogical practices; see, for example, Dow (2006) in Scotland; Lucas, Spencer and Claxton (2012), Lucas (2010), Lucas, Claxton and Webster (2010), Lucas (2014) in the UK; Mielde and Daly (2012) in Norway; Holvikivi (2007) in Finland; Mohamad and Heong (2012) in Malaysia; Tongsakul, Jitgarun & Chaokumnerd (2011); Brown et al. (2011); Tran Thi Ly (2013); Darwin (2007); Wheelahan and Moodie (2011) and Sutcliffe (2008) in Australia; and Sukhan (2012) in Canada.

Lucas, Spencer and Claxton (2012), in their research into how to teach vocational education, argue that it is possible to develop a vocational pedagogy despite the insufficient understanding of teaching and learning effectively. Lucas and colleagues suggest a number of teaching and learning methods such as learning by imitating, by watching, by practising, by teaching and helping, or by real-world problem solving. However, these varieties of methods may lead to different outcomes; therefore, teachers need to have a clear understanding of the suggested methods. Teachers can make the best decisions regarding their teaching methods if they consider the 10 key areas suggested by Lucas and colleagues. They include the role of the teacher, nature

of activities, means of knowing, attitude to knowledge, organisation of time and space, approach to tasks, visibility of processes, proximity to teacher and role of the learner (Lucas, Spencer & Claxton 2012, p. 109). These areas are adapted and explained in detail in the conceptual framework section of the next chapter.

Additionally, scholarly literature from Canada reveals a trend towards exploring the relation of pedagogies with social justice. Sukhan (2012) investigates critical pedagogy in technical/vocational teacher education that behaviourist methodologies such as competency-based and outcomes-based education models as classroom practice in Canada consider to be the major application in VET education. Specifically, Sukhan examines how technical/vocational teachers contend with the tensions and contradictions of training for work and dealing with students' issues such as social justice. As well, she considers teachers' responses to administrative, political, social and corporate influences (Sukhan 2012). Sukhan proposes recommendations for pedagogy specific to TVE, recognising that it has its own subculture within education.

Similarly, Sutcliffe (2008) in Australia discusses a series of questions such as where the VET teacher fits, what VET pedagogy means in this multitude of contexts, and what effective VET pedagogy looks like. She argues that the essence of VET pedagogy is "the juxtaposition of the ideas of education and business" and that "the tensions and conflicts between them are inherent" (Sutscliffe 2008, p. 79).

Interestingly, regarding curricula, Darwin (2007) explains in his research that most vocational curricula and teaching have been traditionally grounded in an apprenticeship mode as a base. Focus is upon how guided instruction and independent practices can help learners acquire definable skills. Therefore, the needs to adapt to change and demands for broader sustainable thinking capabilities (such as diagnosis, critical analysis capabilities) will be necessary in the transforming context of an increasingly global, knowledge-based economy and skilled labour force. He further claims that lifelong learning or "continuous learning and organizational agility will be a fundamental drive for all education orientated toward future work" (Pillay & Elliot 2001, cited in Darwin 2007, p. 77). The above recommendations indicate a fresh

understanding of learning as a lifelong process, the features of which are learner-centred, work-centred and attribute-centred practices (Chappell 2003, 2004; Hager 2003; Mohamad & Heong 2012) and learning by social participation (Lave & Wenger 1991). Productive learning, as proposed by Hager, involves "the creation of new learning that simultaneously reshapes the environment in which the learning occurs" (Hager 2003, p. 7). Productive learning is a new change in pedagogy that inextricably links acquisition (i.e., knowledge, skills, attitudes, values, behaviour, understanding) with participation to construct learning, identity and the environment or the world (Hager 2003).

In a practical sense, Faraday, Overton and Cooper (2011) in the UK contribute to teaching and learning development, and provide a new way of thinking about vocational learning and teaching. They introduce a framework for effective teaching and learning, including five interrelated and overlapped components: teaching reflection, teaching models, teaching skills and strategies, teaching context and teaching relationships. Practical strategies and teaching models are offered so that teachers will have a variety of choices of teaching models and help learners to achieve skills more effectively.

Over the last decade, several research studies such as Barajas (2003) (University of Barcelona, Spain), Bound (2006) (University of Tasmania, Australia) and Moynagh and Worsley (2003) (UK) have explored a range of new learning methods and virtual learning environments using information and communication technology (ICT) which has been provided in schools, colleges and workplaces. Opportunities for e-learning with application of ICT are also discussed. Bound (2006), whose research examined teaching and learning through ICT in VET learning environments, looked at how ICT has influenced changes in teaching and learning practices in VET learning environments. As well, she has explored effective ways to use these ICT tools (Bound 2006). At the Third International Congress on Technical and Vocational Education and Training (TVET) in Shanghai on 16 May 2012, discussions centred on serious challenges for planners and providers who are taking efforts to approach new

opportunities for TVET systems in the rapidity of change in ICT (UNESCO 2012). Suggestions are to apply ICT to learning in the workplace, and to plan an approach to ICT in TVET provision in order to offer efficient and effective digital divides. This is one of three ways of improving not only learning and teaching processes, but also the quality and image of TVET.

There has been some research on VET in other Asian countries. For example, in Thailand, (Tongsakul, Jitgarun & Chaokumnerd 2011) have examined recent educational reforms to the Thai education system that aims to move away from teacher-centred learning and memorisation and allow students to think and work independently. Their research study at a vocational institute in Thailand (Tongsakul, Jitgarun & Chaokumnerd 2011) examines the perceptions of instructors and students of the factors influencing technical students' achievements through the application of project-based learning (PBL) methodology. According to these authors, although teachers recognize the advantages of PBL, they lack understandings of the PBL instructional process. Teachers were found to still focus on "content-based courses" based on "learning by heart, without giving learners an opportunity to decide and/or to do practical work" (p 510). The authors argue that these pedagogical approaches limit the students ability to apply their knowledge and skills to their future work. Tongsakul, Jitgarun, & Chaokumnerd's (2011) study suggests ways to design and develop activities interrelated with PBL so that students "need to be motivated to learn, and they need to be able to set goals, think independently, be aware, share ideas, and engage in scientific processes" (p 29) should be introduced as part of the current reforms. Further they argue that if learners can have an opportunity to study through direct experience or practice in a real work situations, these students will think, do and create a new body of knowledge and become lifelong learners. Tongsakul, Jitgarun, & Chaokumnerd's research (2011) is of importance and relevance to this research study in Vietnam as it is examining similar issues and contexts.

Mohamad and Heong's (2012) research undertaken in Malaysia discusses pedagogical strategies that instructors apply to demonstration practice and to giving feedback. They also investigate the perspectives of instructors and learners vis-à-vis the teaching and learning challenge in VET. Their findings show that "the shift in pedagogical orientation will focus on the potential of the individual, and engage learners in development of their own vocational knowledge and skills" (Mohamad & Heong 2012, p. 23). In order to respond to such changing needs, VET instructors and trainers must be able to recognise the necessity to adapt their teaching and learning practice (Mohamad & Heong 2012). Such studies do not exist in the Vietnamese context.

3.3.3 VET research in Vietnam

Vietnam, which has aligned itself with the pace of global development, has adopted the principles of the *Radical and Comprehensive Educational Renovation* resolution (Nguyen Phu Trong 2013). These include vocational training and offer new opportunities for vocational training development (Cuc dao tao nghe 2012a). At the national level in Vietnam, some vocational research centres have been set up, e.g., MOLISA's National Vocational Research Institute in 2008, and this has raised the status and importance of vocational education research.

While there is evidence of significant research into tertiary education in Vietnam (as discussed above), a relatively small body of literature on VET in Vietnam appeared during the twentieth century. Significantly for this research, the VET research in Vietnam emphasises formal education settings. Little attention is paid to non-formal settings and to describing this type of vocational learning, although vocational learning in a non-formal context has a long history in Vietnam, ever since the country came into being, in fact (Tran Kiem 2003).

Since the establishment of VET research institutes in Vietnam in the new millennium, researchers have paid considerable attention to VET research and, to this end, have contributed to a variety of contemporary VET literature. In the main, its focus has

been upon operational issues such as the effective management of vocational institutions (Dao Thi Thanh Thuy 2012; Do Van Tuan 2010; Le Thi Thu Thuy 2009; Nguyen Thi Hang 2013, p. 243); the professional development of VET teachers (Nguyen Duc Tri 2011; Trinh Huu Kha 2012); the improvement of VET quality (Mac Van Tien 2010; Nguyen Ngoc Hieu 2010) and factors affecting the improvement of VET quality towards 2020 (Nguyen Chi Truong 2013); the relationship between vocational training and industry (La Duy Tuan 2009; Mac Van Tien 2009; Mori, Nguyen & Pham 2009; Phan Chinh Thuc, 2003); skills preparation for Vietnam's industrialisation (Mori, Nguyen & Pham 2009); and challenges for vocational training to provide high quality labour for industrial parks (Pham LP 2009). The focal points of VET pedagogical research in Vietnam include new teaching methods (Huynh Nguyet Nga 2011): contemporary VET competency-based training methods (Dao Viet Ha 2014); competency-based assessment (Nguyen Quang Viet 2015); and how VET pedagogy in classroom practices of transversal skills are pursued at vocational colleges in Vietnam (Ho Thi Hanh Tien et al. 2015). Some aspects of this significant research will be discussed below.

Of particular interest to this research project are a number of research reports and doctoral studies on VET, for example, Phan Chinh Thuc's doctoral research project (2003), which investigates current VET training and proposes solutions for developing vocational education to meet society's demands for industrialisation and modernisation. These solutions include enhancing labourers' vocational knowledge and skills, rendering them suitable for employment aimed at implementing the Vietnamese Government's strategies and development plans; and ensuring basic conditions which would encourage improvement of their training quality, i.e., providing Vietnamese labourers with the competence necessary to join regional and world labour markets.

Similarly, Dao Thi Thu Thuy's (2012) study is relevant to this research project as it explores vocational training in Central Vietnam. Dao Thi Thu Thuy (2012), who examines management practices vis-à-vis the training of technical employees to meet

the emerging needs of Central Vietnam's major industrial zones, argues that management of a training program has to include four major elements: training-need-analysis, planning and training program design, training implementation, and training assessment. Her findings show that current VET institutions have inappropriate training goals, teaching staff who lack both practical skills and access to professional development, out-of-date facilities, inadequate VET manager teams, and a loose connection between enterprises and vocational providers in training potential employees in Central Vietnam. Dao Thi Thu Thuy (2012) suggests that vocational providers should have more right to revise training programs and to make their own training programs if they are to meet the needs of their local enterprises.

Nguyen Thi Hang's (2013) doctoral research, which examines the current situation of VET management at several vocational institutions in response to society's demands, shows that vocational institutions follow a regulated training procedure. They are not governed by the law of supply and demand; rather, VET institutions provide only the training courses that are available despite the number of graduates in the market. Therefore, she suggests, one feasible solution is to shift from supply-oriented training to demand-oriented training; that is, follow the processes of need assessment, training design, training implementation, and assessment and linkage between institutions and enterprises (Nguyen Thi Hang 2013). I would like to stress here that the above researchers have explored VET quality and management, classroom practices, and elements investigated in this research from a quantitative perspective rather than using qualitative methods.

An international research report on skill development for Vietnam's industrialisation produced by Mori, Nguyen and Pham (2009) and supported by Hiroshima University, Japan, aims to investigate how Vietnamese TVET institutions can build partnerships with enterprises in the near future to meet their demands for skilled industrial human resources. Mori et al. claim that if Vietnam wishes to increase its competitiveness, it is essential that it develop high-level industrial human resources because only then will the country's labour force be able to receive and internalise up-to-date technologies

transferred from multinational enterprises (Mori, Nguyen & Pham 2009). Their research, which reviews models of successful skill development in Thailand and Malaysia, proposes solutions for skill development for Vietnam's industrialisation such as linkage with industrial parks, in-house training and interaction between VET institutions and enterprises. It does not look at the practices of teaching and learning at vocational institutions and other sites.

Despite the research into VET teaching and learning driven by the demands of globalisation and industrialisation in Vietnam, somewhat unsurprisingly there is still limited scholarly research in this field. Unarguably some scholars, such as Dao Viet Ha (2014), Huynh Nguyet Nga (2011) and Nguyen Van Tuan et al. (2007), have researched VET pedagogies in Vietnam; however, they have produced narrowly-focussed teaching materials (i.e., textbooks of teaching methodology) "… composed and edited from basic teaching methods in 1978 and a set of other teaching materials and lesson plans from other teachers" (see Nguyen Van Tuan et al. 2007, p. 3). Their research aims to train students to become technical teachers at vocational institutions. It provides students with knowledge of how to design a curriculum, how to use teaching aids, and about teaching methods and assessment methods. Huynh Nguyet Nga's (2011) research into VET pedagogy in Vietnam examines the application of new teaching methods (i.e., integrated methods) which are explained as training programs designed in relation to a competency-based module and a problem solving method (Huynh Nguyet Nga 2011). However, Huynh Nguyet Nga's research mainly focuses on a description of how a competency-based module and a problem-solving method are reviewed in related literature. Similarly, Nguyen Quang Viet's (2015) doctoral research titled "Competence-based assessment at vocational institutions", which investigates the current practices of VET assessment at several vocational institutions, provides a theoretical background of VET competence-based assessment. His research highlights several issues of this assessment, for example, that trained knowledge does not satisfy major task completion. The current assessments undertaken at vocational institutions do not reflect the students' real competence. To this end, Nguyen Quang Viet (2015) argues that the learning outcomes are indicated

through the learners' achieved competences, i.e., their ability to perform their tasks in future jobs, and to ensure that their degrees will satisfy the requirements of the labour market. Therefore, changing to competence-based assessment will showcase the learners' real ability (Nguyen Quang Viet 2015). The main focus of Nguyen Quang Viet's research is on the current assessments produced by some vocational institutions. It defines what competence-based assessment is, and how this type of assessment should be applied if reform at these institutions is to be achieved. Nguyen Quang Viet's (2015) research does not investigate other aspects of teaching and learning at vocational institutions.

Nguyen Chi Truong (2013), in his doctoral research, evaluated VET status via questionnaires administered to 10 learners at one vocational centre in each of 63 provinces in Vietnam. The focus was on the factors influencing VET quality, including individual characteristics (i.e., age, income, educational level), teacher quality, physical facilities, management capacity, job opportunities, and information regarding labour market and support policies. Nguyen Chi Truong (2013), who proposes ways of improving VET quality, suggests developing the quality of National Occupation Skills Standards (NOSS) and the capacity for national skills testing. However, Nguyen Chi Truong's (2013) research is limited inasmuch as it is restricted (a) to a survey of VET status, and (b) to issues affecting its quality mainly at vocational centres which often provide MOLISA training programs. It does not examine how VET teaching and learning happens according to the implementation of other programs (i.e., MOET, MOLISA) and in other sectors.

There has been little research into Vietnamese VET pedagogical practices in classrooms and workshops. Dao Viet Ha's (2014), for example, is a doctoral quantitative research, which examines the practices of competency-based training (CBT) at seven Vocational Colleges of Construction, and finds that these colleges have experienced weaknesses that include inappropriateness of implementing this training. However, in line with their colleges' current conditions as requirements for reform, they have to adhere to this model of training. Dao Viet Ha (2014) observes that the

CBT teaching procedure, facilities and tools for training management are just similar to the previous practices. CBT is only appropriate for teaching some modules. In effect, CBT teaching and learning procedures lack comprehensive training management because they largely follow traditional administration processes. Its implementation has resulted in conflict between students, teachers and managers (Dao Viet Ha 2014, p. 64). Solutions and recommendations for effective CBT management for vocational colleges are proposed with details of how to implement guidelines, e.g., training needs analysis. Nevertheless, this research is still at the level of VET management and does not examine how students actually learn.

Ho Thi Hanh Tien et al.'s (2015) research into how transversal skills are delivered in five vocational colleges in Central Vietnam shows similar results to Tran Thi Tuyet's (2014, 2015) research into employability skills for university graduates (see previous sections). Although transversal skills or employability skills are partly inserted in some subjects of VET curricula at these vocational colleges, students have little time to practice and enhance them. Importantly, this research explores the current pedagogical practices of transversal skills at vocational colleges in Central Vietnam. These practices take the form of a mixture of traditional teaching methods combined with a communicative teaching approach including problem-solving and collaborative learning in delivering these skills (Ho Thi Hanh Tien et al. 2015). In essence, their research focuses on the VET pedagogical practices of transversal skills subjects which are supplementary skills for students at the above vocational colleges. It does not investigate the practice of vocational subjects for future professional and vocational knowledge and skills.

Although non-formal education and informal education have developed in recent years in Vietnam, little reference to the family workshop and its pedagogical practices can be found in the literature in Vietnam (Le Thi Bich Ngoc 2006). Significantly for this research, VET research in Vietnam emphasises formal education settings. Little attention has been paid to non-formal settings and to describing this type of

vocational learning, although vocational learning in non-formal context has a long history in Vietnam, ever since the country came into being, in fact (Tran Kiem 2003).

3.4 Research in workplace learning

This section reviews research into the workplace to ascertain how guiding and learning in non-formal sectors are treated in the literature (see Figure 4 above). Many scholars have researched workplace learning across countries relevant to this project; see, for example, Sawchuk (2010) in Canada; Gruber & Harteis (2010) in Europe; Fuller & Unwin (2003 in UK); Choi (2010) in Korea and Mulder and Guliker (2010) in Africa and Rushbrook (2015); Bound, (2015); Tan (2015); and Gog (2015) in Singapore. In Australia, the focus has been on learning both for work and in work (Billett 2009; Chappell & Hawke 2008; Solomon & Boud 2010). Australian research is increasingly exploring work and learning, and the relationships between learning, work and practice (i.e., Beckett & Hager 2002; Mulcahy 1999; Reich 2008; Solomon & Boud 2010), learning, practice and change (i.e., Barker 2011; Billett 2007, 2009; Gherardi 2012; Price et al. 2012), approaches to structuring learning outside of educational institutions and learning curriculum (Billett 2001, 2011c; Boud & Garrick 1999), and assessment of workplace learning (see Boud & Hawke 2003; Clayton et al. 2003; Hager 2004).

Billett's (2011c) research focuses on a workplace curriculum and a pedagogy for the workplace through which guided learning can strengthen the contribution of participation at work. He observes the existence of a workplace curriculum, a set of experiences structured and organised to engage learners with their learning and with practice in the workplace. In addition, he makes suggestions as to how educators and practitioners can implement ideas on guided learning in real settings (Billett 2001, 2011c). Billett (2009) discusses policy and curriculum practice in each of the new patterns of changes to work and working life, which are also examined in my research. Billett stresses that "the inevitability of change brings with it not only threats to existing competence, individuals' standing and confidence, but also individual's different capacities to respond to those changes" (Billett 2009, p. 186). Therefore, he

argues, VET policy and curriculum practice could become more demanding due to changes to work. “The frequency of change in work and how work is carried out demands careful, comprehensive and targeted preparation and on-going development” (Billett 2009, p. 175).

Fenwick (2008) explores emerging trends in and new perspectives on workplace learning. The three emerging areas outlined in Fenwick’s research include practice-based systemic learning, identities and literacies, and power and politics in workplace learning. The term “learning” in emerging trends, according to Fenwick (2008), refers to skills acquisition, personal transformation, collective empowerment or a host of other phenomena. She argues to the effect that “individual interactions and meanings form part of the workplace context itself; they are interconnected systems nested within the larger systems in which they act” (Fenwick 2008, p. 21).

When considering workplace learning, Hager (2011) provides a useful overview of theories of workplace learning. The first group of workplace learning theories is influenced by psychological theories which look at individual learning, the focus of learning on products/things (acquisition), and the independence of learning. This group of workplace learning theories increasingly develops a richer account of work and recognises the importance of learning by practice (Hager 2011). The focus of the first group of workplace learning theories is on individual learning and the second group on socio-cultural theories, which provide different perspectives that elevate the various social aspects of learning to a new prominence. In other words, it encompasses both individual and social learning (Hager 2011). Learning is considered to be an on-going process of participation in suitable activities. This particular group of workplace theories strongly supports the contextual factors that contribute to the shaping of learning. Context in learning (including “arenas” and “settings”) is very important in vocational education as most teaching takes place in both workplace and educational institutions (Lucas, Spencer & Claxton 2012). The new trend in workplace learning theories is based on postmodern or socio-maerial theories that view learning as an on-going creative process characterised by temporal change. Learning is not

only reflected in acquisition and participation, but also in engagement, (re)construction, and emergence or becoming (Hager 2011).

Providing an Asian perspective of workplace learning, Choi's (2010) research examines how Korean developmental skills formation has been moving toward a state-coordinated partnership model in response to increased globalisation and democratisation since the early 1990s. In her research, Choi analyses the emerging framework of VET and lifelong learning in Korea, and explores new initiatives in VET and workplace learning. Discussion centres (a) on changes in skills profiles and the requirements of the Korean Government since the 1980s; (b) transition from the developmental model to a state-coordinated partnership model of skills formation since the 1990s; and (c) continuing reform initiatives in VET and workplace learning in the early 2000s. In effect, vocational institutes can decide their own enrolment quotas, and change the focus of the VET system from initial to continuing vocational education. Changes to the Korean VET funding system, and to the qualification system, which is designed to build a lifelong learning framework for vocational school graduates or workers to enter tertiary education, represent steps undertaken by the Korean VET system. Its aims are to meet the challenges of globalisation and modernisation of the labour market. Therefore, as Choi (2010, p. 435) suggests, "continuing reform initiatives in VET and workplace learning seem to focus on building an 'innovative' skills formation system, emphasising the importance of coordination and partnership along with the trend in decentralisation and marketization of government services". In Vietnam, literature on workplace learning continues to be little researched.

In another Asian context - Singapore, recent research has focused on workplace learning (Bound & Rushbrook 2015). It addresses broad issues on workplace learning, such as Evans (2015) discussion of the differences between the concepts of work-based learning and workplace learning. This focus on 'work and learning' including "working to learn" and "learning to work" (p 18) aim to broaden classroom-based programs to include work-based ones. This move is challenging in the Singaporean

context where workplace learning is known as the "informal but richer learning experiences at and through work" yet is not recognized. Evans (2015) argues both types of learning have some good points as she believes that creating a productive interplay between classroom-based and workplace based learning can support a good environment for employees in low grade jobs and even higher professional roles. Other authors in the collection focus studies in workplaces (Tan (2015); Gog (2015)) and for educators (Rushbrook, (2015); Bound, (2015)).

In addition to the literature on workplace learning discussed above, there is a body of literature that looks at VET in the informal sector. As stated in Chapter 2, in my research, family workshops are considered as sites of informal vocational learning and understood as a form of skills development. They are also seen as a form of traditional apprenticeship application. According to Gospel (1995 p. 4), this form of skills development in Britain's apprenticeship system had its roots in the "guild system and artisanal trades where it is explained, the apprentice lived with the master who agreed to teach him the trade in return for his productive labour". However, Gospel (1995) maintains, this form of apprenticeship had already changed by the mid-19th century. Abolishing live-in, it was replaced by live-out with a wage arrangement. The form of apprenticeship described above, which is an exact reflection of the family workshop in this research context, is called traditional apprenticeship (Ahadzie 2009; ILO 2008; Singh 2009). However, as Carton (2008, p. 4) argues, "the apprenticeship training itself is neither modern nor traditional: it is training for entrepreneurship and technical skills and introduces the apprentice into relevant social and economic networks". Carton conceptualises apprenticeships as "informal apprenticeships" and "formal apprenticeships".

Because this research examines the vocational learning at colleges and family workshops, I deemed it necessary to provide a literature review of VET and apprenticeships. A considerable volume of research has explored apprenticeships in developed countries; see Fuller (2003) in the UK, Steedman (2001) in Denmark, Wagner (1999) in Germany and Ahadzie (2009) in America; and in the developing

countries, Singh (2009) in Africa and (Pieck 2009) in India. Nevertheless, in the main, the focus has been upon traditional apprenticeships in developing countries which resemble those in Vietnam.

Singh (2009), with reference to the apprenticeship system, stresses the importance of transferring knowledge in the process of human capital formation. He convincingly argues that the reappearance of interest in traditional apprenticeships is evidence of "the inability of formal systems to deliver the types of skill sets that are required to ensure employability of the ever-increasing new labour market entrants and to contribute to overall poverty reduction" in developing countries (Singh 2009, p. 238). Of particular relevance is the fact that vocational learning outside of formal institutions, such as in traditional family workshops, has been researched in some countries (Singh 2009, p. 238).

Ahadzie (2009), in his work on the traditional information apprenticeship system of West Africa as preparation for work, investigates traditional apprenticeships as an emerging model for thinking about learning from both historical and current perspectives. Regarding vocational pedagogy, Ahadzie's (2009) study found that the instructional process itself does not comply with the sequenced pedagogical approaches that facilitate skills training in the technical and vocational training systems. The most common approaches to skill acquisition have been observation, imitation and later repetition. Ahadzie argues that "this closed-circuit approach to training derives from the fact that the pedagogical knowledge of master-craftsmen is in-bred and therefore is incapable of expanding beyond the system's limits" (Ahadzie 2009, p. 269). Apart from noting a lack of pedagogical skills, Ahadzie's study also found that typically haphazard training derives from the absence of training standards and training guides from most informal sector crafts throughout the sub-region (Ahadzie 2009). Raising the issues of apprenticeship, Ahadzie emphasises the importance of State and non-State in removing risks for craftsmen. He also suggests developing national standards in traditional apprenticeships and promulgating national policies to support this traditional system.

Pieck (2009) in his study of informal learning based on the Latin-American experience proposes that government programs should emphasise the need for flexibility in the delivery of educational programs outside of the formal system in order to render them suitable for "balancing work and education" (Pieck 2009). He claims that doing this will address the reality of work in the lives of the poor children in society.

The above volume of research stands in contrast to the lack of studies on policies, strategies and pedagogical practices in non-formal education settings in Vietnam. By filling this gap, the current study will contribute to the small body of literature on Vietnamese non-formal VET. In a bid to efficiently provide a rich description of VET practices in both sectors in Vietnam, the study adapts and uses conceptual frameworks in order to shape it, and to help to investigate and analyse the data more effectively.

3.5 Typical perspectives on educational reforms in Vietnam

Prominent perspectives on Vietnamese education are taken into consideration in order to gain a deeper understanding of the pedagogies and learning theories unpinning said pedagogical practices.

Vietnam, as suggested above, has absorbed many different education systems and perspectives during its long history of foreign domination. This has given rise to a variety of perspectives on learning in Vietnam throughout each stage of its history. In this section, I look at the three main education perspectives that have had the most influence.

Ho Chi Minh's perspective

Ho Chi Minh's life (1890–1969) was marked by wars and by strong Confucian, Western and Soviet influences. Ho Chi Minh, who became the first president of Vietnam and a famous leader, held essential ideas and perspectives on education, built on his experiences, practices and contribution to Vietnamese education (2003). From 1945 until now, his perspectives on learning have been popularised in the first

opening ceremony of each new school year. The principles of Ho Chi Minh's perspectives on learning are as follows:

- *Hoc di doi voi hanh* – Learning always binds with doing
- *Dao tao gan lien voi san xuat* – Training combines with producing
- *Ly thuyet phai di doi voi thuc hanh* – Theory gets together with practice
- *Nha truong phai gan lien voi gia dinh va xa hoi* – Schools co-operate with families and society in education

In addition, he placed emphasis on and encouraged autonomy in learning and life-long learning (Nguyen Thi Thanh Hong 2012).

Ho Chi Minh's view of learning is a creative combination of several renowned perspectives, e.g., those of Lenin (Hoc, hoc nua, hoc mai: Learning, learning more and learning forever), Karl Marx, Confucius and Western perspectives. During his early life, Ho Chi Minh was trained in China, France and Eastern Europe; he subsequently adapted and further developed up-do-date knowledge and new ideologies. He commented that Lenin and Marx's ideologies were the lights of his life (Le, Nguyen & Nguyen 2000). Ho Chi Minh's perspective on learning is still imparted to all Vietnamese people today. It is easy to find the above principles in the form of slogans for learning in every single school in Vietnam.

Ho Ngoc Dai's perspective

Ho Ngoc Dai, who was born in 1936, is a pioneering educator in Vietnam. His new views on learning emerged in the 1970s and even today are considered to be of great value. He is still contributing much research and new ideas to the development of the Vietnamese education system. He is the person who disrupts the traditional teaching methods and the overloading of students with the burden of knowledge. Professor Ho Ngoc Dai is known as the first "revolutionist" of Vietnamese educational perspectives (Pham Toan 2008). He argues that the aim of a modern educational system or a modern school is not the transmitting of knowledge from available experiences. It is to guide learners, step by step, by "specific actions". Then learners can discover and

develop their cognition, their creativity and their "human ability" (Nguyen Thi Thanh Hong 2012; Nguyen Tuong Hung 2002). Pham Toan (2008) maintains that 99 per cent of children's genes are the same when they are born. The remaining 1% makes each child unique, in other words, that percentage is the source of one's identity. Therefore, according to Professor Ho, in order to develop one's identity, children must live with adults in society and "schools are places where students can live their own lives in a real environment" (Pham Toan 2008). Professor Ho Ngoc Dai's perspectives share some similarities with John Dewey's perspective on education (Education is life itself and schools are the places where students can have their real lives).

Ho Ngoc Dai's revolutionary approach to Vietnamese education resembles that of Paulo Freire, who criticised the banking model of education and proposed problem solving, participatory, learner-centred approaches. Ho Ngoc Dai, who views children's development psychology similarly, has brought about a great change in Vietnamese education, shifting it from a "teacher-centred perspective" to a "learner-centred perspective" in schools. He is the person who protested against the transmission of knowledge from "teachers' stands" (Moock, Patrinos & Venkataraman 1998; Nguyen Thi Thanh Hong 2012). He has moved teaching methods from "Teachers read – students write" to "Teachers design – students do tasks" (Ngo Minh Oanh 2011). Providing students with an active learning environment and reducing paper work are changes found in all experiential schools. In essence, Ho Ngoc Dai was the founder of advanced education in Vietnam.

Although Ho Ngoc Dai brought about change in Vietnam's education system, there have been many criticisms of his efforts. However, his perspective is suitable for training advanced learners and an active labour force that can cope with new technologies and adapt to rapid change in today's globalising world.

Pham Minh Hac's perspective

Professor Pham Minh Hac, a famous educator in Vietnam since the 1970s and a former Minister of Education and Training, is the same age as Professor Ho Ngoc Dai. While

both were trained in Soviet Union and have made a great contribution to Vietnamese education, they evince different approaches to education and learning. Whereas one (Pham Minh Hac) opposes the teacher-centred education system, the other (Ho Ngoc Dai) argues that if students are considered the centre of the teaching and learning process, what are the teachers' positions (Moock, Patrinos & Venkataraman 1998)?

Pham Minh Hac maintains that educating or training a person happens after his or her psychology and values are understood. He has conducted considerable research into this (Pham 2008a). He has also set up selective schools with a focus on key education for potential and excellent students, to prepare qualified and talented individuals for their roles in society. The tendency towards focus learning (e.g., social sciences or natural sciences in which students learn subjects supplementing their major branch) emerged in the 1980s and 1990s. However, many critics have disapproved of his model of education, claiming that all children should have equal access to education. Learners should be provided with background knowledge in both the social sciences and the natural sciences.

The collective thoughts of Ho Chi Minh, Ho Ngoc Dai and Pham Minh Hac, three of Vietnam's most famous educators, have made a great contribution to Vietnamese education as well as to the current research.

3.6 Conclusion

This chapter has reviewed the most significant research into higher education in Vietnam, and research into VET, both internationally and nationally. Included in the review have been VET pedagogies, and research into workplace learning. Additionally, leading perspectives on Vietnamese education have been explored. An overview of how historical influences have impacted on education, especially teaching, learning, assessment and management, has also been provided. Changes in higher education and VET pedagogies from international and national perspectives have been addressed in terms of the high demands for skilled labour to support the global

economy. The chapter has not only reviewed learning and teaching in the formal sector, but in the informal sector as well.

One of the important outcomes of this literature review is the realisation that the current research will make an important contribution to redressing the paucity of Vietnamese VET literature. The research discussed will help shape the presentation of the findings and the discussion of VET pedagogical practices, and identify the historical influences at play.

Chapter 4 – Methodology

4.1 Introduction

As stated in Chapter 1, this research aims to investigate the pedagogical practices of vocational education in Vietnam. The study examines these pedagogical practices, and the historical influences on them, in three different sites of vocational education. In order to deal with the research goal effectively, I deemed it essential to employ a research approach which could generate the necessary data for a comprehensive understanding of teaching and learning, and a delineation of the historical influences that have shaped Vietnamese VET.

This chapter describes how the research was designed and analysed. I first outline the research approaches and the conceptual framework. This is followed by a description of the research design and the methods used to collect data, e.g., interviews, observation and document analysis. In addition, I present the data analysis procedures and relevant issues.

4.2 Qualitative research approach

The qualitative research approach, which is applied in this research, echoes the works of other adult and vocational education studies. For example, Smith and Clayton (2012) argue that people are unpredictable and individual in their actions and choices. VET concerns itself with such people; therefore, research in VET is often qualitative rather than quantitative. Educational practitioners, in the course of their instruction, direct themselves towards the everyday concerns of people's lives (Merriam 2009). Considerable interest is invested in knowing and understanding more about how people practise their vocational learning, and how to improve their practice, interests that lead to the asking of researchable questions, some of which are best approached by a qualitative research design. In other words, qualitative researchers engage in understanding how people construct their meaning in their worlds and make sense of their worlds and experience (Merriam 2009, p. 13). In

essence, qualitative researchers are more interested in how concepts relate to the process than to the products of education. And, the research setting, for example, a school, is often natural with what teaching and learning happen there (O'Donoghue 2006). For these reasons a qualitative research approach seemed appropriate to the research focus of the current study, i.e., how teaching and learning happen (a) at vocational colleges, and (b) at a family workshop. In effect, the research focus determined my position as a qualitative researcher. In order to support my choice of approach, I deemed it appropriate to provide a more in-depth examination of qualitative research.

Qualitative approaches in education research are rooted in interaction and in the social sciences interpretivist tradition (Torrance 2010). Interpretivist studies provide assumptions about people's actions, the many reasons for their actions, and the causes that underlie those reasons. Reasons originate in the meaning that people attribute to certain others, events or things (O'Donoghue 2006). More specifically, the structures and meanings of daily life are bound up in interpretivist procedures and practices because interpretivists claim that knowledge is located in local cultures and immersed in organisational sites (Denzin & Lincoln 1994, cited in O'Donoghue 2006, p. 132).

Qualitative research, according to Denzin and Lincoln (2011), is:

> a set of interpretive, material practices that make the world visible. These practices transform the world. They turn the world into a series of representations, including fieldnotes, interviews, conversations, photographs, recordings and memos to self…. (p. 3)

Qualitative research is characterised as concentrating on "process" (the process of how people construe their experiences), "understanding" (how people make sense out of their lives), and "meaning" (the meaning they attribute to their experiences) (Lee, Mitchell & Sablynski 1999, p. 164). An important characteristic is that qualitative research is naturalistic in focus; it centres on studying people, things and events in natural or commonplace settings (Punch 2013, p. 118). One of the strengths of

qualitative research is its ability to capture what happens in the real world and to investigate how people act in life rather than simply rely on their comments (Merriam 2009). In other words, there is an attempt to collect "data on the perceptions of local participants from the inside through a process of deep attentiveness, of empathetic understanding, and of the suspending or bracketing of preconceptions about the topics under discussion" (Miles, Huberman & Saldana 2013, p. 9). According to Merriam (2009), a further characteristic of qualitative research is the researcher as a primary instrument for collecting and analysing data. Therefore, the inductive process through which data are gathered to build concepts, hypotheses or theories rather than simply testing hypotheses. The pursuit of this process renders qualitative research richly descriptive.

Building upon the above views of qualitative research, the current study has sought to understand how learning and teaching occur at vocational colleges and at a family workshop. This includes teachers' experiences of teaching and learners' experiences of learning. I have deemed qualitative research to be best suited to this study because quantitative research, which often relates to numbers, statistics and measures rather than to words, seemed less likely to be productive and effective for gaining "insights" and "in-depth" information (Silverman 2014) from the thesis participants.

Another reason for adopting a qualitative approach to this research was that it draws attention to many coincidental actions by looking across a number of contexts: temporal, historical, political, economic, cultural, social, and personal (Stake 1995). Indeed, qualitative data can provide thick descriptions that are vivid, nested in a real context, and "have a ring of truth that has a strong impact on the reader" (Miles & Huberman 1994, p. 10).

In the current study, historical, cultural and personal contexts were particularly relevant to elucidating the pedagogical practices of VET in Vietnam. A study of the intersection of the French and Soviet influences on Vietnamese higher education (Tran Hoa Phuong 1998) was utilised as part of the context to assist in the analysis of the different historical influences on VET pedagogical practices in Vietnam.

A further argument in support of taking a qualitative approach in the study is that a qualitative approach starts with assumptions about the world and the possible application of a theoretical approach which can act as a lens though which to study research problems pertinent to how individuals or groups ascribe meaning to a social or human problem (Creswell 2007, p. 37).

Qualitative research approaches the world with a set of ideas or a framework (theory/ontology) that identifies a set of questions that support the researchers and explore it in a specific way (Denzin & Lincoln 2011). In effect, a conceptual framework does not need to cover all problems or answer all research questions (Rojewski 2009). It should provide a design or procedure to pinpoint critical issues and propose solutions. Additionally, the capacity to change over time and adapt to external factors is a feature of a conceptual framework (Rojewski 2009). In vocational education, conceptual frameworks should specifically (a) consist of principles or generalisations articulating preferred practices; (b) act as guidelines to build up programs and curricula; and (c) select instructional practices and policy development (Miller 1996, cited in Rojewski 2009). Rojewski suggests that VET frameworks should also draw on a philosophy that provides assumptions and speculations about the nature of human activity and the world in order to help vocational educators reach decisions on what should be. The conceptual framework outlined below aims to fulfil this task.

4.3 A conceptual framework for analysing VET pedagogical practices in Vietnam

As stated in Chapter 2, there is a paucity of literature on questions of pedagogy in vocational education (Lucas, Spencer & Claxton 2012) because it is under-researched and under-theorised. There are few well-developed conceptual frameworks for studying pedagogical practices in VET. Those that have been developed are primarily based on Western understandings of pedagogical practices, and developed outside of the Vietnamese context. As suggested in Chapter 3, while a number of frameworks (e.g., Beckett & Hager 2002; Billett 2011, 2011b; Hager 2003) have been utilised to analyse pedagogical practices, many seemed not relevant to this study because they

looked only at the VET curricula in the past, contemporary and the future. Such frameworks may not reveal all aspects of pedagogical practices in VET in Vietnam.

4.3.1 Existing and relevant frameworks: A review

Collectively the writings of Merriam, Caffarella and Baumgartner (2007), Kalanztis and Cope (2008) and Lucas, Spencer and Claxton (2012) have proven to be more relevant and offered a useful basis for developing a conceptual framework for this study. A particular aspect that will be incorporated into the conceptual framework is emphasis on the "shift from passive knowledge transmission to more active and critical thinking and self-learning". Supalak (2002, cited in Pham Lan Huong & Fry 2002) suggests that this shift is an important part of the Vietnamese Government's endorsed 10-year Master Plan for Educational Development, and is also included in the goals of current Vietnamese education.

Merriam, Caffarella and Baumgartner's (2007) framework reviewed different assumptions about adult learning under five orientations: behaviourist, humanist, cognitivist, social cognitive and constructivist. Aspects of learning (i.e., major learning theories, the nature of learning, teachers' roles, and its manifestation in adult learning) are discussed within each orientation. These orientations are relevant to vocational practices in both formal and informal settings. However, the framework does not provide the study with enough tools to explore all details of VET pedagogy such as the context of learning and learners' roles. While it would be a beneficial framework for mapping adult learning theories, it falls short when examining pedagogical practices.

The work of Kalantzis and Cope (2008), which provides a different framework, focuses on tradition and change in education, a subject relevant to this research. This framework identifies three "categories": didactic education, authentic education and transformative education. Each of these categories includes a number of dimensions: architectonic, discursive, inter-subjective, socio-cultural, proprietary, epistemological, pedagogical and moral dimensions. These dimensions have provided a useful focus for

examining shifts in vocational teaching and learning in the Vietnamese context. The didactic category refers to teacher dominated talk in classrooms wherein approximately 30 students are taught by one teacher who transmits facts and theories to learners. This resonates with VET practices in Vietnam. One of the reasons why this framework was adapted is that the nature of the curriculum in this research context is tightly set up and controlled. By extension, teachers and students are passive and controlled when teaching and learning. However, Kalantzis and Cope (2008) based their work solely on Western contexts. The focus of the current research is on vocational pedagogy in vocational colleges and a family workshop setting in Vietnam. In addition, Kalantzis and Cope's (2008) framework does not specifically examine vocational education settings. Interestingly, they identify the three following approaches of education:

1. Didactic – mass, institutional education of the modern past;
2. Authentic – progressive educational modernization of more recent times; and
3. Transformative – productive diversity, anticipating the near future.

The "didactic", Kalantzis (2006) claims, is a type of mass institutional education which still exists today. It reflects to some extent a similar model to institutionalised vocational education in Vietnam. Kalantzis and Cope's (2008) research investigates the turning points – authentic or transformative – in demands for new approaches to education. This meets the requirements for renovation of vocational education in Vietnam, especially the moral dimension examined by Kalantzis and Cope (2008). The term "moral dimension" refers to disciplines and conformity which are believed to lead to success (Kalantzis & Cope 2008). And, while the morality of didactic education may prove inappropriate and ineffectual in contemporary education, it has always had some justification for its existence as it underpins its design. This dimension is relevant to Vietnamese education; moral education is still delivered as a core subject in all curricula (Doan Dung Hue 2005) including the VET curriculum, and stated in the goals of Vietnamese education.

Lucas, Spencer and Claxton's (2012) work focuses specifically on VET pedagogy and can be applied in both formal and non-formal contexts. According to Lucas, Spencer and Claxton (2012), answers to improving the outcomes of VET may be found in the classroom and in understanding the many decisions teachers take as they interact with their students. In order to understand vocational pedagogy, it is essential to observe how teachers best engage with particular kinds of learners and then learners undertake the particular kinds of learning they wish to achieve (Lucas, Spencer & Claxton 2012). This is best suited to the purposes of the current research, which examining how teachers and students become involved in VET teaching and learning by observing them in classrooms and workshops.

Lucas, Spencer and Claxton (2012) define vocational pedagogy as follows:

> … the science, art and craft of teaching that prepares people for certain kinds of working lives. It is critically shaped by the decisions which are taken by teachers – both high-level strategies, and day-to-day "in the moment" ones – and the values which inform all interactions with students. (p. 21)

In order to provide competent and skilful students for the workplace, these authors propose that training goals should be broadly considered. The six main training goals that qualified students should have to be successful in the workplace include routine expertise (being skilful); resourcefulness (stopping to think to deal with the non-routine); functional literacies (communication, and the functional skills of literacy, numeracy and ICT); craftsmanship (vocational sensibility; aspiration to do a good job; pride in a job well done); business-like attitudes (commercial or entrepreneurial – financial or social – sense); and wider skills (for employability and lifelong learning) (Lucas, Spencer & Claxton 2012). These authors further argue that clear, desired goals of training programs, an understanding of the teaching methods used, and the contextual factors surrounding learners, teachers and settings should be established before choosing the teaching pedagogy.

4.3.2 Principles of Lucas, Spencer and Claxton's (2012) conceptual framework of vocational pedagogy

Following the above points, attention to the framework of vocational pedagogy developed by Lucas, Spencer and Claxton (2012) in their research into "How to Teach Vocational Education: A Theory of Vocational Pedagogy" has been paid to gain a deep understanding of VET teaching and learning. Lucas, Spencer and Claxton's framework has proven useful for analysing VET provision in Vietnam because it investigates VET pedagogy in all related dimensions, e.g., roles of teachers, roles of students, nature of learning, means of knowing, attitude towards knowledge, and organisation of space and time. However, based on Western assumptions, it covers all main interests in the research in a bid to understand how teaching and learning occurs in all settings and all contexts. Specifically, their framework examines teaching and learning through 10 dimensions of decision-making, which are not to be seen as binaries, but as sitting somewhere along a continuum. This reflects the planned shift in VET in Vietnam described above. This section presents Lucas, Spencer and Claxton (2012) framework in 10 dimensions, which is adapted for this study:

1. Facilitative ← ***Role of the teacher*** → *Didactic*

The facilitative roles of teachers are revealed in methods such as learning through conversation, through real-world problem solving and through enquiry. The didactic roles of teachers may be seen in their methods of lecturing and expert demonstration. However, Lucas, Spencer and Claxton (2012) maintain that in certain moments or in certain cases, it is appropriate for teachers to perform both facilitative and didactic roles. Similarly, Davys and Beddoe (2010) assume that the use of the didactic role does not exclude the facilitative role. This is quite interesting as it gives a similar account of VET teaching and learning in some Asian countries, especially Vietnam. As elucidated in Chapter 2, and in literature reviews of its current teaching and ambitions to innovate teaching and learning in Vietnamese context, it is very useful to use this dimension to map the data collected, to discern how VET teaching and learning in Vietnam are happening, and where they are moving in the continuum of didactic–

facilitative pairing. Hence, this dimension is adopted in the framework of the current study.

2. Authentic ← ***Nature of activities*** → *Contrived*

According to Lucas, Spencer and Claxton (2012), the nature of activities that can be authentic or contrived is explored in the method used. Methods known as authentic and contrived include learning by watching and imitating, depending on the context. Cambourne (1985, p. 78, cited in Walton 1992) distinguished the nature of learning as "natural" or "authentic" in accordance with Lucas, Spencer and Claxton's (2012) terms and as "contrived" in terms of the role of the teachers/parents, who are seen as learner-controlled and teacher-controlled respectively. Natural learning includes elements of activities related to real-world situations, i.e., learning in meaningful situations connected to the learners' world and via learner-centred instruction (Rule 2006). Contrived learning, which occurs in artificial learning environments, is peculiar to the Transmission of Knowledge Model of Learning (Knowledge → Curriculum → Agent → Students), which has primacy of didactic learning with teacher-controlled features (Barth & Meier 2001). Such types of learning sit comfortably within the context of VET pedagogical practices in Vietnam, thus it is essential to explore the context of teaching and learning to gain an understanding of the nature of activities.

3. Practice ← ***Means of knowing*** → *Theory*

Practical methods include imitating, practising, real-world problem solving and sketching, while theoretical methods include listening to theoretical input and reflecting on experience drawing on theory. Lucas, Spencer and Claxton (2012, p. 110) argue that vocational education requires a "judicious mix of theory and practice" to achieve its desired outcomes. Theory and practice are commonly taught separately, because separation aids learning. Administrative convenience, and the dead hand of habit are the roots of theory and practice (Sotto 2007). The focus on theory in didactic teaching is often caused by curriculum driven control (Barth & Meier 2001). However, this could mean that in the process practice may be ignored. Drawing on the above assumptions vis-à-vis means of knowing orientation, it may prove interesting to

investigate VET pedagogical practices in Vietnam, given that "the relationship between theory and practice is changing, and with the decline of the idea of grand theory we are now beginning to see arguments about theory coming from practice rather than the other way around" (Jarvis, Holford & Griffin 2003, p. 7).

4. Questioning ← ***Attitude to knowledge*** → *Certain*

As Lucas, Spencer and Claxton (2012) claim, methods such as learning by watching and imitating can either encourage learners to question or suggest a degree of confidence in what is being learned. The main challenge includes how teachers encourage student questioning, and how to make students think beyond the knowledge they have been taught and upon which they depend.

5. Extended ← ***Organisation of time*** → *Bell-bounded*

Considering tasks as time-bounded or extended, most teaching methods can be used for shorter or longer periods. The unit of work is a day (extended) or a lesson (bell-bound). There is a perception that the organisation of time has some effect on teaching and learning, especially in vocational education focusing on task-based learning and skills assessment.

6. Workshop ← ***Organisation of space*** → *Classroom*

This dimension relates to the way in which the space for teaching and learning is organised, and is closely related to the type of pedagogical process and the purpose of the teaching and learning activities adopted at the particular site. Methods such as watching, imitating and practising are workshop-based. More focus on transmissive practices is found in classroom-centred methods. Teachers must select appropriate methods for each physical space.

Organisation of space, the key factor of a learning environment, plays an important role in teaching and learning (Dumont, Istance & Benavides 2010) because the learning environment both shapes and is shaped by the characteristics of the nature of learning and the learners' roles (Hannafin & Land 1997). It undoubtedly also shapes

the roles of teachers who perform a variety of roles in the classroom-based learning environment. The teaching context is a mixture of aspects including the setting wherein teaching and learning take place, specialist facilities and the resources required for learning and teaching (Faraday, Overton & Cooper 2011). The evidence suggests that "a teacher's choice of teaching strategy or model to enable effective teaching and learning is affected by context in that, for example, it would be difficult to do 'role play' or whole class 'questioning' in a noisy workshop with confined space" (Faraday, Overton & Cooper 2011, p. 11). Hence, it is important to consider the organisation of space when pedagogical practices are comprehensively investigated at research sites.

7. Group work ← ***Approach to tasks*** → *Individual*

This dimension focuses on the approaches adopted, from exclusively individually-focused tasks at one end of the continuum to group-based tasks at the other. Research undertaken during the last fifty year shows that teachers should not simply transmit knowledge to students; the latter must build their own minds and understanding by engaging in the process of assimilating information through group work tasks or collaborated learning, which constitute meaningful and lasting learning for them (Barkley, Cross & Major 2014). Arguments supporting group work learning or collaborative learning (i.e., participation in tasks) offer students valuable interpersonal and team-work skills for their future careers. Conversely, traditional teaching methods involving lecturing, individual learning or large group discussion may restrict students from actively engaging in learning activities (Barkley, Cross & Major 2014).

In vocational education, the application of both group-based methods and individual-based methods is conducive to achieving its six desired goals: routine expertise, resourcefulness, functional literacies, craftsmanship, business-like attitudes and wider skills (Lucas, Spencer & Claxton 2012). These are ideal goals for vocational education in Vietnam, thus it is essential to explore how vocational learners engage in learning in both colleges and workshops.

8. High ← ***Visibility of process*** → *Hidden*

Lucas, Spencer and Claxton (2012) maintain that the more learners see what is going on while they are learning, the better they can understand and apply that knowledge and skills in different contexts. Therefore, teachers should teach in ways that allow learners to guess what they think and intend to say, rendering the teaching process explicit and exploring a connection between theory and practice. Methods involving high visibility of processes are known as coaching and reflection, practices that deal with the "how" of learning. Watching others do good things and recalling personal stories or experiences may contribute to rendering the hidden visibility of processes explicit.

9. Virtual ← ***Proximity to teacher*** → *Face-to-face*

This dimension relates to whether the methods teachers use are virtual (using computer simulations, watching clips, film) or face-to-face. The trend of applying more virtual approaches is extensively found in vocational education, paralleling the face-to-face models of teaching. Virtual approaches in vocational education seem not to be popular in Vietnam.

10. Self-managed ← ***Role of the learner*** → *Directed*

Self-managed learning occurs when individuals manage their own learning. This includes people taking responsibility for decisions involving what, how, when, where and why they learn (Bennett, Cunningham & Dawes 2000). In vocational learning, it is crucial to enhance students' self-managing skills, the aim being to produce workers who will need these skills in the future to adapt well to the changing world and to their ever-changing working and learning environment (Lucas, Spencer & Claxton 2012). For these reasons, choosing appropriate pedagogy for learners to learn through trial and error, to learn on the fly, and to obtain corrective feedback or via direct learning needs careful consideration. Self-managed learning is imparted to most people through the process by which they start learning (Bennett, Cunningham & Dawes 2000). It differs from other ways in which people learn in that a subject is

learnt and chosen by learners. Self-managed learning is seen as another level of learning in an ever-changing world which requires self-directed learners (Bennett, Cunningham & Dawes 2000). Direct learning evokes a different picture of the learning world. Within that learning, students become familiar with lecture-based courses. They are not likely to be thought of as adult learners (Graves & Bledsoe 2015) with autonomous learning. This assists in elaborating shifts in VET pedagogy in Vietnam to meet the current requirements for a skilled labour force.

4.3.3 Adapted conceptual framework: Investigating Vietnamese VET pedagogical practices

The above ten dimensions can help to guide teachers to make the best possible decisions about pedagogy. They are essentially prompts for teachers or trainers to reflect on their pedagogical choices, and by extension, to achieve the desired training goals. "The teachers' answers position them on a spectrum between two extremes of approach" (Lucas, Spencer & Claxton 2012, p. 110), for example: "Is the nature of activities authentic or contrived?"; "Is the attitude to knowledge questioning or certain?"; "Is the role of teacher didactic/facilitative?"; "Is the role of the learner self-managing or directed?".

Regarding the investigation into the ten dimensions of decision making in vocational pedagogy, Lucas, Spencer and Claxton (2012, cited in Simons 2014, p. 1) state that "there has been a shift in thinking about pedagogical practice". Broadly speaking, it is moving from didactic to facilitative, from theory to practice, and from contrived to authentic, in this way keeping pace with changes in VET.

The ten dimensions constitute a useful framework for helping teachers to build their own pedagogical theories (Simon 2014). They illustrate a variety of theory of vocational pedagogy through extensive and collaborative enquiry (Simon 2014). Some studies have adopted Lucas, Spencer and Claxton's conceptual framework; for example, Jones's study (2014) in the UK applies a theory of vocational pedagogy: a college-wide action research project. Jones (2014) investigates the link between

theory and practice through an action research study undertaken at a college in the UK. Using the intended outcomes of vocational education and mapping them against effective teaching and learning methods in vocational education, Jones explores how Lucas, Spencer and Claxton's theory of vocational pedagogy was put into practice at that college. Jones's research offers an opportunity for individual teachers to reflect on how different teaching and learning approaches impact on student learning outcomes.

Although both frameworks explore the shift in learning and teaching, specifically in vocational education, they have some problems for VET in Vietnam given that they are based on Western school contexts (Kalantzis & Cope 2008). Focus is upon more traditional vocational education (Lucas, Spencer & Claxton 2012), which is more "practical" and less theory-driven than in Vietnam; however, they help to examine the shift of VET pedagogy in the research context. The two sides of Lucas, Spencer and Claxton's (2012) framework correspond well with that of Kalantzis and Cope (2008), i.e., the first two of its three categories: Didactic – Authentic – Transformative. In particular, the moral dimension engaged in Kalantzis and Cope's framework is relevant to the Vietnamese educational context. However, ultimately, Lucas, Spencer and Claxton's (2012) dimensions address more details of pedagogical practices relevant to my own research goals. For this reason, I have selected their framework to investigate VET pedagogical practices in Vietnam, combined with the moral dimension in Kalantzis and Cope's (2008) framework.

Lucas, Spencer and Claxton's (2012) framework provides a very useful lens through which to investigate VET pedagogical practices in Vietnam, being applicable to both formal and non-formal settings. However, to enable its function as a more useable conceptual framework for this study, some of the ten dimensions have been combined and others omitted. And, because some dimensions are interrelated, the adapted framework to investigate VET pedagogical practices in Vietnam groups the following five dimensions: organisation of space, roles of teachers, nature of learning activities, roles of learners and moral education. The other dimensions are embedded in those categories where relevant. For example, according to Sotto (2007), the nature of

learning ranges over both the current understanding of the nature of learning and different educational applications. In other words, "approaches using, and evidence about, group work, technology, formative feedback and project-based learning, as well as what takes place beyond school settings in families and communities" are explored in the nature of learning (Dumont, Istance & Benavides 2010, p. 4). In effect, the nature of learning activities embeds other dimensions such as the approach to task and means of knowing. Teachers are required not only to have good pedagogical knowledge of teaching methods and the topics they teach, but also pedagogical knowledge, that is, an understanding of how students build up their knowledge in a content domain (Schulman, cited in Dumont, Instance & Benavides 2010). This includes the means of knowledge, attitudes towards knowledge and the roles of teachers.

In the adaptation of Lucas, Spencer and Claxton's (2012) framework to investigate VET pedagogical practices in Vietnam, two particular dimensions have been excluded, the "organisation of time" and "proximity to teacher" dimensions. These two dimensions are considered irrelevant for discussing VET pedagogical practices in Vietnam. Face-to-face lessons are considered the only way to provide learning and teaching at vocational colleges. Similarly, workshops are structured to guide, show, imitate and practice.

As discussed in Chapter 2 and as part of the description of the research site in Section 4.5.1, teaching at vocational colleges, which are known as formal institutions, is organised according to periods (45 minutes to 60 minutes depending on the system). Despite the module or academic training, time boundaries control all activities. Time frames appear in the curriculum framework and lesson plans. Each subject is regulated, with time for theory and practice.

At the family workshop, vocational learning involved a morning shift and an afternoon shift, with a lunch break. Learning at the workshop was extended. The organisation of time at the colleges in this research context was bell-bound. Thus, it was not

considered necessary to bring this dimension into the framework to analyse pedagogical practices in Vietnamese VET.

In Vietnam, MOET launched the "Year of ICT" in the school year 2008-2009 to provide a breakthrough in education innovation. However, the use of ICT for teaching practice proved limited at best since there was little evidence of the integration of ICT in teaching practices, changing pedagogy and curricula (Simons 2014). In reality, there is little evidence of virtual teaching in VET practice in the research context. Proximity to teacher is mostly face-to-face because VET learning mainly happens in formal institutions. Thus, it seems pointless to examine proximity to teacher in analysing VET pedagogical practices in Vietnam.

In addition to the four dimensions modified from Lucas, Spencer and Claxton's (2012) framework, the current research adapts moral dimensions from Kalantzis and Cope's (2008) framework. The categories of didactic education, authentic education and transformative education explored in the architectonic, discursive, inter-subjective, social-cultural, proprietary, epistemological, pedagogical and moral dimensions of Kalantzis and Cope's framework fit well with the left and right sides of Lucas, Spencer and Claxton's (2012) framework. While the latter discuss the didactic and facilitative in theory and practice, it has no moral education. Although such categories do not specifically explore pedagogical practices in detail and interestingly only focus on the Western school context, Kalantzis and Cope (2008) include a moral dimension which discusses the shift in morality from didactic to authentic to transformative education. Each type of education is understood to have required and trained a different type of learner. In Vietnam, moral education is officially delivered at all levels of education; therefore, it is essential to investigate VET pedagogical practices through the lens of a moral dimension. For this reason, I have adapted the moral dimension of Kalantzis and Cope's framework which considers morality as a discipline and conformity necessary for success (Kalantzis & Cope 2008).

The current study focuses on moral education because the stated goal of Vietnamese education is to educate people to become good citizens in both knowledge and

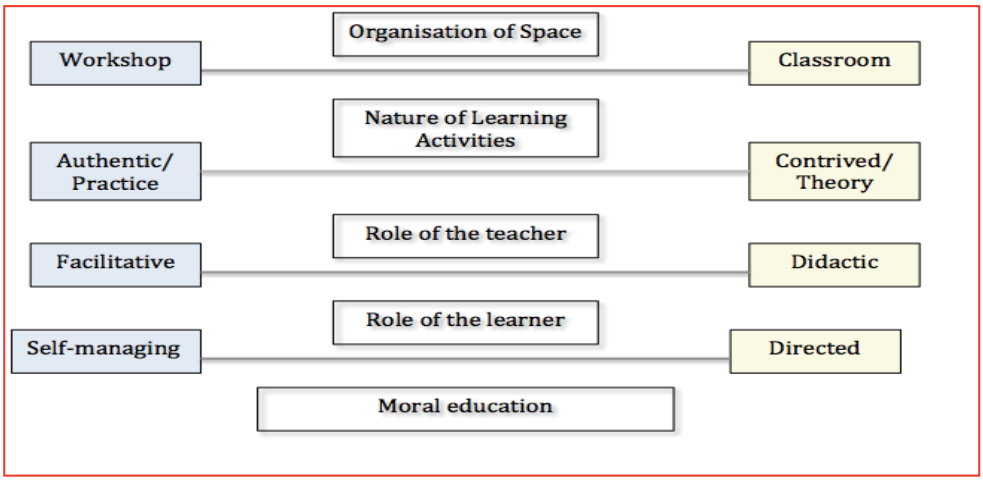
morality (Kalantzis & Cope 2008). Moral education is incorporated into the formal curriculum as a core subject of study at all levels of the Vietnamese education system. In Vietnam's higher education system, the implanting of socialist thought and principles is as important as building intellectual ability. Accordingly, Marxist sciences and Ho Chi Minh's thought are compulsorily included in undergraduate and postgraduate curricula (Quoc hoi Viet Nam 2005). Vocational education is no exception to this emphasis on moral education. The essential role of morality is drawn from the famous Vietnamese saying "*Tien hoc le, hau hoc van*" (First learn the behaviour, then learn the lesson), which is promoted in schools in Vietnam as a slogan for students to remember. Given its important role, teachers in Vietnam often find it necessary to educate students morally in addition to the subject they are teaching (Doan Dung Hue 2005). In effect, teachers are required to be moral guides for students.

"Moral" in the Vietnamese context is a broad term, i.e., it relates to the practice, manners or conduct of human beings in relation to each other. Furthermore, moral education demands standards of behaviour justified by people as right and proper, which are to be willingly complied with free from interference by the law. Morality is understood as perspectives, viewpoints and behaviour of people in social relations with other persons, groups and organisations (Phan Le Ha & Phan Van Que 2006). Moral education has various forms and is shaped by the socio-political standards and values prevailing at the time (MOET 2004a, p. 69, cited in Doan Dung Hue 2005). In Vietnam, there are two types of moral education, i.e., traditional morality and socialist morality. While traditional morality is mainly transmitted through informal channels of education such as family and religious institutions, socialist morality is enforced through formal channels, i.e., via the national curriculum and various social activities and movements (Doan Dung Hue 2005).

An investigation of the "moral" aspect of Vietnamese education generally, and of VET specifically, is very useful for understanding local-global interactions, disciplines,

context and practices shaped by VET pedagogy which are rarely found in the Western context.

Following the above arguments, the conceptual framework used by me draws on an adaptation of the vocational pedagogy work of Lucas, Spencer and Claxton (2012), supported by Kalantzis and Cope's (2008) moral dimension. This conceptual framework will describe and organise sets of pedagogical aspects (see Figure 6). My aim is to illustrate shifts in teaching and learning. The impacts of each aspect upon pedagogy are also discussed. The pedagogical continuum can serve as a foundation for understanding the current practices and their changes over time. Figure 6 outlines the components of the continuum for investigating VET pedagogy in Vietnam, each of which is described in the following section.



(Source: Adapted from Lucas, Spencer and Claxton (2012) and Kalantzis and Cope (2008)

Figure 6: "Investigating Vietnamese VET Pedagogical Practices"

Organisation of space:

Workshop ← ---------- → Classroom

Organisation of space covers two levels of meaning, i.e., physical space and the culture of learning (Lucas, Spencer & Claxton 2012), which are explored in the continuum from workshop to classroom.

Physical space focuses on what takes place within a particular institution and/or physical unit as education is organised. It is considered the learning environment wherein learners and learning are located. Physical space shapes past practices and social relations and consequently "predisposes current practices to emulate past practices" (McGregor 2004, p. 14). Understanding a space as basically a fixed, physical, container for social interaction is inadequate because the silence around space allows it to be organised to produce and reproduce practices which sustain persistent and unequal power relations (McGregor 2004). In this sense, space is not only a container for social interaction, but a product of social interaction constituted through the process of interaction in such space as well. In other words, space is involved in the creation and maintenance of an organisation or school.

The organisation of space is a place where pedagogy and curriculum are discovered. Via the architecture of schools and classrooms, space manifests specific ideologies of education through its physical arrangement. Their interaction in such space engages through arranged timetables, rules and practices of the organisation (McGregor 2004). Similarly, a space or learning environment is significantly emphasised by "the dynamics and interactions between four dimensions – the learner (who?); teachers and other learning professionals (with whom?); content (learning what?) and facilities and technologies (where? with what?)" (Dumont, Istance & Benavides 2010, p. 29). Viewing space from this perspective reflects the culture of learning within different pedagogical approaches and learning activities. The above arguments reify the notion that the organisation of space plays an important role in teaching and learning. It affects the nature of learning, the methods of teaching, and the roles of teacher and learner. For these reasons, I deem it necessary to investigate the organisation of space before considering the nature of learning activities, teachers' roles, learners' roles and moral education.

Nature of learning activities:

Authentic/Practice ← ---------- → ***Contrived/Theory***

Similar to the organisation of space, the nature of activities is investigated along a continuum of authentic–contrived and theory–practice through method usages. Learning by imitation, for example, may be used in an authentic nature and/or in a contrived one or with a theory focus and/or a practice delivery. Specifically, while the teaching methods (i.e., learning by doing) used to stimulate learning activities may be of an authentic nature, they nevertheless depend on context as well. The nature of learning activities varies. Cognitive research argues that learning is an activity carried out by learners and must integrate with knowledge structures. From this perspective, knowledge acquisition lies at the very heart of learning (Dumont, Istance & Benavides 2010). Authentic learning, which occurs through tasks, activities and assessment, is the approach to learning according to this constructive perspective. Authentic tasks have a connection to their real-life problems and situations that occur outside of the classroom, both in the present and in the future (Woolfolk 2001). In the current research context, contrived learning means learning activities related to real life that take place in classrooms and workshops. In contrast, authentic nature reveals learning through observation, demonstration or the sampling of things in real life. The nature of learning reflects the meaning of knowledge, i.e., theory or practice focuses on teaching and learning. Exploration of the nature of activities aims to determine whether vocational learning in the Vietnamese context is authentic or contrived, theory or practice-driven. I propose that the nature of learning activities will facilitate an understanding of the pedagogical practices of vocational learning.

Role of the teacher:

Facilitative ← ---------- → ***Didactic***

Teachers are considered in the continuum of didactic–facilitative roles through teaching methods. The roles of the teacher arguably affect the success of classroom learning (Dörnyei & Murphey 2003). Much depends on how students relate to each other, the classroom environment, how effectively students cooperate and

communicate with each other, and what roles the teacher and learners play in the process of teaching and learning. The discussion held at Workshop 4 of the conference on Quality Education and the Key Role of Teachers on 8-11 September 2004 at Geneva (organised by UNESCO) affirmed that "the teacher is moving away from being a 'transmitter of knowledge' and led more and more towards becoming a 'mediator in the construction of knowledge', a facilitator and, even at times, a social worker" (Fredriksson 2004, p. 21). However, researchers have called for a shift in the role of teachers from the "sage on the stage" to the "guide on the side" (William 2010, p. 15), a proposal interpreted as relieving the teacher, both individually and collectively, of the responsibility for learning to take place.

Investigation of VET practices in Vietnam examined the roles of teachers along a didactic–facilitative continuum, using teaching methods and the application of learning activities. It also explored the classroom interaction between teachers and students in order to gain a profound understanding of the relationships of power among teachers, students and vocational institutions.

Role of the learner:

Self-managing ←---------- → Directed

Similar to the "role of the teacher" dimension, the role of learner also pertains to intergroup power relations between students at colleges, vocational learners and skilled workers in workshops, and between teachers/trainers and students/vocational learners. The roles of learners can be explored from all aspects of learning in the continuum of self-managing–directed.

Irrespective of one's personal situation, learning is ultimately the individual's responsibility, thus self-managing one's learning is essential. Learners are directed in lecturing, and transmitting knowledge, while at the same time learning from experience and by becoming involved in the self-management of learners. Appropriate methods are chosen to explore the directed or self-managing roles of learners. Directed learning is the most popular style in this context because "the

traditional transmission pedagogy still dominates Vietnamese tertiary education" although the approach to university teaching is changing (Tran, Le & Nguyen 2014, p. 96).

Moral education

Moral education is examined in learning and teaching to construct the behaviours and consciousness of learners. As Kalantzis and Cope (2008) maintain, the artistic structure of the classroom space, classroom discourse, rewards and punishments, the monotony of socio-cultural dynamics, the proprietary spaces in which teachers and students work, the epistemology of knowledge transmission and the pedagogy of didactic presentation together create a certain kind of moral economy. Learners' behavioural patterns are guided by discipline and conformity which may lead to success in the future.

Moral education not only hints at such things, i.e., it is distinctive due to moral subjects taught officially in colleges. It would be useful to understand how moral education is constructed vis-à-vis training vocational learners in settings, that is, learners as "submissive citizens" with "compliant personalities", and learners adapting to the changing world with "self-realisation" and a "liberal-democratic" orientation (Kalantzis & Cope 2008, p. 31).

This dimension also looks at moral education and general education, which together provide the foundation knowledge for students compared to technical education.

The five dimensions in this framework will shape my data analysis, and support my discussion of vocational pedagogy in Vietnam. In addition, historical influences have played a very important role in VET pedagogical practices. Issues pertaining to historical influences on VET practices will be discussed where relevant in Chapters 5, 6, 7 and 8.

Although the framework is not as theoretically complex as some other frameworks, it has applicability for this research and for use by VET practitioners in their own

practice. In particular, this framework will assist in analysing the shifts in pedagogical practices described above, i.e., the policy of renovating Vietnamese education and highlighting the differences and similarities between the three research sites, i.e., two vocational colleges and a family workshop.

4.4 Research methods

Qualitative research, according to Denzin and Lincoln (2000), is:

> a situated activity that locates the observer in the world. It consist of a set of interpretive, material practices that makes the world visible. These practices … turn the world into a series of representations including field-notes, interviews, conversations, photographs, recordings and memos to the self. At this level, qualitative research involves an interpretive, naturalistic approach to the world. This means that qualitative researchers study things in their natural settings, attempting to make sense of, or to interpret, phenomena in terms of the meanings people bring to them. (p. 3)

Therefore, research methods such as document analysis, participant observations and interviews are popularly used to collect data in qualitative research (Federick 2012; Flick 2014; Marshall 2006; Merriam 2002). Typically, researchers will include more than one data collection tool to validate the results arrived at (Lodica, Spaulding & Voegtle 2006). Adapted from these assumptions, the current research employed the above major methods when collecting data. Details of documentation, participant observation and interview methods are discussed in the sections below.

Document analysis

Documents, both historical and contemporary, are perceived as a rich and valued data source in social science (Punch 2005). Documents including diaries, institutional regulations, memoranda and reports, government guidelines, policies and lesson plans are considered to be qualitative documentary evidence. This source of data provides richness with its close analysis of written texts, relevance and effects

because text documents facilitate scrutiny of the world, the people in it, and how people collectively and individually act in it (Silverman 2014).

In reality, a large amount of information is preserved in various texts and official records. They are considered to be a source of qualitative research that is based on finding and interpreting the context of archived data. In the words of Remler and Van Ryzin (2011, p. 62), "documents present important and widely used forms of existing qualitative data for more contemporary issues and problems as well". Thus, using document analysis as a method to collect data will help the researcher to understand and become involved in useful information and current issues. It will also enable the researcher to access the language and words of his/her participants (Cresswell 2003). The current study employed documentary analysis as a means of enriching understanding of the terms VET and vocational pedagogy, the approaches proposed by various scholars, and in analysing non-formal and formal VET in Vietnam.

Participant observation

Participant observation is a research method in which the behaviour and activities of individuals at the research site are naturally observed, and notes are taken (Cresswell 2003; Remler & Van Ryzin 2011). As Atkinson and Hammersley (1994, p. 249, cited in Silverman 2014) state, in order to understand the subjects' social world, one must become a part of it. To this end, observation is frequently employed in qualitative research. This method, which is known as "unsystematic naturalistic observation" in qualitative research, studies "how people interact, form relationships, accomplish meaning in their lives and especially construct their self-presentations and carry them off in front of others" (Punch 2005, p. 178). Unlike quantitative research, which tends to use highly structured observation with existing developed schedules by researchers, observation in qualitative research is more natural and open-ended because in this method, categories and concepts will emerge later when analysing the data (Punch 2005). This research will use observation to (a) monitor how the participants act in their natural settings, and (b) reflect their teaching and learning practices, and their behavioural patterns and activities. The participant observation

technique will be used in this research as a means of validating the quality of the data gathered. During periods of observation, unintended factors may be collected that will enhance this research.

Interviews

The interview is one of the main research methods used to collect data in qualitative research; in addition, it is a powerful way to "assess one's perceptions, meanings, definitions of situations and constructions of reality" and to understand people (Punch 2005, p. 168). It is flexible and can be adapted for utilisation in a wide range of research situations. Interviews, which are usually standardised and open-ended, offer people a chance to voice their thoughts in their own words. The researcher pursues a general interview guide approach in an informal conversational interview. According to Minichiello et al., structured, semi-structured and unstructured approaches are often applied in individual or group interviews (1990, p. 89, cited in Punch 2005). Structured interviews often provide respondents with a series of pre-established questions with pre-set response categories (Punch 2005). In semi-structured interviews, participants engage with both questions and open discussion. Qualitative interviews encourage detailed and in-depth discussion and generally provide useful information for the research (Remler & Van Ryzin 2011).

This research echoes Silverman's (2014, p. 88) view regarding the reliability of interview data, and the need to use low-inference descriptors in interviews. For example, all interactions must be tape recorded and the tapes then carefully transcribed in the interest of reliable analysis, and long extracts of data in the research report must include questions that will elicit satisfactory answers. The above should be taken into account during the interview process.

I conducted semi-structured interviews to elicit participants' views on issues including vocational teaching and learning, policies and strategies.

In sum, three main research methods, i.e., document analysis, participant observation and interviews, were applied in order to gain an understanding of pedagogical practices at the research sites.

4.5 Research Design

4.5.1 Selection of research sites

The nature of the current research has been exploratory, thus the aim for depth in data collection and analysis has been vigorously pursued. Due to my interest in examining vocational learning across different sites, the fieldwork covered three sites: two vocational colleges and a family workshop. In principle, any vocational college in Vietnam (having first sought permission to do the fieldwork there) could be selected. However, I expected to find differences between the Southern area, the Central area and the Northern area in Vietnam due to the economic, historical and social conditions of each area. I finally selected the Central area which will be a new industrial area and will require large numbers of qualified workers according to the national plan in place.

My final reason to choose the research sites rested on the fact that the Vietnamese Government, along with my college, supported my study in Australia both financially and spiritually, the purpose being the impact on my college, my province and my country. Thus, I chose the Central area where I live as my research location for data collection, mainly because it was easier for me to travel around the surrounding cities to where I planned conduct my fieldwork. I chose two cities in the central area of Vietnam.

There were several vocational colleges in those two cities. Ultimately, one of the oldest vocational colleges in Vietnam, and one of the more successful foreign-funded vocational college among the foreign funded colleges in the Central area, was selected for its teaching of Mechanics. The family workshop selected was a successful family workshop at which many vocational learners were pursuing their vocational training.

My fieldwork was conducted in Hue City, Vietnam, at the oldest vocational college, an institution with a long history, and the first vocational college to be established in the central area of Vietnam by the French colonist in the 1890s. This college, at which I undertook my research, is currently delivering both the MOET and MOLISA systems, thus I thought it would be interesting to discover how they teach and manage the two systems at the one college, how different they are, and how the students achieve their skills and knowledge.

It seemed unavoidable that there may be different results if the data was collected at an institution with which I, as the researcher, was familiar. There was some concern surrounding the choice of workplace as one of the research sites for fear that I might "over-identify(ing) with the participants" and, as a result, suffer some loss in the research objectives (Delamont 2001, p. 37). To avoid any confusion, the researcher's role as a staff member, a colleague and a friend was always kept in mind. I was personally advantaged as a researcher carrying out fieldwork in my own workplace.

Vietnamese people are often shy when being interviewed by a stranger or being observed when they are teaching and/or doing their jobs. In the case of my fieldwork, had my participants already known me (at least my name as some were new staff), it would have been easier for them to share and talk with me. Additionally, I was familiar with the area's work and social culture as a former colleague or friend, and so the ground for professional and personal rapport with my participants was well established. However, direct involvement in the outcomes of the work was always avoided during the data collection process. During the time I worked with my participants, I was not official staff due to my studying abroad. Care was taken to minimise issues that arose out of doing research in my workplace so that I could obtain valid and reliable information. My position as both an insider and outsider in this research was clearly borne in mind in all procedures of collecting as well as analysing data.

The family workshop that was chosen as another research site was also located in my hometown. Initially, a different mechanic family workshop, which deals with boring-

machine, lathing and welding machines, was selected. After gaining approval from the Master to participate in the research, I left Australia and headed home on my data collection journey. On my first visit to this family workshop, I felt so sad to find that some vocational learners had ceased their vocational learning and moved to another field of learning. There were only two vocational learners left at that workshop which meant that it was impossible to carry out data collection due to lack of participants. Therefore, a decision was made to change to an auto garage run as a family workshop, which was rather famous in this city. It was an interesting workshop due to it having developed from a small family workshop to one of the city's most successful family workshops. It had two locations and many vocational learners as well as workers. It also offered students seeking to become mechanics at vocational colleges in the central area a chance to pursue their practicums or internships.

The third research site, a vocational college in the northern central area of Vietnam, came under the management of MOLISA, and the local province where the college located. In addition, the German government supported its facilities, training programs and teaching staff. It had the vital task of providing a large number of skilled workers for the largest industrial zone in the northern central area. Therefore, there were considerable government investments in human resources, infrastructure and facilities as well as training programs at this college. Because this college had transferred its management authorities from the supervision and management of German experts to the province, I thought it would be interesting to examine how the VET learning and teaching was conducted there compared to the other settings.

4.5.2 Selection of participants

This section discusses the criteria and the process of selecting participants at the three research sites.

The research targeted students/vocational learners and teachers in Mechanics for data collection because Mechanics is one of four key sectors in the Vietnamese Vocational Training Development Strategies designed to enable Vietnam to become an

industrialised country by 2020. All of my participants, with the exception of college leaders, have undertaken their major learning/teaching in Mechanics.

The key criterion for selecting participants was based on the availability of volunteers. After sending a formal invitation letter inviting participation in the research to school leaders and Masters, and after gaining approval of the college's leaders and the Dean of the Mechanics Faculty, an official email was sent to the group email of the faculty staff calling for volunteers to participate in my research. A plain language statement explained details of the research project and contained other basic related information related to the research, such as criteria, as follows:

- Teachers: Must have a minimum of 5 years' teaching experience, and be over 27 years of age. (A person who has 5 years' teaching experience after graduating from university/college is approximately 27 years of age).
- Students/vocational learners: Must be students/learners of the teacher/Master, and be over 16 years of age.

Two teachers and five students at each college volunteered to join the research. At the family workshop, 3 vocational learners and 2 skilled workers volunteered along with the Master who was considered both a teacher and a leader. In total, 22 participants were invited to participate. Because I employed qualitative research, the method of in-depth interviewing applied to a sample of participants all of whom had experienced similar structural and social conditions. As Seidman (1995, cited in Silverman 2011, p. 136) notes, "the root of in-depth interviewing is an interest in understanding the experience of other people and the meaning they make of that experience". He further argues that it will give enormous power to the stories of relatively few participants. Therefore, it was considered that this number of participants would constitute a balance between pragmatic choice (i.e., what is practically possible within the timeframe) and the presentation of a broad range of individual cases that will help the research to achieve a depth and richness of data collection.

Table 1: Participants at Each Research Site

Sites	Leaders (No.)	Teachers (No.)	Skilled workers (No)	Students (No.)	Participants (No.)
Site 1	1	2		5	8
Site 2	1	2		5	8
Site 3	1*		2	3	6

Note: *Master

4.5.3 Ethical considerations

During the time of choosing the research sites and participants, I always maintained a deep concern for ethics. In early September 2012, I contacted the leaders of the research sites via phone and email with a clear explanation and an information sheet setting out what I would do at their respective places (see Appendix 1). I obtained an official letter from them in October 2012. Ethical approval was sought from the Ethics Committee of the University of Technology Sydney before I started my data collection. All consent forms and information sheets for the participants and the invitation letter were prepared in both English and Vietnamese to make sure that the participants understood clearly the procedure of voluntary participation in the research (see Appendix 2). A consent form was attached to each information sheet with the purpose of asking for the signature of all participants as proof of their voluntary participation. All of the participants agreed to participate as volunteers.

When collecting the data, I assured the participants of confidentiality and confirmed that the research would not harm their teaching, and their learning or their organisations. My research aimed to investigate but not to evaluate teaching and learning in formal and non-formal settings. It was not an evaluation study, nor did it aim to critique the teachers' teaching or the students' learning. This point was emphasised with all participants. It was anticipated that no harm would come to participants or their organisations. I clearly explained to all of the participants the confidentiality of the information they provided as well as their identification. I used

pseudonyms for the research sites and the participants in the thesis, and in later publications. In this way, participants were assured of anonymity.

To ensure that my relationship with the participants would not affect their responses in the interviews as well as my observations, I repeatedly confirmed my presence as simply a researcher, not an authority figure or an evaluating observer. As a researcher, I was typically involved in a sustainable and intensive experience with participants in qualitative research, also known as interpretative research (Seidman 1991).

I was concerned when collecting data that using a camera or audio recording equipment would impede the teaching and learning processes. Therefore, I explained to the teachers, students and vocational learners clearly what I was going to do, and assured them that the camera or recorder would not cause any distraction to students / vocational learners. I suggested that they should act naturally and not pretend to be serious because I sought to understand how the participants experienced their collaboration, and the meaning they made of the experience (Seidman 1991). I was careful to make sure that the participants felt comfortable enough to talk to me and share their experiences.

During the time of the fieldwork and the analysing of data, my role as both insider and outsider was always borne in mind during my efforts to understand and present the data in an authentic way. It is suggested that this will protect qualitative research from any taint of bias.

4.6 Data collection

In this section, I detail how the data were collected, starting with the language and techniques used in the process. I started to collect the data after gaining the approvals of the Ethics Committee and research sites. First, all voluntary participants at each site were contacted and appointments were made to meet all of the teachers, with

separate appointments for all students. The techniques employed to collect data were as follows:

1. Document collection;
2. Observation of theory classes and workshops; and
3. Interviews (teachers, students, vocational learners, Masters and leaders).

Details are provided in the following sections.

4.6.1 Vietnamese language used in data collection

As already elaborated at the beginning of the thesis, this is a bilingual study. Hence, apart from using the English language to read literature and write the thesis, Vietnamese was the main language used in the research context to contact participants and collect data via observation and interviews. Concern regarding using both languages, particularly interviewing in Vietnamese and translating into English when writing, were recognised as time consuming, complicated and potentially resulting in loss of meaning in translation. However, to deeply and profoundly describe their experiences and understandings of their teaching, training and learning, it would have been challenging to the respondents if the interviews were undertaken in English. Thus, in order to productively gain essential data for the study, using Vietnamese when interviewing seemed more appropriate. After a deep analysis of the weaknesses and strengths of language usage, I decided in favour of Vietnamese as a means of approaching participants given their limited English language ability.

All consent forms and information sheets were translated into Vietnamese before they were distributed to all participants at the first meeting, my aim being to reiterate clearly the purpose of the research, the researcher's role and the main activity of collecting data.

4.6.2 Document collection

Document collection was undertaken in three stages: before my fieldwork at the research sites, during my visits to the research sites and after my fieldwork.

My analysis of documents relating to VET teaching and learning in both English and Vietnamese was reviewed during the data collection stage. The large amount of information that has been written down in various texts and official records is considered a form of qualitative research, given that it is based on finding and interpreting sources of archived data. It is particularly important and useful because these documents delineate important and widely-used forms of existing qualitative data dealing with contemporary issues and problems (Remler & Van Ryzin 2011). It is thus profitable to use this corpus of information in support of the research to understand and facilitate involvement in useful information and current issues. It also enables the researcher to obtain the language and words of participants (Creswell 2003). For the purposes of this research process, I employed documentary analysis from the very outset as a means of enriching my understanding of terms such as VET, vocational pedagogy and the approaches proposed by various scholars, and when analysing non-formal and formal VET in Vietnam. Furthermore, this method has been adopted to reinforce the literature that I drew on when writing the methodology chapter as well as for the discussion of the findings.

In the beginning, I reviewed public documents, information related both to the research sites and to my research, e.g., national VET regulations, the curriculum framework, regulations and decisions for vocational colleges, historical papers focusing on the research sites and magazine articles on this site. Reading all of them, and my initial analysis of these public documents allowed me to comprehend the important points related to the research focus. Public documents are not neutral, transparent reflections of organisational or occupational life. They actively set up organisational realities to convey the best description of organisations (Atkinson & Coffey 2013, cited in Silverman 2014).

During the time spent at the research sites, before each period of observation in classrooms or workshops, lesson plans, teaching hand-outs and copies of teaching material were collected. Some students' workbooks were requested to see what and how they wrote in their notebooks. This was only done during observations in

classrooms, and in workshops at colleges. In the case of family workshops, it was hard to get documents from the Master and the learners, the only exception being notes on their decision to found the workshop.

After accumulating some data from observations and interviews, additional related documents such as historical documents appertaining to the sites, decisions regarding the college's establishment, and national and institutional regulations regarding student assessment were examined to gain a clear understanding of how vocational teaching and learning functioned there.

4.6.3 Observation

Data collection during observation is recognised as a fundamental and highly important method in all qualitative inquiry. It is used to discover complex interactions in natural social settings (Marshall 2006).

The research used observation to monitor how teaching and learning practices happened in the natural selected settings, and how behavioural patterns and activities of participants are. The participant observation technique was also used in the research as a means of validating the quality of data gathered. Frequently during the observation, unintended factors were collected.

At College 1 and College 2, observation in the classrooms and workshops was intended to document the way in which teaching and learning occurred there. Observation, specifically in classroom studies, is often found in education in which actions and interactions are documented and described even if complex interactions can also be inferred without other sources of information (Marshall 2006). This method assumes that behaviour is purposeful and expressive of deeper values and beliefs.

My observations at College 1 and College 1 were carried out at both theory classes and workshops. At the third site, the workshop, the observation occupied a total of 2.190

minutes (36 hours, 30 minutes), my aim being to understand how pedagogical practices happened at these places.

The college 1 delivered both MOET and MOLISA training programs. A decision to observe one class under the MOET program and one class under the MOLISA program was made after deep consideration and examination of the research questions. Initially, the theory class was observed after the workshop observation. According to the curriculum allocation, each theory session takes up two periods (1 period = 45 minutes for the academic semester system and the credit training system at that time). One workshop session consisted of five periods. In the second week of January 2012, my first observation of a MOET theory class[10] took place in two periods in the morning. Then, in the afternoon, I observed a MOLISA theory class[11].

At the beginning of the observed classes, the teacher introduced me to all of the students to provide them with a clear understanding of what would happen in their classes. Although the teacher provided me with the freedom to choose any place from which to observe the class, I opted for a seat at the back of the room where I sat with the audio recorder in front of me. During the first fifteen minutes, the students seemed curious: they were eager to see what I was doing in their class despite the brief explanation from their teacher. This was understandable and expected: students always feel curious or unnatural when a stranger "sits in" on their class. Some students occasionally turned their heads around to look at me, but, they soon got used to my presence and did not pay any more attention. The purposes of classroom observation had been clarified to the teacher. I would observe how he taught his students, and how the students learned and acquired knowledge and skills. Throughout the class the teacher was expected to act naturally, as with normal happenings. The students became familiar with my presence at my second

[10] MOET class: students in this class undertake the MOET training system.
[11] MOLISA class: students in this class undertake the MOLISA training system.

observation of their class. I undertook two observations of two theory classes with the same two teachers who had volunteered to take part in my research for two weeks.

After my theory class observations, I observed two workshops (10 hours or 600 minutes in total) that lasted from 1:00 p.m. until 5:15 p.m. (5 periods at workshops) for the afternoon shift and from 7:00 a.m. to 11:15 a.m. for the morning shift. The first workshop observation was undertaken during the afternoon shift. The arrangements for the workshop and the theory classroom were different. Similar to the theory class, I chose a seat in the back row of the workshop to observe the first theory period, and to revise what the students had learnt and their requirements for the practices. After the first theory period, the students were organised into groups to practise at the allocated machines. At this time, I moved around groups just as the teacher did, to observe how students practised and played with the machines.

College 2 was somewhat different as it delivered MOLISA training programs, each period lasting 45 minutes; the total time for observation at this college was 11 hours or 660 minutes. Due to having to travel to another city, it was not convenient for me to stay there longer. So, my arrangements for collecting data from this college had to be well prepared before my field trip to that city. It was most rewarding to observe the theory class in the morning and the workshop in the afternoon. It was the same on the second day at that college.

The family workshop observation was totally different from the theory class and workshop observations at the colleges. Over a three-day period, I spent the whole morning in the workshop from opening time (7:30 a.m.) until lunch break (11:30 a.m.), observing how the vocational learners acquired their skills and knowledge. I took detailed notes and made audio recordings during the observation. The vocational learners felt a little embarrassed the first time I attended. However, they ignored me after a short time, and proceeded to do everything naturally soon.

As my observation aimed to describe the pedagogical practices employed, an observation template or checklist to record my observations was prepared to help me

gain as much vital information as possible. Detailed notes of the happenings in each lesson were also taken. A few days later, I listened to the audio recording again, looked at the notes, and wrote a precise observation template with a rich description of the happenings in class. Those records and observation notes were coded and filed to prepare for data analysis.

4.6.4 Interviews

I conducted 22 interviews, taking 820 minutes, all in the Vietnamese language, to elicit the participants' ideas and experiences of vocational teaching and learning. They took into account historical influences, and key challenges on vocational learning and teaching in response to the modernisation. The interviews aimed to confirm (or disconfirm) and expand the data from observation and document analysis. All of the participants who were working on their Mechanical Engineering Majors used the Vietnamese language during the interviews.

I interviewed leaders, teachers, students, Masters and vocational learners, seeking to learn how the teachers taught, and how the students/vocational learners learned to achieve the skills and knowledge that would shape their future vocations. Five students or vocational learners, two teachers and one leader at each college (excluding the family workshop) were chosen because the Master played the dual role of leader and teacher. At the colleges, the interviews were carried out in a vacant classroom in order to avoid noise. At the family workshop, the interviews were conducted in the office when nobody was around and there was little noise. Before each interview, the plain language statement was clearly explained to the participants. They were assured of confidentiality regarding the information they provided and the anonymisation of their names. The participants were given ample time to read all of the information sheets and consent form again, and to raise any questions if necessary. All of the participants were required to sign the consent form. Each participant was interviewed for 30 minutes; however, all of the leaders, including the Master and two teachers, spent more time (about one hour) than expected because they were enthusiastic about sharing their ideas, experiences and stories about

teaching and learning at their respective institutions. All interviews were recorded. During the interviews, I took notes, recording details that helped me with transcription and coding.

None of the described methods (document analysis, observations and interviews) could alone provide complete data with rich description for the research. Each data was designed to achieve different kinds of information, i.e., to provide clear and precise descriptions and rich data and to answer the core research questions. A blend of all the above methods was used to achieve rich data for my research.

4.7 Data analysis

In this section I detail how the data collected was analysed according to each research technique, i.e., document analysis, observation and interview.

4.7.1 Analysis process

As noted in Section 4.6.1, the recordings, which were in Vietnamese, were transcribed. All documents published at national and institutional levels, such as laws pertaining to vocational education, teaching and learning regulations, responsibilities of teachers and students, lesson plans, teaching materials and students' notebooks were in Vietnamese.

When transcribing the interviews, the participants' response in standard Vietnamese had to be reworded because some participants who came from other cities used Vietnamese dialects, which differ from region to region. All of the participants were shown the transcript so that they could double-check the information they had provided. Observation templates with notes were also used for analysis and coding. The notes were in Vietnamese as well. To support the coding and the categorising of the data, Nvivo software was employed. However, most of the data, which was in Vietnamese, included diacritical marks. This proved problematic because Nvivo can neither recognise nor include the diacritical marks to emphasise different sounds in the Vietnamese language. I could have used this software for my data analysis but only

if all of the diacritical marks were omitted. Vietnamese-speaking readers would be unable to read without diacritical marks. Thus, a decision was made to shift from Nvivo to Dedoose software, known for its support for a variety of languages.

Based upon the adapted framework "Investigating Vietnamese VET pedagogical practices", data were analysed and presented under the following five dimensions of decision-making in vocational pedagogy: organisation of space; roles of teachers; nature of learning activities; roles of learners; and general education versus technical education, the teacher's role, learner's role, organisation of space, approach to tasks and nature of activities when coding.

I commenced using Dedoose software after anonymising the participants and sources, e.g., I-WSVL1Name (I: Interview source; WS: workshop, VL: Vocational learner and pseudonym) and O-CL1-S1-MOET-Name (O: Observation; CL1: College 1; S: student; MOET: program that student undertaken; and the pseudonym) had been completed. The following sections discuss the data analysis in detail.

Data from 22 interviews and 11 observations (comprising 36 hours and 30 minutes of recordings), including the transcription of all of the interviews and observation notes were imported into the Dedoose system. Due to the fact that most of the collected data was in Vietnamese, the analysis was done in Vietnamese; and the results or codes selected for use in the thesis were translated into English.

The categories based on the adapted framework included the roles of teachers, nature of activities, means of knowledge (how the knowledge was delivered to students (theory or practice)), attitude to knowledge, approaches to task, role of learner, organisation of space, moral training and historical influences on management, curricula, teaching materials and teaching methods.

Regarding the analysis of documents, lesson plans, handouts, national and institutional official regulations, curricula and other materials were examined, then imported into Dedoose for coding. Aspects of the curriculum framework, and

curriculum regulations such as goals and objectives of vocational training, allocation, and assessment; textbooks, teaching materials, lesson plans, handouts, students' notebooks and other supportive documents were examined according to described categories based on the conceptual frameworks. The data collected during interviews – and documents in Vietnamese – were coded in Vietnamese, but all were translated into English for writing up.

4.7.2 Issues in data analysis

As stated in the first paragraphs of Chapters 1 and 3, the study was a bilingual one, using both English and Vietnamese when searching documents and collecting data. When dealing with the data analysis, the problem inherent in the translation of responses or texts from the original language into English was always taken into account. When translating data from Vietnamese into English, the meanings of participant's responses or texts might not be completely maintained. There is general recognition of the fact that translation may distort the original meaning of the data, indeed of any text. Many slang terms used in the interviews have been slightly changed into standard language to ensure the meaning of the responses. Words such as uhm, well…, aha, oh,.., eh…, and other odd expressions were cut, rendering less likely any possibility of altering either appropriately or comprehensively all of the original meaning of the responses. The research has emphasised that the participants' responses have been translated from the original language used into English. However, as Temple and Young (2004) maintain, "many writers have argued that there is no single correct translation of a text" (p. 167). Translation is "a boundary crossing between two cultures" (Halai 2007, p. 345, cited in Bazaley 2013), not a matter of synonym, syntax and local colour. Language is rhetoric, logic and silence and the relationships among them (Spivak 1992, cited in Temple & Young 2004). Similarly, Simon (1996, cited in Temple & Young 2004) observes that:

> The solutions to many of the translator's dilemmas are not to be found in dictionaries, but rather in an understanding of the way language is tied to local realities, and to literacy forms…. And translators must constantly make

> decisions about the cultural meanings which language carries and evaluate the degree to which the two different worlds they inhibit are the same. (pp. 137-138)

In line with the above, as a researcher and translator from the same background as the research participants, it seemed easier to understand what the speakers were saying and meaning by rendering their comments into English where possible. However, there are phrases and words that are too culturally specific to be rendered into English. Ultimately, it depends on how the translator understands what the speaker actually means. In such cases, I used an English equivalent that seemed the most accurate along with the original language the speaker and I were using.

I realised that any effort to translate all of my data into a foreign language (English) might result in the loss of too much meaning, and could result in rendering the data difficult and shallow (Bazaley 2013). Therefore, I decided to transcribe and analyse my collected data in Vietnamese, then interpret what I found in English. While it is impossible to report data without bias, I have read and reread all of the data in an attempt to select those pieces of information that were the most important for my research and illuminated it most clearly (Bazaley 2013). Additionally, I called upon Vietnamese friends who are doing PhDs in Linguistics and English to double-check my translations. I was sufficiently confident that they would be able to verify my translations from Vietnamese into English.

4.8 Conclusion

This chapter has explained in detail why a qualitative research approach was adopted. I have described how the research was designed, the process of data collection and the data analysis. In addition, I have addressed issues of data analysis, and of the conceptual framework adapted for data analysis, descriptions that are crucial to understanding how the research was carried out and how the data were explored. This chapter has offered an overall picture of the research design in a bid to answer the questions raised. Within this research design, data explored through different

lenses clearly provided the best results for the research. In the next chapter, I will present the findings of the research, and techniques of observation, interviewing and document analysis.

Chapter 5 – Pedagogical Practices at College 1

5.1 Introduction

This chapter describes the data analysis in relation to pedagogical practices and the historical influences shaped at College 1. The data was collected through interviews, observation and document analysis of both MOLISA and MOET training programs offered at College 1, from the time of its change into a college in 2005 until now. This chapter first provides a brief introduction to College 1. This is followed by an analysis of the data, using the dimensions of the adapted conceptual framework described in Chapter 4: organisation of space, nature of learning activities, role of the teacher, role of the student and moral education. These dimensions will be presented along continuums such as authentic–contrived and theory–practice to explore the shift in and location of the current VET pedagogical practices. The focus of the final section is on the historical influences on teaching and learning.

5.2 Description of College 1

As stated in Chapter 4, College 1, a government-funded college, was established over 115 years ago by Royal Decree by King Thanh Thai. One of the three oldest vocational colleges in Vietnam, in 1991 it was recognised as a national cultural heritage site. The various historical stages are reflected in its buildings. Each historical stage has been marked with a particular name for the College; for example, Ba Cong School (a school with many industrial branches, its original name); the Practical School of Industry (Ecole Pratique D'Industrie when transferred to the French Protective Government in 1921); Technical School of Industry (1942); Specific Technical School (1954); Technical School (1976 after the country was united); Practical Industry School (1993, belonged to the Ministry of Industry, formerly the Ministry of Heavy Industry); and, more recently, Hue Industrial College (2005).

College 1, which has three campuses located in the city and in the suburbs, is currently under the direct management of the Ministry of Industry and Trade. It is supervised by both MOET and MOLISA as it delivers training programs of both government ministries. The main purpose of this College, known as a key VET Institute, is to provide a trained industrial workforce for the central area of Vietnam as stated on its website.

As described in Chapter 2, the MOET programs include secondary professional level and college level courses, while the MOLISA programs consisted of elementary, secondary and college vocational level courses. Five different training programs are offered at this College under three tiers of management. Previously, both the MOET and MOLISA programs delivered semester-based programs over an academic year. However, MOET has been encouraging colleges and universities to apply a new system, that is, credit-based training programs. This means that there is a relationship between credit and the amount of work students learn in a fixed time with standard learning conditions such as classroom study, practice in labs and self-study (DHQGHN 2006, p. 1, cited in Hoang Van Van 2015). In 2007, MOLISA introduced a module-training program. Module training is based on an integrated learning unit which combines knowledge in both theory and practice. A module is a unit in a larger 'thing', so it's one of two or more units. Focus is upon students obtaining competence (Nguyen Van Tuan 2011). This new training program was put into practice for the higher level of the MOLISA vocational programs at this College. Semester-based training was delivered in parallel for the higher and the lower levels. In 2011, the MOET Credit System was also piloted at the college level.

A result of these changes is that teachers at this College must teach different programs for a variety of training levels. In their interviews, the leader and teachers said that they must use the same teachers for all training programs. This, according to the leader, was one of the dilemmas of teaching at this College (I.CL1.LD, T1.T2). Before they could teach the above-mentioned programs at this College, teachers were required to undertake the Certificate of Vocational Teaching and the Certificate of

Undergraduate Teaching if they were not trained by Universities of Technical Education as stated in the institutional regulations of College 1 released in 2014). Universities of Technical Education are institutions which train and prepare their students to be technical engineers and technical teachers for VET colleges and schools. However, most of teachers at this College graduated from universities in the Central area of Vietnam, e.g., the University of Technology and the University of Sciences, neither of which prepares their students with pedagogical knowledge and skills to be teachers. Hence, those teachers must have all of the above certificates.

Students at this College came from local areas and other cities in Central Vietnam (I.CL1.LD, T1, S1,2). The students' enrolment for professional college training is similar to all colleges and universities in Vietnam, which requires the applicants to sit a national examination with regulated marks that are set by the MOET. Enrolment from secondary level to vocational college training is based on the results of students' high school records.

Approximately 7000 students were enrolled in the training programs from secondary vocational (Trung cap nghe) to college training as stated on the College 1's website. The students came under the direct management of their faculties with the support of the HoChiMinh Communist Youth Union[12], and the Student Affairs Office managed all of the students' activities, including liaison between students' families and the College (institutional regulations on functions and duties of College 1).

When students enter university or college, they are placed in classes and often stay as a group, learning, living, sharing, helping and playing together as a "family" from their first day to the last day. In some cases, they continue their relationship throughout their lives as showed in the institutional regulations on class management of College 1. This "family" culture, which has influenced teaching and learning, has resulted in

[12] The Ho Chi Minh Communist Youth Union (HCYU) is a socio-political organisation of Vietnamese youth. It gathers youth embarking upon and bringing into play the revolutionary heroism and national valuable traditions, organises and mobilises youth to be pioneers in the cause of national construction and defence. It also represents and protects youth's legal rights (doanthanhnien.vn).

the same responses to questions from all students in the classes (Claire & Patricia 1996, p. 203). For example, when the teacher asked: “Do you understand?” or “Do you have any questions?”, the students simultaneously answered “yes” or “no”.

This College has benefited from foreign-funded projects including INWENT (Internationale Weiterbildung und Entwicklung, Germany); AFPA (Association de Formation pour des Adults, France); and AOTS (The Association for Overseas Technical Scholarship, Japan) which have supported its teaching and learning facilities. These projects not only equipped this College with new and modern machines, e.g., CNC machines in Mechanics, but provided a workshop to train teachers to use said machines (College 1’s Report 2011). In addition, KOICA (Korea International Cooperation Agency, Korea) and AVI (Australian Volunteers International) sent professional volunteers to assist this College in setting up labs and professional exchanges as stated on the website of College 1 and on MOIT’s website.

Based on the above information about this College, the next paragraphs outline its hierarchical management structure (see Figure 7, adapted from the College 1 website) and institutional regulations.

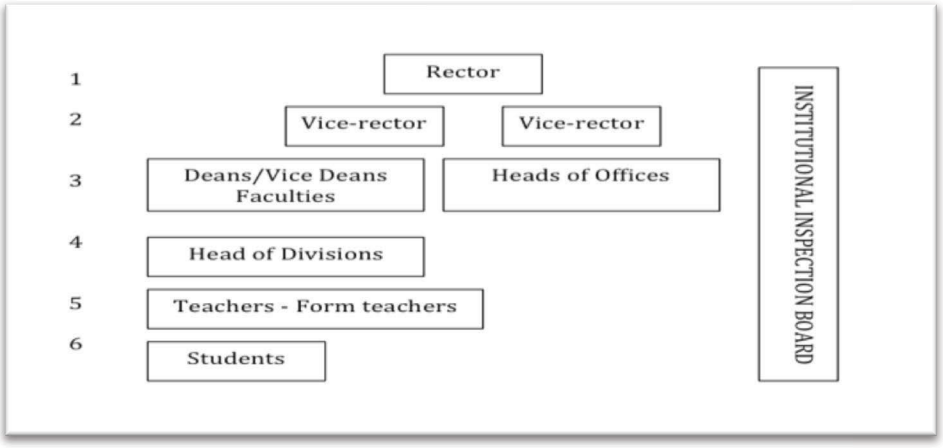


Figure 7: Hierarchical management structure of College 1 (adapted from its website and institutional regulations)

The inclusion of the Institutional Inspection Board differentiates this College from other vocational institutions in many countries. This Board has the responsibility to oversee teaching and learning activities and to deal with appeals from all staff and students (Institutional regulations of College 1 2014). All staff and leaders are assessed monthly in terms of their contributions, responsibilities and behaviours for their extra payment. The Institutional Inspection Board works constantly on monthly and annual reports.

More details about the training programs, teaching and learning will be presented in Sections 5.3, 5.4, 5.5 and in Chapter 8. In the next part of this chapter, I will analyse the organisation of space.

5.3 Organisation of space

Workshop ----------Classroom

As stated in Chapters 2 and 4, Vietnam's first vocational schools were established during the French colonial period. The French architecture reflected in some of the College buildings is maintained as part of national heritage. Figure 8 illustrates each of the historical periods at this College.

Figure 8: Buildings of historical stages of College 1
(Photos taken by author, January 2013)

Interestingly, all of the building photos are used for teaching of theory. A tour of the three College campuses revealed that approximately two thirds of the College space is occupied by theory classrooms and administrative offices.

Learning and teaching at this College occurred in the classrooms and workshops. In each classroom, there were rows of desks and chairs, providing seating for approximately 35 to 50 students. The rooms were equipped with blackboards; the teacher's desk was located in the left front area, and some had electric ceiling fans (O1.CL1.TC & O3.CL1.WS). The teachers and leaders described the main purpose of the teaching in classrooms as theory learning, providing students with theoretical knowledge before they start their practical sessions. Due to the central city location of the College, noise from vehicles and surrounding classes caused some degree of distraction from the learning and teaching processes occurring in the classrooms.

Practical sessions, including one period of theory at the beginning of each session often occurred in the combined workshops. Theory frequently involved theoretical revision, explanation of safety procedure as well as explanation of tools and materials used for the practice (O3&4.CL1; I.CL1.T1 & T2) (see Figure 9).

The physical space of this College revealed a combination of classrooms and workshops. However, the College workshops did not replicate "real-life" tasks there. They provided a context that reflected the ways in which knowledge and skills will be used in real-life scenarios (Gulikers, Bastiaens & Martens 2005). These workshops were used for education purposes, i.e., to demonstrate practical work, to mimic real-world scenarios, and to gain work skills (Schmid 2000), that is, while they simulated real workshops, they were not working workshops with real customers. They did not have real cars in the workshop – the students worked on parts of cars, for example, the brakes or engines. In reality, the tasks performed in these workshops were not authentic ones.

The workshops in this study were hybrid places; they had spaces with chairs and desks in rows for theory learning. The students seated in these spaces were "taught or

revised theory" prior to commencing their practice (O5,4,6.CL1.WS). Another recently built campus separated the theory space from the workshops by doors (see Figure 9). In addition, the workshops included machines, engines and drawers in which to keep tools.

Figure 9: Workshops for practice and theory sessions

There have been many recent investments in College infrastructure (College 1 website). A mixture of old and new buildings reveals its various historical stages. While some buildings reflect French colonial influences, others show the Soviet influence subsequent to the nation's unification. Modern buildings have been added in recent years.

Students enrolled in the MOET programs spend most of their time learning in classrooms. Practice activity at the combined workshops is organised around the workshop's availability and the time and workload allocation of the curriculum. For example, welding subject is allocated with 45 periods and 15 periods for teaching of theory and the rest is for practice. In the case of some subjects, students must study theory in one semester and practice in the next semester.

> For example, in the Credit training program (MOET program), the workload is too much and the allocated time is so limited. Thus, teachers at times deliver

> theoretical knowledge in classrooms rather than practice classes at the workshops. (I.CL1.T2)
>
> Sometimes we learned theoretical subjects in semester 1 and then did intensive practices at the workshops in a few weeks in semester 2. (I.CL1.S2)

As suggested above, teaching and learning happens in both classrooms and workshops. This analysis of organisation of space will provide a better understanding of learning and teaching in VET in Vietnam. It may shape the nature of learning, and the roles of teachers and learners, potential eventuation I describe below.

5.4 Nature of learning activities

Authentic/Practice---------- Contrived/Theory

Drawing on the adapted conceptual framework, the nature of learning activities is investigated through the two continuums of authentic–contrived activities together with theory and practice. As suggested in Chapter 4, the relationship between authentic–practice and contrived–theory among those continuums connects well with employers' requirements for students' work readiness. As the director of the International Labour Organisation in Vietnam stated, "Skills gaps and mismatches still exist between the classroom and the workplace" (VOVNEWS 2015) in vocational education. Using those continuums also assists discussion of the shift and challenges in VET pedagogical practices in Vietnam. The focus of this research will be upon curriculum, content and teaching methods which will be discussed in the following sections.

5.4.1 Authentic–Contrived Continuum

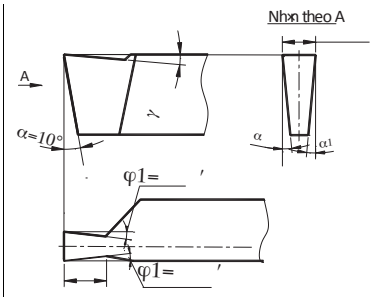
According to Lombardi (2007, p. 2), authentic learning typically focuses on "real world, complex problems and their solutions, using role-plays, problem solving exercises and participating in virtual communities of practices". Importantly, authentic learning is built within learning environments, which are inherently multidisciplinary (Lombardi 2007). Learning authentically suggests that students

should have opportunities to learn through simulated practices based on "real-world" examples in order to obtain relevant competencies. By being challenged with learning experiences, the real-life or future professional practice of students is simulated (Herrington & Oliver, 2000; Honebein, Duffy & Fishman 1993, cited in Gulikers, Bastiaens & Martens 2005). According to Lucas, Spencer and Claxton (2012), workplace learning or apprenticeship training is authentic.

While Chai, Zhang and Bisberg (2006) view contrived learning as artificial learning, Walton (1992) relates it to teacher-controlled learning. Chai, Zhan and Bisberg and Walton's research suggests that contrived learning conveys its artificiality or the arrangement and structure of one's learning in an unnatural environment.

As described in Section 5.3, teaching and learning occurred mostly in classrooms and workshops. My observation and interview data revealed that the nature of learning and teaching activities at this College had a variety of features. It was not concretised specifically at either end of the continuum. The following description will provide a clearer picture of the diversity along the continuum of authentic–contrived learning activities.

Learning and teaching at this College were tightly structured (see extract of a lesson plan in Figure 10). A typical teaching period with of two minutes (*02 phút*) was allocated for the activity of how to read the drawings. Lecturing (*thuyết trình*: in the picture) was the teaching method employed. Listening and copying into notebooks (*theo dõi, ghi chép*) were among the activities expected of the students.



		- Chiều dài của dao cắt rãnh: L = H+3 = 2+3= 5 mm - Góc $\alpha = 10^0$; $\alpha_{1tr,i} = \alpha_{1\ ph¶i} = 1^0 30'$; $\varphi_{1tr,i} = \varphi_{1\ ph¶i} = 1^0 30'$. góc $\gamma = 5^0$ - Chiều dài của dao cắt gọt: L= D /2 +3	02phút	Thuyết trình	Theo dõi, ghi chép

Figure 10: Lesson plan from College 1

This prescription of time and activities illustrates the degree to which the main teaching activities focused on transmitting knowledge to the students. This was characterised in the contrived learning in which the methods of acquisition were determined by the teachers. I observed that the whole lesson focused on transmitting knowledge, apart from a short period of approximately 10 minutes for discussion, questioning and answering. The above process signalled contrived learning at this College. However, as may be seen from the above diagrams and models, an attempt was being made to bring the real world into the classroom in the teaching of theory, thus bringing a degree of authenticity to learning and teaching.

The authentic–contrived continuum nature of learning was also mirrored in the practice followed by the combined workshops. As observed earlier, these workshops were a combination of learning by watching, learning by imitating, and learning by doing. They could thus be described as "partly authentic". After observing the modelling practice of their teachers and group leaders, students had time to work with the real machines in order to complete their assigned tasks. Moreover, observation also revealed that only a few students had a chance to complete their tasks on the machines due to the limited number of machines (O4,5,6.CL1). In addition, each student had limited time to perfect his/her skills and knowledge.

The reason for using the term "partly authentic" may be explained by the limited budget for practical materials. Students only had opportunities to practice with "samples" of materials in the process of acquiring skills and knowledge. At times this

resulted in difficulties for both students and teachers, particularly when they had to reuse samples for follow-up practical activities. As the teachers and students interviewed suggested:

> Instructions in books and computers were very standard but it differed from here. We could not follow them because of the difference in size. For example, one college student was paid 60.000VND (~3 US$) per 30 practical periods for necessary materials for the workshop sessions. It was enough for 3 kg of steel without other materials. That brought many limitations for teachers and students. (I.CL1.T1)

> We often worked on small items [called "samples" in this research] for practice. But it was hard when we made mistakes; those items became too small for us to practice on. (I.CL1.S1.3)

Students who were learning in these workshops expressed their concern that they would not be prepared for real world work. One teacher stated:

> Many students told me that if they applied for a job they must ask their employers for internships for 2 to 3 months to get familiar with real work before they can self-manage. (I.CL1.T1)

Somewhat interestingly, the assessment of this College is moving toward the authentic end of the continuum. The criteria for student assessment, e.g., the completion of a product, the process she/he utilised, student behaviour and communication at the workshop were set out in the curriculum framework and in the description of the subject. One teacher with more than twenty years of experience said: "Previously I assessed each student for many details of product completion, but now I mainly focus on skills" (I.CL1.T1). He provided more advanced exercises for those who did well so they would get the best marks. For the theory sessions paper tests were most often used.

In sum, learning at this College was not as completely authentic as it would have been in the type of workplace or apprenticeship discussed by Lucas, Spencer and Claxton (2012)). Learning and teaching in the classrooms and the workshops were moving along the authentic–contrived learning continuum.

5.4.2 Practice-Theory Continuum in teaching and learning

The data of the practice–theory continuum was examined in relation to the curriculum and the content. The allocation of practice and theory in each training program was presented. A preference of teaching of theory was likely found in the curriculum frameworks, observations of the College classrooms and the workshops, as well as in teacher and student interviews. While there was some evidence of imitating, practising, sketching and real-world problem solving, practice was still limited.

As described above, this College delivered both MOET and MOLISA training programs. Analysis of regulations and curriculum frameworks found that students studying the MOET curriculum in the Mechanics course were required to spend most of their time on theoretical learning (27.78%) and on general education (32.63%), regulated by the college. In other words, there was 61.41% teaching of theory in total over the three-year course. The course comprised 600 theory periods, 450 practice periods, 180 internship periods, 135 dissertation or examination periods and 705 periods of general education. Details are displayed in Table 2.

Table 2: Allocation of MOET Curriculum Framework at College 1 (MOET Technology of Mechanics, College level, College 1)

Subjects	**Allocation (60'/period)**	**%**
General Education Including Social Sciences, Maths, Natural Sciences, Physical Education, National Security and Defence Education, Law, Marxist-Leninist Philosophy	705 (705 hours)	32.63
Basic professional knowledge (Ex: measuring technique, work safety and CAD…)	330 (330 hours)	15.28
Professional knowledge (Ex: Manufacturing Technology 1 & 2, CNC Technology)	270 (270 hours)	12.5
Mini-assignment or project	90 (90 hours)	4.2
Practice of professional knowledge	450 (450 hours)	20.83
Internship	180 (180 hours)	8.33
Dissertation or examination	135 (135 hours)	6.25
TOTAL	2160 (3 years)	

However, while students were also required to undertake three years of full-time training for the MOLISA programs, a different balance of theory and practice was found in the vocational curriculum. The percentage shown in Table 3 was representative of the theory and practice balance without counting exam time. All allocation time (45 minutes/period) was converted into hour units to be equivalent to the MOET programs.

Table 3: Theory–Practice allocation in MOLISA Curriculum Framework (Cutting metals, MOLISA, College level, College 1)

Major areas	Allocation (45'/period)	%	
General education (National security education, physical education, law, politics, IT and English)	450 (=337 hours 30 mins.)	N/A	
Core vocational subjects and modules (including basic vocational subjects)	810 in theory (607 hours 30 mins.) 1830 in practice (1372 hours 30 mins.)	N/A	
Total	3090 (1260 theory periods = 945 hours) 1830 practice periods = 1372 hours 30 mins	38.9 57.6	3.5% is taken up by exams

Table 4 sheds light on the difference in the theory–practice balance between the two training programs.

Table 4: Theory–Practice balance between MOET professional training program and MOLISA vocational training program (MOLISA 2008, College 1, 2010)

MOET	%	MOLISA	%
Total theory	61.41	Total theory	38.9
Total practice	33.36	Total practice	57.6

The notable differences may be explained by the fact that there is no internship for the MOLISA programs. Although MOET students spend less time on practice than their MOLISA counterparts, they experience real-life work during their internships (8.33% of total 33.36% of practice). The dissimilar objectives, focus and outcomes of each training curriculum are found at the same level of training (see Table 5).

Table 5: Difference between MOET and MOLISA programs (MOLISA 2008, College 1, 2010)

Differences	MOET program	MOLISA program
Training objectives	Equip learners with the comprehensive and ideal development of skills, knowledge, physicality and mentality Provide learners with the ability to participate in social activities with professional ethics, knowledge and skills that are suitable for the level of a technician.	Provide learners with specific and basic knowledge in literacy and numeracy, and skills such as reading, drawings, and related documents; Know how to calculate, develop, arrange, mix and cut metals, save materials; deploying the dimensions, shape exactly on sheet steel and shaped steel.
Focus	Academic and professional training	Vocational training
Training levels	Intermediate, college	Basic, Intermediate, college
Requirements	Year 12 graduation and above	Year 9 completion and the above for intermediate and college None for basic
Outcomes	Technicians/specialists	Workers/workmen

As may be seen in Table 5, teaching theory was considered the main way to provide knowledge and skills for vocational students who undertook the MOET training programs. One MOET vocational student (who had spent two years at this college) stated that, "with the current allocation and system, theory learning accounted for too much time and therefore, left less time for practice" (I.CL1.S4.MOET). He argued to the effect that, "vocational learning needed more practice time". He added that, "when working at enterprises, those students can pass the interview for jobs because of good theory knowledge, but cannot satisfy the employer when practising (I.CL1.S4.MOET).

The imbalance of theory and practice was also alluded to by other students:

> I often spend from 17 - 20 periods on learning theory and 20 periods on practice if practical sessions are allocated in that week. Otherwise I learn all in theory classes. (I.CL1.S5.MOET)

However, the latter explained that practice sometimes happened over two continuous weeks, depending on the particular subject. At times, students needed to practise constantly for a two-month period in line with workshop availability. Most of the remaining time was spent on learning theory. Practice sessions might take place in the first semester and then again in the next semester. In these sessions, students were divided into three groups for three shifts (morning, afternoon and evening shifts) (I.CL1.T1, T2, S2, S4, S5). However, this caused difficulty for students and teachers as it did not reveal an appropriate allocation for theory and practice.

The findings revealed that the proportion of periods devoted to theory and practice was uneven in both curricula, and that the MOLISA curriculum had a higher proportion of time devoted to practice. Students studying the MOLISA curriculum did not have an opportunity to undertake an internship or practicum. There may be a number of explanations for this lack of balance. However, regardless of the cause, this was a real concern for some students (I.CL1.S1,2,3.MOLISA). Many expressed a preference for internships as they saw them as providing real-life learning (I.CL1.ST3.MOLISA).

The general opinion among the students was that learning and practising in the College workshops, without any chance of practising in real workshops, could result in difficulty gaining employment in their field and if they did gain such employment, in satisfying their future employers (I.CL1.S2.MOLISA. & I.CL1.S1.MOLISA).

According to the MOET curriculum guidelines, students must spend from three to four weeks (equivalent of 180 periods) in the last semester of their 3-year training program in an internship in a commercial company or a family workshop. Students usually had to find their own place for this internship. If they were unable to find one,

the Faculty assumed responsibility for finding and recommending one. Students found it useful to undertake such an internship (I.CL1.S4.MOET).

The above data analysis revealed a difference in the allocation of teaching time to theory and practice in the curriculum. Examination of the content lessons showed that theory was not taught in a style where "teachers read and students copy" (Pham Thi Hong Thanh 2011); instead the teacher used diagrams and Figures to illustrate real-work problems (see Figure 11).

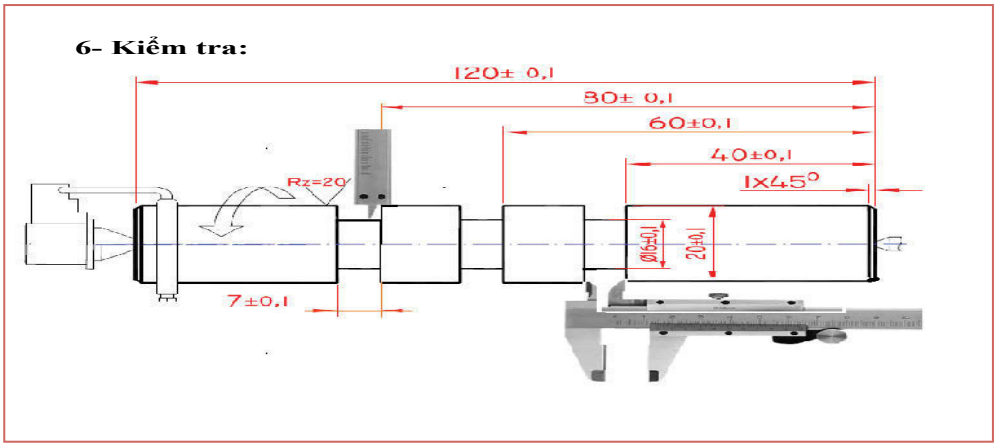


Figure 11: Slide from teacher's presentation in a theory session

An analysis of the students' notebooks for a theory period revealed that definitions and explanations of terms were provided via diagrams. There was a combination of texts, diagrams and figures in the notes of one theory session (see Figure 12), evidence that learning in classrooms was not a matter of "pure" theory teaching.

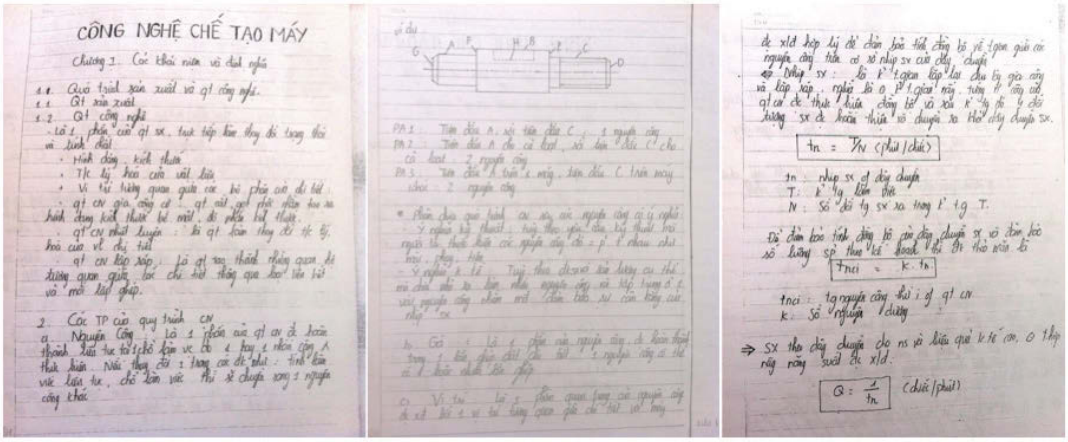


Figure 12: Students' notes made in a theory session (from collected notebooks)

In sum, students finished their theoretical lessons several months before the practice sessions. Some had to do their practice at the workshops in three shifts, i.e., morning, afternoon and evening shifts. This allocation of three shifts, however, impacted on the quality of teaching and learning. Teachers interviewed stated that for them, the high practical workload, i.e., working three shifts per day for several weeks at workshops, contributed to their reluctance to change their teaching methods away from theory. That had a negative effect on the quality of teaching and learning because teachers felt exhausted after long teaching days:

> I have to teach a class from morning, afternoon till evening in 12 weeks. Such 15 periods per day constantly in 12 weeks! Generally speaking, I could not breathe. Don't have time to think of preparation for the lessons. (I.CL1.T1)

> In some terms, I left home at 6 a.m. and returned at 9 or 9:30 p.m. as I had to stay at the workshop from the morning to the afternoon and then the evening shift. (I.CL1.T2)

The focus on theory will also be discussed in the next section on the role of the teacher.

The current over-emphasis on theory may relate to the influence of the Soviet era, when theory took priority over practice (Dang Que Anh 2009; Tran Hoa Phuong

1998). The leader of the college said: “For example, Advanced Math 1 (A1), and Advanced Math 2 (A2) in the curriculum is definitely imported from the Soviet curriculum, and it has been used until now. That is the Soviet influence.” (I.CL1.LD). This particular form of learning and teaching has shaped the roles of teachers and learners which are examined in the following sections.

5.5 Role of the teacher

Facilitative ---------- Didactic

In this section, I will discuss the role of the teacher along the didactic–facilitative continuum based on my analysis of documents, lesson plans, observation and interviews with leaders, students and teachers. These revealed that at this College typically the role of teachers was one of knowledge transmitters. There was little evidence of teachers managing the students’ learning (Harden & Crosby 2000). This proved inconsistent with documents that claim that the role of the teacher is one of guide or support.

In the lesson plans designed by the teachers for the theory classes and workshops, the teachers’ roles were mainly shown as lecturing (see Figure 10), asking whether students had any questions, giving homework and allocating assignments to students. The same roles were performed in the workshops, with the additional involvement of teachers in demonstrating tasks, guiding students step by step, and assessing the results.

Class observation revealed that the enacted practice of the teachers reflected the didactic role outlined in the lesson plans, with the teacher only moving around the front area between the first rows of desks and the blackboard when giving the lecture, and explaining and writing on the blackboard (O1.CL1.W). However, during the interviews, the teachers explained that apart from giving lectures and explanations, and writing on the black board in the classroom, they included the explanation method and the inductive method, both of which were based on problem solving and inquiry learning at the workshop (I.Cl1.T2). While this may be an ideal form of

teaching, it did not generally seem to be applied based on my observation and interviews with students and the leader (I.CL1.LD, S3.MOLISA, S4.MOET & S5.MOET). The teacher engaged in direct guidance at the machines with student group leaders and students. The group leader practised first under the supervision of the teacher; then he/she assumed the responsibility for demonstrating to other students in his/her group (O5, 6.CL1). In sum, traditional teaching methods involving transmission of knowledge from teachers to students was clearly seen at College 1 as the dominant way of teaching in VET pedagogical practices. However, other roles such as supporting students undertaking tasks or guiding their practice were also carried out at the workshops.

Evidence of Vietnamese educators embracing new tasks and employing new teaching methods, particularly applying ICT in teaching, was found in several documents, from the institutional level to the national level; for example, in Strategies on Education Development in stage 2001-2010 (Thu tuong chinh phu 2001) and Strategies on Education Development in stage 2011-2020 (Thu tuong chinh phu 2012). The observation of theory classes revealed that although the teachers tried to apply new teaching methods with the support of technology, the method consisted mainly of verbally transmitting knowledge from the teacher to the students. Apart from the 7-minute video showing how the machine operated, the remainder of the lesson took the form of a teacher talk and writing exercise. The same was found in the workshops. The interviews with the leader, teachers and students also supported this conclusion. The leader and teacher commented:

> If we talk about dramatically changing teaching methods, to me, I realise it is not a profound and clear change. They still 'pour knowledge' into students and focus on information transmission. There is little feedback and reflection from students…. Every college is mostly the same. (I.CL1.LD)

> Frankly speaking, this college is still in the traditional style and under development. Though teachers use computers to improve their teaching, it is just a teaching aid. (I.CL.T1)

> Computers and projectors were used whenever there were observations. (I.CL1.S1)

The above was said to be due to:

> the lack of reading materials, standard library resources and students' lack of recognition and awareness of their learning. (I.CL1.LD)

Other explanations for the "information transmission" role of the teacher included a heavy workload for the teachers, being curriculum driven, the hard working nature of the teaching profession, constantly self-studying to provide knowledge and skills to students, and students being low in self-realisation. (I.CL1.T1, I.CL1.T2)

According to the College's institutional Regulation No. 589/QĐ-CĐCNH, dated 15 October 2014, a workload of 436 hours teaching theory or 726 hours practice teaching at workshops each academic year was a standard allocation for each teacher. In general, teachers must follow the 23 institutional disciplines regulated in Chapter VI of the institutional regulations on teaching disciplines and activities at the College1 released on 15 October 2014. The dominant features were as follows:

Teachers must have lesson plans, syllabus, teaching materials, observation notebooks, notebook for recording students' marks and teacher notebook. They also have to follow regulations such as when to start and finish a teaching period or a practice session subject to the regulated time;

When starting a theory or practice class, teachers must have a lesson plan which must be of the right template, with stipulated content, and must be signed by the Dean of Faculty at least one day before teaching starts;

Teaching with the right content, at the right pace, and a syllabus approved by the division, faculty and training department; and

Each semester, the teacher must undertake a minimum of four classroom observations which includes notes taken clearly in the observation notebook of the teacher" (Article 13, 14, pp. 17–18).

The above findings reflect a lack of flexibility in the roles of teachers. The tightly regulated control of teachers may explain their didactic role. Other regulations include:

> Teachers must strictly follow the curriculum (I.CL1.T2);

> Yes, that is a big concern. For example, the credit system covers huge tasks within limited time. Sometimes some teachers must let students learn more theory than practice because of a lack of practice time. Previously, practice time was double what it is now, but now, with this new credit program, it is really concerning that we must move faster to catch up on the quota of programs . (I.CL1.T2)

A lack of machines or machines being out of service for repairs also caused many difficulties for teachers.

> Because repairing machines is more difficult than doing practice tasks. This is really hard. There are not enough machines for students to practise on. For example, it should have 10 machines for 30 students (three students for each machine). But here, with only three machines, it is impossible to divide 10 students with only one machine. We must divide groups into smaller numbers. Some groups in the last queues can't complete the tasks in a limited time and cause hassle for teachers. (I.CL1.T1)

Despite being impeded by barriers, including high workloads and inappropriate allocation of learning activities, teachers at this College strive to apply new technologies and new teaching approaches. However, the ineffectiveness of their efforts was apparent in the data. In four observation periods of theory classes, only one class participated in group activities. The students' contribution to and

involvement in the theory classes and the first theory period of the workshop session was minimal. The students reluctantly joined in group work; I noted that some turned their face away, talking. Others remained quiet and looked at their notebooks (O3.CL1.TC). Their lack of enthusiasm and inattention may have been attributable to the class environment, which did not support group work because students were sitting on benches and desks in rows (O3.CL1.TC).

At the workshops, the findings were slightly different from the classrooms. Group work activities were widely used. Students at times were often divided into groups to practise at the machines (O2.CL1.T2.WS). In interviews, they showed their preference for working in groups, saying they could learn from other students. They felt confident working in groups because they could ask friends for help when needed (I.CL1.S5.MOET, I.CL1.S5.MOET, I.CL1.S1.MOLISA.). Nevertheless, an individual approach to tasks prevails for most of the learning activities at this College, an approach to tasks that will shape the roles of learners as is shown in the following section.

In addition to the main role of guiding and imparting knowledge and skills to students, teachers must perform another role as head teachers or class tutors, taking charge of and managing the classes allocated to them at the beginning of the academic year. Apart from their regular teaching lessons, teachers had to spend one hour a week with students in their classes, writing weekly reports on their students' progress, informing students of the college's monthly activities, assigning class tasks for students, and reminding students to pay their tuition fees shown in the institutional regulations on teaching disciplines and activities of the college. Teachers also acted as liaison officers with students' parents. Importantly, teachers had to fulfil the roles of guiding students and reminding them about good behaviour, the value of group harmony, and respect for others. These roles will be examined in detail in Section 5.7 on moral education. Teachers fulfilling the above roles act as mentors. Levinson (1978, cited in Jenaibi 2013) defines mentors as those who perform as teachers,

sponsors, hosts or guides, and who teach young cohorts the values, customs, resources and personal dynamics implicit in the organisation.

With so many important roles and responsibilities, teachers must try their best to cope with their tasks. Mistakes and unfinished tasks affect their incomes. As well as their basic salary, teachers receive a monthly payment based on the efficiency of their work, their behaviour towards their students and staff, and their implementation of the college's disciplinary code, but the fines are imposed for a collection of breaches by both teachers and student. For example, teachers' pay may be reduced according to the college's Regulation No. 589/QĐ-CĐCNH, dated 15 October 2014:

- 10 points when coming to class late;
- 20 points if students in their class are found sleeping, chatting, playing in class or cheating in exams;
- 10 points for failing to provide a monthly class report;
- 5 points if approximately 20% of their students are late paying their tuition fees

According to the above regulation, teachers self-assess their work completion report monthly. It is reassessed by their Deans/Heads of Offices before the results are sent to the Personnel Office. This office aggregates all of the results of the whole College in preparation for the College's Council to take charge of the monthly assessment of the extra payment based upon the monthly reports from the Institutional Inspection Board. These regulations and procedures place substantial pressures on teachers and may influence them to resist change to their teaching methods.

While the didactic role of teachers was explicit in theory classes, so called "facilitative" roles and mentor roles were also recognised in the workshop at College 1. This also reveals the much broader roles of the teacher than those in typical Western VET.

The strength of the didactic roles of teachers in the current vocational education system in Vietnam is underpinned by historical influences on Vietnamese education. In Confucianism, teachers are ranked higher than parents, just after the King (Dang

Que Anh 2009; Nguyen Thi Thanh Mai 2013; Tran Thi Tuyet 2012). The teacher is considered an expert in knowledge; therefore, students must respect their teachers and listen quietly to absorb what is imparted to them. Students are expected to imbibe and absorb knowledge and skills from their teachers in order to change their behaviour, and to "work as successful mechanics after they graduate" (College 1, 2010). The following requirements are circulated in the educational objectives of the vocational education system in Vietnam:

> To train technical workers to join in manufacturing and service industries with the ability to practical skills equivalent to their training level, good behaviours, profession's devotion, and awareness of disciplines. (Quoc hoi Viet Nam 2006)

These clear objectives help teachers guide their students' learning and show the inclusion of "moral education", a topic that will be examined in the following sections. Given the above goal of learning and the teachers' roles, the role of the learner explored in the next section might reveal results that will clarify the previous findings.

5.6 Role of the learner/student

Self-managing ---------- Directed

Similar to the role of the teacher, the role of the learner was examined in both classrooms and workshops. It will be explored as part of the self-managing–directed continuum.

According to the regulations stated in the handbooks for students at universities, colleges and schools enrolled in full-time training programs (Bo Giao duc va Dao tao 2007), students must actively self-study, creatively do research, and form or practise their own behavioural patterns and lifestyles. This is in addition to their nine other responsibilities, including following the prescribed training program and respecting their teachers. Self-study or self-managing their learning appears in legal documents. Students must develop the ability to work independently and creatively, and to apply

technology in their work (Article 33: Goals of professional training, Law on Education 2005). However, this was far from the reality.

In the lesson plans, the students' proposed activities during the teaching periods were to observe, listen, copy into their notebooks and contribute to the lesson. The interviews also showed "little feedback and reflection from students" (I.CL1.LD). Within this scenario, the teachers functioned as models. They showed the students how to do tasks; and the students listened quietly and observed. Modelling of tasks and guiding of students was also found during the observation. In the workshop, the students were expected to do the same activities as those in the lesson plan, i.e., to follow the teachers' guidance, and to do their own tasks.

Thao tác mẫu Thực hiện thao tác mẫu theo đúng trình tự các bước tiến hành **Gọi học sinh thực hiện** Gọi một học sinh lên thực hiện	15 phút	Hướng dẫn ,thao tác các bước	Thực hiện các bước theo giáo viên hướng dẫn
B. HƯỚNG DẪN THƯỜNG XUYÊN - Các nhóm nhận máy, kiểm tra tình trạng kỹ thuật, chuẩn bị vật liệu, dụng cụ - Theo dõi, uốn nắn những sai sót về kỹ năng, về thái độ, về an toàn. - Tiện được trụ dài (thực hiện các bước theo phiếu hướng dẫn)	215 phút	Đánh giá kết quả, phân loại bài tập, Giao nhiệm vụ	Nhận kế hoạch thực hiện bài tập
C. HƯỚNG DẪN KẾT THÚC - Tổng kết nhận xét	10		

Figure 13: Student activities at College 1 workshop: Extract from a lesson plan

Notes:
Column 1: Teaching activities
Column 2: Time allocated
Column 3: Teacher's role
Column 4: Student' role

As shown in Figure 13, the teacher's roles were to guide and to demonstrate steps ["Hướng dẫn, thao tác các bước" in column 3]; to categorise and allocate tasks and to assess the results ["Đánh giá kết quả, phân loại bài tập, Giao nhiệm vụ" in column 3], while the roles of students were:

- To follow the steps demonstrated by the teacher [Thuc hien cac buoc theo giao vien huong dan]; and

- To receive the allocated plan and execute the task [Nhan ke hoach thuc hien bai tap].

It was assumed that the students would gain knowledge, develop skills, follow rules, employ strategies, hold beliefs and develop attitudes by observing others (Merriam, Caffarella & Baumgartner 2007). By acting out the above roles, students learn about the usefulness and appropriateness of behaviour by observing models. However, they can act in whichever way they choose to achieve the required outcomes (Schunk 1996, p. 102, cited in Merriam, Caffarella & Baumgartner 2007).

The directed roles of students in learning were evident in the observations of theory classes and workshop sessions. The students spent most of their time listening and copying down what their teachers wrote on the board or showed on the wall (O1&2.CL1.TC). Students assembled in the classrooms and workshops equipped with books on the related subject, notebooks opened to take notes, and with pens poised to write. Listening, copying and drawing diagrams in their notebooks were frequent activities seen at the theory session and in the first period of the practice session (see Figures 11 and 12).

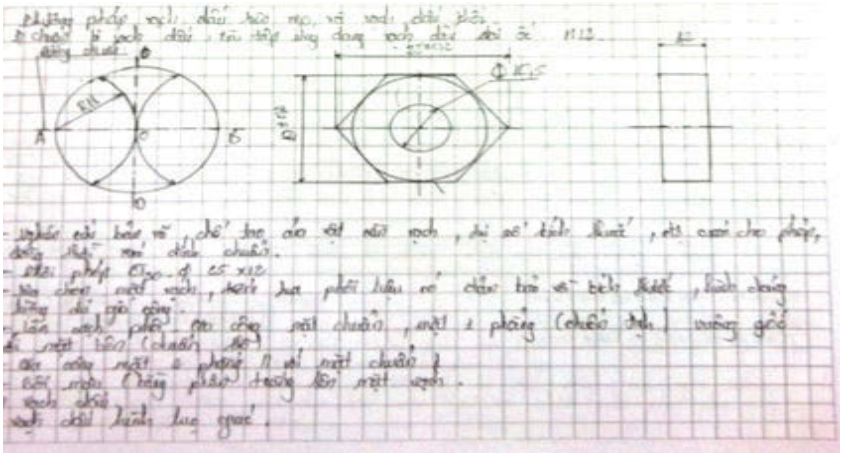


Figure 14: Extract from a student's practical notebook

However, some students did not copy anything into their notebooks. Of the five notebooks examined, three students had written down exactly what their teacher wrote on the board (O3.CL1 and collected students' notebooks).

The traditional teaching methods described in Section 5.5 shaped students' attitudes towards knowledge. The analysis of the lesson plans and observations revealed one-way communication between teachers and students. As one of the teachers observed, there was little interaction between students and teachers; mainly communication was from teachers to students. Teachers gave lectures and students listened (I.Cl1.T1). The leader of the College said:

> For example, theory teaching in the credit system is mostly one-way-transmitting knowledge to students across all of the colleges in order to keep pace with the time quota of the curriculum with the support of projectors and teaching materials. The main purpose of teaching is still to pour knowledge into students, and despite some answering of questions, some discussion and some group work, interaction is mostly one-way. (I.CL1.LD)

Students seemed to rely on the knowledge transferred from their teachers. Questioning happened only once in a while. During the observation, teacher-talk prevailed in the approximately five minutes when some students answered the questions raised by their teachers. Others occasionally raised questions, consulting their teachers whenever they did not clearly understand some parts of the lessons. One interviewee said this was encouraged by his teacher (I.CL1.S1.MOLISA). Other students showed timidness vis-à-vis questioning their teachers in the classrooms (I.CL1.S3.MOLISA). This is indicated in the following extract from the data.

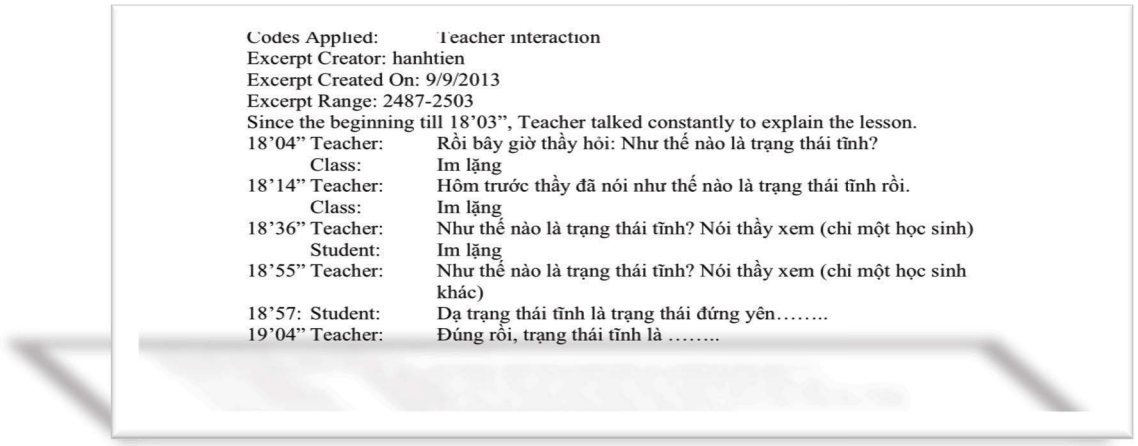

Codes Applied: Teacher interaction
Excerpt Creator: hanhtien
Excerpt Created On: 9/9/2013
Excerpt Range: 2487-2503
Since the beginning till 18'03", Teacher talked constantly to explain the lesson.
18'04" Teacher: Rồi bây giờ thầy hỏi: Như thế nào là trạng thái tĩnh?
Class: Im lặng
18'14" Teacher: Hôm trước thầy đã nói như thế nào là trạng thái tĩnh rồi.
Class: Im lặng
18'36" Teacher: Như thế nào là trạng thái tĩnh? Nói thầy xem (chỉ một học sinh)
Student: Im lặng
18'55" Teacher: Như thế nào là trạng thái tĩnh? Nói thầy xem (chỉ một học sinh khác)
18'57: Student: Dạ trạng thái tĩnh là trạng thái đứng yên……..
19'04" Teacher: Đúng rồi, trạng thái tĩnh là ……..

Figure 15: Example of interaction between a teacher and students

Translation:

Time	Speaker	Interaction
18'04"	Teacher Class	Now, I ask you: How is a motionless status? Silence
18'14"	Teacher Class	I did explain how the motionless status was at the last period Silence
18'36"	Teacher Student	How is the motionless status? Tell me (points to a student) Silence
18'55"	Teacher	How is the motionless status? Tell me (points to another student)
18'57"	Student	Da (Dear teacher). The motionless status is a status which stands frozenly ……
18'59"	Teacher	Right, the motionless status is …….

This example of the interaction between a teacher and his students in a classroom clearly shows one-way communication, with questioning by students being very rare. The silence preferred by students is attributable to the Confucian culture (Tran Hoa Phuong 1998; Tran Thi Tuyet 2012).

Observation showed that questioning seldom happened in the classrooms. Tran Hoa Phuong (1998) claims that the raising of questions by students – in any way – is considered being disrespectful or disloyal to their teachers. The passive role of students reflected directed learning. Teachers dominated all activities and guided students step-by-step at this College. In addition, some learning material was handed out to students during the time when teachers taught, using computers and projectors. One student said:

> Some teachers gave the reading materials and handouts to students to look at and copy into their notebooks. If there was something I don't understand, I ask my teacher. (I.CL1.S1)

At the combined workshops, questioning occurred when the teacher modelled and the students imitated.

> Teachers modelled. I watched and imitated. If there was something I did not know, I asked my teacher. (I.CL1.S1)

In the main, students expressed the view that it was easier to ask, talk and share with friends than with teachers even though their teachers were close to them. Learning from peers was also found at the College.

> Raising questions among friends was easier: They were the same age and more enthusiastic.
>
> Teachers were still friendly but I was afraid to ask them. (I.CL1.S3 and I.CL1.S4)

Students asked other students if they did not know how to do things correctly. In cases where their friends could neither provide an answer nor help them, they had to

ask the teacher for help (I.CL1.S1). This approach mirrored the influence of Confucian ideology (Tran Hoa Phuong 1998).

Directed learning also points to behavioural theories focusing on performing tasks and explaining: (a) the rote acquisition of information; (b) the learning of physical and mental skills; and (c) the development of behaviours conducive to a productive classroom, i.e., classroom management. As suggested above, the College subscribed to directed learning.

The research examining the role of learner/student found a slight movement along the didactic–facilitative continuum. Although most of the students' activities were directed, they also found more effective ways to develop their own learning styles such as learning from friends with whom they felt more confident, sharing their knowledge, and getting feedback from their friends.

5.7 Moral Education

Pedagogical practices were investigated more broadly than in the Western VET context in line with the moral education dimension. As evident in the curricula of both the MOET and MOLISA programs, general education exists along with technical education. General education included national security education, physical education, politics, informatics, English, natural sciences (i.e., maths) and law. Moral education, or what Doan Dung Hue (2005) refers to as political education, is part of general education. At the College, moral education was also included in official government documents, e.g., the Laws on Education, or regulations regarding teachers' duties and rights as well as students' duties. As stated in Chapter 4, this dimension will not be explored as part of a continuum of other dimensions in the adapted framework. Moral education is used as a lens through which to view the pedagogical practices pertinent to the four above dimensions. A continuum does not extend to include moral education.

Apart from technical and professional education for students, moral education is a key feature of the official curriculum frameworks of the two colleges. According to Jamieson (1993) and Nguyen (1989, cited in Claire & Patricia 1996), Vietnam is a country wherein people are deeply aware of their Confucian heritage. There is a tradition that a teacher is highly honoured and respected, more so than one's parents. Therefore, teachers not only guide students in academic matters, but also shape their moral behaviour. This also appears in the institutional regulations of the College in relation to teachers' responsibilities. Teachers must "always be self-conscious on bettering their virtues and enhancing their professional knowledge; are not allowed to have negative behaviours and words in any forms with students" as shown in the Article 14 of the institutional regulations on teaching disciplines and activities at the College 1. This draws attention to the role of history in moral education.

According to MOET, moral education is "perspectives, viewpoints and behaviours of people in such relations as self in relation to other person, groups and organisations" (MOET 2004a, cited in Doan Dung Hue 2005, p. 452). The significance of moral education is evident in the behaviours, morality, awareness of students regarding learning, adherence to the College regulations, participation in social, political and cultural activities, and in class and College activities, all of which are assessed at the end of each semester (Bo Giao duc va Dao tao 2007). Students not only have to learn politics and law, but also Ho Chi Minh's ideology in their training program.

During interviews, some students said that moral education lessons were boring (I.CL1.S3), and that they sometimes did not like it (I.CL1.S1). The ways in which teachers delivered these subjects never varied – teachers read and students wrote (I.CL1.S1).

Apart from the formal training courses, moral education was taught weekly or monthly during class under the supervision of the head teacher who generally managed the class. At this point, reflection centred on students' behaviours with their friends or teachers during the last months or weeks (Student Handbook 2014, College

1 and regulations on teaching disciplines and activities as per the College's Institutional Regulation.

Students' behaviour and attitudes were assessed at the end of each semester during their time of study at the College (Student Handbook 2014, College 1). This assessment regulation appeared in Article 14. In practice, students, accompanied by their classmates and teacher, worked out this type of assessment at the end of every semester (I.CL.S1, I.CL1.S4). Students who got bad results (under 30/100 points) for two successive semesters in one year were unable to continue their studies for one year. Furthermore, if those students' behaviour and performance assessment continued to be poor, their studies would be terminated (Bo Giao duc va Dao tao 2007). Students with good assessment results were rewarded and praised as good examples for other students to follow.

The above moral and political assessment of College students plays an important role in the students' success during their study. This was evident in the curriculum analysis. As indicated in Table 1, students must spend one third (705/2160) of the total amount of study over three years on general education, which includes moral education.

The assessment of students' achievements concerned a combination of knowledge, skills, behaviour, morality and their contribution to social, political and cultural activities. The assessment was based on the whole person's development including physical, mental and spiritual values. This is considered one of the Confucian purposes of education. Vietnam, however, has modified these values to meet its own criteria, to train and gain a proper assessment of students in the socialist country.

Given the above description, it appears that self-realisation of students at the College was not encouraged. Students have to be submissive and obey the regulations issued by the College and related ministries such as MOET, MOLISA and MOIT. They have to comply with the supervision and assessment of teachers and classmates of their behaviours and attitudes.

Considering the tensions and the requirement to modernise vocational learning, the paralleling of moral education as part of technical education in Vietnam distinguishes it from other countries in VET pedagogical practices.

5.8 Historical Influences on the pedagogical practices of College 1

The exploration of teaching and learning at College 1 revealed the main historical influences, i.e., Confucianism, French colonialism and Soviet ideology that shaped its practices. However, over time, these influences have been Vietnamised to adapt to the country, particularly to the practical and valuable educational perspectives of President Ho Chi Minh which will be discussed in Chapter 8.

As Broughton (1994, p. 22) maintains, traditional methods are "teacher-dominated interaction", or as stated by Kuzu (2007), "teachers serve as a source of knowledge while learners serve as passive receivers" (p. 36). The passive learning style pursued at College 1 was shaped by Confucian heritage culture, which deeply influenced Vietnam (Tran Thi Tuyet 2012). In other words, this passive way of teaching/learning is often attributed to "Confucian values" (Tran Thi Tuyet 2012, p. 3). In Confucian heritage culture, students are taught to respect people who are older and those who have higher rank, e.g., parents and teachers (Ramburuth & McCormick 2001). In the College's Student Handbook, there are regulations showing how students should behave and address their teachers, and how they should behave in both the classroom and the College in general. Nguyen Thi Thanh Mai (2013) opines that the Confucian ideology has rendered people moral models, passive and inflexible. Therefore, teachers must be good models, set high standards of behaviour, political ideology, law and professional knowledge (Quoc hoi Viet Nam 2006). The power asymmetry that marks the relationship between teachers and students, and the emphasis on behaviour regulated by discipline are indicative of the degree of Confucian influence at the College.

The French influence on higher education (see Chapters 2 and 3) is clearly evident at the College. It was one of the first three vocational schools established by the French,

who introduced formal vocational education into Vietnam (Vo Thi Xuan 2012). The centralised governance and top-down curriculum at the College are rooted in French and Soviet influence (Ho & Reich 2014; Pham Lan Huong & Fry 2002; Tran Hoa Phuong 1998; Vo Thi Xuan 2012).

The imbalance of theory and practice in the curriculum can be traced to various historical influences; for example; the emphasis on theory was likely to be influenced by the Soviets, and general education by the French. Vo Thi Xuan (2012) states that students must study scientific foundation subjects in their first two years, in line with the French curriculum. Professional or vocational training follows in the third year. This was similar to the current VET delivered at College 1, which includes natural science and other subjects in the general education section of its curriculum. But, I want to stress that this does not mean that teaching general education or natural science was bad or good. The issue is that students lacked opportunities to practice their major during the first two years of their studies. It was only in their last year that students had several practice sessions in the combined workshops.

The Soviet influence was also evident in general education, of which moral education is a part. The teaching of general education subjects such as Vietnamese law, political subjects, Marxism-Leninism subjects, Mathematics, and Advanced Mathematics 1 and 2 was considered a strength of the Soviet system. One of the leaders at the interviews clarified this by providing an example. He said that, “Advanced Mathematics 1 and 2 certainly were from the Soviet curriculum, indicating therefore that these subjects had Soviet influence” when answering questions about historical influences at the College (I.CL1.LD). The above subjects were imported into the Vietnamese curriculum during the period of Soviet support in Vietnam. The teaching materials for these subjects were translated into Vietnamese from Russian. The College leader also explained that power was “top-down”. In addition, the allocation of training programs into a small subdivision of Mechanics, e.g., manufacturing mechanics, and welding mechanics, was an influence of the Soviets’ curriculum. One teacher interviewed stated that this

subdivision made it hard for students to find suitable jobs after their graduation because of their knowledge being limited to a small subdivision (I.CL2.T1).

The pedagogical practices of College 1 were explored and are presented under the five dimensions introduced above, based on the frameworks adapted from Lucas, Spencer and Claxton (2012) and Kalantzis and Cope (2008). Confucian, French and Soviet influences were found in the College curriculum, for example, French influences in the assessment system conducted at the end of each semester and in central management (Dang Que Anh 2009, Tran Hoa Phuong 1998), and Confucian and Soviet influences in teaching and learning. The current curriculum, which has been modified to suit Vietnamese needs, reflects what is known as the "Vietnamese factor" (Tran Hoa Phuong 1998).

Signs of the "Vietnamese factor" in this curriculum were:

1. Supplementing Ho Chi Minh's ideology, national security, defence and law; and
2. Changing language of instruction from French to French-Vietnamese and then to Vietnamese.

The "Vietnamese factor" was illustrated in the College textbooks and teaching materials. During the French colonisation of Vietnam, the use of French-language textbooks was enforced. However, after several years they were translated into Vietnamese (Nguyen, Terlouw & Pilot 2005, p. 3). During the era of Soviet support for Vietnam, Soviet textbooks and teaching materials, written in Russian, were used at first, then translated into Vietnamese and adapted to local requirements. One teacher (I.CL1.T1) said that, "The teaching materials I used and researched was from Russia." However, he added he selected some relevant parts, translated them into Vietnamese and combined them with other materials. This was confirmed by Ho and Reich's (2014) research. Teaching materials adopted from Russian books, following translation, were modified to suit the Vietnamese context. In this way, the teaching materials were "Vietnamised" for teaching and learning in vocational training in Vietnam. Teachers and leaders selected good teaching materials and "Vietnamised"

them to support their teaching, an adaptation explained by the fact that a majority of all Vietnamese experts in the country at that time were sent to Russia and the Eastern Bloc for training. Equipped with command of the Russian language and with training experience, the priority given to using Russian material was understandable (Dang Que Anh 2009).

The influences of Confucianism on education are clearly evident in the ways in which students were assessed as described above. Not only were students' knowledge and skills, but their morality, behaviour, socio-political and cultural activities were evaluated as well. The perfect assessment of a person was of all aspects including their physical, mental and spiritual attributes. This was considered one of Confucianism's purposes of education. Vietnam, however, has modified all of those values according to its own criteria, to train and conduct a proper assessment of students in a socialist country, as described above.

The teaching, learning and assessment adapted from Confucianism have been "Vietnamised" in their own way, for example, the criterion of political and social activities in the assessment to satisfy the current needs of Vietnamese society. The combination of traditional teaching methods and applications of technology, and the little effort was found in organising communicative activities in classrooms and combined workshops, are seen as the "Vietnamisation" of teaching and learning via Confucianism.

In sum, VET practices in Vietnam function in the shadows of Confucianism, and French and Soviet learning and teaching. The French and Soviet influences are evident in centralised management, top-down curricula and teaching materials. This development has been unavoidable given Vietnam by pointing to the long history of foreign influence.

5.9 Conclusion

The data presented in this chapter has revealed the pedagogical practices at play in the classrooms and combined workshops of College 1. I discerned a variety of features in the continuums of the nature of learning activities, the roles of the teachers and those of the students. Contrived and "partly" authentic learning permeated the activities of teaching and learning in an effort to bring the real world into both the classrooms and the workshops. The dominant focus on theory is revealed in my analysis of the curriculum. The teaching of theory was imparted via diagrams and images to orient the students towards the practical tasks, as shown in the content analysis. The didactic roles of the teachers and the directed role of the learners were evident, despite efforts to alter the teacher roles to include the use of computer aids, and more guiding and facilitating of student learning in the combined workshop. Moral education was formally taught side by side with technical education. It was informally guided and assessed by the head teacher and by the students' classmates. This teaching reflected both Confucian and Soviet influences, which emphasised educating people to achieve "perfect" virtues and citizens with good manners. The French influences found in general education were inserted into the technical education and the central management of the College. Having examined College 1 through the adapted framework and its continuums, its pedagogical practices are shown in Figure 16 below in the organisation of space, the nature of learning activities, the role of the teacher, the roles of learners and moral education.

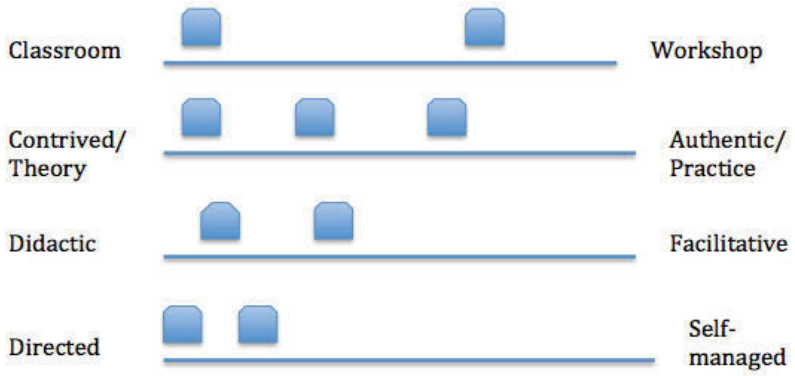


Figure 16: Summary of pedagogical practice at College 1

Chapter 6 – Pedagogical Practices at College 2

6.1 Introduction

In the previous chapter, I explored particular aspects and dimensions of College 1. In this chapter, the focus is upon data gathered from interviews, observation and documents pertaining to College 2, which delivered the MOLISA training program. This chapter, which describes how teaching and learning activities happened at this foreign funded vocational college, examines College 2 through the lens of the "Investigating VET pedagogical practices in Vietnam" framework with the following five dimensions:

1. The organisation of space
2. The nature of learning activities
3. The role of the teacher
4. The role of the learner
5. Moral education

As stated in Chapter 4, these dimensions will be presented in their continuums. First the organisation of space will be discussed as it influences the other dimensions in the adapted framework. This will be followed by a description of College 2. Analysis of the data drawn from interviews, observation and documents relative to College 2 will focus on pedagogical practices and historical influences. The chapter commences with a brief description of the college.

6.2 Description of College 2

College 2, a relatively new vocational institution, was founded in 2007 in Central Vietnam under the management of MOLISA. Previously, it was a vocational school which had opened in 2002 and was managed by the provincial authority. This change of control and management resulted in an important shift in the overall function of the College, described in detail below. Particularly of interest were changes in the College's training programs.

College 2 was established in 2007 as part of an agreement between the Vietnamese and German governments regarding two cooperative programs, i.e., "Technical Cooperation" and "Reform of Technical and Vocational Education and Training Vietnam". The German partner supported MOLISA in planning the national strategy for vocational education, drafting the law on vocational education, and setting up several vocational institutions in some local areas in line with the German vocational training model. College 2 was one of seven colleges established throughout Vietnam under this agreement (Bo Ngoai Giao webpage 2015; College 2 website 2013). German experts were also involved in the establishment of a demand-oriented TVET system (Mac Van Tien et al. 2012).

College 2, with the support of the cooperative project, was equipped with advanced and standard facilities as well as infrastructures for better teaching and learning. Since 2002, and before the college was upgraded, some members of the teaching staff were either trained in Vietnam or sent to Germany for professional training in order to meet quality assurance of staff and training requirements of the regulatory framework. During the time of the cooperative project (2002 to 2007), some of the partners' experts stayed at the College, supervising the teaching and learning. German experts departed the College after the completion of the cooperative project in 2007; they now return once a year for observation purposes (I.CL2.LD&T1).

This project was completed in 2007. Support extended to 11 vocational institutions, (Mac Van Tien et al. 2012) including College 2. During the time of the project support, College 2 delivered a competency-based or module training program (teaching in accordance with a module - a small unit of competence) that focused on the skills required by certain vocations, for example, mechanic, electrician and IT technician (I.CL2.T1) (Duong Hoang Thuong 2003). The delivery of the module is understood as training that integrates theoretical knowledge with practical skills to provide students with vocational competence.

The module training program was first introduced to College 2 as part of the cooperative project. However, as one teacher stated:

> When I was first in training for the delivery of the Module, the German experts said Vietnam could not implement this kind of delivery because there were many reasons preventing it from implementing this program. However, a few years later, the module programs were formally introduced its application at the vocational colleges in Vietnam. (I.CL2.T1)

Interestingly, the German module training program piloted at the college has since been Vietnamised, hence, it is different from the original program. As the teacher who undertook the training to prepare for that program explained:

> In Germany, they train learners as I am doing here, integrated or focused on sub-skills[13]. However, their programs introduced at this college must be different. One learner is able to lathe, weld and do other related jobs. In this case, graduates can do many jobs in the world of work without needing retraining by the employers. In the Vietnam situations and conditions, they [German experts] must change to have a suitable training program. (I.CL2.T1)

The above mode of training was highly evaluated with a high rate of graduate employment. Those who graduated from the first two courses under the German programs at the college could easily find jobs (I.CL2.T1).

In 2007, College 2 came under MOLISA's management. Since then, it has compulsorily delivered MOLISA training programs, carried out the teaching according to modules and used methods suggested by MOLISA (I.CL2.LD) (College 2 website 2013). Students cannot choose any subjects they like, and must take part in examinations after completing each module. Currently 100 per cent of module training programs has been implemented at the College (College 2 website 2013).

[13] Sub-skills such as welding, cutting metal, lathing in Mechanics

Figure 17: Photos of College 2's campus
(Photos taken by author, July 2013; College 2 website)

Similar to College 1, and as stated in Chapter 2 regarding the VET training system in Vietnam, College 2 offers three levels of MOLISA vocational training programs:

- College
- Intermediate
- Elementary with short courses

The enrolment for these three levels of training is: - Pass the required standard marks at the annual national entrance examination or use their highschool results for enrolment. For elementary with short courses, everyone can apply for this course.

Similar to College 1 and other colleges in Vietnam (see Figure 2), College 2 has an hierarchical management system that includes a structure rector, vice rectors, heads of offices, deans of faculties, classroom teachers and head teachers, and an institutional inspection board. At the time of the data collection in 2013, College 2 had been under MOLISA direct management for more than six years. It employed 98 teaching staff out of a total of 145 staff. Approximately 3500 students were enrolled in courses across the three levels of the programs offered, in both short-term (3–6 months), and long-term (1–3 years) training courses (College 2 website 2013). The next section will describe the organisation of the learning and teaching space at the College.

6.3 Organisation of space for learning and teaching

Workshop← ---------- → Classroom

The physical space of College 2 is a combination of an administration building, workshops and theory classrooms, a sports area, a lodge (for leaders and managers) and a dormitory for staff and students. College 2 was built according to the standards of the German cooperative project for a vocational institution, a higher and more costly standard than colleges funded locally in Vietnam. The workshops of the College were, therefore, relatively good.

Like College 1, vocational learning at College 2 occurred in a mixture of classrooms and workshops along a continuum. Apart from the traditional classrooms, which were equipped with blackboards, desks and chairs in rows for teaching theory, similar to other vocational institutions in Vietnam some workshops were designed for teaching for each module. Each classroom and workshop accommodated approximately 35 students. The workshops were divided into two areas; approximately 30-40 per cent of the space was occupied by computers for teaching theory, plus desks and chairs for students; the remainder was occupied by machines for practical learning. Hence, the students had a chance to apply theory in practical work for effective learning; see Figure 18.

Figure 18: Learning in classrooms and workshops of College 2 (Photos taken by author, July 2013)

Theory was also taught in traditional classrooms with chairs and tables arranged in rows. Computers were used as teaching aids in the classrooms during theory sessions. As classrooms were located quite far from the small roads around this College, the noise from passing vehicles was minimal and did not impact on the teaching and learning.

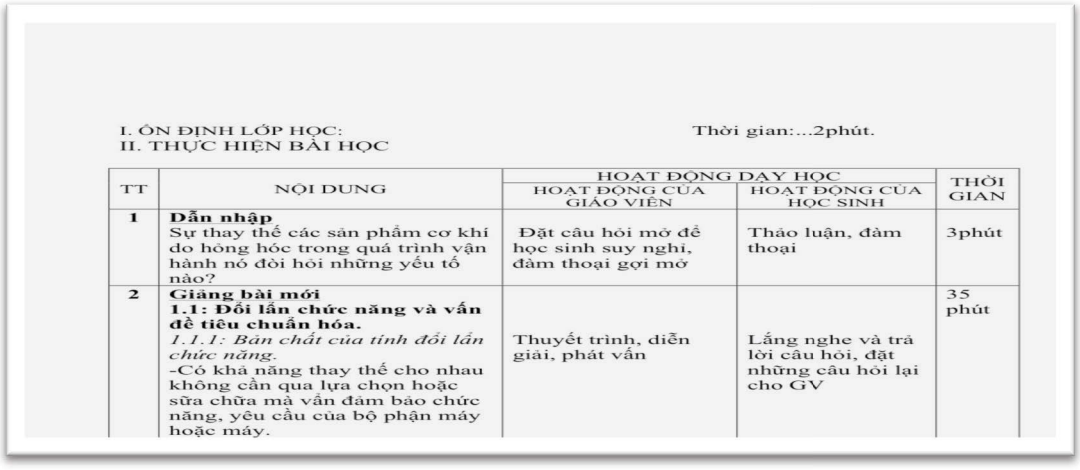
The above description of the organisation of space at College 2 shows that teaching and learning happened in a combination of traditional classrooms and workshops, including areas set aside for teaching theory. As suggested in the following sections, the learning and teaching spaces impacted on the nature of the learning activities.

6.4 Nature of learning activities

Authentic/Practice ←---------- → Contrived/Theory

My analysis of College 2 data reveals the variety in the nature of learning activities along the continuum authentic–contrived and theory–practice.

Teaching and learning followed a well-planned procedure at College 2 and in its workshops. The lesson plans and subject descriptions included steps and the activities for each step, and the expected roles of teachers and students (LP6.7.8.CL2). The extract shown in Figure 19 illustrates a well-planned lesson.



I. ỔN ĐỊNH LỚP HỌC: Thời gian:...2phút.
II. THỰC HIỆN BÀI HỌC

TT	NỘI DUNG	HOẠT ĐỘNG DẠY HỌC		THỜI GIAN
		HOẠT ĐỘNG CỦA GIÁO VIÊN	HOẠT ĐỘNG CỦA HỌC SINH	
1	**Dẫn nhập** Sự thay thế các sản phẩm cơ khí do hỏng hóc trong quá trình vận hành nó đòi hỏi những yếu tố nào?	Đặt câu hỏi mở để học sinh suy nghĩ, đàm thoại gợi mở	Thảo luận, đàm thoại	3phút
2	**Giảng bài mới** **1.1: Đổi lẫn chức năng và vấn đề tiêu chuẩn hóa.** *1.1.1: Bản chất của tính đổi lẫn chức năng.* -Có khả năng thay thế cho nhau không cần qua lựa chọn hoặc sữa chữa mà vẫn đảm bảo chức năng, yêu cầu của bộ phận máy hoặc máy.	Thuyết trình, diễn giải, phát vấn	Lắng nghe và trả lời câu hỏi, đặt những câu hỏi lại cho GV	35 phút

Figure 19: Extract from a College 2 lesson plan

Translation of extract:

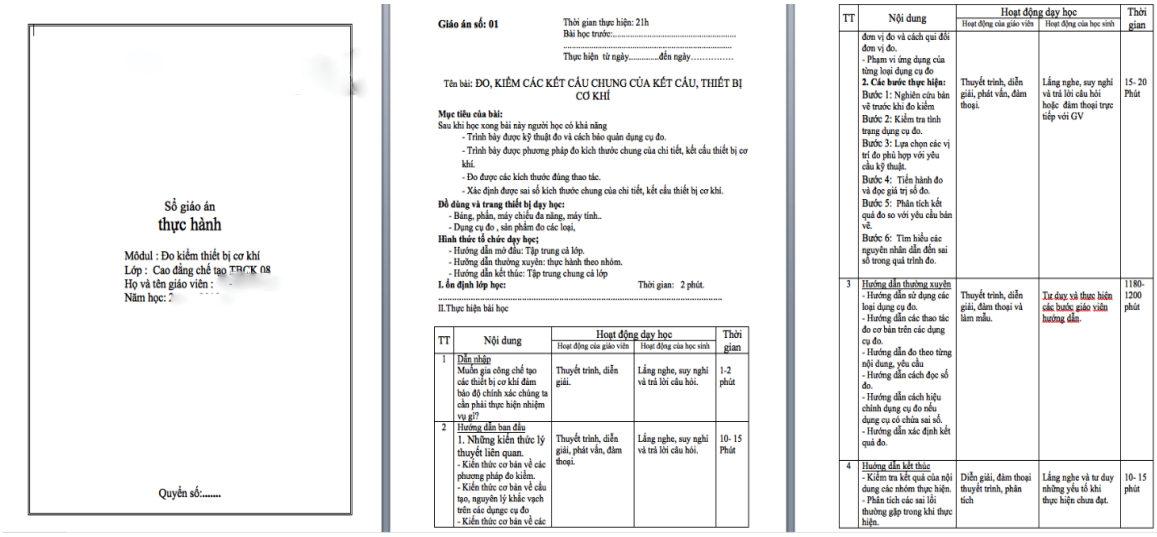
I. Settling the class, Time: 2 mins
II. Implementing the lesson

No	Content	Teaching and learning activities		Time
		Teacher activities	Student activities	
1	Lead-in What are the factors required for the replacement of mechanical products damaged during the transportation stage?	Raise open questions for students to contemplate and discuss	Discuss	3 mins
2	New lesson Changing functions and standard problems	Lecture, explain, and ask questions	Listen, answer questions and raise questions (if possible)	35 mins

The interview data revealed that teachers spent substantial time prior to a teaching period looking at the syllabus, preparing the content, teaching aids and related materials, and designing lesson plans using templates (I.CL2.T2). Preparing for classes is time-consuming for the first and second years of teaching. (I.CL2.T1). However, the more teachers taught, the less time they spent on preparing their lessons because they knew what to teach and how to teach it. As one of the teachers explained, "We inherited, developed and improved our next lessons" (I.CL2.T1).

In another lesson plan for a practical session of 21 hours (per week), both teaching and learning were well structured and planned (see Figure 19); for example, settling the class (2 mins), introduction to the lesson (2 mins), explaining related theory and knowledge and steps to practise (35 mins), with approximately 1200 minutes for practice as well as consolidation and assessment (15 mins). The major teaching activities were lecturing, explaining, questioning and modelling; students were listening, thinking, answering questions if any and "following the steps guided by the teacher" (Figure 20).

In this well prepared and planned lesson, the students carried out the duties expected by their teachers, e.g., such as listening to the lecture, answering questions or doing group work (see Figures 19 and 20 for extract from the lesson plan and LP6.7.8.CL2). Learning by watching, listening to lectures and copying into their notebooks what was outlined in the lesson plan were all features of this contrived form of learning. However, learning by modelling, and practising "following the steps guided by the teacher" in a simulated workshop illustrated a degree of authenticity in the nature of learning activities at College 2. The authentic nature of the learning activities was illustrated in the students' opportunities (1200 minutes) to practise on real machines in their practical sessions in the simulated workshop.



Sổ giáo án
thực hành

Môđul : Đo kiểm thiết bị cơ khí
Lớp : Cao đẳng chế tạo TBCK 08
Họ và tên giáo viên :
Năm học: 2

Quyển số:.....

Giáo án số: 01 Thời gian thực hiện: 21h
Bài học trước:.....
.....
Thực hiện từ ngày.....đến ngày.....

Tên bài: ĐO, KIỂM CÁC KẾT CẤU CHUNG CỦA KẾT CẤU, THIẾT BỊ CƠ KHÍ

Mục tiêu của bài:
Sau khi học xong bài này người học có khả năng
- Trình bày được kỹ thuật đo và cách bảo quản dụng cụ đo.
- Trình bày được phương pháp đo kích thước chung của chi tiết, kết cấu thiết bị cơ khí.
- Đo được các kích thước đúng thao tác.
- Xác định được sai số kích thước chung của chi tiết, kết cấu thiết bị cơ khí.

Đồ dùng và trang thiết bị dạy học:
- Bảng, phấn, máy chiếu đa năng, máy tính..
- Dụng cụ đo , sản phẩm đo các loại,

Hình thức tổ chức dạy học;
- Hướng dẫn mở đầu: Tập trung cả lớp.
- Hướng dẫn thường xuyên: thực hành theo nhóm.
- Hướng dẫn kết thúc: Tập trung chung cả lớp

I. ổn định lớp học: Thời gian: 2 phút.

II.Thực hiện bài học

TT	Nội dung	Hoạt động dạy học		Thời gian
		Hoạt động của giáo viên	Hoạt động của học sinh	
1	Dẫn nhập Muốn gia công chế tạo các thiết bị cơ khí đảm bảo độ chính xác chúng ta cần phải thực hiện nhiệm vụ gì?	Thuyết trình, diễn giải.	Lắng nghe, suy nghĩ và trả lời câu hỏi.	1-2 phút
2	Hướng dẫn ban đầu 1. Những kiến thức lý thuyết liên quan. - Kiến thức cơ bản về các phương pháp đo kiểm. - Kiến thức cơ bản về cấu tạo, nguyên lý khắc vạch trên các dụngc cụ đo - Kiến thức cơ bản về các	Thuyết trình, diễn giải, phát vấn, đàm thoại.	Lắng nghe, suy nghĩ và trả lời câu hỏi.	10- 15 Phút

TT	Nội dung	Hoạt động dạy học		Thời gian
		Hoạt động của giáo viên	Hoạt động của học sinh	
	đơn vị đo và cách qui đổi đơn vị đo. - Phạm vi ứng dụng của từng loại dụng cụ đo **2. Các bước thực hiện:** Bước 1: Nghiên cứu bản vẽ trước khi đo kiểm Bước 2: Kiểm tra tình trạng dụng cụ đo. Bước 3: Lựa chọn các vị trí đo phù hợp với yêu cầu kỹ thuật. Bước 4: Tiến hành đo và đọc giá trị số đo. Bước 5: Phân tích kết quả đo so với yêu cầu bản vẽ. Bước 6: Tìm hiểu các nguyên nhân dẫn đến sai số trong quá trình đo.	Thuyết trình, diễn giải, phát vấn, đàm thoại.	Lắng nghe, suy nghĩ và trả lời câu hỏi hoặc đàm thoại trực tiếp với GV	15- 20 Phút
3	Hướng dẫn thường xuyên - Hướng dẫn sử dụng các loại dụng cụ đo. - Hướng dẫn các thao tác đo cơ bản trên các dụng cụ đo. - Hướng dẫn đo theo từng nội dung, yêu cầu - Hướng dẫn cách đọc số đo. - Hướng dẫn cách hiệu chỉnh dụng cụ đo nếu dụng cụ có chứa sai số. - Hướng dẫn xác định kết quả đo.	Thuyết trình, diễn giải, đàm thoại và làm mẫu.	Tự duy và thực hiện các bước giáo viên hướng dẫn.	1180-1200 phút
4	Hướng dẫn kết thúc - Kiểm tra kết quả của nội dung các nhóm thực hiện. - Phân tích các sai lỗi thường gặp trong khi thực hiện.	Diễn giải, đàm thoại thuyết trình, phân tích	Lắng nghe và tư duy những yếu tố khi thực hiện chưa đạt.	10- 15 phút

Figure 20: Extract from a lesson plan for practical session at College 2

The nature of the above learning activities is explained in the following analysis of the curriculum in relation to the balance between theory and practice.

As suggested above, from the time of its establishment in 2007 and following the completion of the cooperative project, College 2 has delivered the MOLISA vocational curriculum framework, similar to the MOLISA program of College 1. Its training objectives were aimed to equip students with practical vocational knowledge and skills. For example, after completing their training courses, students were expected to know how to calculate, develop, arrange, mix, cut metals and save the materials. They

were also expected to have gained the requisite skills to deploy the dimensions, to shape exactly, and to straighten steel in shapes, to cut and bend metals, and to drill holes to create products with high technical requirements in the form of tubes, frames, tanks, sinks, bunker – silos and dust filters for industrial and civil works (Bo Lao dong, Thuong binh va Xa hoi 2008). At the same time, students were required to have developed suitable political attitudes, knowledge of Vietnamese law, national security and defence, and other foundational knowledge such as a foreign language, information technology and about environment protection.

As College 2 also delivered the MOLISA program, the allocation of time to general education, theory and practice was the same as that offered by College 1 (see Table 3). This program was supported by the students: "At the college, the teachers give us more opportunity to practise than to learn theory" (I.CL2.S1,2,4,5). Although the MOLISA program focused more on practice (57.6% of the total time spent learning) than theory (38.9% of the total time spent learning), there was no practicum for students. Students expressed their concern about this, saying they did not have a chance to undertake the practicum. They considered practicums very useful as they introduced them to the real-work environment and how the knowledge and skills they had gained would be applied at work (I.CL2.S1 & S5). In other words, because the students mainly gained their skills and knowledge in simulated workshops, and through learning activities, they had no experience of practice or "observing" in authentic workplaces.

Although there was little difference in the allocation of time for theory and practice in documents pertaining to the curriculum, my analysis of the interview data revealed an unreasonable focus on theory. As one teacher stated:

> Actually in the curriculum framework, the allocation of time for theory periods exceeds the prerequisite. The requirements of integrated teaching are 70% practice and 30% theory. That means the teachers have to approach learner-centred methods and focus on sub-skills of Mechanics as a part of integrated

> teaching in both practice and theory. It is impossible to integrate sub-skills within this curriculum framework. (I.CL2.T1)

The students had no option but to focus on practice. Consequently, the teachers needed to spend more time on explaining theoretical issues at the workshops before the students had an opportunity to practise (I.CL2.T2). The students agreed that theory learning was important to them:

> If we have a firm theoretical foundation, when we do practise what we learnt will be better and our skills will be more advanced. (I.CL2.S5)

From the above description it becomes clear that the nature of learning activities was a mixture of authentic–contrived and theory–practice along the continuums. The continuum of theory–practice in the nature of learning activities was examined in the students' assessments. Theoretical assessment was unavoidable irrespective of the fact that the focus of both the teachers and the curriculum was on practice. One of the teachers commented:

> In theoretical courses, evaluation is conducted through exams like writing, or multiple choice exams, or oral examination after teaching a new part of knowledge. In practical courses, I evaluate my students through their work and products, based on the criteria or on a multiple-choice task if it is related to general knowledge. (I.CL2.T2)

The teachers who joined in the research had a tendency to assess their students via their practices. One of the teachers had to assess his students according to two forms of assessment: knowledge and skills. In reality, he focused primarily on skill assessment at the workshop (I.CL2.T1.). During student interviews, some expressed their satisfaction with the ways they were assessed as follows (I.CL2.S1, S3, & S4):

> I am quite happy with the way my teacher assessed me. (I.CL2.S1)

> I find the assessment is fair enough. (I.CL2.S4)

Given the above analysis, there clearly was diversity in the nature of learning activities along its continuums of authentic–contrived and theory–practice.

6.5 Role of the teacher

Facilitative ← ---------- → Didactic

The role of the teacher at College 2 was mixed in that it included analysis of lesson plans, observation and interviews. There were inconsistent points of view regarding changing the teaching methods (i.e., the leader said new teaching methods would be used whereas the teachers showed their preference for traditional teaching). The details are outlined below.

According to Gilardi and Lozza (2012), teaching methods which are underpinned by facilitative roles for teachers consist of learning through conversation, real-world problem-solving and enquiry in which students either individually or in groups get involved in a process of knowledge production and inquiry related to a certain specific problem (Gilardi & Lozza 2009, cited in Lucas, Spencer & Claxton 2012). The expert demonstration or lecturing in which knowledge is seen to be transmitted to students is considered a didactic teaching methods (Lucas, Spencer & Claxton 2012). The transmission of planned knowledge to the students was evident in the teaching and learning at the college. It was evident in all lesson plans where teachers were expected to give lectures, explain the lesson, write on the blackboard, and ask prompt questions to check the students' understanding (LP.3.4.6.CL2; Figure 20 is an extract of a lesson plan). One teacher stated during an interviewed:

> I and other teachers often use traditional teaching methods to transfer the knowledge and skills to students. If we do not give a lecture, use explanation and clarification students are not active to do research by themselves. (I.CL2.T2)

Another said:

> Methods I learned at university were different from the techniques I use to teach; however, I used the traditional methods a lot. (I.CL2.T1)

The teaching methods that were applied at College 2 to provide students with the required knowledge and skills reflected the didactic roles of teachers. My observation of a theory classroom revealed that the teacher spent most of the time talking, and kept talking until the end of the period (45 minutes) (O6.CL2). The teacher stopped for a few minutes to ask whether any of the students wanted to ask questions.

Although the traditional teaching methods with knowledge transmission were the ones largely found in the theory classrooms, computers were used as teaching aids in some classrooms to attract the students' interest and diversify the teaching methods. This to some extent limited overuse of the blackboard. In the workshops, one teacher I interviewed demonstrated the application of new technology, i.e., a computer, in his teaching methods, saying:

> Previously, when the projector and this software were not used, I had to explain the theory and write on the blackboard a lot. Then, it took me a substantial amount of time to instruct students in detail because they had not practised before, so it was very hard for them. Now, students learn on a computer, so they understand quickly. (I.CL2.T1)

College 2 approved the application of new teaching methods, integrated teaching methods that would change the role of the teacher. New teaching methods such as integrating the teaching of theory and practice and implementing problem-based approaches that would encourage students to solve problems and involve them in discussing and reporting solutions were being piloted. The leader supported the application of the new teaching method having been transferred from the delivery of training programs of an academic year to a specific module with subskills and competence (I.CL.LD). These new approaches to teaching fulfilled the expectations of teachers, moving their practice along the continuum of didactic–facilitative towards more facilitative roles. Teachers were expected to model, explain and guide students

to achieve the required skills, observe their performance and assess their skills according to these new pedagogical processes (O.CL2). The variety in the roles of the teachers was visible in the lesson plans discussed above. As one teacher commented:

> I found this new teaching module is ok. However, the teacher must work harder with a lot of activities to help the students become creative. (I.CL2.T1)

As the leader of College 2 stated, in this module delivery, the teachers had to use new teaching methods (i.e., be facilitators). One advantage was that it reduced the working time for teachers in the classrooms and workshops:

> Teachers guided and students practised. Guidance often took up half an hour and then most of the remaining time was observing students. It was not really complicated. (I.CL2.LD)

However, the teachers had to act in more roles in order to comply with the requirements of the changed teaching methods. In one interview, a teacher said:

> The teachers must change the teaching methods depending on each target and each student's level. Generally speaking, the change is not much. (I.CL2.T1)

Another teacher commented:

> Traditional teaching methods – teachers read and students copy – are currently changing to modern Western teaching methods, but there are still some factors that make them change them completely impossible. (I.CL2.T2)

As suggested above, the teachers could not change completely from traditional methods to new methods or from traditional roles to new roles. Therefore, they often combined the two where appropriate (I.CL2.T1, T2); for example, using the computer and projector to explicate the problem on the machine more clearly, then questioning, explaining and lecturing. In other words, a combination of the roles of the teachers along the facilitative and didactic continuum was evident at this College.

One of the factors contributing to the difficulty of applying new methods (i.e., facilitating the students' learning) was that due to the large class sizes of 30 to 35 students, the teachers could not give individual attention to each student to facilitate their learning (I.CL2.T1). The teachers also explained that many among them only reluctantly followed the module delivery due to a lack of facilities and materials for use in practice. One of the requirements of the module delivery was that teachers must integrate with each sub-skill. It was impossible to perform well given there were not enough materials for practice in big classes.

Apart from the student numbers and the lack of facilities, the regulations pertaining to the working system and styles set out by the College, e.g., "teachers must not violate the regulations on the teaching schedules and hours", tended to reduce the teachers' determination to change their teaching methods. Additionally, the points of reference stipulated in the regulations regarding ranking of the working outcomes for bonus payment to the teachers at College 2 may discourage the teachers from contemplating changes. For example, regarding the ranking of the B group, if teachers opted to personally change the teaching schedule in one given month or on four or five occasions arrived at class late, or left their classes early, took a longer break than the regulated time, or had a noisy class (College 2 2011), their salary could be "docked".

Another role of the teachers addressed in the interviews was that the teachers must pass on professional ethics, working discipline and expected behaviour in addition to vocational skills and knowledge (I.CL2.T2). These conditions for a bonus was also stipulated in the regulations on working systems at this College. "Teachers must be the model in behaviour and professional ethics for students to mirror". This requirement was included in the regulations pertinent to the duties and principles of teachers in the Vietnamese Law on Education (see Chapters 5 and 2).

Thus, according to the above description, the teachers at the College executed a mixture of roles, which could be plotted along the facilitative–didactic continuum. In the following section, drawing on the data, the role of the learner/student will be reviewed in order to provide a clearer explanation of the teachers' roles.

6.6 Role of the learner/student

Self-managing ← ---------- → Directed

Similar to the role of the teacher, the role of the learner is also described in relation to a continuum derived from the conceptual framework utilised in the thesis, that is, the continuum of self-managed to directed. The findings revealed a combination of roles along this continuum. Whereas students were mainly directed and passive in most of the observed teaching and learning events, they were also relatively self-directed in some circumstances.

According to the lesson plans collected, it was expected that the students in the theory classrooms would participate in learning activities including discussion, listening, asking questions if unclear, and copying down the notes on the board or PowerPoint presentation into their notebooks (38 minutes out of a 45 minute period). However, while three minutes in the lesson plan were allocated to students' discussion, involvement in conversation was not clearly found in the classrooms under observation. To the contrary, there was silence during the discussion time (O3.CL2). Therefore, listening, thinking and copying into their notebooks were the dominant learning activities. Self-study was noted during two minutes at the end of the period: "Find more information about what are other roles of functioning changes". The above description depicts learners as directed students who followed the directions of the teachers when learning. However, a difference was noted in the other classes when the teachers showed drawings and used software to demonstrate the tasks on-screen (O2.CL2). Students expressed their interest and engaged in some discussion with the teacher and their class mates. As one student pointed out during an interview:

> When teachers are explaining the lessons, we must pay close attention to what the teacher says to gain as much knowledge as possible. When doing practice, we must carefully look at the teacher's modelling and guidance. (I.CL2.S2)

Learning activities at the workshops were varied. Theoretical explanation was usually offered during the first period, followed by practice sessions. Group work activities

were also evident in College 2. Students were organised into groups to do their practical work in the workshops, thus their role being distinguished from the traditional student roles as listeners and observers. During the practical sessions, the teacher modelled the tasks on the machines; then the team leaders were appointed to model what the teacher had just done (O4.CL2). From my observation, this was not a real group activity which required the contribution of all members to complete the allocated task. The students took turns in practising a single task (in this context, moving the cutting knife in a straight line). After they finished their tasks, some chatted with class mates or used their mobile phones (O.5.CL2).

There were some inconsistencies in the reported views regarding group activities. While on the one hand, students found that group work reduced the opportunity to practise the allocated tasks individually (I.CL2.S1), on the other hand, some students stated: "Learning in groups is effective for us because if I don't know something my friends can help me. My class is often divided into 4 or 8 groups to practise" (I.CL2. S4). In group learning, there was more communication in the workshops than in the classrooms where the one-way interaction between teacher and students seemed the norm during observation. Some students stated:

> I often address questions to teachers if I don't know something because the teachers are the people who teach me. They have done many tasks outside so they know much and have more experience. (I.CL2.S2)
>
> Sometimes teachers are busy, and if friends know when I ask them, they can show me. (I.CL2.S4)
>
> If the teacher is around my machine, I will ask them because they are knowledgeable; otherwise I question my friends. (I.CL2.S5)

Students indicated they were relaxed among their friends so they interacted more. However, as some suggested, not all of the students in their class were willing to raise questions for their teachers (I.CL2.S2 and S3). This was reaffirmed in my observation

of the classrooms and the theory sessions at the workshops. Only a few students contributed to the lesson (O3.CL2.). Students tended to remain silent during the theory classes. Their silence may be explained as their acceptance or agreement with what the teachers imparted. Other reasons may have included the fact that students were forced to attend vocational college if they failed the National Entrance Examination for university or due to their parents' choice which they found compelled to obey (I.CL2.S2 & I.CL2.S4).

> My parents asked me to apply to this college for my study. (I.CL2.S2)

> Some students came to class to deal with their parents' control or they had no other places to go. (I.CL2.T1)

> Going to a vocational college was seen as the last choice for their study. (I.CL2.LD)

In the final analysis, the teachers and the leader suggested that the students' unwillingness to undertake VET training at College 2 had some effect on their contribution to their study and on the quality of VET teaching and learning generally (I.CL2.T1; I.CL2.LD).

However, the interview data on the students shed light on self-study. They were expected to complete their homework; this included searching out more information as proposed in the lesson plan (CL2.LP3). Two students who were interviewed asserted that they did some further study at home because their family had a workshop and they often went to the workshop to help and learn from there. When they found something unclear, they asked their teachers for help (I.CL2.S2. & I.CL2.S5.). Another student showed how he had improved his knowledge and skills:

> At home I sometimes learnt from my older friends, who had graduated already, about their work experience to prepare for my future career and focus more on perfecting the skills I have been learning. (I.CL2.S4)

Moreover, the data analysis found that using computers at home supported the broadening of the students' knowledge. Most of the students had their own computers at home; they used them to search for relevant information or to double-check what they did not understand clearly (ICL2.S 2,3,4,5).

In sum, the students at College 2 performed a diversity of roles in their learning activities. They were not totally passive knowledge receivers digesting information imparted by the teachers. Learning from others or self-managing their learning was also evident at College 2 albeit it was not often used. As suggested in Chapter 2 and Chapter 5, the MOLISA curriculum and regulations for curriculum allocation were restrictive. The students did not have the opportunity to choose their favourite subjects (contrary to the description of the College). It may be that this has contributed to preventing the students from self-managing their learning.

6.7 Moral education

Moral education was evident from the analysis of the College's general education curricumum. College 2 was required to implement the national MOLISA curriculum framework. This required subjects that had to focus on good citizenship in Vietnam, comprising politics, law and national security (I.CL2.T2). In addition to students' obligations to their technical and professional education, they were also required to understand their general education obligations regardless of their level of vocational training. According to the MOLISA guidelines for designing a vocational curriculum (MOLISA, dated 22 October 2013), irrespective of the different lengths of training/education courses, general education must include 210 periods at secondary level on politics, law, physical training, national security education, informatics and languages, and 450 periods at the college level. Details are shown in Table 6.

Table 6: Allocation of general education and technical education

Level of vocational training	Training duration	General education	Vocational modules
Secondary level	1 year (1410 periods) 2 years (2550 periods)	210 periods 210 periods	1200 periods 2340 periods
College level	2 years (2655 periods) 3 years (3750 periods)	450 periods 450 periods	2205 periods 3300 periods

Table 6 illustrates the importance of general education, including moral education in vocational education. It aims to reach the goals of Vietnamese education analysed in the previous sections.

According to the 2006 law on vocational education, vocational training objectives are "to train technical workers to join in manufacturing and service with practicals skills equivalent to their training level, as well as good behaviour, profession's devotion, consciousness of disciplines". These abilities will prepare the students for work and for pursuing higher education after their graduation (Quoc hoi Viet Nam 2006).

In order to achieve the above objectives, at the institutional level, students were required to join the Ho Chi Minh Youth Union which offered the students at College 2 educational activities for the development of their political and moral knowledge and behaviour. In addition to the Ho Chi Minh Youth Union, the moral education of College 2 students was achieved through their teachers acting as models or moral guides for them to follow. As one teacher explained:

> As required, I not only provide knowledge and skills for students. I also have to keep an eye on students' attitudes and behaviours and give them prompt advice and guidance. (I.CL2.T1)

Similarly, another teacher stated that apart from imparting knowledge and skills to students, a teacher must instruct learners in work ethics and disciplined working

manners (I.CL2.T2). Moral responsibilities were stipulated in the previously mentioned regulations on teachers' working regimes and styles at College 2.

Assessments of students' behaviours regarding Vietnamese law, politics and learning attitudes were undertaken at the end of each term, based upon discussions between the teacher in charge of each class and his/her students. Records of students' behaviour and contributions were kept by the class monitor and the head teacher in charge of class management.

The importance of moral education was confirmed by the leader of the college: "Training for a career and training a person perfectly are all related to morality, law, foreign languages, physical health and politics" (I.CL2.LD).

As discussed above, moral education is formally and informally delivered at the College in order to equip the students with the knowledge, skills, good manners and career ethics vital for their readiness for work. Moral education is particularly important if students are to successfully enter the workforce. The work habits, rights and responsibilities of a new worker, apart from his/her specific professional skills and knowledge as set up in the goal of Vietnam's education law, prepare the student for the country's modernisation and industrialisation.

6.8 Historical influences on the pedagogical practices of College 2

As observed at the beginning of this chapter, College 2 was established as a cooperative project following an agreement between the German and Vietnamese Governments. Western influences were consequently evident at the College. It was considered a unique opportunity to see a "new" historical influence unfold.

Western influences were noted in the training program which were supported by Western governments and followed a Western training program. During an interview, the College 2 leader stated:

> This school was built under the Official Development Assistance of a Western country and copied a German training program, and German designs for workshops and theory classrooms, and entertainment areas. (I.CL2.LD)

Observations revealed that the workshops were designed and set up professionally to serve practical learning purposes. The teachers said that apart from the infrastructure and facilities, a Western curriculum framework was used to develop the College's training programs, and that its focus was on practice (I.CL2.T1 & T2). In addition, as part of the agreement between Germany and Vietnam, teachers were sent abroad for professional development and to learn new teaching methods. On their return, the teachers were confident that they could deliver the Module programs and apply them flexibly depending on each situation. Thus, Western influences were evident in the College, specifically in its infrastructure, training program and teaching staff.

Regarding teaching materials, during the interviews teachers stated that when preparing their lesson plans, they used teaching materials translated from Russian, from the General Department of Vocational Training (belonging to MOLISA) and various Western countries (I.CL2.T1.). This reflected the Soviet and Western influences on Vietnamese vocational training.

While in part influenced by Western especially French models, the Soviet influence was also evident at this college. As with College 1, the school-based vocational training brought to Vietnam by the French colonisers continues to influence vocational colleges throughout Vietnam.

The preference for traditional teaching methods at College 2 was due to the influence of Confucianism, which considers teachers as knowledge experts and students as recipients (Mai Thi Chin 2010; Nguyen Thi Nga 1999; Nguyen Thi Thanh Mai 2013; Phan Dai Doan 1998; Tran Hoa Phuong 1998). In addition, the high respect for teachers, which considers it impolite to interrupt teachers in class (Nguyen Thi Nga 1999; Nguyen Thi Thanh Mai 2013), were also characteristics of Confucianism reflected in the practices at the College.

Additionally, as the leader of the College explained when discussing the various obstacles to VET development, placing a high value on qualifications, in effect, downgrading vocational training, and family power (e.g., obeying parents' arrangements) mirrors the famous Confucian saying: "Cha me at đâu, con ngồi đó" (Children sit where their parents put them down).

Although different historical influences were found at the College, the pedagogical practices had been "Vietnamised". The interviews with teachers revealed that while new instructional methods and a new module delivery were being implemented, traditional teaching methods co-existed in tandem (I.CL2.T1 & T2). The teaching methods have been modified and Vietnamised to suit the learning environment and to achieve their desired goals, i.e., knowledge and skills. Similarly, teaching materials have been adopted and adapted, from Soviet materials, input from Western countries and from MOLISA. The teachers have Vietnamised their teaching methods in their own ways for the purpose of improving the lessons.

In sum, while College 2 showed strong Western influence, particularly in its infrastructure, staff training and teaching materials, Soviet, French and Confucian influences existed in tandem. Although the College has unquestionably been greatly influenced by Western countries, specifically Germany, it has formed its own curriculum, using the German basic curriculum framework and adding other subjects considered relevant and suited to the local requirements (I.CL2.T1). The creation of its own curriculum, a flexible combination of the traditional ways of vocational teaching and learning in Vietnam and the German modern guidelines underpins the "Vietnamese character" or "Vietnamisation" of this College.

6.9 Conclusion

To conclude, the pedagogical practices of College 2 have been described according to the five dimensions of the conceptual framework "Investigating VET pedagogies in Vietnam". The organisation of space for learning in both the simulated workshops and in the classrooms was shown to be combination in teaching and learning at College 2.

A mixture of the nature of learning activities, the role of the teacher and the role of the learner was evident in College 2. Moral education was formally delivered, and constituted an important part of the vocational curriculum, i.e., the training and preparing of the students with the readiness skills for work. There was marked evidence of Western influence at the College in concert with Confucian and Soviet influences. Figure 21 provides a picture of the pedagogical practices at College 2.

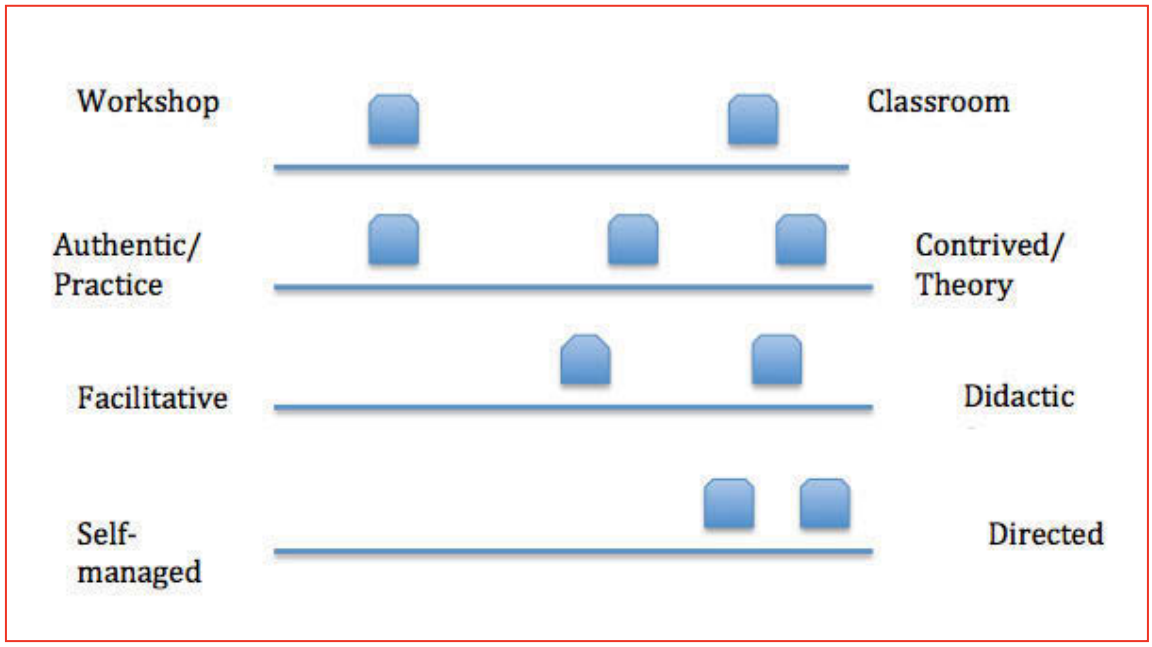


Figure 21: Summary of pedagogical practices at College 2

Chapter 7 – Pedagogical Practices at the Family Workshop

7.1 Introduction

In this chapter, the focus is upon the pedagogical practices at the Family Workshop and the historical influences on its practices. The term "teaching" in the Family Workshop context is used in a relatively broad sense. While "teaching" customarily refers to a formal educative process in an educational institution, in this chapter it describes the practices occurring outside of institutions. It involves guiding, coaching and training learners to acquire skills and knowledge as well as good behaviour and attitudes.

This chapter also uses the conceptual framework (outlined in Chapter 4) to inform the analysis. However, unlike Colleges 1 and 2, learning at this site was in a "real-world" workshop with an authentic and practical focus. Consequently, the continuums, e.g., authentic–contrived, theory–practice, and workshop–classroom, which were useful in my analyses of Colleges 1 and 2, were not useful for analysis of the pedagogical practices at the Family Workshop. Rather, my focus will be upon illuminating the pedagogical practices "embedded" in work practices. This chapter will, therefore, be organised with its primary focus on the nature of learning activities, with the role of the Master, the "teacher"/skilled workers and the learner subsumed within their roles. This is followed by a discussion of moral education at the Family Workshop and the historical influences on the training for vocational learners. Chapter 7 commences with a brief description of the Family Workshop under scrutiny.

7.2 Description of the Family Workshop

This description is based on observation, participant interviews and informal conversations with the Master, his mother and his wife during my fieldwork.

The Family Workshop, a registered small business, deals with repairing cars for customers. It is located in the owner's family house (I.FWS.M) and called "Xưởng" in

Vietnamese, which translates as "factory, mill, workshop"[14]. The term "Family Workshop" used in this thesis refers to one particular workshop, alluded to above.

Since its official opening in 1992, the family automotive garage workshop has trained more than 100 skilled vocational learners (I.FWS.M). The Master, who manages the Family Workshop, is the owner of the business.

The Family Workshop comprises two workshop sites situated on opposite sides of a very busy street. As stated in Section 4.4.1, the workshops are located on the national highway. The Master's family lives on the second floor of the workshop. A three-generation family, it emulates the traditional Vietnamese family. The main workshop shares space with another mechanical workshop owned by the Master's brother. The Family Workshop is very noisy with sounds of vehicles and engines from neighbouring workshops.

Cognisant of the recent increased demand for car repairs in Vietnam, the Master decided to expand his workshop, and so he built another garage opposite the existing one. At the time of this research, his staff included five permanent paid skilled workers and four vocational learners who had been employed for a period of between nine months and three years. In addition to the permanent workers, the Master hired extra casual workers when necessary.

Vocational learners were accepted into the Family Workshop for vocational training via an introduction to the Master's network of friends, colleagues and relatives. It means that any one can participate in this training program if they know of this training or have a relation with the Master. This aligns with the traditional model of learning in Confucian times, when children were sent to the "teacher's" family to learn (Phan Dai Doan 1998). With time, they became family-like members consistent with the relationship boundary of the Family Workshop. The forms of address they adopted included "*Chú* - uncle", "*Anh* - *Em* - brothers" or "*cháu* -nephew", terms which

[14] http://vdict.com/X%C6%B0%E1%BB%9Fng,2,0,0.html or http://tratu.soha.vn/dict/vn_en/Xưởng

are often used in family settings in Vietnam. The skilled workers and vocational learners helped and communicated with each other as brothers.

Most of the skilled workers and vocational learners were school leavers who had either insufficient funds for higher education or had performed poorly in the national high school examinations. Some had left school somewhere between Year 5 and Year 10 (participant interviews, FWS). They all lived in the city suburbs and rode their bikes to work in the early morning and back home in the evening. Their lunches were provided by the Master's family. The Master's wife took charge of preparing lunches for all of the skilled workers and vocational learners, with the assistance of her mother-in-law (I.FWS.M & O1.2). The vocational learners also received an additional payment as a reward for spending at least one year of study at the workshop. Their first year was usually unpaid, the only remuneration being the lunches provided. However, their payment was dependent on their levels of skills adequate to doing the kind of job they were training for (I.FWS.M). In return, they were provided with labour security and rewarded with the main national holidays, the purpose being to encourage them to learn. Overall, they were well treated and protected compared to other family workshops.

Although family workshops are a source of many reward schemes and good offers of employment, the number of vocational learners in family workshops has recently declined sharply as a variety of formal certificate training options, with short and long-term choices, have become available (I.FWS.M). It is considered easier nowadays for those who hold certificates to find employment. In the words of the Master:

> In the old days, there were not many places for formal vocational training, so it was very hard to obtain a vocational position at a Family Workshop. An applicant needed to have a very close relationship with the Master to be accepted for a career position. Now, if you are not able to find a place at a family vocational workshop, there are alternative places which will readily welcome vocational learners and also provide them with certificates. So now only those with a low level of literacy and who cannot afford the tuition fees at

schools/colleges choose to undertake their vocational training at a Family Workshop. (I.FWS.M)

Therefore, in order to encourage vocational learners to remain at workshops for as long as possible, the Master and his family are less strict and more caring than in the past. A more supportive environment, along with food and board and payment after the first year, are the main attractions of this type of learning (I.FWS.M).

7.2.1 Management and organisation of the Family Workshop

The Master, as the owner, manages and supervises all activities and staff at this Family Workshop. Consequently, he is not able to directly train the vocational learners. As will be illustrated in the following sections, the Master acts more like a "college principal", overseeing the pedagogical practices pertinent to the vocational learners. Similar to a "principal", he engages others, in this case skilled workers, as "teachers" to undertake much of the training and guiding of the vocational learners (I.FWS.M) (see Figure 22).

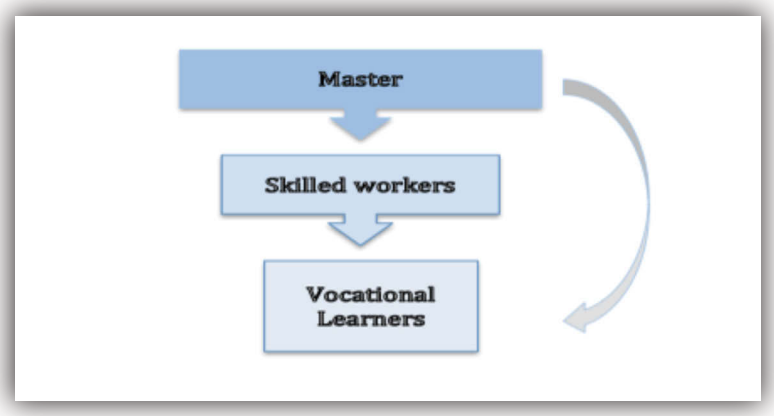


Figure 22: Management and organisation of the Family Workshop

The five skilled workers and four vocational learners were mostly organised into groups depending on the number of cars to be serviced and the requirements of the work. Each group, including one or two skilled workers and one or two vocational learners, was allocated a specific task by the Master. The skilled workers in each

group were responsible for the vocational learners completing their allocated tasks, and for encouraging them to learn about the range of tasks they were undertaking, i.e., fixing engine problems, or electrical problems or sub-structure vehicle problems. The skilled workers also have to advise the Master regarding the assessment of the vocational learners before allocating complicated tasks to them. This relates to the payment for vocational learners which is dependent on what work the vocational learners do.

7.3 Organisation of space

The Family Workshop provided a different learning environment compared to the colleges in that it was totally workshop-based learning. In other words, teaching and learning occurred in the authentic workshops.

The main workshop was organised into two separate areas. One third of the space of the workshop was used as an administrative area with office desks for a secretary, an accountant and the Master, and a lounge for customers who were waiting to pick up their cars and to pay for the services. The other two thirds of the main workshop constituted the garage workshop, which housed cars and tools. The skilled workers and vocational learners left their bikes in the workshop, which constituted a barrier separating the administrative and car repair areas.

Tools and cars waiting to be repaired were stored in the workshop on the opposite side of the highway. This included a small table and a sofa for customers waiting for an assessment of what was wrong with their cars. The Master spent most of his time there dealing with new customers. Although most of the training, learning and repairing was carried out at the main workshop, at times vocational learners had to run to and fro between the two workshops to get tools for the skilled workers or for their own tasks such as removing flat tyres (O;I.FWS.VL3).

Unlike the college workshops, at this Family Workshop there was a lack of physical space for theoretical instruction. In addition, there was minimal space in which the

skilled workers and learners could take a rest. The only space available for sitting was on a heap of old tyres. The staff could only have a short ten-minute chat while one of the skilled workers took the repaired car out for a test drive (O.FWS).

The photos below provide a glimpse of the organisation of space in the main workshop and how skilled workers and vocational learners worked.

Figure 23: Space in which learning and training occurred (Photos taken by author, July 2013)

Teaching and learning occurred in the real-world workshop. Training happened at any time and in any place at the Family Workshop, depending on the number of cars to be repaired per day (I.FWS.M). As the Master stated, the main focus of learning here was on achieving the skills and knowledge essential to preparing the learners for their future careers (I.FWS.M). Therefore, according to my observations, vocational learners approached their learning in the workshop by either sitting on the floor or gathering around the cars, observing what the skilled workers did and listening to their commentary as they repaired the cars. A key observation was that vocational learners and skilled workers carried out their tasks in the workshops silently as they repaired cars and used the requisite tools.

During my observations, there was constant noise, mainly from the vehicles on the highway, from a workshop making metal window frames and from similar businesses. Logic suggests that in this type of teaching, learning and working environment, noise would not only distract the learners but impede their learning.

The description of the organisation of space suggests that its physical layout and environment tended to emphasise the workshop, rather than promote more traditional "theory"–based learning. Learning and "teaching" in the Family Workshop needed to occur as part of the daily work of the automotive workshop.

7.4 Nature of learning activities

My outline of the nature of the learning activities section begins with a description of a typical working day at this Family Workshop. This description is based on a compilation of the data gathered from the interviews with the Master, skilled workers and vocational learners at the site, as well as general observations. My analysis of the nature of learning includes exploration of the workplace curriculum and its pedagogical practices, my aim being to provide a picture of how learning and training happens.

7.4.1 A typical day at the Family Workshop

The Family Workshop opens daily at 7:00 am. The skilled workers and vocational learners start work at opening time, returning to work on the two cars in the main workshop that they had been working on the previous day. Two skilled workers and one vocational learner are absent on this particular day; there are three skilled workers and three vocational learners present. The Master approaches the skilled workers who had worked on the first car and asks about its remaining problems. During this time, the vocational learners stand around and listen to the conversation between the Master and the skilled workers. The Master then allocates work to all of the skilled workers and vocational learners, dividing them into two groups depending upon the number of cars, tasks and the capacity of each vocational learner on each

day. For example, a vocational learner who has experience doing basic tasks such as cleaning engines, changing tyres and such will be allocated tasks relevant to his experience. Others with experience in electrical parts will have a chance to practise such task (I.FWS.SK2).

Group 1, which includes a skilled worker assisted by two vocational learners, continues engine repairs on the first car. The Master moves to the second car and asks Group 2, which includes a skilled worker and a vocational learner, to repair the problems with the second car. Another skilled worker is allocated to fix the electric problems in the front of the car. The Master then crosses the road to his other workshop where a skilled worker is painting a car. Two customers and their cars are waiting for him. They are drinking tea and talking.

At the main workshop, after the Master has allocated the tasks, all of the skilled workers and the vocational learners start their allocated jobs. In Group 1, the skilled worker asks his two vocational learners, i.e., his allocated assistants and learners, to remove the back seat while he checks the engine. When they have finished that task, they come and stand alongside the skilled worker to see how he is repairing the engine. The skilled worker then grasps a part of the engine and asks his assistants to clean it effectively. They bring that part to a corner of the workshop and use water to clean it. The skilled worker comes over and shows them how to clean that part of the engine. They use the toothbrushes which the skilled worker hands them, then use a piece of clean cloth to dry the part. Meanwhile, the skilled worker continues his work on other parts of the engine. At times, the vocational learners call upon the skilled workers for help in cases where they do not know whether they are doing their allocated task correctly (I.FWS.VL2. I.FWS. SW1,2).

The Master comes back to the main workshop with one of his customers. He takes the customer to the administration area where his office staff takes care of them. The Master approaches Group 1 to observe and check what the skilled workers and vocational learners have done. They exchange a few words – how is everything? – before the Master returns to the other workshop. In some cases, if there is anything

the skilled workers feel uncertain about doing, e.g., something that is quite new for them to fix, they discuss it with the Master to come up with the best solution. Conversely, the Master shows them how to deal with the problem, for example, how to fix the electric problems of a new model car. However, the Master will not always tell them what to, saying to one learner that he must learn by himself about new updated knowledge and skills.

All of the staff continue with their tasks in their noisy workplace environment. After finishing cleaning the engine part, the vocational learners return it to the skilled worker. They watch and observe how the skilled worker fits the cleaned parts back into the engine. Although the staff mainly work in silence, some words are exchanged such as “take that screwdriver”, “change the other one, not this one”, and “you shouldn’t open it like that”. In some cases, when the vocational learners do not carry out instructions properly, the skilled workers stop working and showed them, saying you cannot do it like that; it should be done like this [showing by doing]. The explanation for the reasons why they cannot perform it like that is not given at that time because they have to complete the tasks as soon as possible. Meanwhile the customers await completion of the work on their cars. Interestingly, the more tasks the skilled workers and vocational learners carry out, the higher the extra payment they receive as bonus (I.FWS.VL2,VL5). Hence, they work quietly and quickly. During their free time, they recall problems exposed during their previous working, work out explainations for such circumtances, and share their experiences (I.FWS.SW2, I.FWS.VL2.3).

The owner of the first car returns to check whether his car has been repaired; the Master comes and chats with him. A skilled worker from Group 1 takes the first car for a test drive. The other learners sit on the old tyres for a rest while waiting for the car to return. In the other corner of the workshop, a skilled worker and a vocational learner continue to work on the electrical parts of the second car.

When the skilled worker returns to the main workshop with the car, the Group 1 vocational learners, the Master and the customers stand around waiting for the

report. Some communication transpires between the skilled workers, the Master and the customer for a few minutes, then they continue to solve any existing problems. They keep working until lunch is ready.

In the afternoon, all of the vocational learners and skilled workers start working on the tasks allocated by the Master in the morning. One vocational learner tries to fix the brake system while one of the skilled workers checks the engine light on the first car. They work together closely. Another vocational learner observes and helps when needed. The skilled workers and vocational learners from Group 2 continue to work on the second car, checking the exhaust system, battery and cables. There is not much communication during their work. They cooperate quite well when repairing, willingly supporting each other. For example, when the skilled worker completes fixing the electrical problem, a vocational learner picks up the cover box, ready to hand it to the skilled workers, so that he can put it back.

In these groups, sometimes some stop to have a drink, then continue their tasks. The Master has to cross to and fro between the two workshops. However, he always stops by the two groups to have a quick look at what they are doing.

In some cases, and especially when the workshops are crowded with cars, the vocational learners with more than one years' experience at the workshop, who can carry out some simple tasks (i.e., changing tyres) by themselves, are allowed to do so. However, the skilled workers will come to check after their completion. Some days, the vocational learners have to act as "runners", frequently taking tools from one workshop to the other for the skilled workers to use.

At the end of each day, the Master returns to the main workshop and double-checks what the skilled workers have been doing and what has yet to be finished.

7.5 An analysis of the nature of learning

As suggested above, this section expands on the workplace curriculum in the analysis of the nature of learning. Curricula are often linked to institutional education. As

Billett (2011b) argues, learning curricula as a set of experiences structured and organised in the way learners engage in a practice setting (i.e., workplace) results in what is regarded as a workplace curriculum. The process of learning through practice in workplaces is often contingent on the goals of both the learners and the workplaces. The processes of learning will shape the organisation of experiences and activities (Billett 2011b). According to Billett (2011b, p. 26), the organisation of a learning curriculum includes the following three dimensions:

1. Structuring the pathway of activities; that is, identifying the type and ordering of the experiences and activities the learners need to perform in sequence from simple to more demanding and complex tasks.
2. Identifying learning that needs the support of others vis-à-vis particular experiences (i.e., hard-to learn skills or knowledge). This means that where learners are unlikely to discover their learning by themselves, the assistance of skilled workers or experienced people is very important to them.
3. Identifying and utilising pedagogically rich activities. In this dimension, learners engage in activities that have "powerful pedagogical properties" in the workplace. In other words, novice learners can richly learn from such activities.

From the above perspective of the workplace curriculum, and from the data collected, a process of learning became evident at this Family Workshop. The description of a typical day revealed that the "Master's workplace curriculum" set up tasks on a daily basis for vocational learners depending upon their capacity and experience.

The learners usually started with basic skills such as learning how to use tools or how to complete simple tasks, e.g., undoing screws with screwdrivers (I.FWS.M & SK1). New vocational learners reported the following:

> I started with odd tasks to get some basic understanding of the work. (I.FWS.VL2)

> In the beginning, I often took tools for the skilled workers, then I did what they told me. When I did something wrong, they showed me how to fix it. After that I did it again. (I.FWS.VL3)

One skilled worker explained the ways in which learning and guiding happened:

> I showed new learners how to do this task directly on the machine in the simplest way to make them understand easily. (I.FWS.SW1)

At this stage of learning, mistakes were expected. As the vocational learner (I.FWS.VL3) explained.

He proceeded to describe the process in more detail. Hence, learning by doing, learning from mistakes and learning from guidance and instruction were found in the first stage of the learning process.

In addition, at the Family Workshop learning by observation was followed by imitation. Observations indicated that a skilled worker showed two vocational learners how to clean part of an engine. When they started cleaning, they were instructed to imitate and to reinforce what they had seen. That sequence of learning was explored in an interview with one of the vocational learners who commented:

> When there were many cars to repair, I often stood behind the skilled workers to observe how they fixed problems and gave them a hand if they needed one. Then I would know how to do tasks and imitate later. (I.FWS.VL3)

From observation, imitation, doing and learning from mistakes, each individual can acquire some degree of knowledge and skills. Based on the levels of the vocational learners' experiences and skills, the Master allocated tasks to the vocational learners. The Master stated in interviews:

> It must depend on each vocational learner and their competence to fulfil their purpose.

> Some quick learners started getting paid after nine months or one year of their studying here. (I.FWS.M)

As one vocational learner said:

> I have been here for more than two years but I can only do some tasks. They don't let me do the more complicated work. (I.FWS.VL3)

The above statements signal the "individual focus" of the process of learning and the role of assessment at the Family Workshop. The Master assessed each learner's skills and knowledge before he allocated more complicated tasks such as repairing an engine. The Master commented as follows:

> If any learners worked hard and did their job well, I assigned them more complicated tasks.
>
> Firstly learners were allocated easy tasks such as opening and removing car seats, flat tyres, then gained experience with engine cleaning, opening parts of engines, fixing engines. After learning how to fix the mechanical problems, they approached the electric parts of a car. (I.FWS.M)

At the end of each day or before lunch, the Master came to check whether the vocational learners had performed all of the required tasks. He allocated tasks suitable for vocational learners (I.FWS.M. & O.FSW). The skilled workers' advice regarding the vocational learners' learning shaped the Master's assessments. One skilled worker provided an example of the way in which a vocational learner was assessed: "This learner did the job quickly and skilfully, so we assessed him as having good skills" (I.FWS.SW2). The assessment, which was completely practical, was devoid of any written exams and formal assessment guidelines.

The above description suggests a pedagogical process based on a curriculum of workplace learning, even though this was not explicitly stated. Learners not only observed, helped and imitated easy jobs but also – and more importantly – had the

opportunity to deal with more complicated work depending upon the Master's assessment of their capacity.

In this section, the nature of learning activities has been characterised at the Family Workshop. The vocational learners approached their learning by performing authentic tasks without any formal theory "classes". The authentic nature of learning, with its focus on practice through observation, imitation, guidance, doing, including making mistakes, was revealed in the analysis of the data gained from observation, and from interviews conducted at this workshop.

7.6 Roles of the Master

The roles of the Master were mixed. One key role was to manage and supervise all aspects of the working, "teaching" and learning at the Family Workshop, for example, organise the demonstrations provided, i.e., demonstrations by the skilled workers or himself. At times, the Master played a didactic role showing the skilled workers what needed to be repaired. During these demonstrations, all of the vocational learners listened and observed. This form of guiding vocational learners through expert demonstration could be considered didactic (Lucas, Spencer & Claxton 2012).

In addition, as stated above in the description of the Family Workshop and the description of a typical day, most of the vocational learners' guidance was undertaken by the skilled workers. However, the Master played an active role in the teaching and learning. He customarily allocated all of the tasks to the skilled workers, and sometimes to vocational learners. In the words of the Master:

> At this workshop, they [skilled workers and vocational learners] perform tasks. I only manage all activities. I could not afford the time to do tasks. I allocate tasks in accordance with their capacity, i.e., those who do well in changing tyres, I let them do it. Or those who are capable of working on the engine, I assign them to do so. (I.FWS.M)

One student commented:

> A little guidance was given by the Uncle [the Master]. I learnt mainly from brothers [skilled workers]. (I.FWS.VL2)

Apart from the above roles, on a typical day at the Family Workshop the Master had to assess the learners' skills before they could move on to more demanding and complex tasks. His role as the planner of the workplace curriculum at the Family Workshop is elaborated in the data analysis and in Section 7.2.

As the Master explained, most of the vocational learners were in a friend or family type relationship with him. Therefore, his responsibility to prepare them for their careers and to guide them to become good citizens was a hard role for the Master to fulfil. As he said:

> These young guys [cac em] may not be full grown in their awareness. So, I have the responsibility to guide and shape them to be a good citizen for their family and for society.

In sum, the Master had to assume many roles in his pursuit of "teaching" and imparting practical workplace knowledge at the Family Workshop.

7.7 Role of the skilled workers

As explained above, the skilled workers played the main roles as instructors for the vocational learners. They were required to guide and instruct the learners so that the they could gain the requisite skills. They worked both as instructors and as observers of how the vocational learners performed their tasks. The skilled workers undertook assessments at times and advised the Master regarding the learners' progress. This was evidence of the close relationship between the skilled workers and the Master. The former felt relaxed communicating with the Master: "I felt comfortable raising any questions with the older experienced workers or the Master" (I.FWS.SW1). However,

a contradiction was found in the interaction between the vocational learners and the Master. I clarify this in the next section.

The skilled workers assigned the above roles shared their learning and work experiences with the vocational learners. One skilled worker said that based on his experience, he knew how difficult it was to learn a vocation. So, he shared his experiences with other learners and always encouraged them to ask him as many questions as they wished if they did not understand any issue clearly (I.FWS.SW1). New vocational learners at this workshop who supported this view, stated that they usually received guidance from the skilled workers (I.FWS.VL1, VL2 & VL3).

Little interaction was seen during my two hours of observations. The silence that prevailed during the learners' work hours was the most dominant form of non-verbal interaction. In the main, the short interactions that punctuated the silence took the form of orders from the skilled workers and the Master such as "please get a screw for me", "clean this" or "remove the back car seats". The learners were consistently quiet, even during their break time.

This didactic way of learning appeared to help the learners to gain the requisite knowledge and skills. The role of the skilled workers could be considered didactic because learning resulted from expert demonstration and instruction followed by learner imitation.

From the above description, it becomes clear that the Master played a variety of roles: manager, curriculum planner, observer, assessor and moral guide. Meanwhile, the skilled workers played the main role of instructors. Taken together, there can be little doubt that the roles of the Master and the skilled workers would have had some impact on the learners, an assumption I address in the next section.

7.8 Role of the learner

The various roles of the learners at the Family Workshop revealed in the data analysis were to observe, to be "runners", "helpers" and to imitate and practise. A "runner" had

to run around getting tools for the skilled workers and the Master as well as run between the two workshops to get the tools required for each task. While these may have seemed easy tasks for the learners, it helped them to remember and acquire some basic understanding of the use of each tool. It was part of the pedagogical process the Master planned "in his mind" (alluded to in Sections 7.2 and 7.5).

The roles of observer, imitator, practitioner and helper are revealed in the description of a typical day at the Family Workshop. A group of two vocational learners observed tasks demonstrated by the skilled workers. They positioned themselves to effectively observe (O8. WS) and helped other vocational learners to do tasks such as fetching the appropriate tools and holding removed parts (O8&9.WS). As one of the vocational learners explained, "I often observe how the skilled workers do the jobs and I imitate them to do it later". His comment suggested a role of imitator, that is, imitating what had been observed.

A key finding of the interviews was the important role of "helper". The vocational learners were ready to support the skilled workers by handing tools to them. The skilled workers, in turn, helped and guided the vocational learners in how to do tasks or solve problems. They learned, supported and guided each other to complete the tasks allocated by the Master, for example:

> In some cases, when the customer told me the problems with his car, I came to report them to the skilled workers and followed their instructions on what to do. I learned a lot from the skilled worker. He often showed me how to do tasks. (I.FWS.VL1 & 3)

Apart from helping others, the vocational learners also exchanged knowledge and skills with others. One of the learners claimed that he shared his experience with friends at times after working hours and learned from others' experiences how to fix particular problems (see Figure 24).

S: Thảo luận với nhau là chỉ cái nớ làm cho nó đúng .mấy thằng ngồi với nhau nói chuyện vì răng cái nớ hư. Anh thợ chỉ cái nớ có đứng hay ko rứa. ngồi thảo luận với nhau nói chuyện. rứa thì quá tốt hỉ?

Figure 24: Exchanges between vocational learners at the Family Workshop (I.FWS.VL4)

Translation:

S: We discussed with each other how to do this one correctly. We sat and talked about why that thing didn't work properly. Did the skilled worker show us the right way to do it? We talked in that way. Was that good?

Figure 25: Learning by observation and learning from others

Thus, clearly learning from others, peer learning and learning by experience co-existed at this workshop.

In addition, self-study, i.e., learning and "teaching" with the aid of the Internet, was evident at the Family Workshop. One of the vocational learners stated that learning from guidance via the Internet was occasionally applied to broaden his knowledge: "When I do not understand something clearly, I check on the Internet" (I.FWS.VL1).

However, there was no evidence of frequent use of the Internet by most vocational learners.

Regarding interaction during learning and "teaching", for a few vocational learners their fear was so great that they dared not raise questions with the Master because:

> The Master was very strict; therefore, I seldom asked Uncle [Master]. I mainly asked the skilled workers at the workshop for guidance or clarification. (I.FWS.VL3)

There was a similar trend in traditional teaching and guiding. As the Master stated:

> I learnt and had this career thanks to my old "Master/teacher". At that time it was so strict. There was no way the Master/teacher and the vocational learners would sit next to each other to have a talk. (I.FWS.M)

In sum, the roles of the learner identified at the Family Workshop were those of observer, imitator, helper and runner who were directed in their learning by the skilled workers and the Master. The vocational learners acted out their roles by sharing and learning from each other. The roles of the learners included some attempts to update their knowledge and skills in a self-directed way.

7.9 Moral education

Moral education at the Family workshop was not formally delivered as part of subjects as in colleges. The workshop has no union or organisation to support the vocational learners. Moral education at the Family Workshop refers to its general meaning: training vocational learners to become good citizens and to practise good behaviour.

The data showed that apart from mentoring and guiding the learners to achieve the desired skills and knowledge, the Master and the skilled workers oversaw the learners' behavioural patterns and communication skills. A skilled worker, who had been working at this particular workshop for approximately 10 years, said that he

reminded and advised new learners how to address and behave in the presence of elders and others younger than himself (I.FWS.SW1). The Master, who had a key role in supporting moral education at the workshop, argued that if a person had good skills but exercised bad morality and behaviour, it would be hard for him to succeed in life.

> The Master and the skilled workers must know when they need to be soft or hard on the new learners to help them be good citizens with skills, knowledge and behaviour. (I.FWS.M)

Although the vocational learning at the Family Workshop may have differed from that imparted at formal institutions, its focus was upon providing society with a labour force equipped with good skills, knowledge and morality, virtues that are highlighted in vocational training and by vocational providers in Vietnam. As the Master explained:

> They are young learners and school leavers whose awareness was a little bit limited. Therefore, we needed to show them and explain to them how to behave well. In some situations, we had to guide them on how to deal with such problems in order to help them become a better person. For example, driving a motor car at 80 km/h is very dangerous: it may cost someone their life. So, you must drive carefully.

The Master stated that he behaved towards his workers and learners as if they were his relatives; to this end, he guided and shaped them into good citizens with "good" moral values and the necessary skills (I.FWS.M.). Within the bounds of their relationship, the Master guided the vocational learners with all his heart (I.FWS.M.). This heart-felt enthusiasm for guiding and teaching reflected the philosophies of ancient Vietnamese education (Lac Viet circa 2000 BC-1 AD) which "highlighted and advocated the sense of caring for and supporting each other and the sense of living in harmony with others as well as nature" (Duong 2002, cited in Phan Le Ha & Phan Van Que 2006, p. 138).

The above quotations emphasise the important role of morality in vocational training at the Family Workshops. The Master always scrutinised the learners' behaviour as well as their communication with others. He sometimes gave them advice when he heard something that seemed improper (I.FWS.M). In essence, the way the Master acted was influenced by Confucian ideology. The moral views of Confucianism place a high value on forming Vietnamese identity and have influenced Vietnamese society to the present day (Mai Thi Chin 2010).

The next section will analyse the data pertaining to historical influences on pedagogical practices at the Family Workshop.

7.10 Historical influences on teaching and learning at the Family Workshop

Based on the above descriptions, there was evidence that Confucianism pervaded the practices of the Family Workshop. The direct instruction by the skilled workers and the Master, and the obeying of instructions by the learners, reflected the traditional learning in Confucianism that demands of learners that they highly respect experts' skills and knowledge (Mai Thi Chin 2010; Phan Dai Doan 1998; Tran Hoa Phuong 1998). In addition, vocational learners' fear of speaking to the Master, who functioned in the role of strong moral guide, was evidence of the application of Confucian ethics in the Family Workshop.

Further examples of the influence of Confucianism include the learners being provided with meals during their work time by the Master's family, and being paid a daily living allowance. This payment, which was considered a reward for learners, aimed to encourage them to learn and work harder (I.FWS.M). This kind of reward may be traced back to the traditional vocational learning in feudal societies when Confucian philosophy dominated society. At that time, learners were incorporated into the Master's family and lived there till they became mechanics or skilled workers (see Chapter 2).

Do Thi Huong Thao (2009) argues that Confucianism, along with other cultural elements, was imported into Vietnam. It has been "Vietnamised" to gain the acceptance of the Vietnamese people, that is, to blend with the views, ideologies and lifestyles of the Vietnamese as part of the process of cultural integration. Therefore, as far as Confucian influences are concerned, the pedagogical practices at the Family Workshop were Vietnamised to fit the Master's personal way of delivering training and management. The relationships between the Master and the skilled workers – and between the skilled workers and the vocational learners – did not reflect the strictness associated with high levels of authority. Rather, those relationships leaned more toward traditional family learning. To some extent, the Master, skill workers and vocational learners felt comfortable communicating with each other in an atmosphere of mutual respect. There were, of course, some exceptions. As Phan Dai Doan (1998) maintained, the kind of Confucianism absorbed by the Vietnamese "did not focus on complicated theories; it paid more attention to reinforce moral values and agricultural economics and promote learning and success in exams in a community ethos of family and village" (p. 9). During the lengthy Chinese domination of Vietnam, Confucianism strongly influenced this model of vocational training.

In sum, although Confucianism influenced most of the pedagogical practices in the Family Workshop, the Master had Vietnamised them in his own way.

7.11 Conclusion

The focus of this chapter, in which I have presented the findings of the pedagogical practices at the Family Workshop, is the nature of learning activities. A description has been provided of a typical working day in order to convey a clear understanding of how learning and "teaching" happened there. The organisation of space, the role of the Master, the role of the skilled workers, and the roles of the learners along with the dimension of moral education being subject to historical influences have been discussed. The authentic nature of learning activities in a workshop-focused learning environment revealed the existence of a "workplace curriculum in the Master's head" and a pedagogical process of "teaching" and learning at the Family Workshop. In

addition, observation revealed how the Master performed various roles, as did the skilled workers and the vocational learners, information supported by the interview data. Whereas the skilled workers acted in the didactic roles of instructors, observers, guides and advisers, the Master assumed the responsibilities of principal/manager, supervisor, curriculum planner and moral guide. The vocational learners evinced their prescribed roles of learning as observers, imitators, practitioners, runners and helpers, learning from others and updating their knowledge and skills via the Internet. Moral education with a focus on training the vocational learners to become good citizens, along with a Confucian influence, were also evident in the Family Workshop.

In an attempt to compare this research site with the two colleges, in the next chapter I discuss the pedagogical practices and historical influences on these practices.

Chapter 8 – Discussion

8.1 Introduction

My research has examined the pedagogical practices at two vocational colleges and a family workshop in Vietnam, the historical influences on these practices and key challenges to the modernisation of VET in Vietnam. The research involved 22 participant interviews, and 11 observations (total time 36 hours 30 minutes) in theory classrooms, two College workshops and a Family Workshop. A conceptual framework adapted from Lucas, Spencer and Claxton (2012) and Kalantzis and Cope (2008) was developed to analyse this data and the pedagogical practices of these three VET sites in Vietnam.

Drawing on the research questions and the adapted conceptual framework, this chapter covers two main parts. The first part (Sections 8.2, 8.3 and 8.4) begins with a summary of the key findings at each site that were presented in Chapters 5, 6 and 7. It then discusses the challenges for traditional Vietnamese VET in the shift to modern VET pedagogical practices, including a description of that shift and the challenges for VET teachers and learners in both the Colleges and the Family Workshop, and for moral education. The second part (Section 8.5) focuses on the historical influences and Vietnamisation of VET.

8.2 A summary of VET practices at three research sites

This research examines, across three settings, the Vietnamese VET pedagogical practices along with historical influences and other elements that to some extent contribute to the tensions and challenges of VET teaching and learning as it becomes modernised and globalised. The findings reveal the types of VET teaching and learning that predominated in classrooms and simulated workshops. The didactic teaching found at both Colleges was in accord with the centralised management of VET, which promotes a rigid curriculum. The role of the teacher was mainly didactic, supported by some use of computers during teaching. The teacher's performance of other roles

as observer, assessor and knowledge deliverer was also revealed at both Colleges. The theory learning emphasised in the MOET and MOLISA training programs in Colleges 1 and 2, as opposed to the real work experience focus of student internships at College 1, rendered it different from the practice advocated in the MOLISA programs. No internships were offered at Colleges 1 and 2 for the MOLISA programs. Although attempts were made to apply new teaching methods, including some group work activities, students at both Colleges appeared to be passive and to lack the practical skills and confidence required to move into the world of work.

In contrast, the vocational learners at the Family Workshop experienced a learning process focused on practical skills and knowledge. Practice-based learning in this authentic workshop is undertaken through instruction, guidance, observation and assessment by skilled workers, overseen by the Master. While the findings revealed the existence of a "workplace curriculum" (Billett 2009) at the Family Workshop, and a process of learning for each day and each stage (from simple to more complicated tasks), there were no formal curricula at the Family Workshop that were either regulated or funded by an authorised government body. Nor was theory training offered. The Master, who formulated the workplace curriculum for learning at the Family Workshop, had to perform many roles: manager, curriculum planner, observer, assessor and customer service provider.

Some similarities were found in the roles of college teachers, skilled workers and the Master as moral guides for their students. The moral education imparted in the official College curricula, which has its roots in Confucian philosophy, but has an added socialist moral education, is an important part of VET teaching and learning in Vietnam. Confucianism remains an influence at the three research sites, despite the fact that College 2 was originally foreign funded and thus vulnerable to Western impact. Soviet influences continue to prevail at Colleges 1 and 2 in the form of combined political and moral education, centralised management and curriculum design. The initial formal VET system in Vietnam, which was originally set up by the

French, continues to manifest French influences. However, with time, VET has become Vietnamised in its own way, as described in Chapters 5, 6 and 7.

With the pedagogical practices at the three research sites discussed in the above paragraphs, the following section will now focus on the shifts in VET practices needed for Vietnam's modernisation and industrialisation.

8.3 Shifts from "traditional" Vietnamese VET to "modern" pedagogical practices

As already alluded to in Chapters 1 and 2, many recent policies, resolutions and strategies have been introduced for the purposes of renovating Vietnamese education, including VET (Quoc hoi Viet Nam 2013) (see Resolution No. 44/NQ-CP, dated 09 June 2014, and Resolution No. 29/NQ-CP, dated 04 November 2013), strategies for reform of higher education "Fundamental and Comprehensive Reform of Higher Education in Vietnam 2006 – 2020", resolutions for the fundamental and comprehensive reform of education (Quoc hoi Viet Nam 2013) and a strategy for human resource development (Thu tuong chinh phu 2011). The government's ambitious goals, vis-à-vis changes to meet the requirements of an industrialised and modernised country by 2020, and the country's integration into the ASEAN Economic Community by 2015, have proved a burden on Vietnamese education, particularly VET, which provides a large trained labour force each year. The government's aims are to prepare learners' work readiness to meet society's need for high-quality human resources for the country, and to build a knowledge-based economy. Particular attention is being paid to providing lifelong learning and other skills (e.g., soft skills and team working skills) for every citizen (Quoc hoi Viet Nam 2005; Thu tuong chinh phu 2012a; UNESCO 2015).

As Mạc Van Tien (2015) observes, the ASEAN Economic Community comes into effect at the end of 2015. When the labour forces of Asian countries can freely find jobs in all Asian countries, it will be hard for the Vietnamese labour force to compete. Clearly, Vietnam's labour force must be equipped with the requisite skills for integration and

modernisation in this industrialisation era. As mentioned in Chapter 1, this is evident in the release of the 2014 Vocational Education Law, which was renamed after the 2006 Vocational Training Law, and took effect on 1 July 2015. This new Law addresses the emerging demand for vocational learners to be equipped with integrated skills, such as the abilities to work independently, be creative, apply modern technology, and adapt to a new working environment in the context to ASEAN Economic Community. The new skill requirements (i.e., job-specific skills, problem-solving skills, life-skills or soft-skills, and language skills) are challenging VET in Vietnam and require shifts in approaches to teaching and learning. As Mac Van Tien (2015) claims, change and reform are essential to delimit the low quality of education, especially tertiary education and vocational education. As well, the mismatch in the demands of the learners and the employers must be addressed if there is to be a transformation of Vietnam into a modernised and industrialised nation (see also Tran Thi Tuyet 2014a).

Given these ambitious goals for Vietnam's modernisation and industrialisation by 2020, the government has identified the importance of implementing a shift in VET teaching and learning, and its curricula, to prepare a skilled Vietnamese labour force for the world of work, particularly by the end of 2015 (Mạc Van Tien 2015; Thu Tuong Chinh Phu 2012b). This shift in VET teaching and learning has been communicated formally to every vocational college in Vietnam (Mac Van Tien 2015).

As has already been outlined in previous chapters, the shift from a traditional Vietnamese VET to a modern one is revealed in the research findings of the pedagogical practices at the three research sites. First, there was a shift in policies and modes of VET delivery. One of these modifications was the shift from an academic year to a "credit" system in the MOET programs and to a "module" system in the MOLISA programs (see Chapter 3 for details). Students were required to earn enough "credit" for their graduation and were assessed after the completion of each subject. In addition, the flexibility of the MOET training programs has offered students, for the first time, an opportunity to choose their preferred subjects and acquire the skills and knowledge they need (see Chapters 2 and 4). This is a shift from traditional

Vietnamese VET to a modern system to meet the requirements for integration and globalisation.

The second important shift of VET in Vietnam revealed in the findings and the analysis of the related documents, including the 2014 Vocational Education Law and national strategies, is a variety of emerging requirements for VET products (i.e., VET learners). Unlike traditional VET in Vietnam which aimed to "train learners or graduates with vocational knowledge and skills to serve in the State sector" (between 1975 and 1986) or to serve and meet the requirements of a market economy in all sectors (between 1995 and 2000) (Vo Thi Xuan 2012, p. 110), the modern VET system requires a graduate with generic, soft and employability skills in addition to professional and vocational knowledge and skills (Quoc hoi Viet Nam 2015). This shift brings a challenge for VET teachers and learners in Vietnam that will be discussed in Section 8.4.

The third shift in pedagogical practices evident in the findings was the increased requirement to move from the traditional didactic teaching to more self-directed learning, to meet the requirements of a modern VET system. Although there were increasing requirements for this shift, there was not much evidence at the time of the data collection (in 2013). In College 2, which had been a foreign run college, and in which some teachers were trained in the European country, some teachers were more likely to attempt to encourage self-directed learning among their students. In these situations the roles of teachers and learners changed. Teachers were no longer only knowledge transmitters, nor were students only passive receivers. The findings indicated situations in which the teachers and learners acted in multiple roles as both practical guides and moral guides in classrooms and workshops. The application of ICT in teaching and learning was found to be a signal of this pedagogical shift, which was also evident in some situations in College 1. All three shifts mentioned here have created challenges for VET teachers and learners. These challenges will be discussed in the next section.

8.4 Challenges for VET teachers and learners in the shift to modern pedagogical practices

Vietnam's policies and regulations pertaining to the requirements of VET reforms for a skilled labour force, and the complementary changes needed to pedagogical practices, and emerging demands have caused tensions for VET teachers regarding the shifting of their roles from didactic to facilitative (as described in the continuum of the conceptual framework). This section explores these challenges in VET practice by arranging them into the three main categories revealed by the research data: 1. challenges for teachers and learners in VET Colleges; 2. challenges for trainers and learners in the Family Workshop; and 3. challenges in moral education.

8.4.1 Challenges for teachers and learners in VET colleges

The research of Phan Le Ha (2014), Tran Thi Tuyet (2014b), and particularly Tran, Le and Nguyen (2014, p. 96), whose findings in higher education research are similar to those of this study, show that the traditional didactic transmission pedagogy still dominates Vietnamese tertiary education. "This approach is intertwined with teacher-centred pedagogy and student spoon-fed principle" (Tran, Le & Nguyen 2014, p. 96). As mentioned in the described national policies and strategies for a skilled labour force to prepare for integration and modernisation, a shift in teaching and learning is a key requirement. In particular, when the "degree preference" culture still has a high status in the Vietnamese people's minds, or when many VET international programs are being integrated (as mentioned in Chapter 2), teaching and learning in VET must change if it is to carry out its tasks of providing qualified workers for the country. Within this emerging scenario, the proposals regarding VET reform of teaching and learning in Vietnam will undoubtedly bring challenges for teachers and learners alike.

The research findings show that teachers at both Colleges 1 and 2 are expected, despite a heavy workload, to transmit the required knowledge to their students through lesson plans, documents and centralised management. At the same time, they are encouraged to apply new teaching methods (e.g., ICT in teaching) to guide, model

or instruct their students in the acquisition of the requisite skills and knowledge. This is a challenge for these teachers.

The requirements to shift from teacher-centred to learner-centred learning, in which students actively engage in developing their personal skills (which include communication skills, teamwork skills, problem solving skills and life skills) as distinct from job-specific skills, has contributed to yet another tension in VET practices of pedagogical modernisation. For example, the research findings suggest that a majority of students showed their reluctance to participate in group-work activities in both classrooms and workshops, even when their teachers attempted to offer these activities. As stated in Chapter 6, students at the College 2 workshop practised in turn; then they either played with their phones or chatted with friends while other members of their group performed their tasks (O. CL2). Contemporary VET practice in Vietnam does not show evidence of learner-centred learning. The findings show that students approaching their learning via observation, listening, transcribing and remembering in inauthentic learning classrooms and workshops show a preference for didactic learning. However, this prepares them only for "passing exams, not to commit the knowledge they have acquired to memory" (Tran, Le & Nguyen 2014, p. 96). The findings also suggest self-study among students was not popular, with only four students among 10 interviewed using the Internet to search for more knowledge. This suggests that the Confucian culture has shaped the students' habitual learning, that is, they relate to their teachers as knowledge transmitters, with themselves as receivers, consuming what their teachers provide. These findings are similar to those of Tran Thi Tuyet (2014a), who argues: "The teaching in higher education institutions has strongly reflected both Confucian culture and the old Soviet system top-down approach where the teacher is considered the primary source of knowledge" (Tran Thi Tuyet 2014a, p. xx). This is a challenge for VET teachers who are trying to meet the requirements of applying the new teaching methods.

The difficulty in renovating learner-centred learning to meet the needs of modernisation in Vietnam lies partly in the fact that students are often reluctant or afraid to raise questions with their teachers (Doan Dung Hue 2005; Phan Le Ha 2014; Tran Hoa Phuong 1998). This was apparent at both Colleges. For example, responses in student interviews included: "I seldom raise questions to the teacher", and "If I have something unclear, I ask my friend first. If he/she cannot explain, then I ask my teacher". This fear diminishes the curiosity and creativeness essential for improving their communication and problem-solving skills. The findings from both colleges suggest that while learner-centred teaching and learning appears to have "stayed" in both policies and documentation, they have not yet been implemented in practice. A shift from teacher-centred teaching to learner-centred learning is not easy to apply successfully. It will take time and thorough preparation to reduce the tensions of modernisation that beleaguer VET practices in Vietnam (Tran Thi Tuyet 2014b).

As Ngo Tu Thanh (2008) argues, the core of education is now less about teaching and more about learning. Therefore, questions such as "What do students need to learn?" and "How do they learn?" should be revisited and changed to "What do they learn for?" When each learner undertakes training with a clear goal and motivation, efforts to recognise what they need to learn and the best way to achieve proposed outcomes will culminate in more effective learning. In practice, because VET is low status in Vietnam, as mentioned in Chapters 1 and 2, VET is not likely to be a first choice for students, nor would they be motivated to undertake it. Participant interviews indicate that some VET students enrolled in training programs because they failed the national examinations for high schools or universities; or because of their parents' social conditions they could find no way to enter other forms of education. As a result, students come to schools/colleges since they are forced to be there by their parents or for appearance in the class as regulated by their college. This reluctance by the students creates further tensions and challenges for VET teaching and learning as it responds to the reforms.

The findings at the two Colleges show that the learning process undertaken by students often took the forms of listening, observation, modelling and practising. Lucas, Spencer and Claxton (2012) suggest that this type of reinforcement process is effective for students to remember things when moving from observation to practising and doing (Lucas, Claxton & Webster 2010). The importance of reinforcement by repetition is also highlighted in Mohamad and Heong's (2012) research into VET in Malaysia. They stress that in addition to theory delivery, students in vocational classes should spend considerable time on practical tasks because it is a useful way of enhancing their cognitive learning. Having more practical tasks for students means that vocational teachers should spend more class time on activities and less time lecturing. This would allow them to work more with students in small groups and engage students in tasks or activities involving physical demonstrations, practice and performance. However, the requirement in Vietnamese colleges to conduct vocational training lessons with large class sizes that is based on the curriculum and syllabus design (College 1 2014; College 2 2011; MOET and MOI 2011), makes it more difficult for teachers to teach and for students to learn. Importantly, failure to comply with the regulations pertaining to the responsibilities, rights and duties of teachers will impact on their record rankings for extra payment and their annual evaluations (see Chapters 5 and 6). Within this scenario, it is almost impossible for teachers to apply new teaching methods successfully because they seem to have little room to manoeuvre in their allocated spaces and times. This is challenging for both teachers and students. As this thesis outlines, there is an ongoing tension between attempts to meet the demands of a skilled labour force for a modernised and industrialised country and the ongoing regulations of teachers via more teacher-focused pedagogical approaches and the influences of historical trends. Pham Thi Hong Thanh's (2008) research of ESL teachers also found similar challenges encountered in implementing ESL renovation in Vietnam.

While the students in both Colleges who study under the MOLISA programs spend more time practising in the simulated workshops, they still lack the necessary real-work experience and the employability skills crucial to prepare them for future jobs.

This is because there are no internship programs available to students in the MOLISA training programs at College 1. Although students have opportunities to undertake simulated-practice in workshops at both Colleges, this is not as authentic as working in real-world workshops. It is therefore challenging for learners when they move to the world of work as they lack practical experience in an authentic working environments. The research findings reveal that students are worried about their future jobs. As one student stated: "I don't feel confident enough to start working after graduating" (I.CL1.S3.MOLISA). Tran Thi Tuyet's (2014a) research, which examines the employability prospects of higher education students in Vietnam, has similarly identified that students are generally ill-prepared for future work. This was attributed to a lack of strong linking between institutions and industry (Mac Van Tien 2015; Tran Thi Tuyet 2014a).

As suggested in the early sections of this chapter, the new policies and strategies required by a labour force in the current era of modernisation and industrialisation include problem-solving skills, teamwork skills, life skills and communication skills. Learning all of these poses a challenge, not only for VET learners who seek to join the labour market, but also for VET teachers who impart the knowledge of these skills to students. The pressure that changing teaching and learning methods brings is an extra burden for both teachers and students. From the interviews, lack of funding and resources (i.e., the budget of about US$ 3 per student to buy materials and necessities for one practical subject (45 periods) (I.CL1.T2)), combined with their inherited outdated facilities and teaching and learning methods (see Chapters 5 and 6), are significant challenges for teachers and students striving to meet the demands of modernisation and industrialisation.

8.4.2 Challenges for VET trainers and learners in the Family Workshop in the shift to modern VET practices

The Family Workshop presented a different picture of the challenges associated with the modernisation of VET practices. Societal pressures to change has created challenges in the Family Workshop in which vocational learners invariably gain their

skills and knowledge through practice-based and experienced-based learning, with the existence of a learning process and the "workplace curriculum" developed and implemented by the Master. Although there are no formal regulations, strategies or policies governing the pedagogical practices of the Master, skilled workers and learners, the increasing requirements of a modern society for skilled labour have forced these practices to change. However, although vocational learners are equipped with the practical skills to be "work ready", they do not have opportunities to have theoretical knowledge explained to them during their training, as occurs at the colleges in Vietnam. These students also do not have opportunities to develop the "soft skills" required for ASEAN integration. As the Master who was interviewed for this study stated: "I am worried for them because we don't have teaching of theory or any certificate for vocational learners here. So, it will be hard for them to find a job in other enterprises after they 'graduate' from my workshop" (I.FWS.M). This is an increasing challenge for VET family workshops as Vietnamese society increasingly requires certificates and degrees for recruitment into a more diverse range of jobs, and the vocational learners at family workshops are not awarded any certificates or have pathways into further education.

A common challenge found at the Family Workshop was that the majority of learners had either underperformed during their schooling or left school early. This was evident in the limited background knowledge (i.e., language, literary and numeracy) of vocational learners who left school between Years 5 and 10 (see Chapter 7). As suggested above, this might be a challenge for the Master in attempting to equip learners with the skills and knowledge required for more complex work. Retford's (2012) research has addressed this problem. He suggests that poor language, literacy and numeracy skills directly impacts on skill development and productivity in VET and, by extension, creates challenges for VET practitioners (Shomos 2010; Skills Australia 2010; Volkoff, Clarke & Walstab 2008; Teese & Walstab 2009, cited in Retford 2012). For this reason, the Master and the skilled workers needed to explain more to their students, limit the complexity of theory explanation, encourage hands-on activities, and assess and allocate students reasonable learning tasks according to

their ability. As the Master stated, "Depending on the learners' ability, I allocate the appropriate work for them" (I.FWS.M). The integration, modernisation and industrialisation stages of Vietnam's transition creates ongoing challenges for all involved in the family workshops.

8.4.3 Challenges in moral education within shifts from "traditional" to modern VET in Vietnam

As well as examining the challenges within the shifts of traditional VET pedagogical practices to modern ones and the challenges faced by teachers and learners mentioned above, this section discusses challenges to moral education in VET in the era of modernisation. It commences with a discussion of the changes and challenges of VET moral education for "perfect" citizens mentioned in the reforms and goals of the 2005 Vietnamese Education Law. The challenges on integrating moral education into VET curriculum and the moral roles of teachers, Masters and skilled workers in preparing qualified labour forces are also considered.

As mentioned in Chapter 4, moral education in Vietnam includes traditional morality and socialist morality (Doan Dung Hue 2005). Moral education plays an important role in training a labour force with good skills, knowledge and behaviours as well as morality in line with Vietnamese cultural norms. It is considered to be an essential part of the Vietnamese education system.

A shift in moral education in response to the requirements of modernisation and industrialisation is found in these research findings. The modified 2005 Education Law (Quoc hoi Viet Nam 2005) now focuses on shaping a person's personality, morality, life style and knowledge of law and civics. It aims to train a "perfect" citizen with both the professional knowledge and skills and other requisite skills for his/her vocation in addition to the morality of Vietnamese society. The importance of moral education as the focal point of education at this stage is reinforced in many documents (i.e., the Resolution of the Second Central Conference of the VIII Party Executive Committee regarding the strategic direction of the development of education and

training and duties in the Stage of Industrialisation and Modernisation toward 2000 on 24 December 1996, or toward 2020 by the Eighth Central Conference of the XI Party Executive Committee in 2013) (Quoc hoi Viet Nam 1996, 2013). As mentioned in Chapter 4, moral education is one of three main tasks of education (i.e., teaching morality ("*day nguoi*"), teaching knowledge (*"day chu"*), and vocational training (*day nghe"*)). With the goal of preparing a "perfect" citizen for the rigours of modernisation and industrialisation, the subjects related to moral education have been inserted into the main curricula of Vietnamese education systems from primary to higher education, including VET, as was described in Chapters 2, 5 and 6. The teaching of moral education and general education, which accounts for approximately 40 per cent of the total MOET curriculum framework or 30 per cent of the MOLISA framework reveals its importance. In undergraduate and postgraduate curricula in Vietnamese universities this proportion is 12 per cent (Doan Dung Hue 2005). While VET learners need practical skills for their future jobs, they need to spend many hours on moral and general education. This makes it challenging for VET learners to gain the other required skills, in particular authentic work skills. Moral education is also included at the Family Workshop's "workplace curriculum" through the daily communication and guidance in working and behaving well. This is described in Chapters 4 and 7.

Unlike in Vietnam, moral education in other countries (e.g., Malaysia) puts an emphasis on religious education while still being integrated in their school curriculum (Lee 1999). Secular moral education is taught at the primary and secondary levels in Singapore, Japan and China. However, the linking of moral and political education in Vietnam signals a difference as explained in Tran Thi Tuyet's (2014b) research. Whereas Vietnam is being encouraged to become a market-driven economy, an industrialised and modernised country that can integrate into the region, at the same time MOET wants to retain the communist ideology in the "socialist" education system. Therefore, "Marxist-Leninist" and "Ho Chi Minh Thoughts" are included in the MOET curriculum (Harman, Hayden & Pham 2010; Tran 2014b) as are "Politics and Law" in the MOLISA curriculum. Tran (1999, p. 21, cited in Tran Thi Tuyet 2014b) claims: "Vietnam is probably the only country in the world that both embraces market

economics and adheres to Marxism-Leninism. How can an education system guided by two contradictory philosophies develop in a consistent manner?"

In practice, inserting moral education into VET has created several debates. Doan Dung Hue (2005) argues for the inclusion of moral education in undergraduate and postgraduate studies. Some researchers (e.g., Hanushek, Woessmann & Zhang 2011) argue to the effect that:

> Vocational education develops specific job-related skills in order to prepare students to work in specific occupations while others emphasize general education that provides students with broad knowledge and basic skills in mathematics and communication and serves as the foundation for further learning and on-job learning. (p. 1)

These sources demonstrate that VET in Vietnam is structured to include both skills preparation and the morality of a "good" citizen for the integration, modernisation and industrialisation of the country. It has been a tough and challenging role for VET to provide a skilled labour force for the "perfect" citizenship in its current low status and limited conditions. The difficulties in VET teaching and learning described in the previous chapters are that students have to learn many subjects in the limited time available, therefore, they do not have enough time to undertake more practice on their professional and other required skills.

Phan Le Ha and Phan Van Que (2006) offer a different perspective on moral education and suggest that its essence, particularly the role of teachers as moral guides, is a powerful element in teacher identity formation that holds firmly to Vietnameseness and gives the Vietnamese teachers a sense of belonging, continuity and connectedness. This role operates as the moral foundation on which other elements are interpreted, negotiated, resisted and reconstituted.

The research findings reveal that teachers at both the MOET and MOLISA Colleges, and the Master and skilled workers in the Family Workshop, not only perform their

roles as moral guides, but teach and guide the learners with skill and knowledge as well (see Chapters 5, 6, and 7). These roles appear in many institutional and governmental documents outlining the duties, responsibilities and rights of the teachers. Although there is no official document regulating that role for the Master; as he stated in the interview, he agrees to assume the responsibility for training and guiding the learners in a verbal contract with their parents.

As described in earlier chapters, the role of moral education has existed since feudal times. The famous motto, "*Tien hoc le, hau hoc van*" (First, learn the behaviour or proper manners, then learn the lesson), appears on a large red banner posted at nearly all schools in Vietnam. This shows the high respect afforded teachers, who were traditionally ranked immediately below the Kings. However, the respect for the teachers in today's society is being questioned because the professional distance between teachers and students seems to be narrowing. This may be seen at the Family Workshop, where the moral values and the respect for the Master as a teacher have changed to some degree. Specifically, an indication of the challenge of moral education is reflected in the relationship between teachers/Master and students/vocational learners in the ways various forms of address are now used. Teachers' status is now no longer just below the King's because students nowadays have more autonomy and know their rights are to be respected and treated equally to their teachers', according to the 2005 Vietnamese Education Law, as well as having the right to choose particular subjects and teachers, as mandated by institutional regulations. That narrows the distance of power and respect among teachers and students. This change in relationship is demonstrated by the different forms of address used in the college workshop: *"Thầy"* (teacher) and *"em"* (younger people/brother/sister) or *"mi"* (an informal way of addressing for a stranger, friend) or "*bây*" (an informal way of addressing for a group of young people); or in the Family Workshop: *"chú"* – (uncle), *"cháu"* – (nephew), "anh/em" (brothers). This may explain how after spending longer periods of time together, teachers and students develop close relationships that invite the use of informal terms of address. Previously, the sole forms of acceptable address were: " thầy - teacher" and "con – son/daughter", because teachers are ranked higher

than parents in Confucianism. Thus, students must highly respect their teachers. While this change in relationship between teachers and students at the two Colleges is apparent today, some students still use the old forms when addressing their teachers. Based on the institutional regulations for the ways on addressing colleagues and students, the terms suggested are: "Anh (Chị)/Em – Tôi/Thầy, Cô" [Anh: Respectful term for any older boy/Chị: Respectful term for any older girl/Em: young ladies] – [Tôi/Thầy, Cô– I/Teacher]. The informal terms used at the College workshops seem to break the rules for formal forms of address. This has become an additional challenge for the teachers and students in the educational renovation now that teachers are required to be facilitators, as found in some instances at College 2. These findings are similar to those of Pham Thi Hong Thanh (2008), who examined the roles of ESL teachers in implementing ESL renovation. Specifically, collaborative teaching and learning have not been well implemented in ESL because the moral modes make teachers reluctant to embrace change in order to safeguard their morality, image and behaviour. In other words, teachers feel they are losing their students' respect if they get socially close to students; going to the pub or bar may be considered as a bad activity for an ESL teacher (Pham Thi Hong Thanh 2008). This reflects a general challenge for VET teachers in Vietnam.

This section has already discussed the shifts and challenges for Vietnamese VET practices, including moral education, as the country proceeds towards modernisation. As presented in Chapters 2, 5, 6 and 7, the country's history has also influenced these practices. This will be discussed in the following section.

8.5 Historical influences and Vietnamisation of VET in the modernisation stage

In addition to the data presented in Chapters 5, 6 and 7, and the discussion in the earlier parts of this chapter about the tensions and challenges in VET practices for modernisation and industrialisation in Vietnam, the influence of the country's history on those practices and on the notion of "Vietnamisation" will now be discussed.

Because of its history of foreign invasion and colonisation, the Vietnamese education system and its pedagogical practices, including VET, have been strongly influenced by Confucianism and by French, Soviet and Western approaches to education. This research has found that Confucian culture has shaped both the teacher's role as a moral guide and the students' learning patterns, in particular that of relating to their teachers as knowledge transmitters with students as receivers who consume what their teachers provide. In addition, as suggested in Chapters 2 and 5, curricula in Vietnamese higher education, including VET, were designed in line with the Soviet higher education system (Tien Thi Hanh Ho & Reich 2014; Tran Hoa Phuong 1998; Tran Thi Tuyet 2014b). The general education inserted into Vietnamese higher education reflects the influences of both the French and Soviet systems (Tran Hoa Phuong 1998; Vo Thi Xuan 2012). This is apparent in the combination of technical subjects (e.g., Advanced Maths 1 and 2, and Physics) in general education with political subjects in the VET curriculum (see Chapters 2, 5 and 6). Tran Thi Tuyet (2014a) argues: "Teaching in higher education institutions has strongly reflected both Confucian culture and the old Soviet system top-down approach where the teacher is considered the primary source of knowledge" (p. xx).

Apart from the Confucian, French and Soviet impacts on VET practices, Western influences have also been evident in the current research. As it meets the demands for modernisation, VET in Vietnam does not take the whole of the VET programs of developed countries (e.g., United States, Australia, Japan, German), but it has modified their curricula, management, teaching and learning to be in line with its own culture and traditional values (i.e., curriculum and management of College 2). In other words, together with the long colonisation of Vietnam there has been a strong stand for Vietnamese cultural practices to have their place within its education practices. As outlined in Chapters 1 and 2, this is referred to as the "Vietnamese factor" or "Vietnamisation" in Tran Hoa Phuong's (1998) research, which examined different foreign influences on higher education in Vietnam. The current research has revealed that Vietnamisation is also to be found in VET through a process of adaptation to Soviet and French general education. Soviet political education and moral education

rooted in Confucianism have both shaped the current VET curricula in Vietnam. An example is the "Module" curricula of Vietnamised VET, which combines a Western focus on competency-based education with general education that includes moral and political education. This allows its programs to be suitable for Vietnam's target of a market-driven economy with a socialist orientation. That is described in Chapter 6, in which the support for German curricula, infrastructure, curriculum, experts, teacher training and teaching materials are explicitly of "Vietnamese character". As already mentioned, this adaptation or Vietnamisation is challenging not only VET practices, but also teachers and learners who are required to spend their time on general education instead of professional training.

This study shows that VET teachers in Vietnam today are now combining traditional teaching methods (i.e., lecturing) with new teaching methods (i.e., group work activities) with computer-teaching aids in both theory and practice (see Chapters 5 and 6). Teachers' roles (i.e., knowledge transmitter, guide/coach for practical sections, facilitator, moral guide, or tuition fee collector/reminder, liaison with students' families) are adjusted in order to best fit the Vietnamese educational conditions and practices. The need to not only assess academic achievements but also morality and behaviours is another example of Vietnamisation in VET practices (see Chapters 5, 6 and 7).

In the light of this discussion, it can be seen that the integration, modernisation and industrialisation of the VET system cannot be understood as just the country's cultural practices. Vietnamisation is seen as a reference for adaptation in the modernisation in order that shifts or reforms are carried out well.

8.6 Conclusion

This chapter has discussed the challenges encountered in the modernisation of VET in Vietnam, with the particular focus on pedagogical practices, teachers and learners, and moral education. The requirements of integrating into the regional and international communities are impacting on VET in particular, as it attempts to solve

these challenges. The Confucian, French, Soviet and Western influences as well as the Vietnamisation of VET pedagogical practices, have also been raised. The policies, strategies, requirements and preparations for modernisation and industrialisation have burdened Vietnamese VET, whose task is to provide the country with a highly skilled labour force. The renovation and preservation of traditional values and methods, along with inconsistent regulations of the planned reforms and moves to a "modern" VET system, have presented challenges to VET pedagogical practices, teachers and learners. Important challenges include out-dated facilities and teaching methods; a Confucian culture of passive learning; VET's low status; the moral requirements and restrictions on the roles of teachers; and a rigid curriculum.

Chapter 9 – Conclusions and Implications

9.1 Introduction

This chapter provides some concluding thoughts by returning to the research questions and highlighting how the research has addressed these questions. It then outlines the key ways in which the study contributes significantly and uniquely to research in the field of vocational education and training in Vietnam, and more broadly to the research field of VET in developing countries. Finally, it outlines some implications of the findings for the development of the VET system in Vietnam and discusses areas for future research.

As discussed in Chapter 1, the focus of the research is the pedagogical practices in VET in Vietnam. In particular, this research explored the following three questions:

1. What are the pedagogical practices of vocational education in Vietnam across formal and informal settings?
2. How have the various historical influences shaped VET in Vietnam?
3. What are the key challenges of modernisation for VET in Vietnam?

Responses to these questions can be found throughout the thesis. Using a qualitative methodology, data was collected from two formally structured Colleges and one Family Workshop through observations, interviews and document analysis. While Chapter 2 sets the background for understanding the current provision of vocational education in Vietnam, Chapters 3 and 4 frame the study through a review of the literature on VET in Vietnam and internationally. The literature review in Chapter 3 highlights the gap in research on VET in Vietnam, particularly of qualitative studies that focus on pedagogical practices in colleges and family workshops. The study adapts the conceptual work of Lucas, Spencer and Claxton (2012) and Kalantzis and Cope (2008) to develop a new conceptual framework, which I call the "Investigating Vietnamese VET Pedagogical Practices Framework". This framework highlights aspects usually more relevant to non-Western countries, such as moral education. The

study also adapts Tran Hoa Phuong's (1998) research on the historical influences on Vietnamese university education in order to provide a unique spotlight on the historical influences on VET in Vietnam, on its pedagogical practices, and on the process of Vietnamisation generally.

The findings chapters, Chapters 5, 6 and 7 in particular, address questions 1 and 2 – the pedagogical practices across the formal and informal settings and the historical influences which shaped VET in Vietnam. Analysis of the data using the "Investigating Vietnamese VET Pedagogical Practices Framework" produced rich descriptions of the pedagogical practices in three sites – a Vietnamese Government-run College; a College established and run by a foreign government, which has since been handed over to the Vietnamese Government; and a traditional Family Workshop for car mechanics. The findings highlight those pedagogical practices that are unique to each setting as well as some that are similar. The pedagogical practices of the Family Workshop, conceptualised as "workplace curriculum" (Billett 2011), are described, with the Masters and the skilled workers taking up the pedagogical roles of the "teacher", but without the focus on theories and knowledge underpinning the work of car mechanics.

Through highlighting the historical influences on the pedagogical practices in each setting, question 2 of the study draws attention to how important these influences are for a nuanced understanding of Vietnamese VET pedagogical practices generally. Layers of influence remain – from the Chinese/Confucian, French and Soviet periods and more recently from the West – but a "Vietnamese character" has remained throughout the process of Vietnamisation.

Question 3 addresses the key challenges of modernisation of/for VET in Vietnam and is the main focus of Chapter 8, which also analyses the findings across the three sites. It highlights the many challenges facing vocational education in Vietnam as the country modernises, industrialises and integrates into the global economy. A significant part of the Vietnamese Government's policies and plans for this modernisation process is the renovation of the VET system to ensure the workforce

has the broad range of employability and vocational skills perceived as necessary for the global workforce of the 21st century.

9.2 Significance and contributions to vocational education and training research in Vietnam

This study makes a significant and unique contribution to VET research by analysing the pedagogical practices of vocational education in Vietnam. As highlighted in Chapter 3, the limited research done so far on VET in Vietnam has primarily focused on management and policy issues, including the relationships between vocational providers and industry; skill preparation for Vietnam's industrialisation; and the challenges for vocational training to provide a skilled labour force. More recently, there has been useful additional research on new teaching methods and contemporary VET competency-based training and assessment (i.e., Dao Viet Ha 2014; Huynh Ngoc Nga 2011; Nguyen Quang Viet 2015). Noticeably however, this research mostly uses quantitative methods to provide generalised data.

To complement the above research, a qualitative methodology has been employed in this study to produce rich and detailed descriptions of the vocational pedagogical practices used in the three sites. Included in this analysis are the historical influences that affect not only these practices but also the Vietnamisation processes occurring as each influence was adopted and adapted to ensure the continuity of the Vietnamese "character". Importantly, the study addresses the currently limited understandings of vocational pedagogies across formal and informal settings in Vietnam and contributes to new knowledge on how vocational learning happens in a developing country.

As outlined in Chapter 1, the contribution of this study to vocational education and training in Vietnam, and potentially to other developing countries, is in four key areas:

1. It develops a conceptual framework to support the investigation of VET pedagogical practices across a range of vocational settings.

2. It provides rich descriptions of vocational pedagogical practices that occur in a government vocational college, a foreign-funded vocational college and a family vocational workshop.
3. It articulates the historical influences shaping teaching and learning across formal and non-formal vocational education settings and captures the process of Vietnamisation of VET pedagogical practices.
4. It raises the awareness and understanding of non-formal vocational learning in Vietnam.

These contributions are expanded in the next four sections.

9.2.1 Development of a conceptual framework to support the investigation of VET pedagogical practices across a range of vocational settings

As illustrated in Chapters 3 and 4, the available conceptual frameworks (e.g., Merriam, Caffarella & Baumgartner 2007) that investigate learning and pedagogical practices did not work well for this study. Most of these frameworks were designed for Western settings and did not sit easily with a study on VET pedagogical practices at both Colleges and a Family Workshop in Vietnam. The adapted conceptual framework, here called "Investigating Vietnamese VET Pedagogical Practices Framework", drew on Lucas, Spencer and Claxton (2012), and Kalantzis and Cope (2008). The adaptation allows this framework to be appropriate to a study of VET pedagogical practices in Vietnam by taking into account the teaching and learning of technical, professional skills such as problem solving and employability, as well as moral education.

The particular strengths of this adapted conceptual framework include the additional moral dimension described by Kalantzis and Cope (2008) and the reference to a continuing presence of historical features in pedagogical practices. The inclusion of the moral and historical aspects is useful as they draw attention to local and global interactions in addition to the influence of disciplines, settings and practices in the shaping of Vietnamese VET pedagogy. The local/global significance of these is not quite the same in the West. In addition, the pedagogical continuum in this conceptual

framework can be a useful tool for mapping current pedagogical practices in various other settings and for tracking their changes over time. It should also be useful for practitioners and researchers who wish to examine and articulate current VET pedagogy through a number of lenses in both formal and informal settings in Vietnam and other developing countries.

9.2.2 Provision of rich descriptions of vocational pedagogies that occur in a government vocational college, a foreign-funded vocational college and a family vocational workshop

The in-depth qualitative investigation through interviews and observations of pedagogical practices in the classrooms and workshops in three different sites produced a real and vivid picture of VET in Vietnam. These rich descriptions provide an understanding of current VET pedagogical practices, including a description of the various challenges faced by VET institutions, practitioners, learners, managers and policy makers as they confront the current modernisation and industrialisation processes in Vietnam. They capture the range and variety of pedagogical practices and, importantly, go beyond providing a picture of descriptive features only. Their depth and richness draw attention to the elaborate combination of factors that make up VET pedagogical practices in Vietnam – the mix of old and new challenges and tensions that institutions, teachers and students face as they engage with practical realities, cultural complexities and the imperatives of the national reforms. These descriptions therefore provide a useful contribution to understandings of how VET pedagogies occur in a developing country.

9.2.3 Articulation of the historical influences shaping teaching and learning across formal and non-formal vocational education settings in a developing country and capturing the process of Vietnamisation in VET pedagogical practices

A key contribution of this research is its drawing attention to how history has shaped VET pedagogical practices in Vietnam over the centuries. Importantly, the research

captures the process of Vietnamisation of VET pedagogical practices in Vietnam and highlights the way that the waves of historical influences – Confucian, French, Soviet and Western – have been adapted through this process to preserve its "Vietnamese character". Vietnamisation of VET, named in this research for the first time in relation to VET, is particularly significant at a time when many VET international programs are imported into the Vietnamese VET market. This study reveals that Vietnam does not merely deliver foreign VET programs in its VET institutes, these programs have been adapted to fit the Vietnamese context and culture. This adaptation process is crucial to the achievement of successful implementation of these programs. As discussed in Chapters 6 and 8, the compulsory inclusion in the programs offered by the foreign-funded college of substantial general education supplementary modules, including a political and moral education component, is a demonstration of this adaption process. These supplementary modules are expected to meet the local requirements of a "perfect" socialist Vietnamese citizen. As mentioned by teachers in the interviews, the blending of existing traditional teaching methods with integrated teaching methods, such as task-based learning with technology aids, also indicates how flexible adaptation can meet the current conditions and requirements for changes in VET pedagogical practices. An outcome of this research on the Vietnamisation process will be to provide potential international donors and exporters of VET programs to Vietnam with an understanding of these processes for the nation's new era of integration and globalisation.

9.2.4 Raising the awareness and understanding of non-formal vocational learning in Vietnam

The current research is also significant by being the first investigation of the pedagogical practices of non-formal vocational learning in Vietnam, in particular a Family Workshop, which is the traditional form of vocational learning in Vietnam and many other developing countries. As described in Chapters 1 and 8, little attention to research, policy and pedagogy has been given to non-formal vocational learning in Vietnam, despite family workshops being key sites of vocational learning for many

trades. This study acknowledges the importance of the learning and teaching that occurs in Family Workshops but are "invisible" in existing research on VET.

Rather than dismiss the family workshop as merely an old world relic of feudal training, this study shows how the Master and the skilled workers engage in pedagogical processes that impact the vocational learners' development of skills and expertise. Further, it highlights how the vocational training at the Family Workshop embeds a "workplace curriculum" (Billett 2011, pp. 224-6) in the day-to-day practices of the Workshop. The data show clear evidence of how the Master and skilled workers and the vocational learners engaged in teaching and learning practices as they worked. This is significant as the family workshops are largely dismissed as a part of the VET system in Vietnam, which provides neither processes for learners to have their skills and knowledge acknowledged formally nor any pathways to formal institutional learning. These vocational learners are engaged in processes that may be recognised as contemporary ways of thinking about teaching and learning, that is, they involve authentic learning and assessment, along with opportunities for work-based learning (Billett 2011). Largely absent in the past from formal VET provision, these authentic and work-based pedagogical processes are now being encouraged in formal vocational institutions in Vietnam. By highlighting the work processes at the Family Workshop as a pedagogically appropriate for the vocational learners, it is hoped this study will contribute to future policy directions in which aspects of the Family Workshops are incorporated into formal institutions and recognition pathways are opened up for the vocational learners of the Workshops.

9.3 Implications of the research findings

The research findings raise important implications for the future development of VET in Vietnam. With modernisation and integration into the global economy imminent, Vietnam needs to reform its vocational education and training systems in order to provide the high quality workforce it needs to meet the associated challenges. Chapter 2 of this thesis, which is the reproduced book chapter "Vocational Education and

Training in Vietnam" (Tien Thi Hanh Ho 2014) based on this study, makes suggestions for the reforms of VET in Vietnam. These are:

- Restructuring the VET management system to reduce the overlapping duties among ministries and agencies. The complexity in management at a certain level is a barrier for financial management, to attracting foreign investments and to setting up linkages with enterprises as well as to improving the training quality.
- Establishing a national skill standard set and national qualification system in order to get recognition from the region and the world and to offer qualified labour forces for national as well as international demands. Achieving regional and international recognition will build up mobility and flexibility for vocational learners and also help to increase the number of VET participants.
- Enlarging the linkage with enterprises. This is important to assist students find jobs and lowering the burden among training providers. Due to the disconnection between the training providers and enterprises, training quality has not met the needs of society and employers. Enterprises are a key beneficiary of skilled labour and hence have a direct interest in skills training.
- Raising public awareness of VET to Vietnamese people to highlight the importance of vocational education in the society. The government needs to reconsider the balance between investments in vocational and academic institutions, and step up campaigns to familiarise secondary and high school students with the benefits of vocational training (ADB evaluation report 2013) because an academic education is still a preferred choice for students and their families compared with VET. Lower-performance students who cannot have access to the university level have to pursue VET. It is the lower-performance at VET entrance that influences VET outputs. Vocational qualifications systems have the potential to improve the link between education and work, to set up new pathways from education into employment and to reduce barriers to learning, for example, by using new forms of pedagogy and assessment, setting up appropriate standards for the teaching workforce which requires both

pedagogical and industrial expert, setting up authentic learning environments to ensure confidence in VET qualifications and add to the value of VET in Vietnam.

- Increasing the budget for vocational education, particularly in developing infrastructure and improving teaching facilities. Indeed, although the budget for VET increases yearly corresponding to the GDP, the investment for VET still constituted only 0.45 per cent of GDP in 2011 (Vietnam TVET report 2011, 2013).
- Having support policies and strategies to attract foreign investments in vocational education with the purpose of improving the quality of vocational training, teaching and management staff, curriculum and so on. Such policies must be practical and powerful enough to increase the attraction of vocational learners.

Finally, it is important to set up more effective linkages between formal and non-formal education, as well as informal learning, to offer vocational learners opportunities to improve their practical skills and theoretical knowledge. This is especially necessary for VET in Vietnam. While formal education is highly regarded in Vietnamese culture and tradition, the concept of informal learning in VET is still abstract and ambiguous. The draft Education Development Strategy 2011-2020 (MOET 2010b) calls for diversification, standardisation and specialisation of the national education system. However, in the implementation there is still much to be done. The relationship between modes of VET education should be made effective.

It will bring a bright future for vocational learners at family workshops if they have the chance to get a qualification at a vocational institute. This should be recognised and clearly articulated in official documents related to VET in Vietnam. This can contribute to labour mobility and lift the social expectation of VET in Vietnam (Tien Thi Hanh Ho 2014, pp. 224-6).

9.4 Improvements to VET pedagogical practices and frameworks: Development of Vietnamese VET pedagogy

In addition to the reforms suggested above, the implications of the research findings for improvements to VET pedagogical practices and frameworks is to be outlined in order to focus on the need to improve VET pedagogical practices in ways that contribute to the integration, modernisation and industrialisation aims of the Vietnamese national reforms.

9.5 Development of Vietnamese VET pedagogy

The research findings offer a vivid picture of VET pedagogical practices in Vietnam. The findings also reveal some tensions between current practices and the requirements of a "modern" VET system for producing workers for the globalised economy. Teaching methods are largely still traditional, teacher-centred approaches, with rote learning and theory learning reflecting the Confucian and other traditional influences. A shift from teacher-centred methods to learner-centred teaching may not be easy to bring about successfully. It will take time and thorough preparation to reduce the tensions of modernisation that beleaguer VET practices in Vietnam (Tran Thi Tuyet 2014b). In addition, as mentioned in Chapter 2, some Vietnamese scholars (e.g., Pham Thi Hong Thanh 2008; Phan Le Ha 2014) argue that learner-centred teaching is impossible to perform well in this current context.

There is a need therefore to develop a new "Vietnamese VET pedagogy" that adopts and adapts contemporary international influences. This VET pedagogy would use what has been described in this study as the Vietnamisation process, which is ensures that new VET pedagogies would be suited to Vietnamese historical and political situations and their layers of cultural influences – Confucian, French, Soviet and Western. The challenge will be to develop a fluid and effective combination of didactic pedagogies that emphasise theory over practice and more facilitative pedagogies to develop skills for employability, team work, communication and self-study. Further,

the Vietnamese VET pedagogy will need to be responsive to the dual challenges of incorporating the demands of a market economy and the socialist model.

A key part of this emerging Vietnamese VET pedagogy will be a different balance between theory-based classes and work experience. The findings of this study indicate the strength of the current emphasis on theory-based delivery, and the lack of opportunities for authentic workshop learning and even fewer for work-based learning.

Similarly, a shift will be required in the role of the learners if they are to engage in these new pedagogical practices and acquire the employability skills described above. The study found that the participating students/vocational learners were predominantly passive learners who followed orders or guidance of the Master/skilled workers or other teachers. Participation in the new pedagogical practices will require active and collaborative learners who accept a shift from being dependent learners, who rely on their teachers for knowledge and skills, to independent individuals. This will be a challenge for Vietnamese learners who have been characterised as students who "learn purposely to pass exams to achieve a high mark, without actually gaining in-depth learning" (Nguyen Cao Thanh 2012, p. 152). Learning by rote and rewriting on examination papers what they have learned cannot indicate whether learners are skilled to meet the demands of a modernised global workforce. Changing the awareness of learners will be a necessary step in the renovation of VET pedagogical practices. This significant shift will need time and thorough preparation. The development and implementation process of Vietnamese VET pedagogy needs to ensure that teachers and learners are supported in this major transition.

9.6 Future research

The previous section outlined the most important recommendations of this study. This section gives examples of further research questions that arise from some of the findings.

- The pedagogical practices in this research are investigated in the Vietnamese context with an adapted conceptual framework. Does VET in other non-Western cultures produce the same pedagogical practices? Does moral education play an important role in vocational education in other cultures?
- This research explores Vietnamisation in the practices of teaching and learning. Elements of a cultural process in this Vietnamisation were not the focus of this research. Therefore, could further research explore the concept of culture in Vietnamisation?
- How can VET in Vietnam better prepare students for the world of work? How should curricula be allocated for a balance of technical skills and general activities?
- A focus for further research could be VET teachers' values, beliefs and identity and how these are challenged within the context of integration, modernisation and industrialisation in Vietnam. To what degree can the current teachers accept the changes in thinking and acting as modern teachers with teaching practices that will fit well with student changes (e.g., autonomy and self-direction)? Does the current low status of VET and VET teachers influence teacher and student interest in reforming VET pedagogical practices?
- As presented in Chapter 7, a number of emerging issues in family workshops could be explored further. For example, how can family workshops fit in the VET modernisation process? And, how can family workshops be included in the formal system of VET in Vietnam?

9.7 Conclusion

This research into the pedagogical practices of VET institutions and a family workshop in Vietnam is timely. As Vietnam faces the challenges of integrating into the international and regional community through its government's modernisation and industrialisation policies and strategies, the vocational and education and training system has come into focus. Skilling its workforce to participate in the global economy has placed new challenges on the Vietnam VET system.

The empirically-based rich descriptions of pedagogical practices in a government-run VET College, a former Western-funded and Western-run College and a Family Workshop highlight the important tensions and challenges faced by administrators, teachers and students. All three need to grapple with the dual goals of integrating into the international and regional community through modernisation and industrialisation by 2020, while still preserving Vietnamese traditional values and culture. These co-existing goals are reflected in VET pedagogical practices that have been examined in this research. Within VET, these tensions are apparent in a number of ways. For example, they can be seen in teachers' attempts to include ICT in their teaching and to become more learner-centred, while continuing to work in a highly centralised and teacher-focused system. On the one hand VET teachers are encouraged to apply new teaching methods, but on the other hand, Confucian traditional values and culture in classrooms and workshops are very much present.

The thesis, through the analysis using the "Investigating Vietnamese VET Pedagogical Practices Framework", provides many specific examples of the current pedagogical practices and these ongoing tensions and challenges. These tensions and challenges are contributed to by the layers of historical influences over centuries – with the legacies of the Confucian, French, Soviet and more recent Western influences all remaining in what is now Vietnamese VET pedagogical practices. The application of the concept of Vietnamisation (Tran Hoa Phuong's research (1998) to VET opens up new ways of understanding this texture of historical influences – and in particular, the ways in which Vietnamese vocational education and training systems have incorporated these influences but have continued to maintain the Vietnamese character – evidence of the "integration without dissolution" (Anh Huyen 2014, p. 1) slogan widely used in Vietnam.

In contributing to a very small but growing body of research on VET in Vietnam this research provides guidance to policy makers as well as college administrators and teachers in their journey to a very different world of vocational education and training in the 21st century in Vietnam. It highlights the pedagogical practices within formal

VET institutions striving to balance the traditional emphasis on theory-based learning with calls for more work-based opportunities for students, the development of employability skills and the maintenance of the general and moral education components of the curriculum. A novel part of the research is the investigation and identification of pedagogical practices in a traditional Family Workshop. This is an area of vocational education which has been largely overlooked by researchers and policy makers. The evidence of a "workplace curriculum" (Billett 2011) and a clear role for the Master and skilled workers as "teachers" highlights the potential to recognise these authentic and work-based experiences.

The findings of this research suggest a need to improve VET pedagogical practices by developing a "Vietnamese VET pedagogy" which adopts and adapts the ever-present international influences. Importantly, it calls for refining a fluid and efficient combination between didactic teaching – emphasising theory over practice – with a more facilitative pedagogy, developing employability skills, excellent teamwork skills, communication skills and self-study skills. At the same time, a shift in the role of the learners will be required for them to engage in these new pedagogical practices as well as to acquire employability skills. The findings in relation to the family workshops further suggest the need to develop effective ways of incorporating these learners into the Vietnamese VET system for the future.

APPENDICES

Appendix 1: Participant Information Sheet

PARTICIPANT INFORMATION SHEET FOR STUDENTS/APPRENTICES
THEORISING VOCATIONAL LEARNING IN VIETNAM
(UTS HREC REF NO. 2012-401A**)**
(Note: The title has been approved for changing into Pedagogical Practices of Vocational Education in Vietnam)

WHO IS DOING THE RESEARCH?
My name is HO THI HANH TIEN and I am a doctoral student at the Research Centre for Learning and Change, Faculty of Arts and Social Sciences, University of Technology Sydney. My supervisors are Professor Nicky Solomon and Rd. Ann Reich. I also work at Hue Industrial College, Hue City, Vietnam.

WHAT IS THIS RESEARCH ABOUT?
This research aims to investigate the pedagogical practices of vocational learning in Vietnam, similarities and differences of vocational learning across settings, and the theories underpin its practices. It will focus on vocational learning in three different kinds of institutions – a government vocational college, a foreign-invested vocational learning and a family workshop in the central area of Vietnam. By doing that, I hope to develop a rich description of the similarities and differences of vocational learning in various sites, to raise the awareness and understanding of non-formal vocational learning, and articulate theoretical foundation on teaching and learning in Vocational Education and Training (VET) across settings in Vietnam.

IF I SAY YES, WHAT WILL IT INVOLVE?
I will ask you to:

- Take part in an interview to get your ideas about VET policies, VET teaching and learning, suggestions on improving vocational learning. This interview will take about 20 - 30 minutes at your workplace, at a time that suits you. You can refuse to answers some questions if you don't want to. I will record the interview and transcript it. A copy of this transcript will be sent to you for checking and making changes if appropriate.
- Let me observe how learning and teaching and learning from each other occur in your class and/or workshop.

ARE THERE ANY RISKS/INCONVENIENCE?

There are very few if any risks since the research has been carefully designed. However, it is possible that it may feel a little self-conscious about being recorded in an interview. You may also be concerned about being possibly identified in any material that is published. This is natural and I understand these concerns. In relation to confidentiality, pseudonyms will be used in any publications and I will make every effort to protect participants' privacy. I recognise that it may take a little while for you to feel relaxed with me. Please be assured that this research has no evaluation purpose.

WHY HAVE I BEEN ASKED?
You are the person who proposes and controls policies, strategies and programs on vocational training development and you work at the kind of college we are interested in. Your role as a student is ideal for me to get information relating to vocational learning, learning from each other and suggestions for improving VET pedagogical practices at your college/workshop.

DO I HAVE TO SAY YES?
You don't have to say yes. Your participation in the research is voluntary.

WHAT WILL HAPPEN IF I SAY NO?
Nothing. I will thank you for your time so far and won't contact you about this research again.

IF I SAY YES, CAN I CHANGE MY MIND LATER?
You can change your mind at any time and you don't have to say why. I will thank you for your time so far and won't contact you about this research again.

WHAT IF I HAVE CONCERNS OR A COMPLAINT?
If you have concerns about the research that you think my supervisors and I can help you with, please feel free to contact me at tien.ho@student.uts.edu.au.

If you would like to talk to someone who is not connected with the research, you may contact the Research Ethics Officer on 02 9514 9772, and quote this number UTS HREC REF NO. 2012-401A or the local contact person: Rd. Ton Nu Nhu Huong, Dean, Faculty of English, Hue University - College of Foreign Languages, Tel: +84.54.3846970 or email: tnnhuong@hueuni.edu.vn.

PHIẾU THÔNG TIN
(Dành cho sinh viên/người học nghề)
XÂY DỰNG NỀN TẢNG LÝ THUYẾT HỌC NGHỀ Ở VIỆTNAM
AI THỰC HIỆN NGHIÊN CỨU NÀY?
Tôi là Hồ Thị Hạnh Tiên, nghiên cứu sinh của Trung tâm Nghiên cứu Học tập và Đổi mới, Khoa Khoa học Xã hội và Nhân văn, Trường Đại học Công nghệ Sydney. Đề án nghiên cứu này được thực hiện dưới sự hướng dẫn của Giáo sư Nicky Solomon và Tiến sĩ Ann Reich.

NÔI DUNG NGHIÊN CỨU VỀ CÁI GÌ ?
Đề án nghiên cứu nhằm tìm hiểu phương pháp dạy và học nghề ở Việt Nam và học nghề giữa các cơ sở đào tạo chính quy và không chính quy khác nhau như thế nào. Ngoài ra, đề án muốn tìm hiểu các lý thuyết học tập nào đang được vận dụng trong dạy va học nghề. Đề án sẽ tập trung nghiên cứu vào 3 cơ sở dạy nghề khác nhau: trường nghề của nhà nước, trường nghề được đầu tư từ nước ngoài và cơ sở dạy nghề ngoài xã hộ ở miền Trung Việt Nam.

NẾU TÔI ĐỒNG Ý, TÔI SẼ LÀM GÌ?
Tôi sẽ mời bạn tham gia cuộc phỏng vấn riêng để tìm hiểu quan điểm của bạn về học nghề. Cuộc phỏng vấn dự đinh sẽ kéo dài trong khoảng 20 đến 30 phút tại nơi làm việc của bạn với thời gian nào thích hợp nhất cho bạn. Bạn có thể không phải trả lời tất cả các câu hỏi nếu bạn không muốn. Tôi sẽ ghi âm cuộc phỏng vấn và ghi chép lại. Bản sao nội dung ghi âm sẽ được gởi đến bạn để kiểm tra và điều chỉnh nội dung nếu cần.

CÓ RỦI RO/BẤT TIỆN GÌ KHÔNG?
Hầu như sẽ không có rủi ro nào lớn xảy ra vì đề án nghiên cứu đã được xem xét và thiết kế một cách cẩn thận. Tuy nhiên, có thể ảnh hưởng đến danh tiếng của trường/ xưởng vì mọi người có thể nhận ra trường/ xưởng đó hoặc người tham gia. Điều này khó tránh khỏi vì không có nhiểu trường đào tạo nghề ở miền Trung Việt Nam. Do dó, tôi sẽ cân bằng các kết quả thu được một cách thận trọng, chính xác tránh ảnh hưởng đến trường/Xưởng trong bất cứ ấn phẩm xuất bản nảo của tôi. Tôi hứa sẽ giữ bí mật các thông tin liên quan đến người tham gia cũng như các dữ liệu lien quan khác. Tuy nhiên, thật khó để đảm bảo bí mật 100% với những người quen bạn và biết đến trường/xưởng của bạn.

TẠI SAO MỜI TÔI THAM GIA?
Bạn là người đang tham gia học nghề tại trường mà đề tài nghiên cứu đang quan tâm đến. Vì thế bạn có thể giúp chúng tôi bằng cách tham gia vào cuộc phỏng vấn riêng trong khoảng 20 - 30 phút về việc học nghề, học từ bạn bè, học nhóm, mối quan hệ giữa giáo viên/người hướng dẫn và sinh viên và các ý kiến đề xuất của bạn cho việc nâng cao chất lượng đào tạo nghề cũng như cách dạy và học nghề.

TÔI CÓ PHẢI BUỘC ĐỔNG Ý KHÔNG ?
Bạn không cần buộc phải đồng ý. Việc tham gia của bạn hoàn toàn tự nguyện.

ĐIỀU GÌ SẼ XẢY RA NẾU TÔI TRẢ LỜI KHÔNG?
Không có gì cả. Tôi sẽ cám ơn bạn đã dành thời gian cho tôi và sẽ không liên lạc với bạn để đề cấp đến đề án này nữa.

NẾU TÔI ĐỒNG Ý, SAU NÀY TÔI CÓ THỂ ĐỔI Ý ĐƯỢC KHÔNG?
Bạn có thể thay đổi ý định bất cứ lúc nào và không cần giải thích tại sao. Tôi sẽ cám ơn bạn đã dành thời gian cho tôi và sẽ không liên lạc với bạn để đề cấp đến đề án này nữa.

NẾU TÔI CÓ THẮC MẮC GÌ HAY PHÀN NÀN GÌ, TÔI PHẢI LÀM SAO?
Nếu bạn có bấy cứ thắc mắc nào liên quan đến đề án nghiên cứu mà bạn nghĩ các giáo sư hướng dẫn tôi hoặc tôi có thể giải đáo được, xin vui lòng liên hệ tôi qua email tien.ho@student.uts.edu.au.

Nếu bạn muốn nói chuyện với người nào không lien quan trực tiếp đến đề án nghiên cứu này, bạn có thể liên lạc chuyên viên Nghiên cứu đạo đức, số điện thoại 02 9514 9772, và nêu số tham chiếu: ……. Hoặc người đại diện ở địa phương: Tiến sĩ Tôn Nữ Như Hương, Trưởng Khoa Tiếng Anh, Đại học Huế - Trường Đại học Ngoại Ngữ, số điện thoại +84 54 3846970 hay email: tnnhuong@hueuni.edu.vn.

Appendix 2: Consent Forms for Participants

CONSENT FORM - COLLEGE MANAGERS
(Note: The title has been approved for changing into Pedagogical Practices of Vocational Education in Vietnam)

I _____ agree to participate in the research project *Theorising Vocational Learning in Vietnam* Ref. No. UTS HREC REF NO. 2012-401A being conducted by HO Thi Hanh Tien, (Room CB10.05.107.22, Faculty of Arts and Social Sciences, telephone number: +61.2.9451 8387, email: tien.ho@student.uts.edu.vn) of the University of Technology, Sydney for her PhD degree.

I understand that the purpose of this study is to examine the pedagogical practices of vocational learning in Vietnam, how they vary across settings, and the theories underpin its practices. This research project will focus on vocational learning in three different kinds of institutions – a government vocational college, a foreign-invested vocational learning and a family workshop in the central area of Vietnam.

I understand that I have been asked to participate in this research because I am the person who proposes and controls policies, strategies and programs on vocational training development, and that my participation in this research will take part in an individual interview of about 20-30 minutes about strategies and policies, suggestions for improving vocational training as well as pedagogical practices in vocational education and training. I understand:

- I do not have responsibility to answer all questions given during the interview.
- The interview will be audio-recorded.
- I will receive a transcript of my interview to check and make any possible changes if appropriate.
- If I wish to confirm the researcher's identity or express any concerns, I can contact Rd. Ton Nu Nhu Huong, Dean, Faculty of English, Hue University - College of Foreign Languages, at +84.54.3846970 or her email (tnnhuong@hueuni.edu.vn).

I am aware that I can contact Ms Ho Thi Hanh Tien ( ) or her supervisors Prof. Nicky Solomon (nicky.solomon@uts.edu.au) and Dr Ann Reich (ann.reich@uts.edu.au) if I have any concerns about the research. I also understand that I am free to withdraw my participation from this research project at any time I wish, without consequences, and without giving a reason.

I agree that Mos. Ho Thi Hanh Tien has answered all my questions fully and clearly.

I agree that the research data gathered from this project may be published in a form that does not identify me in any way.

_____ ___/___/___
Signature (participant)

_____ ___/___/___
Signature (researcher or delegate)

NOTE:
This study has been approved by the University of Technology, Sydney Human Research Ethics Committee. If you have any complaints or reservations about any aspect of your participation in this research which you cannot resolve with the researcher, you may contact the Ethics Committee through the Research Ethics Officer (ph: +61 2 9514 9772 Research.Ethics@uts.edu.au) and quote the UTS HREC reference number. Any complaint you make will be treated in confidence and investigated fully and you will be informed of the outcome.

BẢN THỎA THUẬN
(Dành cho lãnh đạo)

Tôi tên là_____, đồng ý tham gia vào đề án nghiên cứu "Xây dựng nền tảng lý thuyết học nghề ở ViệtNam", số tham: chiếu UTS HREC REF NO. 2012-401A. Đề án là đề tài nghiên cứu cấp bậc Tiến sĩ, được thực hiện bởi Cô Hồ Thị Hạnh Tiên (Khoa Khoa hoc xã hội và nhân văn, Số điện thoại: + 84 54 3527974, email:), Trường Đại học Công nghệ Sydney.

Tôi hiểu mục đích của đề án nghiên cứu nhằm tìm hiểu phương pháp dạy và học nghề ở Việt Nam và học nghề giữa các cơ sở đào tạo chính quy và không chính quy khác nhau như thế nào. Ngoài ra, đề án muốn tìm hiểu các lý thuyết học tập nào đang được vận dụng trong dạy và học nghề. Đề án sẽ tập trung nghiên cứu vào 3 cơ sở dạy nghề khác nhau: trường nghề của nhà nước, trường nghề được đầu tư từ nước ngoài và cơ sở dạy nghề ngoài xã hội ở miền Trung Việt Nam.

Tôi hiểu rằng tôi được mời tham gia đề án này vì tôi là người quản lý và đề ra các chính sách, chiến lược phát triển đào tạo nghề ở trường tôi. Tôi sẽ tham gia cuộc phỏng vấn riêng trong khoảng 20 - 30 phút. Tôi hiểu rằng:

- Tôi không có trách nhiệm phải trả lời tất cả các câu hỏi đưa ra trong buổi phỏng vấn
- Cuộc phỏng vấn sẽ được ghi âm lại
- Tôi sẽ nhận được bản ghi nội dung phỏng vấn để kiểm tra và bổ sung sửa đổi cần thiết nếu có.
- Nếu tôi muốn xác nhận nhân thân hay bày tỏ bất kỳ lo ngại nào, tôi có thể liên lạc Tiến sĩ Tôn Nữ Như Hương, Trưởng Khoa Tiếng Anh, Đại học Huế - Trường Đại học Ngoại Ngữ, số điện thoại +84.54.3846970 hay email (tnnhuong@hueuni.edu.vn).

Tôi biết rằng tôi có thể liên lạc cô Hồ Thị Hạnh Tiên hay giáo sư Nicky Solomon, hay Tiến sĩ Ann Reich, giáo sư hướng dẫn của cô ấy nếu tôi có bất kỳ thắc mắc nào liên quan đến đề án nghiên cứu. Tôi cũng hiểu tôi có thể không tham gia đề án nghiên cứu này nếu tôi muốn và nó sẽ không có bất kỳ ảnh hưởng nào đến tôi và cũng không cần đưa ra bất cứ lý do nào.

Tôi đồng ý cô Hồ Thị Hạnh Tiên đã trả lời các câu hỏi của tôi đầy đủ và rõ ràng.

Tôi đồng ý các dữ liệu thu thập được từ đề án này có thể sẽ được xuất bản và không đề cập đến tên của tôi dưới mọi hình thức.

_____ ____/____/____

Chữ ký (Người tham gia)

_____ ____/____/____
Chữ ký (Nghiên cứu sinh hoặc người ủy quyền)

GHI CHÚ:
Đề tài nghiên cứu này đã được Hội đồng nghiên cứu đạo đức con người, trường Đại học Công nghệ Sydney chấp thuận. Nếu có bấy kỳ phàn nàn gì hay bất kỳ hạn chế liên quan đến việc tham gia của bạn và bạn không thể giải quyết được vời nhà nghiên cứu, bạn có thể liên hệ Hôi đồng Đạo đức qua nhân viên đại diện của văn phòng (Số điện thoại: +61 2 9514 9772 Research.Ethics@uts.edu.au) và nêu rõ số tham chiếu của Hội đồng nghiên cứu đạo đức con người, trường Đại học Công nghệ Sydney. Bất kỳ phàn nàn nào bạn đưa ra đều được điều tra và xử lý một cách nghiêm túc và đảm bảo bí mật. Kết quả sẽ được thông báo đến bạn.

Appendix 3: Observation Template

UNIVERSITY OF TECHNOLOGY SYDNEY
Faculty of Arts and Social Sciences

CLASSROOM OBSERVATION/ DATA COLLECTION

Instructor's Name: Grade Level/Subject:
School: Date/Time:
Definition of Observation: The process of collecting data for the research project.
Directions: Data used for the research project's purposes must be documented on this form (lesson plan…).

CLASSROOM ENVIRONMENT	COMMENTS
1. How is the classroom arranged? - Where is the teacher sitting in relation to the class? - Can the chairs be moved if they want to work in small groups? - Is the arrangement different for the "theory " class compared to the " practical" class? 2. Does it provide an atmosphere conductive to learning consistent with school mission? (i.e.: follow established school discipline procedure)	
INSTRUCTOR'S PARTICIPATION To what extent did the instructor demonstrate the following behaviours:	
1. Is the content focused on general topics or the assessment? 2. Does the instructor: Strive to meet school goals? Assist students to develop productive work habits and study skills? Allow time for note taking? 3. How does the instructor assert his/her authority in the class? - Instructor talk time How long? The nature of their talk? 4. Does the instructor Ask questions or just talk "at" students?	

Encourage student questions/ discussion? Responded to nonverbal clues of confusion, boredom and curiosity 5. Does the instructor use technology to enhance productivity and professional practice? 6. Provided feedback that gave students direction for improvement 7. Interacted with students working in small groups during the class session (at workshop) 8. Encouraged or required students' engagement in out of class activities related to the lesson (i.e.: work with other students, service learning, email communication with instructor…?) 9. What "technologies" / artefacts does the instructor use? - Chalk/ whiteboard/ - Computer use - How does the instructor use them?	
STUDENT'S PARTICIPANTS	
- What do students say? - Do they only respond to questions from teachers? - Do they ask questions? - Do they make comments? - Is there class discussion? - What authority does the student have in the classroom?	

What forms of resistance? e.g., Talking; disrupting the class … 9. What "technologies" / artefacts do students use and how often? - Chalk/ blackboard - Student computer use - Small-group activities - Student presentations - In class writing - Performance tasks - Experienced learning (workshops) - Teacher - student shared responsibility (seminar, discussion at workshop) - How does the instructor use them?	
STUDENT - STUDENT RELATIONSHIP	
- Do students talk to each other about the lesson; - Do students assist each other to work out problems? - How long does student-student interaction happen in classroom (at workshops) and how often	

Appendix 4: Interview Schedules – Staff Sample

INTERVIEW SCHEDULE - STAFF
Check that staff
Kiểm tra với giáo viên:

- Has provided an information sheet and informed a voluntary consent form

Đã được cung cấp phiếu thông tin và thong báo về tính tự nguyện tham gia

- Agrees to be audio-taped

Đồng ý cho ghi âm

- Is assured his/her identity will not be reveal in publications or to anyone else

Đảm bảo thông tin

- Understands the limitations to confidentiality

Đã hiểu những hạn chế về bí mật thông tin

- Has chosen a pseudonym they would like to use

Đã chọn tên bí mật muốn sử dụng

Background questions
Các câu hỏi thông tin cơ bản

- Age/Gender/Hometown

Tuổi/Giới tính/Quên quán

- What is your qualification? Where did you get the qualification?

Thầy/Cô đã sở hữu được bằng cấp của gì? Thầy cô đã học ở đâu?

- How were you trained to be a teacher? Where/when did it happen? How long did it take?

Thầy/cô được đào tạo thành giáo viên như thế nào? Ở đâu/Khi nào?Bao lâu?

- How long have you been working as a teacher?

Thầy/cô đã đi dạy được bao lâu?

- How long have you been here?
- Thầy/cô đã dạy ở đây được bao lâu?
- Will you still work as a teacher in future? (Why?/Why not?) (Where is your go?)

Thầy/cô vẫn sẽ làm giáo viên trong tương lại chứ? ..Tại sao có/Tại sao không? Dự kiến chuyển đi đâu?

- How many hours do you teach per week?

Thầy/cô dạy bao nhiêu giờ trong 1 tuần?

1. How do you prepare for a teaching period? How do you plan/structure for the lesson? What resources do you use? Is there any textbook you must follow? How do you use them?
Thầy/cô chuẩn bị cho 1 tiết dạy như thế nào? (Thầy/cô xây dựng 1 bài dạy như thế nào? Nguồn tài liệu nào được sử dụng? Có phải theo giáo trình nào không? Sử dụng các

tài liệu/giáo trình như thế nào?)

2. What teaching methods do you use in theory classes/workshops? (How would you describe your approach to/philosophy of teaching? How do you assess your students in theory classes/workshops? Are you interested in using new teaching methods? Is there any difference in the way of delivering general subjects and vocational/professional subjects? How is the pedagogy different in general education and professional knowledge are?; What were some barriers, if any, that you have encountered? (ex: lack of facilities …). How did you overcome the barriers?
Phương pháp dạy này thầy/cô sử dụng trong giờ lý thuyết/tại sưởng thực hành? Thầy cô miêu tả phương pháp dạy đó như thê nào? Thầy cô đánh giá sinh viên trong giừo lý thuyết và thực hành như thế nào? Thầy cô có quan tâm đến sử dụng phương pháp mớ trong giảng dạy không? Các dạy các môn chung và môn nghề có khác nhau khong? Nó khác nhau như thế nào? Những khó khăn nào thầy cô thường gặp phải (ví dụ thiếu thiết bị giảng dạy…), thầy cô khắc phục khó khăn đó như thế nào?

3. How do you typically interact with your students? (Ask questions? Discussion? Assist students when they need?)
Thầy cô thường giao tiếp với học sinh như thế nào? Hỏi câu hỏi? Thảo luận? Giúp học sinh khi cần?

4. Have you got any particular comments about the current curriculum? How does the reduction of knowledge amount within the curriculum effect your teaching/ the nature of pedagogy? Do you need to change your teaching methods? How have you adapted to the new curriculum? Did you have to take part in any workshops related the new curriculum? What are the good things of this new curriculum regarding the teaching and learning comparing with the old ones? How is the balance between general knowledge and professional knowledge in the new curriculum?
Thầy cô có nhận xét gì về chương trình học hiện nay? (Việc giảm thời lượng kiến thức có ảnh hưởng đến việc dạy/bản chất phương pháp dạy? Thầy cô cần thay đổi phương pháp giảng dạy hiện nay không? Thầy cô đã tiếp thu và chỉnh sửa chương trình mới như thế nào? Những điểm tốt của chương trình mới là gì khi so sánh với chương trình cũ? Thời lượng kiến thức chung và kiến thức chuyên ngành nên phân bố như thế nào cho phù hợp?

5. How have things changed over the time (in ten years/ five years) in your teaching and in your college? (curriculum, teaching and learning, assessment, management)?
Mọi thứ đã thay đổi như thế náo theo thời gian? (trong 10 năm qua? Năm năm qua?)

6. What professional development activities do you attend? (Is there any workshops or seminars organised to improve your teaching? How often do you have to attend a professional development workshop? Do you learn from your colleagues? In what way? When? How often?)

Thầy cô có tham gia các hoạt động nâng cao chuyên môn nghiệp vụ nào không? Có tổ chức tập huấn để nâng cao kỹ năng giảng dạy? Thầy cô thường tham dự không? Thầy cô có trao đổi học hỏi với bạn bè đồng nghiệp không? Bằng cách nào? Khi nảo? Thường xuyên không?

7. What historical influences do you see in curriculum, governance, teaching, learning? Do you see "Vietnamese factor" in those influences?
Những ảnh hưởng của lịch sử nào Thầy cô có thể nhìn thấy trong chương trình dạy, cách quản lý, dạy và học… Thầy cô có thấy yếu tố Việt Nam trong những ảnh hưởng đó không?

8. If you can make changes, what would you do to improve vocational learning and teaching in your college? In Vietnam???
Nếu có thay đổi, thầy cô muốn thay đổi các gì trong việc dạy nghề và học nghề ở trường thầy/cô?

Do you have any questions for me? Thầy/cô có câu hỏi nào không?

Thank you, Cám ơn thầy/ cô.
End – Hết

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